Korea TESOL Journal

KOTESOL
대한영어교육학회

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 12,000 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 4,000 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 seeks to 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 MELTA (Malaysian English Language Teaching Association), TEFLIN (Indonesia), CamTESOL (Cambodia), and ACTA (Australian Council of TESOL Associations).

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 nine active chapters throughout the nation: Busan-Gyeongnam, Daegu-Gyeongbuk, Daejeon-Chungcheong, Gangwon, Gwangju-Jeonnam, Jeonju-North Jeolla, Seoul, Suwon-Gyeonggi, and Yongin-Gyeonggi, as well as numerous international members. Members of Korea TESOL are from all parts of Korea and many parts of the world, thus providing Korea TESOL members the benefits of a multicultural membership.

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 various SIGs (Special Interest Groups) – Reflective Practice, Social Justice, Christian Teachers, Research, and Multimedia and CALL – which hold their own meetings and events.

Visit https://koreatesol.org/join-kotesol for membership information.

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Korea TESOL Journal

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 focuses on articles that are relevant and applicable to the Korean EFL context. The Journal publishes two issues annually.

As the Journal is 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. In its expanded scope, the Journal aims to support all scholars by welcoming research from early-career researchers to senior academics.

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Research Papers

The Transformation of Instruction: A Critical Analysis of Trends in English Education in 21st Century Korea

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This theoretical essay has been written to critically explore the manner in which English is used as a globalizing medium in South Korea's education sector. Attention is afforded to (a) the adoption of English as a medium of instruction at the tertiary level, (b) the practice of hiring native English speakers from non-education-related degree fields to perform as teachers, and (c) the use of English as a curricular device at the primary level to reinforce Korea's cultural heritage. The knowledge generated from this report may be used to extend critical discourse concerning the rise of English in East Asia, call attention to recruitment practices that further the de-professionalization of the second language teaching field, and challenge the inward emphasis placed on learning Korean cultural traditions in the English language classroom.

Keywords: Korea, English, English-medium instruction, native speaker, globalization, professionalism

INTRODUCTION

An intricate link exists between modernization, economic advancement, globalization, and English (I. Lee, 2011; Shim & Park, 2008). As the linguistic medium through which goods and services are exchanged transnationally in business, academic, research, and political sectors, English has in the 21st century become a gatekeeper, barring and permitting advancement in the globalized world (Chae, 2010; Chung & Choi, 2015). Despite its borderless quality, the association of English with the West – as opposed to a global language – fosters the perception of English being the language of the rich and powerful (Chung, 2011). Particularly in Korea, this association of wealth and power is made with

the United States of America.

While there is a "strong ethos in Korean society discouraging the integration of diverse languages" (Schenck, 2013, p. 3), the viewing of America as a nation to be emulated makes English a valuable resource (I. Lee, 2011). As Nam (2010) points out, English has "economic value" and "social status" (p. 2). Given its use as the de facto official language in more than 100 nations worldwide (see Ethnologue, 2014) as well as the dominant medium of communication of the International Monetary Fund, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, the United Nations, and the World Bank (Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 1996), the value of the English language stems from it being the "most widely taught, read, and spoken language...the world has ever known" (Kachru & Nelson, 2001, p. 9). As "the language in which the fate of most of the world's citizens is [directly or indirectly] decided" (Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 1996, p. 441), Korean officials have come to view English as a linguistic tool that cultivates economic and political clout (Chung, 2011; I. Lee, 2011). "Conceptually linked with modernity...and success" (Chung, 2011, p. 13), Korea has become a mass consumer of English with an annual national English education expenditure in excess of 10 billion USD (J. Lee, 2010). The dominance of English as a global lingua franca further deepens the prestige with which the language is held (Byun et al., 2011; J. H. Lee, 2013).

Numerous authors (e.g., J. Cho, 2015; B. Kim, 2015; J. S. Park, 2015; Piller & Cho, 2015) describe Korea as a nation with an "English fever" (youngeo-yeolpung [note: this can also be translated as "English frenzy"]). The term is used to refer to an insatiable desire to acquire English and become proficient in its use. In discussing this, Chung (2011) writes, "There is a certain pathological quality to the way Koreans desire English for themselves and for their offspring" (pp. 11–12). This quality is tangibly evinced in (a) *gireogi* ("wild geese") families "where mother and child take up residence in an English-speaking country while the father remains" behind to provide financial support (Nam, 2010, p. 5; see also Chung, 2011; Lee, Han, & McKerrow, 2010); (b) *jogi yuhak*, (early overseas education) where children live apart from their parents in English-speaking nations for the express purpose of developing native-like fluency during their early childhoods (B. Kim, 2015; Shim & Park, 2008); (c) English-immersion villages where native speakers assume the role of educational villagers (Lee et al., 2010; Shim & Park, 2008); and (d) a medical industry

specializing in surgical tongue-snipping to promote better English pronunciation (I. Lee, 2011; Shim & Park, 2008). Whether viewed with odium or acceptance, these practices are likely to continue as long as English is viewed as a medium for obtaining economic power (I. Lee, 2011; Nam, 2010).

Given the heightened sense of interconnectedness of the world's global market economy, the importance of English stems not so much from the euphony of the language but its economic implications. In Chae's (2010) dissertation investigating English learner satisfaction in Korea, the author emphasized the notion that "English is not optional, but...an indispensable requirement for economic progress in the present world" (p. 1). Lee et al. (2010) expound on this notion by putting forth a view of "the world as a battlefield, and English as a key weapon...for survival" (p. 342). As J. Lee (2010) and Byun et al. (2011) observe, the English language has moved beyond merely being a communicative tool to a valuable commodity that strengthens global influence and international competitiveness in the world market. The utility of English in the 21st century stems from it being a medium to the wider world that fosters "globalization at the national level and success at the individual level" (Chung, 2011, p. 123). Realizing this, a number of tertiary institutions in Korea have begun to offer courses in which English is used as the medium of instruction to further the "Englishization" (Byun et al., 2011, p. 434) of education, research, business, and national identity.

ENGLISH MEDIUM INSTRUCTION IN KOREA

To keep pace with the global emphasis on English as an international medium of communication, a number of countries in the expanding circle of English users have begun to offer English-medium instruction (EMI) courses at the tertiary level (for more on the circle of English users, see Clark, 2013; Crystal, 2003; Evans, 2010; Jenkins, 2009; Kachru, 1992; Kobayashi, 2011; K. Lee, 2012; Strevens, 1992). Typically, EMI courses are germane to nations having ethnically and culturally diverse populations (J. Lee, 2010). The demographic shift towards a multicultural Korea (Hunt, n.d.) has in recent years furthered the adoption of EMI courses and programs in Korea.

The movement towards EMI in Korea is not the result of a gradual progression. Emerging only a decade ago, EMI is one of the most recent and fastest spreading trends in Korea today (Jon, Lee, & Byun, 2014; J. H. Park, 2015). Once a pedagogical approach practiced only in the language classroom, EMI has become common practice in Korea's leading universities (Byun et al., 2011; Jon et al., 2014). Despite the challenges EMI brings, university administrators view EMI favorably due to (a) it raising their institutions' place in the university ranking system (J. H. Park, 2015); (b) the Korean government's promotion of English as a means of internationalizing higher education (Jon et al., 2014); and (c) the provision of financial incentives as high as 200 million Korean won (approx. 200,000 USD) to institutions offering EMI courses (Byun et al., 2011). In light of these benefits, a growing number of Korean universities have begun to include EMI courses in degree programs as electives and as required courses students must complete to graduate. The expansion of EMI in courses traditionally taught by Koreans in Korean accordingly necessitates providing faculty members with language training, recruiting new faculty members proficient in English and their content areas, and/or hiring English-speaking professors from abroad.

The dominance of English as academia's lingua franca furthers the expansion of EMI in Korean tertiary institutions. EMI courses are beneficial in that they (a) help Korean students develop international skills that can be used in business and academics; (b) attract international lecturers and students; and (c) permit the exchange of ideas "within the globalized academic world" (Byun et al., 2011, p. 432). Jon et al. (2014) trace the emergence of Korea as an international hub for higher education directly to the adoption of EMI in the 21st century. The findings from the study by Byun et al. (2011) provide statistical support to the aforementioned notion (see Table 1). By sheer numbers alone, the data in Table 1 reveals a positive correlation between the percentage of EMI courses offered at Korea University (KU) and the size of KU's international student and faculty bodies. One could then assume that EMI has an internationalizing effect on Korean institutions of higher learning. A rightful viewing of EMI as an upcoming educational trend in Korea, however, entails more than mere discussion of benefits but of its educational value and shortcomings as well.

EMI rests upon a number of assumptions within Korea's educational context. Byun et al. (2011) identifies these assumptions as follows: (a)

EMI simultaneously furthers language and content acquisition; (b) English literacy is assumed given students' extensive English language training in primary and secondary schools; and (c) Korean professors who earned their university degrees abroad in English-speaking nations will experience minimal difficulty facilitating EMI courses. The case study by Byun et al. (2011) at KU, however, discovered professors in EMI courses covered less content; an appreciable number of students experience difficulty in EMI courses, "student learning is compromised by the language used" (p. 441); little assistance is offered to students lacking the competencies needed to succeed in EMI courses; and "'linguistic proficiency' sometimes takes precedence over 'other qualifications of a good professor'" (p. 446). Furthermore, EMI courses are naturally diverse.

TABLE 1. Increases in EMI Courses and Foreign Students/Professors at KU

Category/Year	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EMI as proportion of all courses (%)	10.2	14.4	21.9	31.3	34.8	37.7	38.1
Total number of foreign students enrolled at KU	284	300	404	533	656	766	874
Undergraduate	169	161	208	223	209	303	223
Graduate	75	78	87	131	199	258	283
Exchange students	40	61	109	179	248	305	368
Number of foreign professors at KU	—	85	110	105	150	195	212
Tenure track	—	8	18	17	59	91	109
Non-tenure track/part-time	—	77	92	88	91	104	103

(From Byun et al., 2011)

While international diversity occurs at varying degrees in each course, diversity in level of English proficiency is a universal reality germane to each learner in every EMI course. In classes frequently having "more than 200 students in one room," the ability to provide meaningful teacher–student interaction, individual feedback, and opportunities for active participation are substantially reduced – in effect "stripping" EMI of its initial goal (i.e., "to improve students' English proficiency," [Byun et al., 2011, p. 445]). The findings of Byun et al.

(2011) also revealed that if classes were taught in Korean, students would need less preparation time and have a greater comprehension of the subject matter. Though stated differently, J. H. Park's (2015) statement concurs with the aforementioned finding: "Unless extra time is given and [the] content is made comprehensible for learners, their content comprehension is likely to be limited" (p. 19). Student interview responses such as "It's impossible to hold a discussion in English" (Byun et al., 2011, p. 440) reveal that opting for EMI entails more than merely changing languages, but also warrants considering students' language proficiency levels and having in place support systems for those experiencing difficulty.

While providing schools with an increased international student body and Korean students with additional opportunities to interact in English, making EMI courses mandatory presents a number of challenges for both students and faculty members. Concern often centers upon students' limited proficiencies; however, what warrants greater attention is the fact that EMI policies mandate non-native English-speaking teachers (i.e., Koreans) to teach in English to non-native English-speaking students (i.e., other Koreans). This in effect raises the question of whether content specialization is the focus or language proficiency. If the latter, then we can assume that an increase in English communication skills is perceived as being worth the decrease in content acquisition.

In contrast to EMI programs in other nations where the courses pertaining to the degree are all taught in English, Korean universities generally add EMI courses to existing programs. Byun et al. (2011) note that "depending upon the availability of instructors with relevant language skills, the language of instruction for the same course in the same academic department is frequently changed from one semester to the next" (p. 446). While it may be beneficial to teach select courses in English, "there are others for which understanding of the content will be jeopardized" (Byun et al., 2011, p. 446). The common understanding arising from Koreans' shared mother tongue is no longer homogenous, but has with the implementation of EMI been rendered heterogeneous in nature. Rather than questioning whether EMI should be implemented in Korean colleges and universities, the focus must center upon how to best implement it in ways that further students' educational advancement. One central means has been through the exclusive recruitment of native English-speaking teachers (NESTs).

NATIVE ENGLISH-SPEAKING TEACHERS IN KOREA

Korea's educational fever for English has in the 21st century created a unique market for a specific kind of teacher. In a paper deconstructing the ideologies of English in Korea's academia, media, and governmental policies, J. Lee (2010) rightly questions whether the "fluent speaker without teacher education" is more qualified to teach English than the "less fluent but trained teacher" (p. 252). The overwhelming response as evinced through recruiting practices, immigration policies, and educational provisions has been in favor of the former (see Chung, 2011; Collins, 2014; J. Lee, 2010). The exclusive hiring of NESTs is based on a theoretical perspective produced by the field of second language acquisition (SLA) that once viewed native speakers as being ideal language teachers (Porter, 2011). However, Krashen (1982), one of the most respected scholars in the SLA field, remarks,

> Simply being a native speaker of a language does not in itself qualify one as a teacher of that language.... Rather, the defining characteristic of a good language teacher is someone who can make input comprehensible to a non-native speaker, regardless of his or her level of competence in the target language. (p. 64)

In Asia, Krashen's counsel has gone unheeded. By subscribing to the idealization of the native speaker, Wang and Lin (2013) note that Asian governments (Korea by implication) have legitimized the recruitment and hiring of "unqualified and inexperienced NESTs in the profession of English language teaching" (p. 5). Furthering the de-professionalization of the English language-teaching field is the emphasis placed on recruiting certain groups of NESTs.

In the critical discourse analysis study by Ruecker and Ives (2015), among 59 websites for recruiting teachers in Northeast Asia (i.e., China, Japan, Korea, Taiwan), the ideal candidate consistently bore a number of reoccurring characteristics. Ruecker and Ives (2015) identify this candidate as "overwhelmingly depicted as a young, White, enthusiastic native speaker of English from a stable list of inner-circle countries" (p. 733). This imagery coincides with Chung's (2011) findings concerning the dominant depiction of English speakers in Korean educational media as "Caucasian, ha[ving] a North American accent, and originat[ing] from

the US, the UK, or Australia" (p. 118). While prospective candidates are required to be citizens of inner-circle countries and hold a bachelor's degree, the works of Collins (2014) and Ruecker and Ives (2015) reveal that the area of degree specialization is inconsequential and need not be related to education or language teaching. Wang and Lin (2013) expound on this notion in their documentary analysis of recruitment policies and teacher professionalization, the findings of which reveal "teaching qualification and experience are not required or prioritized" as characteristics NESTs need to possess (p. 12). Devaluing professionalism while simultaneously emphasizing country of nativity has created a booming industry where untrained native English speakers have become viable, yea, even the primary, candidates for filling language teacher positions in private academies, language institutes, public schools, and tertiary institutions in Korea (Nam, 2010).

Recruiters use a number of tactics to attract native speakers of English to Korea. Ruecker and Ives (2015) describe recruiter advertisements as generally consisting of "clever slogans, eye-catching images, and lighthearted videos that promise an exciting adventure for any native speaker of English looking for a new experience" (p. 750). Also listed in recruiters' advertisements are typical benefits such as yearly salary, free accommodation, free roundtrip airfare, vacation time, severance pay, and the opportunity to experience an exotic culture while teaching abroad (Collins, 2014; Ruecker & Ives, 2015). Benefits such as these are said to be particularly appealing to recent college graduates (Nam, 2010).

"Why Korea?" a central question in Collins' (2014) mixed methods biographical study among young NESTs in Korea, is one answered in a number of ways. Analysis of data obtained from 505 online survey respondents and 41 interviewees produced findings ranging from following a significant other to wanting to experience a change of careers. Figure 1, which provides a graphic illustration of NESTs' reasons for teaching English in Korea, has been included with Collins' written consent. The findings, as illustrated in Figure 1, reveal that 46.5% of Collins' (2014) respondents indicated "to travel overseas" as their "most important reason" (a cumulative total of 80.8% among the three reasons), with the next most important reasons being "to earn a higher income" (36% cumulative) and "there are no satisfactory jobs in my home country" (35.4% cumulative).
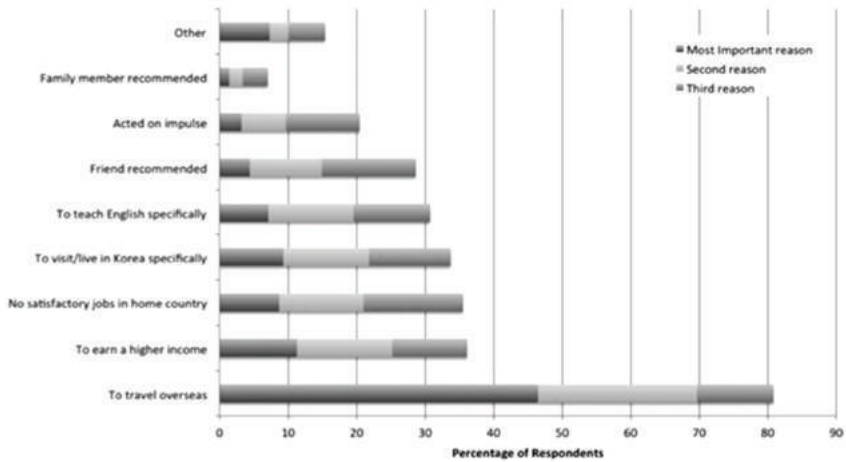
FIGURE 1. Most important reasons for teaching English in Korea. (Collins, 2014)

Wanting "to teach English," comparatively, was selected by only 7.1% of the respondents as the most important reason. Collins (2014) also discovered a number of respondents viewed teaching in Korea as a "solution" to their economic difficulties. Of the 546 participants in Collins' (2014) study, 54.8% had education-related debt with a mean average of $24,380 with an additional 31.2% having bank loans and credit card debt. A central finding of the study was that young adults who come to Korea to perform as NESTs are often driven by economic factors such as "unemployment or underemployment, and high levels of debt, usually associated with tertiary studies" (Collins, 2014, p. 40). Thus, we can assume an interest convergence exists between Korea's fever for English and NESTs' desire to pay off debts, which leads native English speakers to apply for, and be hired in, positions for which they are not qualified. Hence, Lauren (New Zealander, museum guide), Nadia (British, technical theatre major, bar actress), Jason (American, communications major, broadcaster), and Thomas (Canadian, anthropology major, museum worker) − Collins' (2014) interviewees − have benefited from policy provisions that make it possible for college graduates native to inner-circle nations to perform as English teachers in Korea regardless of experience or qualification. The study by Collins (2014) confirms that the presence of native English speakers in Korea often stems not from a "desire to teach English or be in South Korea

but rather because their education, which was not serving them particularly well in their origin countries, provide[s] them with almost guaranteed jobs and status in South Korea" (p. 48). Indeed, this would be unlikely in many other professional fields.

Nam's (2010) case study explored the effectiveness of native and non-native teachers in Korean schools. Sprinkled throughout the work are statements that concur with Collins (2014) writings, which portray NESTs as having "come to Korea to experience Asian culture or to make money rather than to educate children in Korea" (Nam, 2010, p. 6). While Nam acknowledges that there are trained, dedicated NESTs in Korea, a significant portion of those recruited are not (see also Yun, 2013). One NEST interviewee in Nam's (2010) study declared,

> I've met so many NESTs who I thought seemed unqualified to be teaching − NESTs who openly talked about their hatred for their students, coworkers, and Korea in general. There are NESTs who explained they were only teaching in Korea so they could party, have an easy job, and find a girlfriend[;] and...NESTs who were unknowingly teaching incorrect meanings of vocabulary and incorrect uses of grammar. (p. 192)

Rather than judging the unqualified, inexperienced native English speakers who assume the role "teacher," what needs critical assessment is a system of education that has systematically de-professionalized the language-teaching field by its recruitment policies. This is where Collins' (2013) and Nam's (2010) studies fall short: While showing the need for NESTs true to their calling, the authors fail to condemn a system of education that has perpetually sought to attract young, inexperienced college graduates from any field to teach language. Whether the subject is English, science, math, history, research, or the arts, hiring teachers with minimal experience, training, or qualifications retards student learning (Garcia, 2012; Guo, Connor, Yang, Roehrig, & Morrison, 2012; Libman, 2012).

Teachers are expected to perform professional tasks that necessitate the use of pedagogical principles to plan and deliver lessons, develop curriculum and teaching materials, and coach novice teachers (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013). While "professional training represents an essential part of teacher professionalism" (Wang & Lin, 2013, p. 6), the use of the term "native speaker" acts as a kind of legitimizer that founds

teacher authority on country of origin instead of qualification. TESOL (2006) responds to this in the following official statement: "The use of the labels 'native speaker' and 'nonnative speaker' in hiring criteria is misleading, as this labeling minimizes the formal education, linguistic expertise, teaching experience, and professional preparation of teachers" (para. 4). Hence, the assumption that NESTs are more capable than non-NESTs reveals an educational value system that prizes linguistic competence over professional training (Ruecker & Ives, 2015; Wang & Lin, 2013). Instead, it may be beneficial to view NESTs and non-NESTs as both possessing skills sets that, if collectively harnessed, could be instrumental in providing students with positive learning experiences.

NESTs and non-NESTs bring different strengths to the classroom. For one, NESTs have a keen awareness of common, acceptable language forms; idiomatic utterances; slang; and cultural and creative expressions germane to the target language society (He & Miller, 2011; Luksha & Solovova, 2006). It should also be noted that NESTs provide students with authentic opportunities to interact with inner-circle English language users in contexts where such exchanges would ordinarily not be possible. Comparatively, non-NESTs possess distinct advantages: They (a) have experienced learning a second or foreign language (Brown, 2007); (b) can use the students' mother tongue to further the teaching and learning process (Medgyes, 1992); (c) can "build better rapport with students" (Murtiana, 2011, p. 48); and (d) are more aware of the challenges students face when learning a second or foreign language (Luksha & Solovova, 2006). Oliviere (2012) writes that students with low proficiency levels benefit more from non-NESTs, whereas advanced students gain more from NESTs. While the above notions may be true, the assumption that native speakers are the ideal language teachers lingers (see Cakir & Demir, 2013; He & Miller, 2011). As Luksha and Solovova (2006) write, "English is big business..., [and] a foreign face" usually attracts more students than a qualified non-NEST (p. 98). Maintaining recruitment policies that frame "native English speakers as ideal English teachers regardless of their professional training and education background...is against the global trend of seeing qualifications and experience as the central component in the cultivation of teacher professionalism" (Wang & Lin, 2013, p. 13). If the ultimate goal of teaching is learning, the need for teachers competent in theory and practice is undeniable. As the recruitment of individuals with minimal training or experience to perform as practitioners in the architecture,

engineering, medical sciences, and technology fields would never be permissible, so too should education's work in ultimately determining society's future direction be carefully guarded so as to ensure the most productive future.

KOREA'S ENGLISH AGENDA

Viewing the transnational flow of culture, goods, information, and peoples between nations as the primary aspects of globalization fails to acknowledge the role English plays in blurring the proximal boundaries that once existed socially between people of different cultures, nationalities, and languages. In the same way as every other language, English is a relational tool that connects individuals to a wider world. According to K. Lee (2012), language is "the main instrument by which we construct and maintain our sense of personal and social identity" (p. 194). Similarly, Delgado and Stefancic (2012) write of language as being a tool of identification that makes interlocutors keenly aware of their relation to linguistic others, which in effect renders language "an essential part of culture and identity" (p. 133). With the rise of English as an increasingly favored medium of global communication, the Korean government has in the 21st century used the language as a globalizing vehicle that reaffirms its cultural heritage and national identity (Chung, 2011).

In no other time was this more evident than when former president Lee Myung-bak (2008-2013) held office. President Lee saw Korea's future as being inextricably linked to the degree to which its citizens acquired English proficiency. That English usage was framed as a "fluent-rich" and "not fluent-poor" dichotomy – with regard to the world's nations – and it furthered the view of English as being an indispensable medium for maintaining national success and global competitiveness (J. Lee, 2010; Lee et al., 2010). As a Korean proficient in English has greater worth than those having less developed abilities (Chung, 2011), the Lee administration sought to implement educational reforms furthering English usage as a means of achieving Korea's economic, political, and national objectives (J. Lee, 2010; Lee et al., 2010; Porter, 2011).

Whereas the primary objectives of language education are to develop linguistic fluency and multicultural competencies (K. Lee, 2012), the

objectives of the Korean Ministry of Education's seventh National English Curriculum (NEC) are presented in the literature as having a hidden agenda. The Chung (2011) study contains excerpts from the seventh NEC that explicitly state the two official goals were to develop (a) basic English communication skills, and (b) a new understanding of Korean culture by reflecting upon foreign cultures. While such goals seem to reflect the educational objectives of developing fluency in language and culture, Chung (2011) responds, "The ultimate goal of learning English is not to acquire knowledge of new and foreign cultures, but to newly appreciate the Korean culture and contribute to new Korean cultural creations" (p. 111). Thus, the seventh NEC aims to instill in students living in an increasingly fused world a distinctly Korean national identity (Porter, 2011).

Yausa (2010) makes a number of comparisons between English education in Korea and in Japan with a specific focus on the textbooks used. While containing a great deal of insightful information, Yausa (2010) points out two noteworthy points: (a) The central aim of Korea's English education programs is to develop in students the ability "to express themselves and exchange ideas in English" (p. 157), and (b) Korean English education programs focus on making "students...think about their way of living...[as a means of] cultivat[ing] their character" (p. 156). While trends in foreign/second language acquisition emphasize the importance of cultural awareness and pragmatic fluency (see e.g., Amaya, 2008; Byram, Gribkova, & Starkey, 2002; Carrio-Pastor, 2009; DeCapua & Wintergerst, 2004; Frank, 2013; Hunt, 2014), the studies of Yausa (2010), Chung (2011), and Porter (2011) portray Korea's English education programs as ultimately being internally focused.

Chung (2011) unabashedly declares, "The conclusive objective of primary English education is to build the linguistic and cultural foundation to eventually promote Korean culture to others" (p. 111). While initially inclined to disagree, reflection upon my five-year experience in Korean primary schools as an English teacher leads me to affirm Chung's (2011) statement as possessing a degree of truth. For example, during my period of service (2008-2013), the NEC for primary schools included instructional material focused not on narratives, events, practices, or values of cultural others, but on Korean history, folklore (e.g., "Heungbu and Nolbu"), holidays (e.g., Chuseok and Independence Day), national monuments (e.g., Dongdae-mun and Nam-san Tower), foods (e.g., *tteok-bokki* and *song-pyeon*), cultural modes of being, and

introducing these cultural aspects to foreign others. In effect, the NEC curriculum provides a platform for learning Korean culture through an English medium.

In addition to the instructional material having a predominantly inward "us" dimension, the studies of Hong and Halvorsen (2014) and I. Lee (2011) found that the information presented in Korea's English textbooks is often ethnocentric and discriminatory. For example, in the grounded theory study by I. Lee (2011), the author discovered that Korea's leading English textbook publishers tend to only discuss the positive qualities of the Western world and Japan while emphasizing negative elements found in the rest of Asia and Africa. In one example from a high school textbook chapter discussing endangered species, the Neungyul Yeongeo-sa publisher wrote,

> The number of people in Africa is increasing, so people cut down trees to sell the wood and to make new houses and farms. This means gorillas don't have many places to live and hunt for food. African countries are trying to protect the gorillas, but these countries are very poor and have many problems. (I. Lee, 2011, p. 53)

I. Lee (2011) observes, by depicting the non-Western world as "less respectful of the law, incapable of getting things done, resigned to social inequality, and lacking personal responsibility because of poor education" (I. Lee, 2011, p. 53), the shortcomings of foreign others reaffirms Korea's cultural heritage by instilling a sense of superiority and national pride.

Chung (2011) further identifies this sense of superiority by extracting statements from primary English textbooks produced by the Korean Ministry of Education. For example, it is stated in a third-grade textbook that "if you learn English you will be able to converse with friends from all over the world, and also inform them about our proud culture" (Chung, 2011, p. 114). A fourth-grade textbook suggests, "Let's become leaders in the global village's new millennium by studying English hard" (Chung, 2011, p. 114). A fifth-grade textbook encouragingly notes, "If you study English with confidence and joy, you will be able to pursue dreams towards the world and the future" (Chung, 2011, p. 115). A sixth-grade textbook questioningly asks, "Wouldn't it be great if you will be able to use English to share thoughts with children from around the world and you will be able to act on the world as your stage?" (Chung,

2011, p. 115). That language and its subsequent usage are not neutral, and they cast Korea's emphasis on English as having an agenda – an agenda encompassing economic, political, and social elements that reflects the Korean government's ideological commitment to become the "Seoul [Soul] of Asia" (i.e., a global leader in an English-speaking world [M. Cho, 2010; Chung, 2011; I. Lee, 2011; Porter, 2011]).

THOUGHTS ON "A NEW KOREA"

The promotion of EMI in tertiary institutions is a practice that has both benefits and consequences. While these typically center upon heightening communicative skills, internationalizing faculty and student bodies, and increasing language fluency, mandating EMI as the future of Korean higher education may be less ideal than it appears. Generally, people learn best in the language they first acquired, are most familiar with, and use most frequently (i.e., their mother tongue [for more on mother tongue-based instruction, see Nyika, 2015; Rosekrans, Sherris, & Chatry-Komarek, 2012; Walter & Dekker, 2011; Wa-Mbaleka, 2014, 2015). In Korea, this would undoubtedly be the Korean language. J. Lee (2010) writes, "For an EFL...country like Korea, where English is rarely used in everyday li[fe], to adopt...[EMI] is quite unusual and extreme" (p. 248). Korea's English education policies, then, have a "broader social and political" (I. Lee, 2011, p. 47) aim that reaches beyond mere language acquisition.

English, though reigning supreme among the world's linguistic hierarchy in the 20th and 21st century, is simply one of many languages. That English is associated with leading international organizations and superpowers such as Australia, Britain, and the United States results in the language embodying economic and political clout. As numerous authors point out (Ahn, 2013; E. Kim, 2000; Nam, 2010; Shim & Park, 2008), globalization is ultimately tied to English, and Korea's *segyehwa* (globalization) initiative is inextricably linked to maintaining economic security and global competitiveness – goals in which English plays a central role. The native English speaker thus becomes the quintessential means of achieving these goals.

The vast hiring of NESTs stems from the belief that they are superior sources of linguistic input "rather than a desire to provide

multicultural experiences or diverse perspectives in the classroom" (Schenck, 2013). This has resulted in an influx in the number of NESTs in Korean public and private educational institutions (see Dawe, 2013; Karpinski, 2010). Findings from the study by Collins (2014), however, reflect the conclusions from Yun's (2013) report, which reveal most NESTs as being unsuited for the positions they fill. Regrettably, students are often educational victims in courses taught by untrained NESTs whose teaching approaches are often based on trial and error (Nam, 2010). While it may not be in the best interest of the nation to bar all native English speakers without teacher credentials from teaching, there is an undeniable need for professional development rooted in heightening pedagogical competence. Accordingly, TESOL (2006) makes the following declaration: "Teaching skills, teaching experience, and professional preparation should be given as much weight as language proficiency" (para. 5). It stands to reason then that teacher professionalization – a necessary component furthering effective learning – can only be ensured through training (Nam, 2010; Wang & Lin, 2013).

As EMI rapidly expands within Korean institutions of learning, the need to provide teachers with opportunities for professional development plays a central role in ensuring students' right to receive the highest quality of education. As the present age can be characterized as one where knowledge is rapidly expanding, professional development opportunities can no longer be isolated to orientation sessions at the beginning of contractual periods; instead, teachers (i.e., NESTs and Korean EMI teachers) must be given opportunities to continually develop new skills, pedagogical approaches, and knowledge that may be used to help students succeed. Such goals may be achieved by

1. providing teachers with opportunities for continued professional development through periodic seminars, webinars, conferences, workshops, and training sessions;
2. offering education courses during the summer and winter breaks that emphasize pedagogical skills, TEFL content knowledge, and classroom management techniques;
3. encouraging teachers to participate in coaching/mentoring sessions;
4. scheduling periodic collegial visits;
5. making accessible publications (journals [e.g., *International Forum*, *Korea TESOL Journal*, *TESOL Quarterly*], reports,

books) that discuss current trends in education and language instruction;

6. encouraging teachers to contribute to their respective fields by reviewing books, writing novel works, or participating in research studies;

7. creating dialogic opportunities for NESTs and Korean EMI teachers to share ideas, strategies, techniques, and educational resources; and

8. encouraging teachers to become active members in professional associations related to education and/or TESOL.

CONCLUSION

The literature presented in the discussion above reveals that Korea has in the 21st century sought to create a new national identity by employing English as a globalizing medium (Chung, 2011; Lee et al., 2010; Porter, 2011). This is particularly in the education sector in regards to EMI, the recruitment of NESTs, and the hidden motives of the NEC. While English can be used as a means to dialogue and maintain a sense of national presence in an interconnected world, the extent to which English is idolized warrants question. That English is held in such high regard so as to (a) separate husband from wife and child from family for the express purpose of children acquiring native-like fluencies, (b) recruit poorly qualified native English speakers to perform as teachers, and (c) comprise content acquisition by implementing EMI in courses having a relatively homogenous student body reveal an imbalanced fixation with English, education, and advancement (see Hunt, 2015; Lee et al., 2010; Nam, 2010). Occurrences such as those aforementioned reveal that what is most needed is a thoughtful reassessment of the unique position English holds for Koreans and the lives they live.

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A "The" or the "A"? L2 Learner Problems and Patterns

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While definite and indefinite articles, and bare nouns with no articles have long proved to be notoriously problematic for Koreans and other English learners whose L1 lacks such a grammatical system, seemingly little progress has been made. Learners still struggle with these, and teachers often lack the linguistic awareness and resources for teaching them. Part of the problem is the traditional rule-based approaches to grammar that students have been subjected to, while our lack of linguistic understanding is another obstacle. More recent approaches in linguistics offer some new tools for investigating these grammatical conundrums. In this study, L1 and L2 essay corpora are compared, with an analysis that is guided by a cognitive linguistic approach to types of noun phrases. This approach leads to a unique way to understand, teach, and explain article and noun patterns, while it also leads to ways of breaking up these contents into manageable chunks, and some specific interactive classroom activities and tasks that can target specific noun phrase patterns and functions.

Keywords: definite and indefinite articles, determiners, noun phrases, cognitive linguistics, communicative language teaching

INTRODUCTION

English definite articles can indicate items that are previously mentioned, or otherwise known or inferrable to listeners (e.g., "the rock" in a known context), while indefinite articles indicate newly mentioned items in discourse ("a rock"). Unmarked or bare nouns with no articles, especially unmarked plurals, can indicate a generic meaning (e.g., "rocks"), and in the singular, so-called non-count nouns can refer to

materials ("the path is made of rock") or abstract concepts (e.g., "peace" or "feminism"). In addition to previous mention in context, a noun can be made more specific by a post-modifier phrase, that is, a prepositional phrase, relative clause, or other phrase after the noun (e.g., "the brick in the wall" or "the rock that fell on me").

Korean, Chinese, Japanese and other East Asian languages do not have article systems, and instead, the nuances that they express are inferred from context, expressed with other determiners (e.g., "this, that"), or are marked with noun class markers for definite countable noun concepts. For example, "one rock" can be expressed as *yi ge shí* in Chinese and as *dolmaengi han ge* in Korean, where *ge* is the noun counter for general objects in both languages, which indicates a single or specific known rock. Some languages like Korean sometimes express specificity with topic markers (*-un/-nun*) on nouns instead of subject markers (e.g., *dolmaengi nun*, "the rock" or "the rocks," can refer to an item that is assumed to be known or familiar, and thus, definite). The Korean subject markers (*-i/-ga*) can indicate new or generic nouns (e.g., *dolmaengi-ga*, "rocks" or "a rock"). However, topic and subject markers are not unambiguous markers of such meanings, as they generally indicate other nuances, e.g., topic markers often indicate contrast (Lee, 2008).

Articles belong to a larger syntactic category of determiners. The term "article" can be confusing (e.g., "*an* object" or "*a* short piece of writing") and not very meaningful, and the term "determiner" refers to other function words as well as articles. Thus, for this paper, the novel term "delimiter" is proposed as a clearer label for "article" (e.g., definite and indefinite *delimiters*). Nouns with no delimiters will be referred to as "unmarked nouns" or "bare nouns." After a brief survey of some previous studies, a data analysis is presented, followed by ideas for understanding, teaching, and practicing delimiter patterns.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The omission of both definite and indefinite delimiters when appropriate or required on nouns is one of the most common mistakes for Korean ESL learners (Cowan, 2008; H. Lee, 1997), and article omission may be due to the fact that unmarked nouns are the default or

norm in Korean (H. Lee, 1997). Omissions tend to occur more on nouns modified by adjectives than on unmodified nouns (e.g., "the hot sun"; cf. "the sun") (H. Lee, 1999). While most studies have focused on writing, article errors are commonly found also in Koreans' oral discourse, in ways that suggest L1 influence (H.-Y. Lee, 1996); for example, while learners often omitted delimiters or used the wrong one (*a/an* versus *the*), they frequently used delimiters with prefabricated expressions and collocations like "in the corner." Also problematic for Koreans are so-called social or cultural uses of definite articles (e.g., "the sun," "the White House," "play the piano"), situational or contextual uses that are inferrable to or familiar to listeners (e.g., "go to the pub, go to the hospital"), and associative uses for a familiar noun (e.g., "we went to a different pub, but the atmosphere was bad"), though again some improvement was found with increasing proficiency levels (Liu & Gleason, 2002). Accurate delimiter use may improve at higher proficiency levels, depending on the writing context (Park, 2008), but still remain problematic. However, overuse of *the* tends to increase from lower to intermediate proficiency levels and decrease at more advanced levels (Liu & Gleason, 2002).

These problems are also pervasive with other East Asian learners. Japanese learners may omit delimiters or use the wrong one (*a/an* versus *the*; Yamada & Matsuura, 1982), and Chinese learners similarly omit articles (Robertson, 2000). Chinese and Japanese learners have difficulty with generic and non-specific nouns (e.g., "lions live in savannas") (Snape, García Mayo, & Gürel, 2009). An error analysis of Chinese EFL writers showed that delimiter errors were the third-most-common error in their writings (behind lexical errors and verb tense errors), and the student writers were generally very aware of and troubled by such errors (Chen, 2002). Thai college writers make delimiter errors in a frequent but random manner, suggesting a lack of understanding of definiteness or specificity in the delimiter system, or how delimiters function differently from other determiners and adjectives (Gentner, 2016).

Among Koreans, delimiter difficulties can be explained by their learning methods. In various educational contexts in Korea, delimiters are taught in a traditional, prescriptive, rule-based approach (H. Lee, 1999), namely, with the four basic traditional rules, which fail to cover a number of examples and environments with varying delimiter usage: (a) *a/an* are used for nouns used for the first time, that is, when not known to the reader (first mention rule); (b) *the* is used for nouns

already named and known to the reader (subsequent mention rule); (c) *a/an* is used for singular count nouns and not plural nouns; and (d) *the* is used for one or more specific representatives of the noun, but not for plural or mass nouns referring generally to all representatives of the noun. Research has shown, however, that learners can benefit from instruction on delimiters, being made aware of delimiter patterns, and pedagogical intervention, for example, by means of systematic (and non-prescriptive) teaching of the delimiter system (Master, 1990), along with written assignments and feedback on errors (Master, 1994). Learners of various L1 backgrounds that lack delimiter systems have been found to benefit from corrective feedback.

However, it may not be entirely clear to teachers why students make many of their specific errors, or what specific nouns might be problematic. No known studies have examined more specific noun types other than general categories such as count, non-count, generic, and perhaps abstract nouns, in Korean learners' delimiter errors. Some preliminary research on Korean learner data from fill-in-the-blank grammaticality surveys indicate that specific noun types are problematic, such as post-modified nouns, abstract nouns, less common nouns, and nouns with multiple meanings (K. Lee, 2016). This research derives from cognitive semantics, which posits that grammatical forms, function, and usage are shaped in part by natural cognitive categories from human perception and cognition (Langacker, 2008; Taylor, 2002). Within this framework, some have posited that nouns can be classified or used in semantically different ways (Lyons, 1995; Talmy, 2000; Vendler, 1967), for example, nouns for materials (e.g., "coffee" or "wood"), objects and "things" (e.g., "a coffee," "a mug"), nouns referring to events ("a theft") or general activities (e.g., "jogging"), and abstract nouns (e.g., "feminism"). However, relatively little systematic research exists on these semantic factors in delimiter errors. For this purpose, a more detailed study of noun types and article errors is carried out on L1 and L2 writing samples, drawing from the cognitive linguistic framework.

The research hypotheses are as follows: (a) Lexical and semantic factors influence Korean delimiter errors (e.g., more semantically abstract and less common nouns are more error-prone), and (b) noun types such as post-modified noun phrases are more problematic for Koreans. After the analysis, teaching applications and techniques are discussed for Koreans and other East Asian learners.

EXPERIMENT

Two corpora of written texts were compared for article usage patterns. For the L1 corpus, the COCA corpus (Corpus of Contemporary American English; Gardner & Davies, 2013) was used, which contains academic and non-academic sub-copora of various genres. The academic subcorpus was used here, which consists of published academic journal articles and totals 103 million words. The L2 corpus consists of a collection of college and graduate school essays by ESL learners at a North American university (Cowan, Choi, & Kim, 2003). This corpus consists of 241,000 words at multiple levels: non-credit ESL students, undergraduate students, and graduate students. The non-credit students took writing courses in an intensive English program, and the college and graduate students took required ESL writing courses. The essay samples were collected from students' course assignments. Nouns were drawn from a list of the 570 most common English academic words needed for tertiary study (Coxhead, 2000); non-nouns and words not commonly used as nouns were removed, for a total of 269 potential nouns. The WordSmith Concord program[1] was used to search these corpora for these academic nouns; due to limitations of these programs, about one-third of the tokens in the COCA files were randomly sampled.

Phrases with the target nouns were extracted and coded for whether the nouns were proceeded by a delimiter and for the type of phrase following the noun, such as prepositional phrases. Coding other post-modifiers such as relative clause pronouns in such a large data set was not feasible, so this study only focused on prepositional phrases after the nouns (e.g., "the theory *of gravity*"); nouns within prepositional phrases were also examined (e.g., "in *orbit*"). To examine abstractness and word frequency, two indices for the nouns were entered into the data set: a numerical index for semantic concreteness (versus abstractness), and one for lexical frequency. These indices were created by psycholinguistics researchers (Brysbaert, Warriner, & Kuperman, 2014), by norming linguistic survey data from native speakers who rated the concreteness or abstractness of several thousand English nouns. These kinds of semantic effects are commonly used or controlled for in psycholinguistics and reading psychology studies, and it is hypothesized that they would affect L1 and L2 use, so they were tested for in this study.

The corpus software outputs data in a so-called KWIC format (quick words in context), that is, a display of the target words with five or more preceding and following words. This was exported to a spreadsheet, where target noun phrases were coded for various grammatical factors (e.g., delimiter type, post-modifiers). The data were analyzed with the SAS program (SAS 9.4 Studio, University Edition, for Linux). Since the dependent variable was categorical (type of delimiter or non-delimiter), logistic regression was used, which is a logarithm-based correlation analysis that is ideal for non-parametric data such as lexical data (Baayen & Lieber, 1996). Based on the results of the quantitative analysis, random sentences from the L2 corpus were then examined for more insight into particular L2 usage patterns. The corpora and data are summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1. L1 and L2 Corpora

Corpus	Level	Total Words	*the* Tokens	*a/an* Tokens	Bare Nouns	Other Nouns	Total Nouns
COCA (L1)	Academic	103,421,981	13,120	17,817	37,578	2500	71,015
EFL (L2)	Non-credit	11,822	10	10	45	1	66
	Undergraduate	60,236	92	44	239	18	393
	Graduate	169,798	297	130	727	96	1250
	L2 total	241,856	399	184	1011	115	1709

Note. L1 and L2 corpus counts: Total words in all corpus files; instances of *the, a/an*, bare nouns, other noun phrases (possessives, demonstratives, etc.), and total number of noun tokens sampled based on the Coxhead (2000) list.

RESULTS

An overall difference in delimiter use was found for L1 versus L2 samples (312.48, $p < .0001$). For the L1 and L2 data overall, the following factors were significant influences on choice of *a/an*, *the*, or no delimiter: lexical frequency (chi square: $\chi^2 = 462.01$, $p < .0001$), concreteness ($\chi^2 = 102.41$, $p < .0001$), and type of phrase following the noun ($\chi^2 = 2392.03$, $p < .0001$). There was an overall difference between L1 versus L2 ($\chi^2 = 312.48$, $p < .0001$), and for the levels within the L2 (non-credit, undergraduate, graduate) compared to the L1 ($\chi^2 = 332.72$,

p < .0001), which suggests that the higher-level L2 students may have less difficulties than lower-level L2 students. The logistic regression model yields parameter estimates that can be converted to odds ratios. From this, it was found that L2 writers significantly underused *a/an*, and were only .38 times as likely to use *a/an* compared to the L1 writers; this trend was similar from lower to advanced L2 levels in the corpus. The L2 writers did not seem to overuse or underuse *the*, except for the low-level non-credit L2 writers, who were only .57 times as likely to use *the* as L1 writers (i.e., underuse). Before prepositional phrases (post-modified nouns), the L2 writers showed a similar tendency (1.01 times), but the L2 writers were more likely (1.99 times more likely), than L1 writers to use *a/an* for nouns post-modified by prepositional phrases and less likely (.21 times as likely) to use *the* for nouns post-modified prepositionally. Nouns within prepositional phrases showed no significant differences (e.g., "in orbit"). This may be due to limitations in coding a large data set or because problems may mainly arise with certain prepositions or expressions.

With a moderate-sized L2 corpus, there are some limits to what the statistical analysis can show us (e.g., how abstract nouns, material nouns, or nouns post-modified with prepositions or other expressions are used), so next some sentences from the L2 essays were examined for their delimiter patterns. Pragmatically non-native usage patterns indicated by the quantitative results were examined, namely, overuse and underuse of *the* and *a/an*, use of *a/the* with prepositionally post-modified nouns, and delimiters with abstract nouns. These L2 examples were then grouped semantically, according to natural semantic categories, such as object (cf. material nouns), events (cf. activities), and types of abstract nouns, based on categories from cognitive semantics (Lyons, 1995).

Some examples seem consistent with the lexical frequency effect as some errors are made with relatively less common or less familiar nouns for the learners' levels, namely, omission errors like these[2].

1. Liberman insists that <u>supralaryngeal airway</u> of modern humans is not defined by the existence of the hyoid bone. [Gr]
2. Because of this reason, it was very hard for me to understand <u>English pronoun system</u>. [Gr]

Of primary interest is semantic concreteness and abstractness. A number of examples are consistent with the abstractness effect found in

the quantitative analysis above, in that more abstract nouns seem more susceptible to errors, (i.e., nouns with non-physical or conceptual meanings). First, we see relatively few errors with the most concrete noun types − those referring to physical objects and materials, especially at the higher L2 levels (in this example, *film* is used as a material, so "a film" is not the best choice here).

3. First, when you buy <u>a film</u>, you should check selection of <u>film</u>, brand ISO (International Standard Organization)... [Gr]

Sometimes problematic were nouns referring to sets or groups of items or persons, which the L2 writers used as singulars with no delimiters. A bare plural would be more natural in such cases (e.g., "members," "men"), since the plural refers to a group or set, and by extension it can refer to a whole category of items, as in general descriptions and generalizations.

4. ...so that other <u>team member</u> had to do her projects for her. [Gr]
5. [Responding to an article on psychological studies of priming effects and stereotypes] In addition, <u>black man</u> is worse than <u>white man</u> in <u>intellectual area</u>, if he is reminded of stereotype that "you are black man." [Gr]

More often, we see errors or less felicitous delimiter use with non-physical, non-concrete nouns. These include abstract nouns, but also those that are not so abstract but not concrete, that is, quasi-abstract nouns that fall in the middle range between concrete and abstract (e.g., *degree*, *aspect*, *stereotype*). The examples below may be familiar to EFL teachers who have encountered such noun phrases that would be pragmatically better formed with an indefinite *a/an* or by making the noun plural. In such cases, the relative abstractness of the noun may be a factor, and in some examples, the lower lexical frequency or relative unfamiliarity of the noun may also be a factor; for example, a new graduate student may be superficially familiar with terms like *stereotype* or *impact*, but may not have used or encountered them enough to use an appropriate delimiter.

6. ...Learning a foreign language will encourage to see other countries and other cultures from <u>different aspect</u> and try to

   adopt one's culture. [UG]

7. I think that for those three reason, it's good to learn <u>foreign</u> <u>language</u>. [UG]

8. In addition, <u>positive stereotype</u> influence our society as a good aspect. [Gr]

9. ...and academic performance are also impaired <u>in serious degree</u>. [Gr]

10. Eron said TV violence is one of the cause of youth violence, which is indicated as <u>public health problem</u>. [Gr]

11. Surely, <u>negative thought</u> or stereotype is tend to make a bad situation in society. [Gr]

12. Of course, stereotypes have <u>impact</u> on society. [Gr]

13. Usually <u>in advertising company</u>, there are a lot of bidding presentations, and managing clients by making proposals and planning <u>budget, master plan</u> and so on for clients. [Gr]

14. Korean usually have a positive thought, for example, "even if we are in <u>bad situation</u>, we can do it and overcome." [Gr]

Conversely, such quasi-abstract nouns were sometimes marked with a delimiter in ways that were pragmatically awkward for the context.

15. If we have a strong will, we can overcome <u>the</u> negative stereotype. [Gr]

16. Neanderthal could not speak a language like <u>the</u> modern human language.... Therefore, we cannot deny that Neanderthal language was very similar to <u>the</u> modern human language [Gr]

17. They can learn something to solve <u>the</u> hardness [i.e., difficulty] through this process. [Gr]

18. Steele asserts that <u>the knowledge</u> of a stereotype affects how well they accomplish on intellectual and other tasks. [Gr]

19. To do so, parents are responsible for taking <u>a further attention</u> to their children [Gr]

20. Nevertheless, <u>a certain fear</u> is necessary for children, because it may help protect children from dangerous situations. [Gr]

The range of quasi-abstract nouns includes those that refer to general activities with no delimiter (e.g., "Theft is a problem here") versus particular events with a delimiter ("The theft happened yesterday"). In these examples, the nouns were used in an abstract sense in the context but were marked with delimiters.

21. However, in anthropological behaviors of Neanderthals, they had enough ability to change the conversation each other. [Gr]
22. That is, if this situation continues, it can be possible to increase a crime in our society [NC]

The degree of a noun's abstractness can be altered by a post-modifier phrase. As hypothesized, post-modified nouns (i.e., with prepositional phrases) were sometimes problematic. Sometimes L2 writers used such nouns with no delimiter in instances where a delimiter would be appropriate (lexical frequency and abstractness may play a role here as well). These nouns are often more abstract, but when post-modified, they can have a more specific meaning and are modified with *a/an/the*, especially when referring to a particular instance or type of the abstract term (e.g., *limitation* in a more abstract sense, cf. "the limitation of Neanderthals" below).

23. I'm focus[ed] on ratio of user to a member of computer, high educator to low educator. [NC]
24. It is indicated that guns have at least two negative effects; the eruption of the crime rate and destruction of families [UG]
25. Since overweight and obesity lead to increased morbidity and mortality, growing of obese population in the USA indicate severity of the public health problem. [Gr]
26. We have suggested that three major limitations of Neanderthal show us the impossibility of speaking like humans. [Gr]

Occasionally, an inappropriate indefinite delimiter was used with post-modified nouns.

27. ...but if these fears continuously reside in children's minds, and interfere their daily routines, it might be a beginning of social phobias [Gr]

In the L1 corpus, we see prepositional post-modifer phrases used with *the* particularly in restrictive contexts. In these contexts, it is not only (and not necessarily) a matter of *the* plus a noun phrase referring to a previously mentioned noun, but also the fact that the following prepositional phrase restricts the meaning of the noun, including more abstract or non-physical meanings of nouns, to more specific ideas. In

the following examples, relatively non-physical or abstract nouns (*hypothesis, flexibility, use*) are restricted to more specific instances, types, or examples of the noun (i.e., a specific type, instance, or example of a hypothesis, arousal, or use of something).

28. ...and to further evaluate the arousal hypothesis of stereotype threat... [L1]
29. ..., the findings also confirm the central hypothesis of this study that... [L1]
30. ..., augmenting the inherent flexibility of the VTB abstraction... [L1]
31. The use of short videos for patients in the waiting room encourages them [L1]

In contrast, those with *a/an* were not only for first mentions but were also more general in nature, such as noun phrases that served as definitions or more hypothetical descriptions or examples in their contexts.

32. ...chemical characteristics, researchers can develop a hypothesis regarding the role this newly discovered... [L1]
33. ...1974, Molina and Rowland proposed an alarming hypothesis in *Nature* that the use of chlorofluorocarbon... [L1]
34. Breakwell (1986b) has defined a strategy for coping with stigma as... [L1]
35. ...to select a broadcast protocol for use in a large-scale WSN deployment... [L1]
36. ...tools designed to help people weigh up evidence about a test or a treatment... [L1]

Though errors with nouns within prepositional phrases (as objects of prepositions, such as "in orbit") did not show up in the statistical analysis, some were found in the L2 corpus. The level of coding for noun phrase syntax in the quantitative analysis was probably not deep enough for this to show up as a significant factor, especially since it may be more common in certain types of prepositional phrases; however, such errors are familiar to ESL/EFL teachers, and some do show up in the L2 corpus. The examples below show omissions of *the* (#37−38), and awkward usage of *a* (#39) and *the* (#40) for what would be more abstract noun phrases in their respective contexts.

37. ...make mention of 3 big reasons about North Korea famine. [NC]
38. Since almost of students in nation take the same test [Gr]
39. Although it may be true that the competency of personal writing may be a critical factor for a successful academic writing. [Gr]
40. ...because the investment on the computer technology should be done as early as possible [NC]

Also, a cursory examination of expressions in the L1 corpus shows some common collocational expressions formed from a preposition plus no delimiter plus a singular noun that are used in a somewhat abstract sense. A few standard expressions use *the* (#45).

41. ...each involves significant drawbacks when used in isolation. [L1]
42. ...and emulated sensor nodes and radios in real time... [L1]
43. In response, in terms of, keep/bear in mind, in practice, in detail, to be in development, in relation to, in spring/summer/fall/winter, in decline... [L1]
44. ...difference in X, similar in form, believe in... [L1]
45. ...cf. in the short run, in the end... [L1]

The semantic reasons for some of these L1 patterns is beyond the scope of this paper as they involve specialized uses of *the* or of bare noun phrases. Nonetheless, for learners, exposure to authentic texts and learning common prepositional collocational patterns in the language of their fields will be necessary for learning more accurate delimiter usage.

At times, *the* was used inappropriately for nouns being mentioned for the first time in context. Though students have learned the rule of first and second mention for *a/an* versus *the*, they still find this difficult to apply at times. This may be because the rule is too vague or unclear to learners, especially given how it has been taught (H. Lee, 1999). This may also be because other discourse factors are more important than first and second mention, such as scene shifts and perspective shifts made by writers in their choice of delimiters (Epstein, 2001). In the following examples, the L2 writers used *the* for new noun referents, or where it is not clear in the context if the noun is meant to be a more abstract bare noun (e.g., "cope with anxiety") or if it is meant to refer to a specific instance of an abstract concept (e.g., "cope with this anxiety").

46. For example, if the parents got shot by a gun randomly on the street

of New York, it would have a tremendous impact in the family.
[UG]

47. Therefore, to understand children's mental stability to help them how to cope with the anxiety and fear is an inextricable work for all parents. [Gr]

48. Stone and his colleagues showed that a negative stereotype can adversely affect performance from the study on the 40 black and 40 white Princeton undergraduate volunteered to play mini-golf. [Gr]

DISCUSSION

The statistical data support the first research hypothesis that lexical and semantic factors are relevant to Koreans' delimiter problems. Nouns with concrete, physical meanings seem less problematic, especially for intermediate and higher levels. Among these, nouns for objects may be easier, as these correspond directly to the idea of count nouns that they are taught, while nouns for materials (e.g., "film") may be slightly more error-prone. Most problems were found with non-physical nouns and more abstract nouns. Also, less frequent or unfamiliar words seem to be more error-prone. The data also support the hypothesis that post-modified nouns are problematic, at least for nouns followed by prepositional phrases. Sentences in the L2 data show examples of delimiter use that are consistent with the statistical results. More abstract or non-physical nouns tended to be problematic, either in simple noun phrases or in post-modified noun phrases. These issues tended to show up more in the writings of graduate students, as they are more likely to attempt using more abstract or complex noun phrases in their writings. Other sample sentences also showed possible problem areas that did not show up in the statistical analysis, namely, nouns within prepositional phrases (e.g., "in orbit"). It may be that prepositional phrases are generally problematic: for nouns followed by prepositional phrases (e.g., "the orbit of the satellite") and for nouns within prepositional phrases (e.g., "in orbit").

Many nouns can exist as both countable and non-countable nouns, with slight differences in nuance (e.g., "coffee" for the liquid substance; "a coffee" for "a cup of coffee," i.e., an object), or rather different meanings (e.g., "glass" for the material, "a glass" for an object made of glass). Sometimes the difference can be more subtle, as in science

writing ("carbon" as material, cf. "the carbon" for an aforementioned piece of material). Therefore, focusing on the count–non-count distinction may not be helpful, and might be confusing. The abstract– concrete distinction was found to be a relevant factor in the above analysis, as well as in grammaticality judgment studies (K. Lee, 2016). Thus, for physical nouns, a marked noun (a noun marked with *a/an* or *the*) generally indicates an object, while a bare noun by default refers to a material or substance. Abstract or quasi-abstract nouns can be marked with delimiters to refer to a specific instance, type, or example of something (e.g., "feminism," cf. "the feminism of the 1960s"). Similarly, some nouns can refer to general activities as bare nouns, or to specific events or instances as marked nouns ("crime," cf. "a crime"; "theft," cf. "a theft").

The difference between "new" or first mention for *a/an* and "old" or subsequent mention for *the*, while valid, is an oversimplification. Examples are readily found in academic writing, such as those above, where one continues to use *a/an* for repeated mentions of a noun, particularly in definitions and general descriptions. It is also used for hypothetical discussion of a noun (K. Lee, 2017), e.g., repeated use of "a theory" in "physicists are searching for a unified theory of the cosmos – a theory that would go beyond the current model, a theory that would explain a number of unexplained phenomena, and a theory that would be testable." The definite delimiter *the* refers not only to previously mentioned items, but also unique referents ("the sun, the moon"), items that are familiar by association ("open the computer case and find the hard drive cable"), and items that can be inferred from context or familiarity ("I went to the store"). Also, the terms definite for *the* and indefinite for *a/an* may not be clear for learners. Thus, it may be better to explain these as "familiar" or "unfamiliar" to readers in context. That is, *a/an* as indefinite because it is unfamiliar to the reader in the context, due to first mention, hypothetical discussion, or a general description or definition; *the* is assumed to be more familiar in the context due to previous mention or a number of other reasons, such that it is familiar enough that the reader can infer what the writer is referring to.

Teaching Applications

These results lead to the following teaching applications. Delimiters can be taught based on their relative concreteness or abstractness. This

may be, in fact, more meaningful or clearer to students than count versus non-count noun distinctions. Also, terms like "delimiters" (or other terms like "thingifier") and "bare noun" might be better for learners than "article" or "zero article." This semantic approach leads to two important possibilities for teachers. This provides a logical way to break up units or contents on delimiters into separate chunks or subunits, going from more concrete to more abstract functions, and from simple nouns to more complex phrases (e.g., prepositional phrases and post-modifiers). For example, teachers can focus on more physical, tangible nouns with *the* at lower levels before introducing more non-physical or abstract uses at a later stage. At more intermediate and advanced stages, more grammatically complex forms can be introduced, such as nouns in prepositional phrases, nouns with post-modifiers, and various collocational uses such as those used in academic vocabulary. Corrective feedback may also be effective, such as feedback focused on specific uses of delimiters or unmarked nouns. More exposure to different types of texts is needed, and extensive reading outside of the classroom can be promoted.

TABLE 2. Summary of Noun Phrase Types

Noun Phrase Types	Meaning	Examples
1. Physical nouns	objects or materials	
(a) Bare singular	material, mass, substance	water, chicken
(b) Marked singular nouns (marked with a/an/the)	things, objects	a/the chicken
(c) Bare plural	set or group of things (also applicable later to non-physical nouns and to generic descriptions)	tables, chairs, penguins Penguins are flightless birds.
2. Non-physical nouns	non-physical entities or concepts	
(a) Bare singular nouns	more abstract	peace, hope, biology, contamination
(b) Marked singular nouns	specific instance, type, example of an entity	a/the element, aspect, difference
3. Indefinite nouns (*a/an*)	unfamiliar entity to listener/speaker	a cable
4. Definite nouns (*the*)	more familiar or likely familiar entity to listener/speaker	the cable (in your computer)

Note. Overview: More physical or concrete nouns, cf. non-physical nouns (1-2); and indefinite, cf. definite (3-4).

An overview of the basic distinctions is shown in Table 2, which can guide the sequencing of delimiter lessons in teaching.

The different noun phrase patterns are sketched out below in more detail, with possible sequencing from simple to complex forms. This includes some patterns from other recent research (K. Lee, 2017) about differences between the definite *the* and the indefinite *a/an*. Indefinite nouns, for example, can be taught as nouns referring to items unfamiliar to the listener. This is used not only for first mention, but also for hypothetical descriptions and examples, and for definitions, especially in academic writing.

TABLE 3. Noun Phrase Patterns and Possible Sequencing

	Noun Phrase Pattern	Examples
1a.	Material / substance nouns (bare singular nouns)	water, milk, flour, wood, plastic, metal, juice
1b.	Object nouns (marked singular nouns)	*a/the* + table, chair, house, building, mountain, chip, computer
1c.	Object vs. material nouns	Bare vs. marked forms for: coffee, juice, chicken, lamb, tomato, pepper
2a.	Plural bare nouns = set or group of things	chickens, tables, chairs, melons, tomatoes, potatoes, chips, computers
2b.	Plural bare nouns = a group, a category (general descriptions)	Penguins are flightless Antarctic birds.
3a.	Indefinite *a/an* = unfamiliar, unknown to listener	A squirrel approached me as I sat down with my lunch.
3b.	Hypothetical examples or cases	I want a man who knows what love is – a man who is thoughtful and kind. A typical graduate student spends four hours per day reading.
3c.	Definitions	A first mover is a business leader who identifies a new niche or market.
4a.	Definite *the* = familiar or potentially familiar to the listener (e.g., previous mention)	A squirrel approached me … The squirrel clearly wanted some of my food.
4b.	Specialized uses of *the* where familiarity is implied or assumed (e.g., part-whole and associative contexts)	Open your computer and find the red SATA cables that attach to the motherboard.

5.	Bare noun = general activity, marked noun = specific event, episode, instance	I enjoy <u>jogging</u>, and yesterday I had <u>a great jog</u> in the park. We did <u>research</u>; <u>the research</u> uncovered some interesting results. (*a* / *the* / bare noun +) theft, crime
6a.	Bare singulars = abstract nouns	love, hate, war, peace, feminism, racism, discrimination, equality, justice
6b.	Non-physical entities (i.e., quasi-abstract nouns, with *a/an/the* or bare plurals)	stereotype, aspect, element, ratio, difference, conflict
6c.	Prepositional phrases: more general, abstract meaning	They spoke <u>in dialect</u>. The shuttle is in orbit. The matter is <u>in arbitration</u>. Proceed <u>with caution</u>. They are <u>in conflict</u> / <u>at odds</u>.
7a.	Post-modified nouns: *the* = specific instance, type, example	<u>The</u> stability of <u>the</u> peace in first-century Rome
7b.	Post-modified nouns: *the* = specific batch of a substance	<u>The</u> vanadium in this jet engine
7c.	Post-modified nouns: *a/an* & bare nouns for general descriptions or definitions	CBT is <u>a</u> standard technique in psychotherapy that has been validated by clinical research

This also leads readily to other methods for teaching delimiters. Since we can identify more specific functions and meanings of delimiters and bare noun patterns, teachers can create better activities for these forms. Rather than teaching a set of traditional rules or forms (*a*, *the*, bare noun forms), we can focus on one particular function or meaning at one time. In this way, we can break up the contents into more manageable chunks. More importantly, because we can match a particular task with one specific delimiter pattern or function, it is now easier to find communicative, inductive, or interactive methods for teaching and practicing delimiter forms. It is thus possible to tailor many classroom tasks to focus on delimiters by focusing on one delimiter pattern or meaning in a particular task.

These patterns can be presented one at a time to students for a discovery learning activity in which students are given examples and in groups discuss and try to infer the patterns. This can be done with sample passages and/or with pictures with labels (e.g., "chicken" cf. "a chicken"), or with realia. For example, students can be shown corresponding examples of bare nouns for materials and marked nouns

(marked with delimiters) for objects (e.g., "coffee," "a coffee"; "juice," "a juice"; "chicken," "a chicken"). This leads students to form hypotheses of their own about the differences between these types of noun phrases. The discussion can then be guided by the instructor to make sure that students have found the right patterns and to reinforce their learning. This so-called "guided discovery" learning can be helpful to students for deeper learning and retention, possibly more than unguided discovery (Mayer, 2004). This can then be followed by a specifically tailored practice activity.

While choosing communicative or interactive activities for practicing delimiters may seem daunting, the task becomes more manageable if one focuses on specific semantic-pragmatic functions of the delimiter system, as discussed above. That is, rather than focusing on one form (*a/an* or *the*) or one specific rule, their natural categories and distinctions as outlined above can be focused on, such that one classroom activity focuses on one of these noun phrase types or distinctions. For example, common tasks such as map tasks can be adapted to focus on object nouns ("the post office," etc.). An activity in which students create a list, such as a shopping list, can be useful for contrasting material nouns (like "peanut butter") versus object nouns (like "a watermelon"), including material−object distinctions of the same noun (e.g., "a pineapple" for one fruit, versus "pineapple" as a material, for precut or processed pineapple in a package). This can lead to a useful discussion of what nouns we conceptualize more as materials (e.g., "broccoli," "cauliflower"), those that we think of as objects (e.g., "onions"), and those that may depend on how they are sold (e.g., "melon," "a melon") in English or in Anglophone culture; incidentally, this often depends on how shoppers or cooks conceptualize and work with these food items. A third distinction of bare plurals for groups or sets can also be used in listing activities (e.g., "pineapples" for multiples; i.e., buying two or three, which constitutes a set of pineapples).

The traditional genre or discourse forms used in writing classes such as process, classification, listing, descriptive, example, and analytical paragraphs can be adapted for delimiters. These tasks can be used or adapted to focus on particular delimiter patterns, as written or oral tasks, individually or in groups. Depending on the topic, process paragraphs can focus on materials, objects, or a contrast thereof; or on activities, events, or a contrast thereof. Listing and example exercises can include shopping lists or more complex tasks like drafting a budget or budget

proposal, as a simple list or with more elaborate descriptions (e.g., as justifications for budget items). Below are some sample activities for groups that can be done as oral and/or written exercises, including some used in this author's classes.

TABLE 4. Activities or Tasks for Physical Nouns

1. Simple tasks for object and material nouns (and/or object vs. material nouns)
   - Map tasks
   - Recipes
   - Shopping lists (grocery items)
   - Shopping lists (for clothing, office supplies, furniture, or equipment)
2. Other tasks for object and/or material nouns
   - Budget proposals (e.g., for a company)
   - Film budget (for a proposal for an independent film; students draw up a list or description of items, equipment, and personnel needed for pitching an independent film to investors; for more advanced levels, the budget can be broken down into pre-production, production, post-production, and distribution phases)
   - Description tasks (e.g., describe a scene, location, favorite trip)
   - Summarizing or creating a fictional narrative
3. Process paragraphs and/or oral descriptions
   - Assembly instructions for a machine, piece of furniture, toy, computer, or other product
   - Descriptions of how a food item is prepared or of how something is made from a material.
   - Directions for constructing an object (e.g., a house), assembling a product, manufacturing a product, or accomplishing a goal.
   - How to make a movie, or how to make a YouTube video.
   - Describing how special effects might have been done in a film or how a video was made (e.g., practical effects in elaborate music videos by the band OK Go or special effects in a movie).

For intermediate to advanced learners, more exposure to abstract nouns is needed, and for advanced learners, input with post-modified nouns is needed. Abstract nouns that are post-modified may be more problematic and may require more explicit instruction or form-focused correction. Such phrases are more common in academic English, and in these post-modified noun phrases, the phrase often refers to a specific type, instance, or example of an abstract noun (e.g., "feminism," cf. "the feminism of the 1960s") or of a noun referring to a material (e.g.,

"carbon," cf. "the carbon in the cleaning solution"). Similarly, bare singular activity nouns can be contrasted with nouns for specific events or instances of the activity ("theft," cf. "a theft"). Here are some general ideas for more advanced activities that can be done in a more EAP-style or content-based course.

TABLE 5. Advanced Tasks and Activities

Written or Oral Description Tasks

• Describe a scientific experiment or a research method used in your field.

• Describe a manufacturing processes or the industrial processing of a material.

• Describe a particular artistic genre or subgenre (of film, music, novels, etc.); then discuss a specific example, and explain how it fulfills and differs from the standards of the genre.

• Describe a particular theory, movement, framework, belief system, hypothesis, model, or ideology in your field of study, and particular phases or varieties of this system.

• Explain an important term or concept in your field of study.

• Contrast or compare two theories, terms, or concepts in your field.

• Present a proposal for your own independent film project, including, for example, justification for budgeted items and/or reasons for the film's potential to persuade potential investors in the project.

• Analyze the success of a particular company and reasons for its success or failure.

Writing exercises on paraphrasing, combining clauses, and nominalizations can also be adapted for working on delimiters, especially when combined with group work, peer editing, revision, and focused feedback on delimiters. Nominalization is common in academic writing, particularly when clauses are reduced to complex noun phrases in writing summaries or paraphrases since nominalizations often consist of a noun with a post-modifier, and these nouns are often marked with delimiters (e.g., some of the post-modified noun phrases from the L1 corpus in the Results section above). Intermediate and advanced writing texts tend to have such exercises (e.g., Swales & Feak, 2012), in which clauses or sentences are to be paraphrased and combined as in the example below; these can be done as interactive group tasks as well.

1. Linux has emerged as the dominant operating system on servers. This

shift has been widely recognized in the IT community. →
2. The emergence of Linux as the dominant operating system on servers has been widely recognized in the IT community.

Finally, various discovery activities and interactive activities such as those above can be beneficial for learning when tailored to a specific function, nuance, or contrast expressed by delimiters and bare nouns. Such activities can work in academic learning environments as they engage various cognitive mechanisms for deeper comprehension, learning, noticing, and retention (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 1999). These and other activities can be adapted for interactive learning, awareness, and instruction in these particular types of noun phrases.

CONCLUSION

Rather than teaching count versus non-count nouns, delimiter patterns and noun types can be taught instead, going from more physical to more abstract and more complex noun phrases. Non-physical or abstract nouns and less frequent nouns can be problematic and require more attention in teaching. After teaching distinctions like object versus material nouns, more attention is needed for activity and event nouns, familiar versus unfamiliar noun types (such as hypothetical and definitional uses), nouns in prepositional phrases, and post-modified nouns, particularly abstract nouns that are post-modified. Much more research is needed, of course, on all these factors, from approaches like corpus research and classroom learning research, in order to better understand how these factors work in more detail, and how to teach them more effectively.

Essentially, many kinds of tasks can be adapted to practice delimiter–noun phrase patterns, as long as one knows what specific function of delimiter–noun phrases that one wishes to work on. Students can benefit from systematic instruction and awareness-raising with article patterns (Master, 1994, 1995). The linguistic framework used here leads to a helpful classification of noun phrase types and delimiter usage patterns, and by doing so, it leads to a helpful way to characterize some of the L2 delimiter problems. This framework, thus, makes it possible to isolate and identify more specific functions of delimiter patterns for teaching and

to find more appropriate interactive activities for these particular delimiter functions.

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FOOTNOTES

[1] WordSmith: www.lexically.net/wordsmith

[2] The examples are glossed as follows: NC = L2 beginner/intermediate non-credit; UG = L2 undergraduate; Gr = L2 graduate student; L1 = L1 COCA corpus.

Investigating the Influence of Communication Practice on South Korean Secondary School English Students' Self-Efficacy

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Focusing on South Korean secondary school students' self-efficacy to communicate in English, this experimental study examined the influence of communication practice. Participants were 83 students from 10th- through 12th-grade English classes at a secondary school in an urban location in South Korea. The study took approximately four weeks, during which the participants were divided into three groups: Participants in Group 1 did a collection of activities to practice communicating in English and received feedback on their communicative success; participants in Group 2 did a collection of activities to practice communicating in English but did not receive feedback on their communicative success; participants in group three did not do any activities. Self-efficacy was measured for all three groups at the beginning and again at the end of this period. Results showed a significant increase in self-efficacy for Groups 1 and 2, but not for Group 3. These results suggest that, independent of the kind of feedback students receive, practicing how to communicate in English can help to build EFL students' self-efficacy.

Keywords: confidence, communicative competence, feedback, experiment

INTRODUCTION

An important goal in English as a foreign language (EFL) education is helping students to develop confidence in their ability to use English. This is reflected in the South Korean national curriculum for English education, which states explicitly that one of its main goals is the building of students' "confidence in English" (Ministry of Education, 2007, p. 43). This goal is worthwhile because doubts about one's own

second language (L2) abilities can help to explain, for example, students' anxiety about speaking (Mak, 2011), students' unwillingness to communicate (MacIntyre, 2007), and students' limited motivation to transfer what they have learned (James, 2012).

A useful way to look at EFL students' confidence in their English abilities is self-efficacy, a widely studied psychological construct that refers to "people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce effects" (Bandura, 1994, p. 71). For example, an EFL student may believe that she or he is capable of participating in an English conversation, or in an English email exchange, or in various other situations that involve using English. Such beliefs are important because they influence "the choices [students] make, the effort they expend, the persistence and perseverance they exert when obstacles arise, and the thought patterns and emotional reactions they experience" (Pajares, 2003, p. 140). For example, the EFL student who believes she can participate in English conversations might gravitate towards opportunities to participate in such conversations, work hard when participating in such conversations, continue to participate in such conversations, even when it becomes difficult, and feel positive about participating in such conversations. The impact of self-efficacy is measurable, for example, in L2 students' test performance (Bong, 2002; Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2006; Woodrow, 2011) and course grades (Hsieh, 2008; Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2007; Phakiti, Hirsh, & Woodrow, 2013). As a result, it makes sense that "one of the most important roles of successful teachers...is to facilitate high levels of self-efficacy in their students" (Brown, 2014, p. 146).

To help EFL students build self-efficacy, teachers need to consider what kind of self-efficacy to target. For example, the aim may be to build students' self-efficacy to complete grammar drills or vocabulary quizzes, to create scripts for dialogues, to read texts aloud, or any other of a large number of abilities that are relevant in L2 education. This is an important consideration because the most effective way that self-efficacy develops is through experiences of success in similar situations (Bandura, 1994; Britner & Pajares, 2006; Joet, Usher, & Bressoux, 2011; Kiran & Sungur, 2012). Usher and Pajares (2006) explained that "when students believe that their efforts have been successful, their confidence to successfully accomplish *similar or related* [emphasis added] tasks in the future is raised" (p. 126), and Gorsuch (2009) offered the example that "an L2 learner would not know how

well he or she could do on an L2 roleplay about buying train tickets [...] unless he or she had experienced *similar* [emphasis added] roleplays previously" (p. 509). From this perspective, students' self-efficacy for completing grammar drills or vocabulary quizzes, creating scripts for dialogues, and reading texts aloud would be built through experiences of success completing grammar drills or vocabulary quizzes, creating scripts for dialogues, and reading texts aloud.

A kind of self-efficacy particularly worth building for EFL students is self-efficacy to communicate in English. While earlier models of L2 education focused on students' abilities to translate written texts, or to recite dialogues, or to memorize grammar rules and vocabulary, there has been a strong push in L2 education in recent decades to focus on the development of students' abilities to use the L2 to communicate (i.e., students' *communicative competence*; Brown, 2014). From this perspective, in contemporary L2 education, there is often an emphasis on learning how to perform various communicative functions, such as describing, narrating, agreeing, and suggesting (van Ek & Trim, 1990). The importance of developing students' ability to communicate is reflected in the South Korean national curriculum for English education, in which the ability to communicate in English is described as an essential skill (Ministry of Education, 2007, p. 41) and in which a collection of communicative functions is explicitly targeted (p. 65).

It is possible that EFL students' self-efficacy to communicate in English can be built by providing them with opportunities to practice communicating. Although most of the research on L2 students' self-efficacy has focused on other kinds of self-efficacy (e.g., self-efficacy to achieve a high score on a vocabulary quiz [Chan & Lam, 2010; Wu, Lowyck, Serca, & Elen, 2012], self-efficacy to achieve a high grade in a current L2 course [Baleghizadeh & Masoun, 2013; Chen & Huang, 2014], self-efficacy to learn an L2 [Matthews, 2010; Wu, Lowyck, Serca, & Elen, 2012]), studies by Mills (2009) and Cubillos and Ilvento (2012) examined L2 students' self-efficacy to communicate and ways this might be built. Mills (2009) reported a positive impact from students' participation in a project-based L2 course that gave students "opportunities to exchange information, discuss opinions, and provide and obtain information" (p. 629). Cubillos and Ilvento (2012) reported a positive impact from students' participation in study abroad programs that provided "numerous opportunities for learners to try out their [L2] skills" (p. 498). In both of these studies, it appears that the

practice of communicating had a positive impact on students' self-efficacy. Therefore, it is possible that such opportunities can have a positive impact on the self-efficacy of EFL students as well.

However, research in this area is limited, so the picture is incomplete. For example, in the studies by Mills (2009) and Cubillos and Ilvento (2012), the students were from universities in the U.S. Therefore, it is unclear if similar results would occur with students who are younger and in a different institutional context (e.g., secondary school in South Korea). In addition, in the study by Mills, the project-based L2 course was 5 hours a week for 15 weeks, and in the study by Cubillos and Ilvento, students spent 5 to 15 weeks studying abroad. So, it is unclear if similar results would occur with less extensive or different kinds of practice communicating, such as a small collection of short communication activities. Furthermore, in Mills' project-based course and Cubillos and Ilvento's study abroad programs, opportunities to practice communicating were diverse, so students likely received various kinds of feedback. Therefore, it is unclear if the opportunities to practice communicating need to include a particular kind of feedback, such as feedback on how successfully the student has communicated. Research that adds clarity to this picture would be valuable, as it would support EFL educators in achieving the important goal of helping students to develop confidence in their ability to use English.

RESEARCH DESIGN

With this in mind, this study was carried out to answer the following two research questions:

1. Can practice communicating in English help to build South Korean secondary school students' self-efficacy to communicate in English?
2. Does the kind of feedback students receive (i.e., feedback that focuses on communicative success vs. feedback that does not) make a difference?

The study's design was experimental, which is consistent with designs used in some earlier studies on the influence of teaching on L2

students' self-efficacy (e.g., Baleghizadeh & Masoun, 2013; Wu, Lowyck, Serca, & Elwn, 2012).

Participants

Students in English classes at a public secondary school in an urban location in South Korea were invited to participate in the study. The particular school was chosen for practical reasons (i.e., author contacts). However, these students are typical South Korean secondary school English students in several ways. First, this school is in a large category of "general/academic" schools ("South Korea: Instructional systems," n.d.), and its English classes follow the national curriculum for English education, focusing mainly on university entrance exam preparation. Also, the school has an admission system that involves a computer lottery, like many urban secondary schools in South Korea. Finally, on a national achievement test in fall 2015, English scores for the school's first-year students were almost identical to the national average.

To invite students to participate, a short video invitation was shown in English classes at the school. The video described the communication activities that participants would be asked to do (see below) and explained that participants would receive a certificate for participating. A total of 83 students completed all phases of data collection. Of these 83 participants, 54% were female and 46% were male. Ages ranged from 15 to 18 years, with an average of 17.1. Most reported being in the first year (i.e., 55% of participants) or second year (i.e., 35% of participants) of their secondary school studies.

Activities to Practice Communicating in English

To provide the participants with opportunities to practice communicating in English, a collection of activities was designed. In this design, practicality was an important consideration. The structure of the secondary school's English curriculum (i.e., focus on exam preparation, with minimal room for additional activities) meant that participation in this study would have to be extra-curricular. It was not possible to schedule extra-curricular in-person meetings for participants to do activities. Therefore, it made sense to design activities that participants would be able to complete on their own time, independently. Based on

several pilot studies and on information from the school (e.g., about what students might be able to handle, given their semester schedules), the decision was made that the participants would be asked to do a total of 12 activities, spread over approximately 1 month, and each activity would take approximately 10 minutes to complete. Furthermore, it made most sense that the activities would be done online to provide participants with scheduling flexibility.

While activities to practice communicating could involve any of the four main language skills (i.e., listening, speaking, reading, writing), the decision was made to focus on one skill: speaking. This relatively narrow focus helped in making activities not only a practical length but also repetitive so that participants might sense improvements in their ability. In addition, the focus on speaking helped in making participation attractive to students, since an ability to speak with L2 users is often seen as the main benchmark of successful L2 learning (Brown & Lee, 2015).

All activities had a similar general structure. In each activity, the participant was provided with a collection of nine pictures (e.g., nine different faces) and was asked to make a one-minute recording of herself or himself describing as many of the nine pictures as possible. Since describing is a basic communicative function (van Ek & Trim, 1990), having to describe pictures was a way of practicing communicating. The participant then uploaded the recording, and I listened to it and gave feedback to the participant.

This feedback varied. For some participants, the feedback focused on their communicative success: When these participants described the nine pictures in an activity, they were told to describe the pictures in a random order. Then, as feedback, I told the participants the order in which I thought they had described the pictures. By comparing the order that I had guessed with the order they had intended, these participants had an indicator of how effectively they had described the pictures, in other words, how successfully they had communicated. For other participants, the feedback focused instead on their speaking fluency: When these participants described the nine pictures in an activity, they were told to describe them in the existing order. Then, as feedback, I told them how many words per minute they had spoken. Therefore, the feedback these participants received was an indicator of their speaking fluency, rather than of their communicative success.

Self-Efficacy Questionnaire

The tool for data collection was a questionnaire created for this study (see Appendix). Besides items for gathering demographic information, the questionnaire contained 13 items dealing with self-efficacy to communicate in English. For these self-efficacy items, the format (i.e., a statement describing an ability, followed by an 11-point rating scale [i.e., 0-100% in increments of 10]) was based on a format recommended by Bandura (2006) that has been used successfully in research on L2 students' self-efficacy (Mills, 2009). To develop content for these self-efficacy items, speaking-related abilities targeted in the South Korean national curriculum for English education (Ministry of Education, 2007) were identified. These abilities include speaking

- with linguistic accuracy, for example, using structures from a grammar list and vocabulary list;
- to perform functions including giving factual information, telling a story, expressing attitudes and emotions (e.g., likes and dislikes), persuading, socializing (e.g., greetings), and asking for help with communication (e.g., requesting repetition);
- to give a presentation and to participate in a conversation;
- to interact with classmates and teachers in English classes and with other people (e.g., people from other countries).

These abilities were turned into 13 statements that describe specific abilities to communicate in English, and these statements were used in the 13 self-efficacy items.

The final step in preparing the questionnaire was having it translated into Korean. A fluent speaker of Korean/English translated the English draft into Korean. Then, a different fluent speaker of Korean/English did a back-translation that was used to ensure consistency with the original English draft.

After data collection (described below), the questionnaire's internal consistency was measured to examine the quality of the questionnaire. This involved calculating Cronbach's alpha for the 13 self-efficacy items, and the value was high: The questionnaire was used twice in this study (i.e., pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire), and the average alpha value across the two administrations was 0.98. As a result, the internal consistency of the questionnaire was judged to be strong.

Procedure

The self-efficacy questionnaire and activities to practice communicating were arranged as a course in an online learning management system (i.e., Blackboard), and when participants enrolled in this course, they were immediately placed into one of three groups. Groups 1 and 2 would do the activities to practice communicating, with Group 1 receiving feedback on communicative success and Group 2 receiving feedback on fluency. Group three would not do any activities, so they would serve as a control group.

Group assignment was based on the order in which participants enrolled in the course. The first participant to enroll was placed in Group 1, the second was placed in Group 2, the third was placed in group three, the fourth was placed in Group 1, and so on. (The groups did not end up with equal numbers of participants because some participants who enrolled and were placed in groups later dropped out.)

Participants in all three groups were asked to follow a schedule. The schedule provided to Groups 1 and 2 was identical: It first involved the administration of the self-efficacy questionnaire (i.e., pre- questionnaire), then 12 activities (i.e., one every other day over approximately 4 weeks), and then the second administration of the self- efficacy questionnaire (i.e., post-questionnaire). The schedule provided to Group 3 differed: It involved completing the pre-questionnaire, then approximately 4 weeks later, the post-questionnaire, without any activities between these two administrations of the questionnaire. (However, after Group 3 had completed the post-questionnaire, they were invited to do activities to practice communicating. This was to ensure fairness, in that all students who volunteered to participate in the study would have a similar chance to practice, just at different times.)

Although the schedules specified dates on which participants were to aim to complete steps, it was necessary to allow some flexibility. Over the course of the study, issues arose (e.g., participants having to deal with computer malfunctions, illness, extra work at school) that meant participants could not all stick precisely to the schedules. To account for this, a decision was made to continue gathering data until approximately one week after the end of the scheduled data collection period. Although some participants continued submitting data afterwards, one week was chosen as a cutoff point because it fell just before a major exam period for the school. The 83 participants from whom data were collected and

analyzed completed the post-questionnaire by this cutoff point.

RESULTS

Table 1 provides a summary of the pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire data. As the average scores in the bottom row of the table show, self-efficacy on the pre-questionnaire was moderate (i.e., 46.8 for Group 1, 52.9 for Group 2, and 54.3 for group three). Therefore, for these participants collectively, there was plenty of room for self-efficacy to increase.

TABLE 1. Item-by-Item Data for the Pre-questionnaire and Post-questionnaire

Item	Group 1		Group 2		Group 3	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
1	41.2	57.7 (+16.5)	47.6	63.6 (+16.0)	49.1	49.5 (+0.4)
2	40.0	61.2 (+21.2)	48.4	68.0 (+19.6)	49.7	52.0 (+2.3)
3	54.4	69.6 (+15.2)	56.4	66.8 (+10.4)	55.3	53.9 (-1.4)
4	48.5	65.8 (+17.3)	54.2	71.2 (+17.0)	50.6	54.2 (+3.6)
5	37.3	60.4 (+23.1)	42.4	64.6 (+22.2)	45.0	51.1 (+6.1)
6	55.4	71.5 (+16.1)	62.8	72.4 (+9.6)	62.0	55.5 (-6.5)
7	53.2	68.1 (+14.9)	61.2	72.0 (+10.8)	59.7	59.4 (-0.3)
8	47.1	66.2 (+19.1)	53.8	63.4 (+9.6)	56.3	54.2 (-2.1)
9	54.2	70.4 (+16.2)	65.4	74.8 (+9.4)	64.4	63.1 (-1.3)
10	47.3	59.6 (+12.3)	48.6	65.2 (+16.6)	53.4	53.3 (-0.1)
11	46.5	60.4 (+13.9)	51.2	72.4 (+21.2)	54.4	57.7 (+3.3)
12	40.8	62.0 (+21.2)	45.6	66.4 (+20.8)	50.3	51.7 (+1.4)
13	41.8	60.0 (+18.2)	50.4	67.4 (+17.0)	55.2	50.8 (-4.4)
Avg	46.8	64.1 (+17.3)	52.9	68.3 (+15.4)	54.3	54.3 (+0.0)

Note. Group 1 did communication practice and received feedback on communicative success. Group 2 did communication practice and received feedback on fluency. Group 3 did not do communication practice. Pre = scores on pre-questionnaire, Post = scores on post-questionnaire. In columns 2-7, numbers outside parentheses are students' degree of confidence (on a scale of 0-100) in their ability described in that questionnaire item. In columns 3, 5, and 7, numbers in parentheses are the change in score from pre-questionnaire to post-questionnaire. Avg = average across all items.

To answer the research questions, several statistical tests were conducted. First, a test was conducted to determine if the three groups were comparable at the beginning of the study (i.e., on the pre-questionnaire). For each participant, scores for items 1 to 13 on the pre-questionnaire were averaged to generate a composite score for the pre-questionnaire. These composite scores were used to conduct an independent-samples Kruskal-Wallis test. (A nonparametric test was chosen because the composite scores were not normally distributed.) Results showed that the median composite scores for the pre-questionnaire did not differ significantly between the three groups, x^2 (2) = 1.41, p = .493, with a mean rank of 37.44 for Group 1, 43.20 for Group 2, and 44.77 for group three.

TABLE **2. Pre-questionnaire and Post-questionnaire Composite Scores by Group**

Group	Quest	Median	Min	Max	Q1	Q3
1 (N = 26)	Pre	41.15	5.00	92.31	28.08	66.15
	Post	68.08	16.15	98.46	51.35	83.85
2 (N = 25)	Pre	45.39	19.23	95.38	37.69	66.54
	Post	64.62	33.08	95.38	58.59	85.39
3 (N = 32)	Pre	55.38	0.00	96.15	37.12	71.35

Note. Group 1 did communication practice and received feedback on communicative success. Group 2 did communication practice and received feedback on fluency. Group 3 did not do communication practice. Quest = questionnaire. Min = minimum. Max = maximum. Q1 = 25th percentile. Q3 = 75th percentile. Pre = pre-questionnaire. Post = post-questionnaire.

Second, a test was conducted to determine if changes in self-efficacy from the pre-questionnaire to the post-questionnaire were statistically significant. In the same way that composite scores had been generated for the pre-questionnaire, composite scores were also generated for the post-questionnaire. These composite scores for the pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire (see Table 2) were used to conduct a related-samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for each of the three groups. Results showed that for Group 1, the median composite scores for the pre-questionnaire (41.2) and for the post-questionnaire (68.1) were significantly different (Z = 4.34, p = .000). Similarly, for Group 2, the median composite scores for the pre-questionnaire (45.4) and for the post-questionnaire

(64.6) were significantly different ($Z = 4.14$, $p = .000$). However, for group three, the median composite scores for the pre-questionnaire (55.4) and for the post-questionnaire (53.9) did not differ significantly ($Z = 0.07$, $p = .945$).

Third, a test was conducted to determine if the amount of change from the pre-questionnaire to the post-questionnaire differed significantly between the groups. For each participant, the composite score for the pre-questionnaire was subtracted from the composite score for the post-questionnaire to generate a self-efficacy change score. These change scores were used to conduct an independent-samples Kruskal-Wallis test (see Table 3). (A nonparametric test was chosen because the change scores were not normally distributed.) Results were statistically significant, $x^2 (2) = 27.78$, $p = .000$, with a mean rank of 54.83 for Group 1, 51.06 for Group 2, and 24.50 for group three. Post hoc pairwise comparisons revealed two significant differences in change scores: (a) between Group 1 and Group 3, and (b) between Group 2 and Group 3. The difference between Group 1 and Group 2 was not significant.

TABLE 3. Self-Efficacy Change Scores by Group

Group	Median	Min	Max	Q1	Q3
1 ($N = 26$)	14.62	-4.62	51.22	6.92	28.08
2 ($N = 25$)	10.77	-2.31	60.00	3.65	23.46
3 ($N = 32$)	-0.39	-25.00	24.62	-5.67	6.92

Note. Group 1 did communication practice and received feedback on communicative success. Group 2 did communication practice and received feedback on fluency. Group 3 did not do communication practice. Min = minimum. Max = maximum. Q1 = 25th percentile. Q3 = 75th percentile.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

These results shed light on the study's research questions. The first question asked if practice communicating in English can help to build South Korean secondary school students' self-efficacy to communicate in English, and the answer here is yes. For students who did the activities to practice communicating (i.e., Groups 1 and 2), there was a significant increase in self-efficacy. For students who did not do the activities (i.e., Group 3), there was no such increase. The second question asked if the

kind of feedback students receive (i.e., feedback that focuses on communicative success vs. feedback that does not) makes a difference, and the answer here is no. For students who received feedback on communicative success (i.e., Group 1) and for students who received feedback on speaking fluency rather than communicative success (i.e., Group 2), the increase in self-efficacy was similar.

This is a useful contribution to the body of scholarly work that has examined ways to try to increase L2 students' self-efficacy. First, most of this work has focused on the kinds of self-efficacy other than self-efficacy to communicate. So, this study helps to fill a gap that is particularly important given the widespread emphasis in L2 education on student ability to communicate (Brown, 2014; Ministry of Education, 2007; van Ek & Trim, 1990). Second, previous studies that did focus on L2 students' self-efficacy to communicate point to the potential benefit of providing students with opportunities to practice communicating in the L2, for example, in a project-based L2 course (Mills, 2009) or in a study abroad program (Cubillos & Ilvento, 2012). This study adds support, showing that this benefit not only can occur with students from universities in the U.S., and not just with those particular models for providing opportunities to practice communicating, but also with younger students from a different institutional context (i.e., secondary schools in South Korea), and with a different, smaller scale model for providing opportunities to practice communicating (i.e., a small collection of short communication activities). Third, in those previous studies by Mills and by Cubillos and Ilvento, it is unclear if opportunities to practice communicating needed to provide students with a particular kind of feedback, for example, feedback on how successfully the students had communicated. This study helps add clarity here, showing that L2 students' self-efficacy to communicate can increase, regardless of whether feedback focuses on communicative success or not.

The results of this study are also worth considering from a practical perspective. For professionals in an EFL education context such as the South Korean secondary school English system, it may be encouraging to know that concrete steps can be taken to help students develop self-efficacy to communicate in English. Such steps are relevant to the goal of building students "confidence in English" (Ministry of Education, 2007, p. 43), and can help minimize the various negative outcomes associated with students' doubts about their own L2 abilities (e.g., MacIntyre, 2007; Mak, 2011), and maximize the various positive

outcomes associated with students' confidence in their own L2 abilities (Bong, 2002; Hsieh, 2008; Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2006, 2007; Phakiti, Hirsh, & Woodrow, 2013; Woodrow, 2011). Such steps can also be relatively straightforward. While L2 students' self-efficacy can benefit from practice communicating in a 75-hour project-based L2 course (Mills, 2009) or a 5-to-15-week study abroad program (Cubillos & Ilvento, 2012), it can also benefit from practice communicating in a collection of short activities that takes two to three hours to complete in total. Since it appears that various kinds of opportunities to practice communicating can have a positive impact on L2 students' self-efficacy, teachers may be able to find or create kinds of opportunities that fit easily with existing EFL curricula.

Finally, this study has limitations that should be kept in mind when interpreting the results, and which can be investigated in future research. First, the participants were students from English classes at one South Korean secondary school, so whether similar results would be found with students from other secondary schools or other kinds of institutions (e.g., middle school, university) is uncertain. Second, since the research was conducted outside the participants' secondary school English classes, the students who volunteered to participate likely had relatively high levels of motivation to learn English, believed they could spare time from their other school work, and had parents who supported them spending time in this way. These are factors that could be related to self-efficacy, so research involving students without these characteristics would be worthwhile. Third, increases in self-efficacy were observed only immediately after participants had finished the collection of activities, so whether these increases were durable over time is unknown. Measures of self-efficacy at multiple times after students have had opportunities to practice communicating would help to fill this gap. Future research that takes into account these limitations will be an effective way to build on the results of this study and shed further light on this important topic.

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APPENDIX

Self-Efficacy Questionnaire

The questionnaire included the following 13 self-efficacy items:

1. I can speak English with grammar that is correct enough for a listener to understand me.
2. I can speak English with vocabulary that is correct enough for a listener to understand me.
3. I can speak English with pronunciation that is clear enough for a listener to understand me.
4. I can speak English to describe a picture accurately.
5. I can speak English to tell a story accurately.
6. I can speak English to express my attitude (e.g., what I like, what I want, what I think or feel).
7. I can speak English to try to get someone else to do something (e.g., by making a suggestion, invitation, or request).
8. I can speak English to socialize (e.g., to meet and greet people).
9. I can speak English to ask for help with my English (e.g., by asking someone to speak English more slowly or to repeat what they said).
10. I can speak English to give an effective short presentation about a topic that I know well (e.g., my hobbies, my daily routine, Korean culture).
11. I can speak English to participate actively (e.g., by asking and answering questions) in a short casual conversation about a topic that I know well (e.g., my hobbies, my daily routine, Korean culture).
12. I can speak English effectively with people at my school (e.g., teachers and classmates in my English classes).
13. I can speak English effectively with people outside my school (e.g., people from other countries who visit Korea or who I meet when I travel overseas).

For each item, students were asked to rate their confidence in their ability on a scale of 0–100% (i.e., 0% = no confidence, 100% = complete confidence). For the pre-questionnaire, in addition to these 13 self-efficacy items, there were 3 items dealing with demographics (i.e., age, gender, and grade).

Teachers' Emotions, Self-Efficacy, English Proficiency, and Pedagogical Strategies

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Given that most research on teachers' emotions has been conducted in general educational contexts, this study expands research on teachers' emotions by including English teachers, particularly non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs), and integrates perspectives from psychological emotion research into the foreign language teaching field. The relationships among teachers' discrete emotions (enjoyment, pride, anxiety, anger, and frustration), self-efficacy beliefs, English proficiency, and their pedagogical strategies were examined. A total of $N = 127$ NNESTs in Korea completed a questionnaire assessing the previously mentioned areas. The findings showed that teachers' positive emotions of enjoyment and pride were positively related to their self-efficacy beliefs and English proficiency, while negative emotions of anxiety, anger, and frustration were negatively related to both constructs. Furthermore, NNESTs' self-efficacy beliefs were positively related to their English proficiency and communication-oriented pedagogical strategies. The findings indicate that it is advantageous for NNESTs to promote positive emotions and reduce negative emotions for their effective instruction and ultimately for students' achievement, and that NNESTs should improve their English proficiency to enhance self-efficacy beliefs and positive emotions.

Keywords: teachers' emotions, self-efficacy beliefs, English proficiency, pedagogical strategies

INTRODUCTION

Teaching is full of emotions. It is involved with several kinds of emotional experiences that can vary from joy to rage (Hargreaves, 1998).

Recent literature has shown that the emotional nature of the teaching process might be related to issues such as teacher burnout, job dissatisfaction, health problems, and high rates of leaving school (see Schutz & Zembylas, 2009). Therefore, empirical attention to teachers' emotions is important to enhance teachers' own lives and their instructional behaviors, which might directly influence student learning and academic achievement as well as teachers' overall instructional quality (Frenzel, Goetz, Stephens, & Jacob, 2009).

Of late, several researchers have been investigating teacher emotions (e.g., Cross & Hong, 2009; Frenzel, Goetz, Stephens, & Jacob, 2009; Schutz & Zembylas, 2009; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). However, most studies on teacher emotions have been conducted in general educational contexts rather than in the English language teaching field (Cowie, 2011; Schutz & Lee, 2014). Little research is available in terms of exploring teachers' emotional experiences in English language teaching, except for a few studies (Horwitz, 1996; Mousavi, 2007; Stanley, 1999). To illustrate, non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) experienced anxiety due to their self-perceived low English proficiency (Horwitz, 1996; Mousavi, 2007). Stanley (1999) claimed that English teachers' negative emotions could negatively influence instructional practices. Examining how language teachers manage their emotional experiences in terms of language teaching will offer a better insight into their behaviors regarding their students. This will have a great influence on how they instruct, which eventually can generate more effective language teaching and learning circumstances (Schutz & Lee, 2014).

As the world is becoming increasingly globalized, more and more people use English as a lingua franca, resulting in a constant increase in the proportion of non-native English speakers to natives (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 1999). Accordingly, non-native speakers have become the majority of English teachers worldwide (Braine, 2010; Canagarajah, 2005; Moussu & Llurda, 2008), and researchers in the English language learning field have been paying more attention to issues related to NNESTs (Selvi, 2014). However, to date, there is still a lack of studies examining NNESTs' affective experiences. In the present study, an attempt was made to complement an important gap in the current literature by exploring NNESTs' emotional experiences, moving beyond general emotions and looking at discrete emotions (e.g., enjoyment, anger, anxiety, pride, frustration, happiness, enthusiasm, and boredom).

Empirical study of teachers' perceptions and beliefs is important because these constructs strongly influence teachers' instructional practices as well as students' achievement and motivation in learning (e.g., Hollon, Anderson, & Roth, 1991; Johnson, 1992; Milner & Hoy, 2003). One of the most critical beliefs largely related to teachers' teaching quality, their well-being, and students' outcomes is teachers' self-efficacy (Chacón, 2005). According to Bandura (1997), teachers' self-efficacy influences the kind of learning environment that teachers promote for desirable student academic achievement, as well as teachers' judgments about the various tasks that they implement to encourage effective student learning. In particular, the aim was to investigate how NNESTs' emotional experiences are related to their self-efficacy beliefs and self-perceived English language proficiency. An attempt was also made to examine how NNESTs' self-efficacy beliefs are related to their English proficiency levels and pedagogical strategies while teaching. More importantly, an effort was made to integrate perspectives from psychological emotion research into the foreign language teaching field by including teachers' discrete emotions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Teacher Emotions

Teacher emotions are induced by their appraisals or judgments concerning what is happening in a specific class situation (Frenzel, Goetz, Stephens, & Jacob, 2009; Pekrun, Frenzel, Goetz, & Perry, 2007; Schutz, Cross, Hong, & Osbon, 2007). Essentially, teachers' goals, values, and beliefs are crucial factors used to appraise classroom situations or events (Schutz & Davis, 2000; Schutz & Lee, 2014). Most importantly, teachers' goals play a central part in the appraisal process; that is, if a classroom event is evaluated as consistent with teachers' goals, teachers may experience positive emotions, and if a classroom event is appraised as inconsistent with their goals, negative emotions will be more likely to emerge (Frenzel, Goetz, Stephens, & Jacob, 2009). Frenzel, Thrash, Pekrun, and Goetz (2007) proposed three instructional goals that teachers strive to achieve in the classroom. Through their teaching, teachers want to positively influence students' (a) cognitive

growth (i.e., knowledge acquisition in academic subjects), (b) motivation (i.e., interests in topics, readiness to make an effort on learning), and (c) social-emotional abilities (i.e., sympathy towards classmates and teachers, and student compliance with classroom disciplines). This perspective also supports Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2001) triple notions of teachers' efficacy beliefs consisting of student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management efficacy.

Frenzel, Goetz, Stephens, and Jacob (2009) further posited that important appraisal dimensions involved with teacher emotions are composed of goal congruence (consistency), accountability (agency or locus of causation), coping potential (control), and goal importance (relevance). For instance, when a teacher goals is that students should be able to understand unknown vocabulary items in a context (i.e., cognitive growth); if students can grasp the meanings of the unknown words by the end of the class, teachers may appraise this situation as goal-congruent or goal-consistent. However, if students do not understand the unknown words, teachers may judge this situation as goal-incongruent or goal-inconsistent. Furthermore, teachers will appraise who was accountable or responsible for this goal incongruence. They might blame themselves (i.e., "I should have done a better job to make students understand the words") or blame students (i.e., "My students could have invested more effort to understand the words"). In addition, teachers will ask themselves whether they possess the coping potential to handle this particular situation (i.e., "Am I capable of helping my students comprehend the unknown words?" or "Am I in control of this situation?"). Finally, teachers will also consider the significance of this goal (i.e., ''It is crucial for my students to understand the unknown words in the context'').

These appraisals of the classroom situation relative to teachers' instructional goals are considered as the antecedents of teacher emotions (Frenzel, Thrash, Pekrun, & Goetz, 2007). Consequently, if a classroom situation is appraised as goal-important and goal-congruent with the appraisal of being able to deal with any possible situations, teachers might experience positive emotions like enjoyment or pride. On the other hand, if the teacher appraises a classroom situation as goal-important and goal-incongruent with the appraisal of self-blame, negative emotions such as frustration or shame would be generated. Alternatively, under the same situation with the appraisal of other-blame, teachers might experience negative emotions like anger.

Teacher Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Teacher self-efficacy beliefs are described as teachers' self-perceived judgments about their competencies to successfully complete their teaching tasks (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). As Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) discussed, teachers' self-efficacy has several significant implications in the educational context. They introduced previous findings showing that teachers' self-efficacy was closely associated with student learning outcomes (Moore & Esselman, 1992; Ross, 1992), motivation (Midgley, Feldlaufer, & Eccles, 1989), and students' self-efficacy (Anderson, Greene, & Loewen, 1988). Moreover, teachers' self-efficacy has a great influence on their instructional behaviors and attitudes in the classroom by determining their instructional goals and the amount of effort they invest in teaching (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001).

In addition, several empirical investigations have presented more effects of teachers' self-efficacy in various aspects. For example, Allinder (1994) found that the stronger teachers' efficacy beliefs were, the greater the levels of their planning were. Teachers with a strong sense of efficacy were willing to adapt new ideas or methods to their teaching (Guskey, 1988; Stein & Wang, 1988). They also expressed higher enthusiasm for teaching (Allinder, 1994) and possessed a higher commitment to teaching (Coladarci, 1992). Greater efficacy beliefs also enabled teachers to be more persistent and resilient when the class did not run smoothly (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Soodak & Podell, 1993). As a result, it was expected that they would be more likely to remain in the teaching profession (Burley, Hall, Villeme, & Brockmeier, 1991).

As such, teacher self-efficacy beliefs greatly influence their planning, organizing, and implementation of activities required to reach their instructional goals (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). The present study focuses on teacher self-efficacy beliefs in the context of English language teaching among NNESTs in Korea by investigating the relationships of their efficacy beliefs with their emotional experiences, self-perceived proficiency, and pedagogical strategies.

Relations Among Teacher Emotions, Self-Efficacy Beliefs, English Proficiency, and Pedagogical Strategies

There have been a few studies supporting a significant relation between teachers' emotional lives and their teaching self-efficacy in general educational contexts. For instance, teachers who possessed high self-efficacy beliefs experienced more positive emotions (Moé, Pazzaglia, & Ronconi, 2010; Stephanou, Gkavras, & Doulkeridou, 2013), while teachers with low self-efficacy experienced more negative emotions (Chang, 2013). However, these studies investigated the links between teachers' general positive and negative emotions and self-efficacy. Research is still lacking on the association between teachers' discrete emotions (e.g., enjoyment, anger, anxiety, pride, frustration, happiness, enthusiasm, and boredom) and their teaching self-efficacy beliefs with a few exceptions. For example, Frenzel, Goetz, Stephens, and Jacob (2009) found that the greater teachers perceive their class as motivated, well disciplined, and performing well, the higher enjoyment, and lower anger and anxiety they experienced. Hong, Ruan, You, and Kambara (2014) reported that positive emotions of enjoyment and pride had positive correlations with self-efficacy beliefs, and negative emotions such as anger, anxiety, and frustration had negative correlations with self-efficacy beliefs. Taxer and Frenzel (2015) found genuinely expressed happiness, pride, enthusiasm, and liking were positively associated with self-efficacy and a negative emotion, disliking, was negatively related, with anger and boredom displaying a negative trend. The findings highlight the importance of exploring discrete emotions rather than general positive and negative emotions, given that not all of the emotions in general positive and negative categories showed the same relationships with self-efficacy beliefs.

However, little research effort has been made to examine the relationships between teachers' discrete emotions and their teaching self-efficacy in the English language learning context, although existing studies have investigated teachers' general emotional experiences in this field (e.g., Horwitz, 1996; Mousavi, 2007; Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Stanley, 1999; Schutz & Lee, 2014). Most studies on English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs have investigated mainly the relations of self-efficacy with English proficiency and pedagogical strategies among NNESTs. For example, Brinton (2004) found that pre-service NNESTs reported low efficacy beliefs due to their perceived insufficient language skills. Reves and Medgyes (1994) argued that a constant realization of insufficient English proficiency seemed to be the strongest factor influencing NNESTs' self-perceived teaching behaviors or attitudes.

Other studies presented positive correlations between self-efficacy beliefs and self-reported English proficiency (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Ghasemboland & Hashim, 2013; Yilmaz, 2011). Concerning research on teaching self-efficacy and pedagogical strategies, earlier studies showed that NNESTs' self-efficacy beliefs correlated positively with communication-oriented strategies, whereas they did not display any significant relations with grammar-oriented strategies (Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Yilmaz, 2011). As such NNESTs' English proficiency and pedagogical strategies have been considered as two meaningful elements associated with teachers' self-efficacy.

Furthermore, researchers have suggested that NNESTs' self-perceived English language proficiency was significantly associated with their emotional experiences. Horwitz (1996) reported that the majority of NNESTs experienced considerable levels of anxiety or feelings of insecurity in terms of self-perceived language proficiency. Reves and Medgyes (1994) found that the higher the NNESTs' English proficiency level was, the less self-conscious and anxious or insecure they were. In other words, low self-confidence in using English may cause a poor self-image, which might result in negative emotions like insecurity or a sense of inferiority while teaching (Reves & Medgyes, 1994). These findings demonstrate that there exists a specific relationship between NNESTs' self-perceived English proficiency and their emotional experiences.

Based on the line of research discussed above, it is clear that teachers' emotional experiences are associated with their efficacy beliefs and self-perceived English proficiency, and their efficacy beliefs influence their English proficiency and pedagogical strategies. However, to our knowledge, so far no one has investigated how self-efficacy or English proficiency is related to teachers' discrete emotions among English teachers, particularly, NNESTs.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

The present study, conducted with 127 NNESTs in Korea, aimed to examine how teachers' discrete emotions, their efficacy beliefs, their self-perceived English proficiency, and pedagogical strategies are related to one another. Among various emotions that teachers might experience

while teaching, enjoyment, pride, anger, anxiety, and frustration were included, given that these emotions have been experienced the most frequently by teachers (Frenzel, Goetz, Stephens, & Jacob, 2009; Sutton, 2007; Taxer & Frenzel, 2015; Trigwell, 2009). The following presents our research question and hypotheses:

What are the relations among NNESTs' emotions, self-efficacy beliefs, English proficiency, and pedagogical strategies in Korea?

Hypothesis 1. NNESTs' positive emotions are positively related to their self-efficacy beliefs and self-perceived English proficiency.

Hypothesis 2. NNESTs' negative emotions are negatively related to their self-efficacy beliefs and self-perceived English proficiency.

Hypothesis 3. NNESTs' self-efficacy beliefs are positively related to their English proficiency and communication-oriented pedagogical strategies.

METHOD

Participants and Procedure

A total of $N = 127$ NNESTs in Seoul, Korea (age $M = 36.03$, $SD = 7.73$, 91.10% female) participated in this study. Among them, 104 participants (82%) were master's degree students studying Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) or graduates from the same TESOL master's program. The TESOL course was an English medium master's program and was being operated with in-service teachers in the evening. Among the 104 MA students and MA graduates from this program, 90% were English teachers at the same time. The participants had an average of 7.15 years ($SD = 6.39$) teaching experience with a range of 1 to 34 years, and 58.1% had studied English and/or lived in an English-speaking country for 1.85 years ($SD = 3.39$) on average with a range of 1 to 26 years. They were teaching English in various settings such as elementary schools, middle schools, high schools, universities, and private institutes.

Some of the TESOL masters' degree students described above who were also English teachers were asked to distribute and collect the questionnaire in their workplace. A brief introduction letter was included in the questionnaire, describing the general purpose of the present study and assuring that the responses would be kept confidential. The questionnaire was paper-and-pencil-based. Teachers voluntarily completed the questionnaire measuring their discrete emotions, efficacy beliefs, self-perceived English proficiency, and pedagogical strategies. After completing the questionnaire in about 15 minutes, they submitted it to the teacher who had originally been asked to distribute and collect it. Then the teachers returned all the collected questionnaires to the author.

Instruments

The English versions of the instruments were first translated into Korean by two English-Korean bilinguals, and the translations were blindly back-translated to English by another bilingual to check consistency. In order to ensure accuracy of the contents, the back-translated versions were compared with the original English versions. The translators discussed all items thoroughly until they agreed with one another regarding clarity and precision of the Korean content.

Background Questionnaire

A background questionnaire was distributed to receive participant information on gender, age, educational background, period of studying English and/or living in an English-speaking country, teaching experiences, and workplaces. The background questionnaire was placed at the end of all measures so that the participants could feel more comfortable in answering other important questionnaires before they provided information about themselves.

Teachers' Emotions

The Achievement Emotions Questionnaire for Teachers (AEQ-T; Frenzel, Pekrun, & Goetz, 2010) and the Emotions in Teaching Inventory (ETI; Trigwell, 2009) were used to assess teachers' emotions. The AEQ-T examined teachers' experienced emotions of enjoyment,

anxiety, and anger, and the ETI evaluated their pride and frustration. Each emotion scale included four items (enjoyment, e.g., "I often have reasons to be happy while I teach"; anxiety, e.g., "I generally feel tense and nervous while teaching"; anger, e.g., "I often feel annoyed while teaching"; pride, e.g., "I am proud of the way I am teaching"; frustration, e.g., "Getting students to engage with learning is frustrating"). Participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree"). The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the enjoyment, pride, anxiety, anger, and frustration scales were .74/.75/.77/.77/.75, respectively.

Teachers' Self-Efficacy

The short version of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) was utilized to measure teachers' efficacy beliefs for student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management. For this scale, the existing Korean version of the TSES (Klassen, Bong, Usher, Chong, Huan, Wong, & Georgiou, 2009) was adapted. The scale was slightly modified to fit the English language teaching context, by adding or substituting "English" or "learning English" for "schoolwork" in the original items. Each scale included four items (student engagement, e.g., "How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in schoolwork?"; instructional strategies, e.g., "To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?"; classroom management, e.g., "How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?"). Participants answered on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("nothing") to 5 ("a great deal"). Cronbach's alpha coefficients were .74 for student engagement, .75 for instructional strategies, and .78 for the classroom management scale.

Teachers' Self-Perceived English Proficiency

The Teachers' Self-Reported English Proficiency Scale (Chacón, 2005) was used to examine teachers' proficiency for speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Each proficiency scale included four items (speaking, e.g., "I can express and support my opinions in English when speaking about general topics"; listening, e.g., "I can understand when two English speakers talk at a normal speed"; reading, e.g., "I can draw inferences/conclusions from what I read in English"; writing, e.g., "I can

write a short essay in English on a topic of my knowledge"). Each item was answered on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree"). Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the speaking, listening, reading, and writing scales were .86/.81/.85/.87, respectively.

Teachers' Pedagogical Strategies

In order to assess teachers' pedagogical strategies, an instrument used in previous studies (e.g., Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008) was adapted by replacing "students' native language" in the original items with "Korean." This instrument contains grammar-oriented and communication-oriented strategies, with each scale consisting of five items. An example item for the grammar-oriented strategies scale is "I ask students to memorize new vocabulary or phrases without showing them how to use the words in context," and one for the communication-oriented strategies scale is "I give students the opportunity to get into groups and discuss answers to problem-solving activities." Participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("never") to 5 ("always"). Cronbach's alpha coefficients were .65 for the grammar-oriented strategies and .78 for the communication-oriented strategies.

RESULTS

Preliminary Analysis

Table 1 displays the means and standard deviations of all study instruments. The participants experienced high means for positive emotions of enjoyment (M = 4.09, SD = .51) and pride (M = 3.85, SD = .59), but low means for negative emotions of anxiety (M = 2.45, SD = .71), anger (M = 2.17, SD = .70), and frustration (M = 2.28, SD = .68), with enjoyment being the highest and anger being the lowest. The means for their self-efficacy in teaching English were over the middle point of the measure (2.5) for all dimensions of student engagement (M = 3.63, SD = .54), instructional strategies (M = 3.65, SD = .53), and classroom management (M = 3.66, SD = .59). With respect to their self-perceived English proficiency, the participants rated their proficiency levels as rather high overall, with reading proficiency being the highest (M = 3.81, SD = .68) and listening skills being the lowest (M = 3.66,

SD = .71). Regarding pedagogical strategies, the NNESTs in this study had a higher mean for communication-oriented strategies (*M* = 3.15, *SD* = .74) rather than grammar-oriented strategies (*M* = 2.89, *SD* = .64).

TABLE 1. Means and Standard Deviations of Teachers' Emotions, Self-Efficacy, English Proficiency, and Pedagogical Strategies

		Mean	*SD*
Emotions	Enjoyment	4.09	.51
	Pride	3.85	.59
	Anxiety	2.45	.71
	Anger	2.17	.70
	Frustration	2.28	.68
Self-efficacy	Student engagement	3.63	.54
	Instructional strategies	3.65	.53
	Classroom management	3.66	.59
English proficiency	Speaking	3.73	.71
	Listening	3.66	.71
	Reading	3.81	.68
	Writing	3.72	.77
Pedagogical strategies	Grammar-oriented	2.89	.64
	Communication-oriented	3.15	.74

Note. Mean, possible range 1 (strongly disagree) – 5 (strongly agree); 1 (nothing) – 5 (a great deal) for self-efficacy.

Relations Among Teachers' Emotions, Self-Efficacy, English Proficiency, and Pedagogical Strategies

Table 2 displays the intercorrelations of teachers' emotions, their self-efficacy beliefs, their self-perceived English proficiency, and pedagogical strategies.

Hypotheses 1 and 2: Emotions and Self-Efficacy/English Proficiency

As predicted, teachers' positive emotions were positively and negative emotions were negatively associated with their self-efficacy. Specifically, enjoyment and pride had significantly positive relationships

with all efficacy dimensions; rs (enjoyment/pride) = .61/.49, ps < .01, in the student engagement efficacy; rs = .50/.39, ps < .01, in the instructional strategies efficacy; rs = .39/.37, ps < .01, in the classroom management efficacy. On the other hand, anxiety and frustration showed significantly negative relationships with all efficacy dimensions; rs (anxiety/frustration) = -.33/-.50, ps < .01, in the student engagement efficacy; rs = -.23/-.24, ps < .01, in the instructional strategies efficacy; rs = -.34/-.43, ps < .01, in the classroom management efficacy. However, anger exhibited a significantly negative relationship only with student engagement efficacy (r = -.22, p < .01) and a negative trend with instructional strategies efficacy (r = -.11, ns), whereas it was not related to classroom management efficacy (r = .02, ns). As can be seen, there existed stronger relationships of positive emotions with self-efficacy than the relationships of negative emotions with self-efficacy beliefs.

TABLE 2. **Correlations of Teachers' Emotions, Self-Efficacy, English Proficiency, and Pedagogical Strategies**

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Enjoyment	—													
2. Pride	.60**	—												
3. Anxiety	-.38**	-.35**	—											
4. Anger	-.33**	-.19*	.41**	—										
5. Frustration	-.51**	-.46**	.56**	.57**	—									
6. SE effi.	.61**	.49**	-.33**	-.22**	-.50**	—								
7. IS effi.	.50**	.39**	-.23**	-.11	-.24**	.53**	—							
8. CM effi.	.39**	.37**	-.34**	.02	-.43**	.44**	.53**	—						
9. Speaking	.32**	.30**	-.11	-.24**	-.26**	.32**	.41**	.34**	—					
10. Listening	.26**	.25**	-.09	-.22**	-.22**	.34**	.44**	.26**	.69**	—				
11. Reading	.33**	.23**	-.07	-.08	-.09	.34**	.45**	.24**	.63**	.66**	—			
12. Writing	.33**	.23**	-.08	-.22**	-.24**	.33**	.47**	.22**	.61**	.63**	.78**	—		
13. GOS	.00	-.05	.13	.15	.05	.02	-.07	.10	-.21*	-.13	-.13	-.15	—	
14. COS	.15	.16	-.07	-.10	-.04	.27**	.33**	.20*	.42**	.40**	.22**	.23**	-.37**	—

Note. SE effi. = student engagement efficacy; IS effi. = instructional strategies efficacy; CM effi. = classroom management efficacy; GOS = grammar-oriented strategies; COS = communication-oriented strategies.
* p < .05. ** p < .01.

In terms of the links between NNESTs' discrete emotions and their self-perceived English proficiency levels, the results showed that positive emotions of enjoyment and pride were positively linked to English proficiency in all four skills (rs = .26 ~ .33, ps < .01 for enjoyment; rs = .23 ~ .30, ps < .01 for pride), whereas negative emotions of anger and frustration were negatively related to English proficiency in speaking, listening, and writing skills (rs = -.22 ~ -.24, ps < .01 for anger; rs = -.22 ~ -.26, ps < .01 for frustration), showing a negative trend with reading skills. The links between anxiety and English proficiency in all four skills were not significant but also negatively related.

Hypothesis 3: Self-Efficacy and English Proficiency/Pedagogical Strategies

Positive correlations were found between Korean NNESTs' self-efficacy for all three dimensions and their English proficiency levels in all four skills. In particular, instructional strategies efficacy showed stronger associations with English proficiency levels (rs = .41 ~ .47, ps < .01) rather than student engagement (rs = .32 ~ .34, ps < .01) and classroom management efficacy (rs = .22 ~ .34, ps < .01). Furthermore, teachers' self-efficacy subscales were positively related to communication-oriented pedagogical strategies (rs = .27/.33, ps < .01 for student engagement/instructional strategies efficacy; r = .20, p < .05 for classroom management efficacy), whereas they were not significantly related to grammar-oriented strategies.

In addition to the hypothesized relations, additional connections were found between English proficiency and pedagogical strategies. English proficiency levels in all four areas were positively associated with communication-oriented pedagogical strategies (rs = .22 ~ .42, ps < .01). Regarding the grammar-oriented pedagogical strategies, speaking proficiency was negatively related to grammar-oriented pedagogical strategies (r = -.21, p < .05), while other proficiency skills presented a negative tendency with these strategies.

DISCUSSION

Consistent with the finding in Hong, Ruan, You, and Kambara's

(2014) work, which investigated Asian teachers' emotions in China, Korea, and Japan, this study found that teachers' enjoyment was the most experienced followed by pride, supporting the claim that classroom teaching is filled with positive emotions (Hargreaves, 1998). In contrast, teachers reported lower means on negative emotions, anxiety, anger, and frustration, with anger being the lowest, as also found in Hong, Ruan, You, and Kambara's (2014). This might be due to display rules that expressing anger as a teacher is not proper (Sutton, 2004) and admitting being anxious while teaching is socially inappropriate (Frenzel, Goetz, Stephens, & Jacob, 2009). Also, anger may be avoided in collectivistic Asian cultures, as has been claimed in cross-cultural studies (e.g., Frenzel, Thrash, Pekrun, & Goetz, 2007; Kitayama, Mesquita, & Karasawa, 2006; Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

The participants rated their self-efficacy in teaching English as rather high in all three dimensions, as also reported in previous studies (e.g., Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Ghasemboland & Hashim, 2013). This indicates that they perceived themselves efficacious regarding student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management. That is, they believed in their capabilities to motivate and engage students, to use efficient instructional strategies, and to manage class as high overall. Considering the characteristic of the present participants, 82% of whom were NNESTs attending a TESOL master's program or already possessing a TESOL master's degree, it is believed that the better trained NNESTs are, the more self-confident they would feel in teaching (Reves & Medgyes, 1994).

They also reported high English proficiency levels in all four areas, with reading proficiency being the highest and listening skills being the lowest. Their high English proficiency levels are understandable, given that 82% of the participants had attended or were currently attending an English-medium master's program and 57% had lived in English-speaking countries, and that English proficiency was positively related to the period of staying in an English-speaking country, consistent with the previous findings (e.g., Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Lee, Schutz, & van Vlack, 2017). The higher mean of communication-oriented strategies among the NNESTs in this study suggests that they seemed to be more inclined toward applying communication-based activities rather than grammar-based ones, in correspondence with previous findings (Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Yilmaz, 2011).

Teachers' positive emotions were positively linked and negative

emotions negatively linked to their self-efficacy beliefs, consistent with previous results (Frenzel, Goetz, Stephens, & Jacob, 2009; Hong, Ruan, You, & Kambara, 2014; Taxer & Frenzel, 2015). Particularly positive emotions showed a stronger relationship with self-efficacy compared to the relationship of negative emotions with self-efficacy, as also found in Taxer and Frenzel (2015). No significant relationship of anger with classroom management self-efficacy was found, while the other negative emotions, anxiety and frustration, were negatively associated with all three dimensions of self-efficacy beliefs. This could be because more efficacious teachers may not experience as much anger as teachers with lower self-efficacy. Additionally, the level of experienced anger in our sample might have been too low to correlate with self-efficacy. The findings imply that not all of the emotions in general positive and negative categories share the same relationships with self-efficacy, emphasizing the significance of examining discrete emotions rather than general positive and negative emotions (Taxer & Frenzel, 2015). Overall our results indicate that teachers' positive emotions might positively affect their self-perceptions of self-efficacy. This finding could also be explained by Fredrickson's (2001) assumption that positive emotions facilitate generating ideas and flexible attitudes by broadening one's array of thoughts and actions, thus producing or promoting success.

Furthermore, NNESTs' positive emotions of enjoyment and pride were positively associated with their self-perceived English proficiency, whereas negative emotions of anxiety, anger, and frustration were negatively related to English proficiency. This supports a specific relationship between teachers' emotional experiences and their self-perceived English proficiency. In correspondence with earlier findings (e.g., Horwitz, 1996; Reves & Medgyes, 1994), NNESTs' self-perceived low proficiency might have led to a poor self-image among NNESTs, which generates negative emotions such as feelings of anxiety, insecurity, or sense of inferiority. In contrast, it could be assumed that NNESTs' self-perceived high proficiency would help them experience more positive emotions.

NNESTs' self-efficacy beliefs were positively related to their English proficiency levels, also reported in earlier research (e.g., Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Ghasemboland & Hashim, 2013; Lee, 2009; Shim, 2001). This demonstrates that the higher the NNESTs' self-efficacy beliefs were, the more proficient they perceived themselves in English. In particular, the relationship of instructional strategies efficacy

with English proficiency levels was stronger than with student engagement and classroom management efficacy. This suggests that the NNESTs who are more proficient in English would be better at performing teaching tasks related to instructional strategies than in the student engagement and classroom management dimensions. Also found were positive relationships between NNESTs' self-efficacy beliefs and communication-oriented pedagogical strategies, consistent with previous findings (Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Yilmaz, 2011). From this result, it can be assumed that the higher NNESTs' self-efficacy beliefs are, the more likely they are to use communication-oriented pedagogical strategies. This could be a result of the participants' rather high level of training in TESOL methodology and, therefore, higher degree of familiarity with communicative approaches as well as strategies for implementing them. In Korea it is also generally believed that communicative-based practices are harder to achieve in the classroom and less effective teachers will therefore simply avoid them, opting for more structured, teacher-centered grammar-based approaches.

In terms of the additional relations between English proficiency and pedagogical strategies, it was found that English proficiency levels had positive relations with communication-oriented pedagogical strategies, and showed a negative tendency with the grammar-oriented pedagogical ones. This finding indicates that the higher NNESTs' self-perceived English proficiency levels are, the more likely they are to apply communication-oriented strategies. This could be because communication-oriented tasks call for student production and output in the target language (English), which in turn requires teacher use of the target language for monitoring and feedback purposes. Teachers who feel their own proficiency to be low, or possibly even lower than some of the students themselves, will choose to avoid using the target language. Grammar-oriented practices in Korea are typically conducted in the L1 (Korean) with little or no use of the target language. These results are, therefore, understandable when local context is taken into account.

Conclusions, Limitations, and Future Suggestions

The present study expands research on teachers' emotions by

including English teachers, particularly NNESTs, given that most research on teachers' emotions has been performed in general educational contexts. This study has also made an effort to integrate perspectives from psychological emotion research into the foreign language teaching field by including teachers' discrete emotions. Moreover, this study extends research on the relationships between teachers' self-efficacy and other factors such as emotions, English proficiency, and pedagogical strategies in the English teaching context. Above all, by investigating the relation between teachers' discrete emotions and their self-efficacy beliefs, this research helps to expand understanding of those constructs and provide inferential information on teachers' well-being, teaching quality, and students' academic achievement.

The finding that NNESTs' self-efficacy beliefs were positively associated with their positive emotions and negatively associated with their negative emotions indicates that it might be beneficial for NNESTs to promote positive emotions and reduce negative emotions for effective instruction and ultimately students' achievement improvement. This calls for a need to generate an effective teaching environment enhancing teachers' positive emotions and reducing negative emotions. To this end, it is suggested that English teachers try to keep self-confidence in teaching, prepare lessons thoroughly, improve their English proficiency continuously, and use a self-support group to discuss their emotional experiences while teaching (Lee, Schutz, & van Vlack, 2017).

Furthermore, the positive relationships between NNESTs' English proficiency and their self-efficacy/positive emotions suggest that improving teachers' English proficiency can promote teachers' self-efficacy as well as positive emotions while teaching. This emphasizes the importance of developing NNESTs' English proficiency. In order to enhance NNESTs' English proficiency, it is necessary for teacher education programs and workplaces to promote an authentic English language environment by providing proficiency-oriented courses. More importantly, NNESTs should be aware of this relation and benefit from the training courses offered, by actively participating.

Although the present research contributes to the understanding of teachers' emotional experiences and their self-efficacy beliefs, it is difficult to generalize the results since this research was implemented only with a limited sample of Korean NNESTs teaching English in different settings. Future studies should include more teacher samples in

different countries and other subjects to obtain clearer perspectives and to see if the results are replicable. In addition, since teachers' self-efficacy is a multifaceted construct, more studies are needed to investigate what other factors would influence English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in addition to their emotions, English proficiency, and pedagogical strategies, examined in the present study.

The use of self-reported questionnaire data might not have accurately captured actual psychological phenomena such as teachers' emotions and self-efficacy beliefs. Also, teachers' might have reported what they perceived as desirable for teachers in terms of emotions or pedagogical strategies. It is therefore important to include measures on social desirability as well as third-person observers such as students or colleagues in future research. It might be meaningful to compare teachers' perceptions about themselves and students' perceptions about teachers. Moreover, in order to thoroughly examine the associations among NNESTs' emotions, self-efficacy beliefs, English proficiency, and pedagogical strategies, future research might include other data sources such as interviews or class observations.

Finally, based on the present results of a quantitative study, future research might conduct empirical intervention studies to unveil what can be done to foster teachers' positive emotions and to reduce negative emotions when teaching English. Future research should also consider conducting longitudinal studies on the relation between teachers' emotions and self-efficacy beliefs in order to capture their developmental trajectories.

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A Task-Based Model of Process Writing for Korean Learners

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This study aims to identify and describe ways in which insights from research and practice in Task-Based Language Teaching can be applied in a process-oriented approach to the teaching of second language writing in a writing course for Korean university students. It was found that the various stages in a process-oriented approach to writing closely mirror steps that can be seen in a classical framework for task-based learning proposed by Jane Willis (1996). It was also found that the multiple episodes of collaborative interaction that are obtained from such an approach, and one which also involves frequent opportunities for both peer and teacher feedback, were well received by Korean learners who appeared to have a natural predisposition and preference for mutually supportive interaction at every stage in the process. It is argued that the value attached to interdependence in Korean culture and a preference for immersion in group activities over isolated and individualistic activity can account for this observation.

Keywords: foreign language writing, task-based language teaching (TBLT), collaborative writing, peer interaction

INTRODUCTION

For those who teach second language writing in Korea as a separate discipline from the other skills, it may at first seem difficult to know how to apply insights from Task-Based Language Teaching (hereinafter, TBLT). A survey of both the popular and scholarly literature might give the impression that TBLT is primarily focused on fostering improvement in students' general language skills with an emphasis on oral/aural skills rather than on written skills.

In large scale treatments on TBLT like Ellis (2003), Nunan (2004),

and Willis and Willis (2007) for example, writing tasks are presented from time to time in example task cycles but most often not where a written text is the ultimate outcome. This, of course, is not to say that any TBLT researcher or language teacher would downplay the value of learning to write well in a second language. It is simply the case that in approaches to second language education after the decline of the grammar-translation method, writing has mostly tended to serve as a facilitative exercise to what has become the more important business of speaking and listening, as communicative language teaching has moved to the center ground.

The application in the language classroom of TBLT in its purest form, with its emphasis on oral interaction, *negotiation of meaning* (Long, 1991), and its potential to assist language acquisition by fostering *noticing* of form (Schmidt, 1994) by way of helpful oral recasts and comprehension checks, makes it understandable that writing has a lower priority among possible tasks from which a teacher can choose when planning a lesson or syllabus.

There are obvious reasons for this. For a time at least, when the actual writing is done, only one person can hold the pen or type on the keyboard! Certainly in the classroom at least, if the extent of the writing runs beyond the production of more than, say, a paragraph, then this can potentially become a non-interactive and time-consuming activity although, as we shall see later, collaborative writing can address this problem. However, when planning task-based lessons in language courses of a general nature, language teachers can be forgiven for initially concluding that with the time available to them, other types of tasks, and ones which promote more oral interaction among students, would be more profitable in the classroom. This would certainly seem to be the case within so-called "four-skill" language courses. Here the production of written texts is often considered best given as a homework assignment, to be done outside the classroom and in a student's own time.

For these reasons, many second language teachers may wonder, if they wish to apply the most effective insights from the kind of interaction that TBLT promotes, just how much progress can be made in written skills within the context of a general language course.

When a written text is produced, students desire, and teachers of course feel obliged to provide, corrective feedback – a response that shows up issues not only of grammar and mechanics but also of style,

presentation, and content. The labor involved in this endeavor for the teacher can be multiplied many times over by individual variation in students' written proficiencies and by large class sizes in a traditional approach to the teaching of writing. The teaching of second language writing skills, therefore, naturally gives rise to a process of cyclical interaction among student writers and the instructor, which tends to involve multiple drafting, revision, and editing. With this in mind, it seems clear that a course of study devoted purely to second language writing best affords the time necessary to make significant progress. In this context (language courses devoted exclusively to writing), does TBLT still have something to offer? In this paper, I intend to argue that it can.

First, I will undertake a brief historical sketch of contemporary approaches to second language writing. Next, I will argue that process-based approaches are optimal for writing improvement since factors beyond linguistic competence often determine the quality of written products. Finally, and for the most part, I will show how insights from research and practice in TBLT can optimize such a process-based approach to second language writing in the South Korean context.

In an excellent short survey of developments in second language composition since 1945, Tony Silva identifies the four most influential approaches that have dominated second language writing ever since: Controlled Composition, Current-Traditional Rhetoric, the Process Approach, and English for Academic Purposes (Silva, 1990). Silva also notes that these approaches have arisen from L1 composition research and practice, have faded from time to time, but have never really gone away. This can easily be detected when one looks at any classroom text on writing in the ESL/EFL marketplace today.

APPROACHES TO SECOND LANGUAGE COMPOSITION

Controlled Composition

"...the handmaid of the other skills." (Rivers, 1968, p. 241)

Controlled composition was rooted in the audiolingual method of second language teaching and in behaviorist psychology, and conceives

of writing as a mere subservient concern best employed to reinforce speech habits. Writing accurate error-free sentences was the main aim of this approach, and a student writer's style and originality were not deemed of any concern. Learning to write in a second language was not regarded as an end in itself and did not require attention to audience or purpose. Writing, then, was seen as a pragmatic exercise in habit formation. Students wrote sentences as a means of learning vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure. In this era, there were some (Erazmus, 1960; Brière, 1966) who believed that extended free composition could serve the dual purpose of assisting language control and developing written fluency; however, such notions were strongly opposed by others like Pincas (1962), who claimed that free composition was "in direct opposition to the ideals of scientific habit-forming teaching methods" (p. 185).

Current-Traditional Rhetoric / Product-Oriented Approach

It was not until the 1960s that a professional consensus began to recognize and appreciate the need for students to be able to produce quality extended writing for themselves and argued for second language writing to be seen as more than just an exercise to reinforce grammar and accuracy. Kaplan (1967) called for training in rhetorical skills above the level of the sentence so that students would be able to write letters, reports, and essays that could avoid violating a native reader's expectations. Here for the first time, consideration for the *reader* of second language writing emerged, and attention shifted from the production of sentences as mere grammar practice to the assembling of paragraphs and essays to serve students' needs to produce written texts for a particular purpose. Classroom procedures, however, remained controlled and focused on form, with extended writing viewed as an exercise in fitting given sentences together to produce model paragraphs for letters, reports, and essays but also involving the identification of appropriate development options such as description, exemplification, comparison, and illustration. This would constitute the traditional approach to teaching second language writing – very much a product-oriented approach. Here a teacher might display for students a model of the kind of text that students were obliged to approximate, and attention would be drawn to certain rhetorical forms and ways of doing introductions, body paragraphs, conclusions, etc. Students would then be

given a different task or title and were asked to write their own text, incorporating as many transferable aspects of the model as possible. Teachers would then take in the written work, evaluate it, and return it to the student with a score and perhaps some useful comments and corrections. The process of writing, then, was undertaken largely in isolation and following a teacher's instruction in a very teacher-fronted lesson with the focus on the product.

The Process-Oriented Approach

From the descriptions given above of the earliest approaches, the reader can guess that it would not be long before both teachers and students would express frustration not only at the lack of provision for individual thought and expression but also at the very narrow view of writing implicit in these approaches. The linear and prescriptivist nature of both came under attack, particularly in the early 1980s from those like Zamel (1983) who drew attention to the *process* that necessarily lies behind the composition of a text. This, he claimed, was a "non-linear, exploratory, and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning" (Zamel, 1983, p. 165). This approach encourages teachers to help students generate ideas in a positive, collaborative environment, to have feedback from peers as well as the instructor, to have the chance to revise and edit different drafts, and to enjoy the process of composing. As I will try to show later, this is the context for the development of second language writing that is likely to produce the most desirable results, and it is also an environment that can benefit greatly from insights from TBLT.

English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

Silva (1990) notes that rather than being a new and distinctive approach to teaching second language writing, the EAP movement is more of a reaction to the perceived shortcomings of the process approach in preparing students for academic work. Despite the obvious benefits of process-based writing in addressing the perceived shortcomings of controlled composition and current-traditional rhetoric approaches, its critics tend to come from those in the business of researching and

teaching academic register. Some, like Horowitz (1996) claim that however enjoyable and collaborative these workshop-style classrooms may be in the process approach, they fail to approximate "the situations in which [students' writing] will eventually be exercised" (p. 144). He also points out that process-oriented writing will not prepare students for the way academic writing is usually graded (i.e., product only). The EAP approach by contrast, focuses on academic discourse genres and the true nature of real-world academic assignments. This approach has a clear view of writing as that which would be acceptable at tertiary academic institutions, and therefore, classroom teaching methodology should involve the identification and approximation of common academic discourse genres.

Summary

It is clear from this short historical survey of approaches to second language writing that controlled composition, whilst no doubt useful for the reinforcement of grammatical sentences and other sentence-level features of writing, is insufficient to deal with suprasentential discourse. The approach offered by current-traditional rhetoric was an important step forward in its recognition of the need for students to produce texts for real-world use, not only for academic purposes but also for social interaction (notes, letters) and business (reports). The EAP approach highlighted the need to take account of the expectations of the reader.

Despite the criticisms of the process approach from the EAP community, my own view is that despite the formulaic nature of academic discourse genres, indeed any texts in which students need to approximate stylized modes of discourse, a collaborative process-based approach will be more effective than having students writing largely in isolation. As for the contention that such an approach will not mirror real-life situations faced by students outside the classroom, I would argue that process writing is just as apt to inculcate useful habits of text generation and production (brainstorming, mind-mapping, self-editing skills, awareness of an audience) as the close examination of target texts. These habits can and do remain, and are accessible to the student when obliged to prepare a text on his or her own.

In addition, whilst the process approach may seem to prioritize a writer's composing behavior, it is not inevitable that other important concerns (i.e., accuracy, specific types of discourse, and audience) are

neglected within it. Indeed the most attractive features of the process approach to second language writing are that it can be largely interactive and so have ecological validity (teachers can construct lessons that are not unduly dull and form-focused), and it can incorporate attention to the most salient aspects of the other approaches.

SUPPORT FOR A PROCESS APPROACH

There is a significant body of research that indicates that factors unrelated to language proficiency determine the quality of student writing and that, in fact, effective composing behavior is a more accurate indicator of effective writing.

Jones (1982) studied the writing processes and texts produced by two L2 writers, one described as "poor" and the other described as "good" in a measure of their effectiveness in writing and analyzed the composing strategies of both by recording them as they "composed aloud" to produce a self-generated narrative. Jones found that the writers' composing strategies affected the quality of their writing. The poor writer was found to be bound to the text at the expense of ideas, whereas the good writer allowed her ideas to generate the text. Jones concluded that the poor writer had never learned how to undertake a composition and that this, rather than a lack of language proficiency, was the main reason for her problems with writing in a second language. Jacobs (1982) studied a group of eleven L1 and L2 graduate student writers of English who each produced 13 essays in the research period. In addition to studying the text products, the students were also interviewed on their composing processes. The researcher found that the nature of the academic tasks given resulted in two main problems for all the writers: "integrative thinking" and "phrasing for correctness and readability." The researcher found an inverse relationship between integrative thinking and grammatical accuracy that related to the students' development as writers that she cites as further evidence of composition skills being a more important factor than linguistic competence. Zamel (1982) came to the same conclusion when interviewing eight "proficient" university-level L2 writers and requiring them to give retrospective accounts of their "writing experiences and behaviors" as well as examining several drafts per student of an essay

they had to write. She concluded that the more students had understood and experienced composing as a process, the better their written products were.

Examples of case study research such as these cannot be regarded as conclusive, but they do indicate that practice and experience in composing processes can have a positive effect on second language writing and can at least mitigate the effects of problems from linguistic competence. L2 writing is much more than just a question of surface-level errors, and since these can be attended to in the revision and editing of different drafts in the composing process, coaching in how to generate ideas, how to select and dismiss the fruit of brainstorming activities, how to organize ideas into paragraphs, and how to reflect upon a draft can be seen to be at least equally beneficial in the overall effectiveness of a piece of writing.

TASKS IN SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING

The concept of tasks has come to be recognized as a central concept in L2 curriculum design. Michael H. Long's (1985) definition of target (real-world) tasks is very broad: "The hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between," whilst for Bygate, Skehan, and Swain (2001), the term can be defined more succinctly when taking about pedagogic (classroom) tasks: "A task is an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective." Crookes (1986) sees the need to posit "a specified objective" to a task, while Prabhu (1987) describes a task as "an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process" (p. 24).

Whilst there have been multiple attempts to define "task," there is general agreement that in the classroom it refers to an activity that is accomplished using language and where students are primarily focused on meaning. The definition of "task" that seems most apt for a task in process-oriented second language writing is from Nunan (1989):

> ...a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target

language while their attention is principally focused on meaning
rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness,
being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right.
(p. 10)

Collaborative activities leading to a completed written text would
constitute tasks in this definition and also ones that reach completion in
a final product that can "stand alone." Furthermore, it will be shown that
a process-oriented approach to second language writing can provide
ample opportunity for students to interact in the target language with
their attention focused primarily on meaning as they move through a task
cycle that involves comprehending, manipulating, producing, and of
course, interacting in the target language.

To best illustrate how insights from TBLT can be applied to
process-oriented writing, it will be useful to present an outline of the
stages in a task-based learning framework for writing that might be used.

CONTEXT

The context for the example in Table 1 is a course in "Introductory
Academic English Writing for University Freshman" in South Korea that
the author has employed now for a number of years. The students are
level-tested on both speaking and writing ability at the intermediate level
of proficiency in both skills, which has been found to correspond to B1
on the Common European Framework range of descriptors. There are 20–
22 students per class in a large room with movable desks, and students
are encouraged to make use of tablets and notebook computers in the
process of collaboratively constructing texts. The classroom features a
whiteboard and a drop-down screen, and the teacher has access to an
e-podium. There is also a ceiling-mounted computer-linked projector
operated by remote control.

The course objectives are that students should gain experience in
composing, writing, and editing simple five-paragraph essays as an
introduction to academic writing. The modes of discourse to be practiced
include narration, exposition, argumentation, and description. The use of
the L1 (Korean) is not permitted in the classroom.

Jane Willis (1996) proposes a framework for task-based learning that

involves three stages: a pre-task phase, a task cycle (task-planning-report) and a final language focus phase. In Table 2, I have provided a scheme of work for collaborative writing that was adapted to follow her model.

TABLE 1. A Task-Based, Process-Oriented Scheme of Work

Lesson 1	**Pre-task 1**: A topic is introduced. Teacher explores the topic with the class and elicits useful words and phrases. In small groups, students discuss a number of questions to form initial ideas.
Homework	Students do some Internet research on the topic, collect images to take notes, and gather more information on the topic in general.
Lesson 2	Students share the additional information they have found. Various writing assignment titles on the topic are provided. Student pairs are permitted to choose which assignment they would like to tackle. **Task 1: Produce a Mind Map or Spidergram**: Students brainstorm ideas for the assignment by designing spidergrams / mind maps in notebooks.
Homework	**Planning**: To add further detail to their mind maps and to create a finished version on an A3-sized sheet to show to other students/groups.
Lesson 3	**Report Stage**: Student pairs circulate, showing their finished mind maps to other groups and getting feedback and further suggestions. **Pre-task 2**: Teacher displays an essay outline to discuss with students and shows how to produce an essay outline from a mind map.
Homework	**Task 2 Planning. Make an Essay Outline**: Students collaborate to use the ideas from the mind map to make an outline in their notebook for their essay. They organize their ideas under paragraph headings such as *introduction, main body para. 1, main body para. 2, conclusion*, etc.
Lesson 4	**Report Stage**: Student pair groups show to and consult with the teacher on their essay outline. Teacher provides suggestions and asks each pair to explain how each paragraph will develop − by explanation, exemplification, reasoning, illustration, etc. **Pre-task 3**: Teacher gives students some advice on the formatting and layout of a five-paragraph essay.
Homework	**Planning & Task 3. Write an Essay**: Student pairs collaborate to write Draft 1 of their essay.
Lesson 5	**Report Stage**: Student pair groups exchange their Draft 1's with other groups and receive feedback and peer editing, and are asked questions on content and comprehensibility. **Pre-task 4**: Teacher and student groups discuss how to incorporate feedback into the next draft.
Homework	**Planning & Task 4. Write a Second Draft**: Student pairs collaborate to write Draft 2 incorporating ideas and suggestions they obtained.

Lesson 6	**Report Stage**: Students consult with the teacher on Draft 2, and the teacher gives indirect feedback only (errors just highlighted) on issues of grammar and mechanics. Students then work together to attempt to repair the errors that the teacher has highlighted (indirect corrective feedback).
Homework	Students make corrections and email Draft 3 to the teacher.
Language Focus	After taking in the final drafts, the teacher then composes some projector slides on which are displayed sentences extracted from the essays that evidence what the teacher has found to be some recurring types of errors that are common to most if not all students. The students can then work in small groups on their hard copy of the slide to attempt to repair the errors that have been identified. Often in this context, student pairs will recognize particular sentences as being ones that they themselves composed and therefore are personally motivated to repair the errors. This final stage of the process then constitutes the main *focus on forms* (Long, 1991), although of course during the composing process, the teacher had earlier consulted with students in the Task 4 report stage and given indirect feedback on form. This is then a *focused task* that is designed to "provide opportunities for communicating using some specific linguistic features" (Ellis, 2009).

On the basis of 3 x 50-minute lessons per class per week, this cycle takes place over a two-week period and occurs 5–6 times during a standard 16-week university semester. The students work in collaboration with a partner and in small groups throughout and get practice in generating ideas for writing, presenting their ideas to others, defending their viewpoints, debating, and developing self-editing skills. An important aim of the course is for students to develop good habits and routines that will enable them to deal with the task of producing written essays on their own in the future and eventually become autonomous in the production of written texts that may be required of them later in their university life by their Korean professors in other subjects.

Willis (1996) points out that writing is often done just to be graded, but "to make a change, to give students a real sense of purpose and to raise motivation, it is possible to think of other audiences that might benefit by reading something your students have written" (p. 63).

At the university in Korea, there are other groups taught by other foreign instructors who are following the same course in introductory academic writing. The students' final drafts of essays can be made available to the other classes online in order to receive comments and further feedback after each cycle is completed. In this way, the process is more motivating and meaningful to the students because, in addition

to being read by groups within their own class and also the instructor, they are also writing for a wider population of students who together form a nascent academic discourse community of writers at a similar level of development to themselves.

Ellis (2009) notes that TBLT emphasizes "purposeful and functional" language work and has its origins in Dewey's (1913) views on the importance of "intelligent effort" for effective learning. When contrasted with the earlier product-oriented approach to writing as seen in current-traditional rhetoric, we can see how a collaborative process-oriented approach to writing given in Table 1 is a much better fit with these notions.

In order to further illustrate how TBLT principles can optimize this collaborative process-oriented scheme of work based on Willis' (1996) framework, we can demonstrate by extracting one of the stages how it can be manipulated in order to foster a communicative gap between student pairs and thereby encourage negotiation of meaning (Long, 1991).

In the early stages of the writing course at the Korean university, students are encouraged to challenge each other to explain themselves clearly at each stage, and to this end, they are seeded with target phrases that they must attempt to activate throughout the process in interaction with other pairs and groups. Examples of the types of phrases that are given are

Do you mean...? (Asking for clarification);
What's the reason for that? Why do you want to write about that?
(Asking for explanation);
What I mean is... / Let me put it another way... (Clarifying);
So, what you're trying to say is.../ I think what you mean is...
(Reformulating).

Here we try to extract a double value from the course for the students because a process-oriented approach to writing involves as much talk *about* writing as it does actual writing. We can see here that this is very different from a traditional product-oriented approach, which basically only involves listening to a teacher's instruction, studying models of target texts, and writing in isolation. In encouraging the students to challenge each other in this way, we attempt to turn as many of the phases of the task cycle as possible into episodes of meaningful

interaction that may promote focus on form in spoken exchanges about writing. These constitute *unfocused tasks* defined by Ellis (2009) as those "designed to provide learners with opportunities for using language in general communicatively" (p. 223).

An example will serve to demonstrate this. In the Lesson 3 report stage in Table 1, student pairs exchange the mind maps/spidergrams that they have created for the assignment they will have to write. However, this is no mere reading exercise. When the spidergrams are exchanged, a student pair is asked to try to orally reconstruct from the spidergram the way in which the other group's essay is going to develop. Spidergrams, of course, only contain brief notes written in circles that are graphically linked to other circles with related ideas. This forces one pair to try to imagine what the other pair meant by these short phrases, and of course, they then have to seek confirmation or try again. In this respect, the tasks in the proposed scheme of work incorporate all four skills of speaking, reading, listening, and writing and therefore are integrative tasks and constitute a combination of input-providing tasks (involving listening and reading) and output-prompting tasks (engaging students in speaking and writing). In another example of this, we can see that the Lesson 1 homework is to collect images and further information on the topic from the Internet for sharing with other pair groups in the next lesson. We can exploit this by having students show their images to another pair who then have to guess how this image relates to the topic or what it can tell us about the topic. Here again, a communicative gap is created, which Ellis (2009) sees as essential in his understanding of TBLT.

The reader will not fail to have noticed that the actual writing that the students produce in this model is collaborative writing undertaken in pairs. This is something that is possible in the given context since, at the Korean university, the students are all required to live on campus in their first year and mostly do homework together, such is the nature of their Confucian cultural values where individualism is not encouraged. However, were it to be otherwise, the practice of requiring students to collaborate in the production of written texts would still be attempted.

Whilst Storch (2005) notes that this is still a "novel strategy," she finds, as I have done, that collaborative writing produces texts with greater grammatical accuracy and linguistic complexity than those produced individually and those in which the assignment is more successfully completed. Crucially, task-based, process-oriented

collaborative writing promotes the kind of interaction in the classroom and outside that enables students not only to learn how to produce good writing in a more intrinsically motivating and enjoyable way but also to improve oral and aural skills in the target language due to the sheer amount of speaking and listening to others that is required along the way. Certainly, for first-year Korean students coming from a high school educational system that requires them to undertake extensive reading and grammar practice only, this is a welcome change.

CONCLUSIONS

A process-oriented approach to second language writing has a natural requirement for a pre-writing/pre-task phase, a planning stage involving interaction with a focus primarily on meaning (with the potential for focus on *form*), completion of a main task (the production of a text), and a post-task phase in which focus on *forms* is undertaken. This means that it naturally and easily mirrors a task-based framework such as the one proposed by Jane Willis. It is possible to exploit this process still further to create information gaps in the frequent episodes of interaction between multiple periods of drafting in the process to derive all the benefits of a task-based approach to second language teaching that have been demonstrated in the scholarly literature on the subject.

Korean learners were found to be particularly well-suited for tasks requiring interaction at each stage in this model of process-based writing. Kim (2014) refers to "affectionate relationality in ordinary social interaction among Koreans" (p. 216), and this can be seen to assist collaborative interaction in tasks. Ahn (2011) asserts that great value is given to interdependence in Korean culture, whilst Han and Ahn (1994) describe the Korean preference for immersion in group activities in order to achieve consensus. Kim and Choi (1998) refer to the unique concept of "we-ness" in their study of "Shim-cheong" psychology, and these observations demonstrate the reasons why Korean learners of English may find more fulfillment and derive greater benefit from the collaborative interaction that obtains from a task-based approach to process writing than a traditional individualistic style of composing texts.

Collaborative interaction through the various stages of process-based

writing also allows for scaffolding. The term "scaffolding" comes from sociocultural theory and is defined by Ellis (2008) in the following way:

> Scaffolding is an inter-psychological process through which learners internalize knowledge dialogically. That is, it is the process by which one speaker (an expert or a novice) assists another speaker (a novice) to perform a skill that they are unable to perform independently. (p. 234)

Kim and Kim (2005) claim that a scaffolding learning strategy is ideal for Korean learners as it "helps create active interactions between a teacher and students and also between students themselves" (p. 8). Scaffolding allows for the kind of mutual assistance that can lead to the co-construction of knowledge and the acquisition of new skills occurring in the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) – "the area between what [learners] can do independently and what they can do with assistance" (p. 8).

Kim and Kim (2005) also argue that teachers of writing to Korean learners "need to apply alternative forms of feedback such as teacher-to-student conferencing, peer feedback, in-class grammar instruction...and maintenance of error charts or logs" (p. 10). All these forms of response to student writing are featured in the task-based model of process writing described herein.

An approach to the teaching of writing in English that involves collaborative interaction at every stage in a multi-draft process – a process that incorporates both teacher and peer feedback – is one that may be of more benefit to Korean learners than ones that require an isolated and individualistic approach.

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Incorporating Smartphones in a Korean University-Level EFL Writing Class

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The increasing availability of smartphones among students has led to more distractions in the classroom. Technology is useful in the classroom, but personal technology, such as smartphones, is often frowned upon. This action research study compared the results of using smartphones in the classroom to more traditional, non-wired methods of teaching to see if there would be a difference in the amount students learned as well as their participation in the class. The study started with a focus group as well as a survey of other university teachers before I taught one chapter of the same textbook to two different classes. One class used whiteboards, and the other used an online system called Padlet. It was found that students who had used the online system performed better on the end-of-chapter quiz than those who had used traditional methods.

Keywords: integrating technology, higher education, comparative classroom methods, formative assessment, action research

INTRODUCTION

In South Korea, most university students are highly interested in using technology that is available. Smartphone use in South Korea is ubiquitous. "In contrast to previous-generation mobile phones, current-generation smartphones provide users with easier access to the web, social networking, games, and thousands of other applications," report Tossell, Kortum, Shepard, Rahmati, and Zhong (2015, p. 714). Because of the smartphone's increased use and popularity, it has become possible to use smartphones in Korean classrooms as devices for learning. It is important to use technology in the classroom in order to help make connections to the students who use it so easily. Posting assignments and

class announcements on a class website or blog is a good way to begin incorporating technology into the classroom. There are also online real-time quizzes and other types of interactive formative assessments that can be integrated into technology-friendly classrooms. Since most students have smartphones, and there is free Wi-Fi across many university campuses, there should be no extra cost to students regarding data usage.

This study used action research to determine if students would get any academic benefits from using their smartphones in classrooms. Action research "can be described as a systematic inquiry that is collective, collaborative, self-reflective, and undertaken by participants (students, teacher, colleagues, or any other stakeholder) in an educational situation in order to improve the rationality of their own educational practices" (Yasmeen, 2008, p. 47). Action research is less formal research that can help to "improve teaching and learning" (Ross-Fisher, 2008, p. 160). Usually, action research is done in the classroom by the teachers who have the most to gain from the results of the research. In this study, the results of this research are applicable to my own classroom. However, while Yasmeen (2008) states that "teacher research is focused to bring changes in a single classroom to support the individuals" (p. 49), it is my hope that the results of this research can help others in similar situations. I believe that the results shown can be applied to other university classrooms as access to technology allows.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

Students often have difficulties putting down their smartphones in order to pay attention to the lesson. These smartphones are a big distraction in class. Often teachers look out at students to get a response to an inquiry and see many students looking down at their laps, or sometimes not even trying to hide it, and using their phones on their desks. This can be really disruptive to other students when looking over at their classmates. There are also issues in universities regarding cellphone usage and asking adult students to remove the temptation of smartphones can feel problematic in some cases. Teachers need to create a way that makes students more interested in what is happening in the classroom than on their phone, while at the same time make students

feel like they want to stay and become more engaged in lessons. Therefore, the problem that should be addressed is how to get students to use their smartphones in a productive way in class. It would be ideal to create a way to involve students in formative assessments by using their smartphones.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This paper addresses the identified problem through action research related to the use of smartphones in the author's classroom. This has given rise to the following two research questions:
- Will my students pay closer attention to lessons and engage more in class if they are able to use their smartphones?
- Will using a real-time, interactive bulletin board system help my students' writing and encourage self-correction?

LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review discusses the current research and thoughts on the use of mobile technology in the classroom. Having access to the Internet on mobile devices such as smartphones and tablets in classrooms is a new phenomenon. In the past, mobile devices were perceived as a distraction with many teachers requiring students to turn off or put away cellphones when entering the classroom. However, there are currently more and more apps and websites developing educational programs that can be used on mobile devices. There are many possibilities for extended learning both inside and outside the classroom when integrating this technology into an EFL class. This article will focus on the use of smartphones as tools in the EFL classroom. This is a fairly new research topic since widespread access to smartphones has been fairly recent, and the literature that actually features in-class research or advice is limited.

An overarching theme in the literature is the idea that smartphones are a distraction to students. Pinner (2016) states that he "found [smartphones] to be extremely irritating" (p. 43) and that it was obvious that students were "not paying attention to the instructions about the task [he] was setting up" (p. 43). Having students paying attention to their

phone instead of to the lesson can be annoying to teachers: "Smartphones can distract the students (i.e., texting, games, and ringing), they are treated as nuisances with their benefits ignored" (Decker, 2012, p. 316). In a study that allowed students to freely use their phones in class, students admitted to being more distracted than they previously imagined "both by their own phone activity and by the phone activity around them. One student noted that she found she was less successful at blocking out distractions than she had expected" (Grinols & Rajesh, 2014, p. 92). However, these articles suggest that we take a second look at using smartphones in the classroom because of the potential they bring to education: "Smartphones can be a very useful tool to support and extend language learning opportunities, precisely because they are designed as communication tools" (Pinner, 2016, p. 44).

There has been a shift in the attitudes towards smartphones because of the ability they have to offer teachers real-time feedback and classroom monitoring as well as assisting students in understanding ideas and topics in EFL classrooms. Instead of replacing teachers with recordings and tests based on rote memorization (Kim, Ilon, & Altman, 2013), teachers are looking more to using technology as teaching aids for individualized learning (Kim, Ilon, & Altman, 2013; Tossell, Kortum, Shepard, Rahmati, & Zhong, 2015). "Technology, then, provides opportunities to motivate students and authentic linguistic input as well as chances to use the language with a real communicative purpose," report Chamorro and Rey (2013, p. 55) They allow teachers to observe the understanding of classroom topics in a way that allows for near instant intervention if the students don't understand. This kind of instant feedback has many advantages for the teacher, who can "see who has done the tasks and what their score was without having to do any marking or checking of homework with a red pen" (Pinner, 2016, p. 44). This certainly saves on workload for teachers who have large numbers of students. Making sure that assignments are returned promptly can also help with student retention of material and student understanding.

There seems to be an underlying theme that smartphones should be used in the classroom to promote interaction, but current uses are more individual rather than interactive (Decker, 2012; Grinols & Rajesh, 2014). Smartphones work best in classrooms when the activities focus on collaboration and access to Internet resources (Decker, 2012). These group learning activities can be done through access to the Internet or via apps. Pinner (2016) suggests using smartphones as web-quests and

allowing students to look up topics with their phones. Students can then become able to contribute more fully to the class discussion afterwards. Quiz apps, such as Quizlet or Socrative, which both provide auto-grading features, also give immediate feedback, and in the case of Socrative, anonymous peer reviews (Decker, 2012).

Technology has become more and more prevalent in society, and this gives teachers the ability to integrate it into their classrooms. Smartphones provide many learning opportunities, help to save time grading papers and quizzes, serve as a wealth of knowledge in the classroom, and help in providing instant feedback to students and teachers in order to facilitate learning. "Technology can have a great potential in language teaching and learning, and while this potential is not acknowledged, technological resources may be undervalued and underused, and even unused, mainly because the people who decide how to use it, teachers, have beliefs that affect their implementation in class," Chamorro and Rey (2013, p. 53) suggest. Mobile technology has potential to involve students in their learning and therefore influencing class design, especially in higher education classrooms, where students will be more able to control the direction of their learning through the use of technology (Kim, Ilon, & Altman, 2013).

METHODOLOGY

In my classroom, there always seem to be some students who are paying more attention to their smartphones than to my lesson. Rather than try to ban smartphones from my classroom, I decided to figure out a way to work them into my lessons. I believe that if students have access to their smartphones and can use them in a constructive way in class, they will be more engaged in my lessons, and their English will improve.

I chose three different methods of gathering data, which would give me a wider range from which to draw conclusions. I developed and administered an online survey for my colleagues, I created a student focus group composed of undergraduate students from my own classes, and I created in-class activities that were implemented against a control group for two of my classes.

Data Source: Student Focus Group

I asked my students in one class that was not going to take part in the study for volunteers to stay after class and used their ideas as a focus group. The data I collected from this group helped me make decisions about my use of smartphones in this and other classes. I focused on questions that gave students an opportunity to express their opinions about smartphones in the classroom. I asked if they use smartphones in their other classes, how often, what types of activities they do, if they think smartphones can be useful in the classroom, what types of activities they would like to do using smartphones, and if they think using smartphones will help them to get more out of their lessons. The data gathered were qualitative and provided me with useful feedback from my students about the type of classroom they would like to be a part of.

Data Source: Teacher Survey

I prepared a survey for my colleagues using open-ended questions that would give insight into how they treat smartphone use in their classrooms. The survey (Appendix A) asked about their current feelings towards smartphones in the classroom, whether they incorporate smartphones into their lessons, how often they do so, and what types of methods they use when they do use them. The survey also asked about interactive websites or apps that teachers use in their classroom. The data were collected in an online survey, which allowed me to create a mix of question types. The data collected were both qualitative and quantitative, with a focus more on experiences but also on the number of users.

Data Source: Quasi-Experimental Student Activities

My final data source came from students in two different classes. The classes couldn't be randomized due to student scheduling factors, and since the semester was also in session, this was a quasi-experimental group. The classes were selected to minimize external variables as much as possible. Students were approximately the same age (second and third year university students), had similar majors (a mix of English, French,

and German language majors), were taught by the same teacher (the author), had the same number of students (17), and took place at the same time (9 a.m. on alternate days). For Class A, I used two different types of interactive activities that made use of their smartphones over a four week period. Class B had the same type of instruction, but used traditional paper- and whiteboard-based interactive activities. I then gave my students a brief survey to get feedback about their opinions of the activities. There was also a small quiz on the material covered to get an idea of how much the students understood. The survey asked Class A if they liked using their smartphone in class, if they felt they understood the topics better because of their smartphone activity, which activity they liked better, which activity they felt helped them more, and which activity they would like to use again in the future. Class B was asked similar questions, referring to the paper- and whiteboard-based activities. They were also asked an open-ended question about whether they could think of any better activities that would make them more interested in the class material. This survey was administered to both classes by paper at the end of the four-week period, thereby allowing for the maximum time to use their smartphones in class. By getting this mix of qualitative and quantitative data, I hoped to get an idea on whether the students wanted to use their smartphones in class, and if they found the smartphones helpful for their understanding, as well as if they considered smartphone use academically viable.

RESULTS

Student Focus Group

I spoke to ten students who volunteered to stay behind after class: four female students and six male students. These students had various majors in the humanities, social science, and engineering departments. Student responses were paraphrased for clarity. All of them have smartphones and said they were comfortable using them in Korean all the time and in English sometimes. All my students use their smartphones in other classes to varying degrees. The University uses an app to track attendance, and the students use their smartphones to sync with the professor. In most of their classes, they are then required to put

their phones away. Six students said that they sometimes use a quiz app, Socrative, in class for quizzes. Five of the students said they liked that the app can give instant feedback, and that they felt it was a good way to do quizzes. Suggestions for using smartphones in class included looking up information about the weekly topic so that there could be a discussion and using the built-in dictionary to help them when writing. When asked about a real-time bulletin board, the students seemed enthusiastic. They said it would be good for them to see that they are not the only students making mistakes. They also liked that the board would be anonymous so that they wouldn't be embarrassed in front of other students. Overall, the students thought that using smartphones in class would have a beneficial effect on student engagement. S1 said "I think smartphone class is good because [it's] exciting."

Teacher Survey

The results of the teacher survey were gathered via an online survey platform, SurveyMonkey. This survey was given to the university teachers at my school as well as to some EFL university teachers at other universities in South Korea. In all, 35 different teachers responded to the survey. The survey was able to provide a great deal of quantitative data regarding the teachers' perception of smartphones in the classroom, as well as some qualitative data about the websites or apps they use in the classroom. Some questions were skipped by some teachers since the survey allowed teachers to submit without answering all questions. Ninety-five percent (95%) of teachers surveyed have access to a multimedia classroom with computers, projection capabilities, and the Internet. Sixty-eight percent (68%) of teachers surveyed use the Internet every day in their classroom, with another 13% using it at least every two to three weeks. Of the teachers who completed the survey, 91% percent allow students to use their smartphones in the classroom, but only 68% of teachers surveyed think that smartphone use in the classroom is more positive than negative, with only 18.2% stating that smartphones are useful tools.

Many teachers have a zero tolerance policy on phones. One teacher who sometimes allows phones in class allows them for dictionary use only, writing that "if they use them for other things, they risk getting them confiscated until the end of class that day." One teacher wrote that they do let students keep their phones because "if they are academic

related uses, of course, they know what and when they can use them. Besides, smartphones, for better or worse, are a huge part of their daily lives, why not incorporate something they use, understand, and are comfortable with to assist their learning and acquisition process." Thirty-two percent (32%) stated that smartphones are primarily, or only, a distraction in the classroom. That is upheld by the fact that the responding teachers on average are only 66% likely to use smartphones in their classroom next semester. Seventeen (17) out of 35 respondents stated that they were more than 90% likely to use smartphones in their classroom in the following semester, with 13 stating that the likelihood of them allowing smartphones in class next semester is less than 50%.

Of the responses to the open-ended question about which apps or websites they use in the classroom (Appendix A, question 4), 20 used Google, 19 used YouTube, and five used Kakao, a Korean messaging app. Only 11 responses included education-based apps or platforms such as Moodle, Socrative, Edmodo, TED Talks, or Schoology. One teacher noted that they use the Internet for "basically anything that has a picture, infographic, or video [they] want to show them." Only one teacher stated they use Padlet in their classroom. Generally, dictionaries were the biggest reason to use a smartphone in class; 42.6% of teachers stated that they use them almost every class or more, while 68.5% of teachers stated they sometimes use technology for looking up information. However, more than 50% of teachers reported that they never use smartphones for quizzes, attendance, real-time posting, or textbook activities.

Quasi-Experimental Student Activities

Over the course of four weeks, I taught the same lessons to two different classes. I took notes about what was taught and the length of time it took to complete activities. I also noted general class participation levels. For Class A, I used two different online, interactive activities that students could do in class by using their smartphones. For Class B, I did similar activities, but used the whiteboard and paper handouts instead. In each class, every student had a smartphone. Class B was told at the beginning of class to put their phones away in their bags. However, each student in Class A was told to keep their phones out, and was instructed to download one app, Socrative, to be used for quizzes. They were also given the web address of an interactive bulletin board-type site called

Padlet located at https://padlet.com/annaliese/ce0115. In the case of Socrative, students were identified by their names and student numbers, and in the case of Padlet, the student interaction was anonymous. The data collected through this method provided observational, qualitative data in addition to test scores as quantitative data.

Both classes continued to have students using their phones for non-classroom-related reasons. I found it more distracting when students in Class B were using their phones, since they had been told to put their phones away during class time. In Class A, I still noticed that students were using their phones, but I was sometimes unable to discern whether the use was classroom-related since they needed to use their phones for classwork. I think that knowing that they could be using their phone for classwork made it easier for me to ignore, regardless of whether it was relevant usage or not. Regarding classroom engagement, I observed that students in Class A were more willing to put their answers on Padlet for any question I asked. At one point, I had 100% participation from the class in answering questions by using their smartphones. In contrast, when asked to write their answers on the whiteboard, students in Class B were hesitant to volunteer, and took longer to complete the activity. For the quiz (Appendix B), Class A was instructed to use the Socrative app while Class B took the quiz by traditional pen-and-paper methods. The average score on Class A's quiz was 83.8%, whereas the average score on Class B's quiz was 76.2%.

At the end of the four-week period, I gave Class A an anonymous paper survey (Appendix C) to determine how much they enjoyed using their smartphones in class. Eighty-eight percent (88%) of students said that they would like to continue using their smartphone in class, and 71% said they thought it helped them understand the lessons more than if they had not used their phones. Only 17.6% of my students said they were able to use their smartphones in other classes, and all of those students noted that it was for the Socrative quiz app. None of my students had used Padlet before. The overall feeling in the class was that they enjoyed being able to use their smartphones. Some students felt that the phone was a bit distracting. One student said that a fellow classmate "checked [their] Facebook very often but still work[ed] on class." This indicates that even though the temptation for using their smartphone was high, students were still doing the expected work in class. However, the response to Padlet was very positive, with 82% stating that they enjoyed using it.

For questions 9 and 10, which asked their opinions, some students noted that there were still students using their phones for messaging and social media in class, but that overall they found the use of smartphones to be very helpful. They liked that they had free access to their dictionaries. One student wrote that they liked that there were no paper handouts so they didn't have to worry about losing anything. Four students also noted that they liked the instant feedback on the quiz, although two students wrote that they didn't like that they couldn't go back to change their answers. In fact, they could go back within the app. However, they "went back" on their smartphones, which logged them out of the app, and they had to re-take the quiz from the beginning. The app records unfinished quizzes. Therefore, their final score was adjusted to reflect their original answers to the questions in order to maintain objectivity.

Class B took a survey (Appendix D) that was modified from Class A's to get their opinion on whether they thought the traditional activities helped them understand the material, and if they thought smartphones would help them understand more material. In general, students in Class B were less happy with the classroom activities, with only 59% stating they enjoyed the whiteboard activity, although they still found it easy to take the quiz on paper. Their dislike of the class activities involving the whiteboard was reflected in the survey. When asked in the follow-up question, they noted that they didn't like to be singled out in the classroom. "I don't like my seniors [older students] to watch [me] make mistakes," one student wrote. Seventy-one percent (71%) of students in this class said that they thought that they might understand more if they were able to use their smartphone during the class period. Overall, students in Class B seemed satisfied with their lessons at the time, but expressed a desire to be able to use more technology in the classroom. Comments for question 8 about the negatives of smartphones in the classroom revolved around messaging apps causing distractions and concerns about data usage and battery life. The positive comments mostly involved the ability to translate their ideas more quickly, to look up information they weren't clear on, and to get vocabulary help via image searches.

DATA ANALYSIS

The overall opinions of the teachers seemed to be that smartphones were useful in the classroom in certain cases, with only a few teachers saying they would never allow them in their classroom. The teachers used the dictionary feature the most, which is a common feature on all Korean smartphones. Most teachers said they weren't interested in using a broader range of features like quizzes or educational apps. The comments stated that they felt smartphones were more of a distraction than a help in the classroom. One respondent said, "Other than allowing them to be used as dictionaries, I do not allow their use. They are usually more of a distraction than a useful tool." This seems to be at odds with the opinions of the students from the initial focus group who said that they thought smartphones would be useful in their English classrooms. Although some members of the focus group did note that they might get distracted, they also thought that the positive benefits would outweigh the negatives. Students especially noted that they wanted to use their dictionary, but also that they would like to look up discussion topics on the Internet. Many teachers did say that that would be acceptable in their classrooms, (see Figure 1), but most said that they wouldn't do that every class.
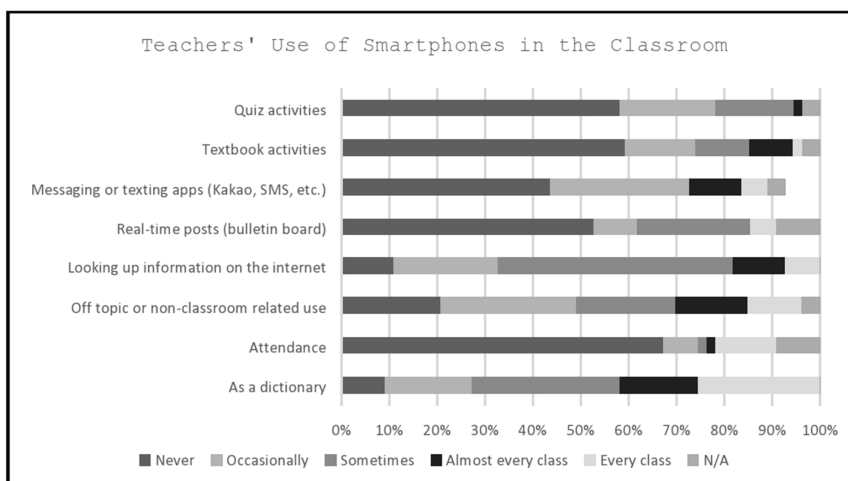

FIGURE 1. Results of an online survey of 35 university English teachers regarding smartphone use in Korean university classrooms.

Looking at the overall quiz scores, in Class A, which used Padlet and Socrative in class, the students did better on the chapter quiz at the end of the two-week period than Class B, which used whiteboard activities and a paper quiz, (see Figure 2). I believe that the method of taking the quiz did not factor into the results, since both classes had students who used a similar quiz app in the past, and both classes also noted that taking the quiz, either via Socrative or on paper, was easy. The mean score for Class A was slightly higher than for Class B, but the distribution for Class B was much wider, with more lower grades overall, indicating that more students struggled with the material. The two lowest grades in Class B were 50% and 55%, which are failing grades in the Korean system. This is a statistically significant difference between these two classes. Given the similarities in the variables, this could be interpreted as caused by the difference in teaching methods.
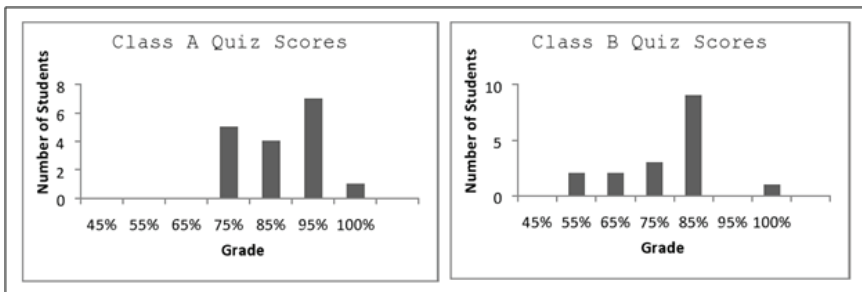
FIGURE 2. Quiz results for students taught the same material using smartphones (Class A) and conventional methods (Class B).

The observations I made in class seem to support this. In Class B, students were hesitant to contribute to the activities. They didn't volunteer their answers, and they didn't receive the same level of intervention because of the environment. Board work, by its nature, doesn't usually involve the whole class, as there is usually not enough room to have all students put their answers on the board at the same time. Padlet, however, allowed all students to put their answers up on the board to be seen, but anonymously, so students weren't afraid of being ridiculed for poor understanding. This was also reflected in the students' surveys, where Class B said they disliked the activity and Class A said they liked it. I also believe that the feedback given to the students in Class A ended up being more relevant to them. They posted their own

sentences on Padlet, and it was easier to scan for common errors across all my students' work than going from student to student in Class B. This meant that I could correct common errors faster as well as single out and correct sentences that signaled a greater misunderstanding of the material.

LIMITATIONS

Limitations of this study include its length. Four weeks is a short time for a study, and any differences in results could have been caused by a lack of interest in the topics. Students may also have had outside commitments, which resulted in poorer scores overall. There are also limitations to using Padlet in the classroom anonymously. Since the program was anonymous, I was not able to single out students who needed more help with the material. Instead, I had to wait for them to approach me. Padlet does allow posts to be signed if students make an account. However, that would detract from the benefits of posting anonymously. There were also some limitations with the student surveys administered at the end of the in-class study period since students with lower language levels may not have felt confident enough to add their opinions to the survey.

CONCLUSIONS

Despite the distractions that it may cause, I believe that incorporating technology and smartphones into my university classroom will be beneficial to my students' ability to learn. Students in Class A were comfortable using smartphones in class and were more willing to engage with the lesson. They described feeling more comfortable with the anonymity that technology can provide in a class environment. In contrast, the students in Class B expressed concerns over being singled out when doing the same activity as a class on the whiteboard. At the end of the study, the grades of Class A were higher, indicating a more thorough understanding of the material. "Higher education has gone through a transformation process due to the integration of information and communications technology (ICT) into daily academic activities.

This fact has impacted different educational areas, one of which is teacher development, since educators have to develop new skills to integrate these tools into their teaching and learning processes effectively," write Chamorro and Rey (2013, p. 52). Teachers in my school, and in similar institutions in my area, expressed concern that smartphone use in classrooms for anything other than brief dictionary use could be distracting to students. I feel that the results of my research, albeit limited by time, show that students are not only excited by the idea of using smartphones in the classroom, but will actually benefit from it.

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APPENDIX A

Teacher Survey: Technology Use in the Classroom

1. Does your university have multi-media classrooms? Can you use the Internet or PowerPoint?
   a) Yes
   b) No
   c) Some classrooms but not all

2. How often do you use the Internet in your classroom?
   a) Every class
   b) Every two to three weeks
   c) Once or twice a semester
   d) Never

3. Do you allow students to use smartphones in your classroom?
   a) Yes
   b) No
      Why or why not?

4. What apps or websites, if any, do you use in your classroom?

5. How often do your students use smartphones in class for the following? Rating scale: Never, Occasionally, Sometimes, Almost every class, Every class, N/A
   a) Quiz activities
   b) Attendance
   c) Real-time posts (bulletin board)
   d) As a dictionary
   e) Messaging or texting apps (Kakao, SMS, etc.)
   f) Looking up information on the Internet
   g) Textbook activities
   h) Off-topic or non-classroom related use

6. Do you find smartphones to be conducive to student learning in the classroom?
   a) Yes, they're a helpful tool in the classroom
   b) They are often helpful but sometimes a distraction
   c) They have no significant impact on my classroom either way

    d) Sometimes they are useful, but they are primarily a distraction
    e) No, they are only a distraction

7. How likely are you to use smartphones as tools in your classroom in the future? 0% to 100%

APPENDIX B

Student Quiz

Unit 2 Quiz: Administered via Socrative online and via paper.

Identify the choice that best completes the statement or answers the question.

1. We use the word _____ to describe children who have a lot of energy.
   a. alive
   b. live
   c. lively
   d. life

2. Which sentence is an opinion?
   a. Rice rats are eaten in China.
   b. Fish shops in England and France sell live eels.
   c. In Thailand, fish heads are an important delicacy.
   d. The Japanese eat 20,000 tons of blowfish each year.

3. When Jose lived in Thailand, fish heads were his favorite ____.
   a. dish
   b. advantage
   c. crop
   d. disease

4. A country cannot have a *native* _____.
   a. population
   b. plant
   c. food
   d. ocean

5. In Asia, there are restaurants where the main food is _____.
   a. frog's legs
   b. eggs
   c. ants
   d. snakes

6. The Japanese think blowfish is a ____.

    a. dessert
    b. delicacy
    c. appetizer
    d. paste

7. Asking questions using *when, how*, and *why* will help you find _____.
    a. a concluding sentence
    b. supporting ideas
    c. a topic sentence
    d. correct capitalization

8. Which sentence does not support the topic sentence *Different countries enjoy different delicacies*?
    a. Chicken feet are a popular delicacy in China.
    b. The rats cost twice as much as pork.
    c. People in India make ants into a paste then eat them.
    d. Fish heads are a popular delicacy in Singapore.

9. Linda is very _____ when it comes to the food she eats.
    a. choosy
    b. chose
    c. choice
    d. chosen

10. I don't like fish. I _____ a whole one.
    a. can't imagine eating
    b. usually ask for
    c. would like to eat
    d. like baking

Indicate whether the statement is true **T** *or false* **F**.
    1. The topic sentence adds supporting details to the paragraph.
    2. The *appetizer* is served before the main part of a meal.
    3. *Diseases* help farmers grow bigger crops.
    4. *Baked* foods are usually served hot.
    5. Facts usually make good topic sentences.

APPENDIX C

Student Survey: Class A

1. Are you allowed to use your smartphone in other classes?
   a. Yes
   b. No

2. Have you used Socrative before this class?
   a. Yes
   b. No

3. Have you used Padlet before this class?
   a. Yes
   b. No

4. Was it easy to use Socrative to take the quiz?
   a. Yes
   b. No

5. Did you enjoy using Padlet in class?
   a. Yes
   b. No

6. Do you think using Padlet and Socrative helped you understand the lesson more than if you hadn't used them?
   a. Yes
   b. No

7. Would you like to use your phone more in this class?
   a. Yes
   b. No

8. Do you think using your phone would help you understand more in other classes?
   a. Yes
   b. No

9. What did you dislike about using your phone in class?

10. What did you like about using your phone in class?

APPENDIX D

Student Survey: Class B

1. Are you allowed to use your smartphone in other classes?
   a. Yes
   b. No

2. Was it easy to take the quiz on paper?
   a. Yes
   b. No

3. Did you enjoy the whiteboard sentences activity we did last week?
   a. Yes
   b. No

4. What did you like or what didn't you like about it?

5. Do you think you pay attention to the lesson in class?
   a. Yes
   b. No

6. Would you like to use your phone for activities in this class?
   a. Yes
   b. No

7. Do you think using your phone would help you understand more in this class?
   a. Yes
   b. No

8. What do you think would be bad about using your smartphone in class?

9. What do you think would be good about using your smartphone in class?

TED Talks: A Pedagogical Listening Framework

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Often regarded as the "Cinderella" skill of language learning (Nunan 1999), listening is usually relegated to the lowest priority in syllabi by both teachers and students. With little strategic instruction available in listening pedagogy, many educators and learners remain unmotivated to practice the skill. Recently, a Korean university developed 25 TED Talk lessons to help implement a three-stage pedagogic plan into academic listening. The materials used for the study employed existing cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective strategies that were divided into compartmentalized lesson sections. This practical approach directs educators to "teach" the listening lesson by using pre-/while-/post-listening stages while employing simplified listening strategies. This study monitored the use of five separate head lessons and five subsequent self-study lessons used over a ten-week longitudinal study. Lesson journals and questionnaires were analyzed to evaluate the task viability of these strategic practices and to help determine which individual listening strategy repertoires were automatized. The salient findings from the study illustrate that cognitive and metacognitive strategies can improve academic listening by using a TED Talks program of study. However, socio-affective practices showed limited listening development in Korean learners. Furthermore, students identified four of the twelve tasks as automatized by course-end, thus offering educators a practical listening framework to utilize in their own institutions.

Keywords: TED Talks, listening, strategies, tasks

INTRODUCTION

Previous research recognizes how listening skills for learners create numerous difficulties for those endeavoring to master the skill. Students

often regard listening as the most boring, frustrating, and difficult skill in language learning. Studies have observed how students attempt to measure success and failures through completing tangible tasks as they continue to perceive the frequency of listening exposure as demotivating (Graham, 2007). Alam and Sinha (2009) also noted how the complexity of listening hinders learners by confusing sub-skills through using limited processes as well as making them depend on compensatory strategies to deal with real-time listening difficulties. Although more studies are being conducted in listening (Takaesu, 2013; Chou, 2016; Shang, 2008), pedagogic directives remain limited. Conflicting reports among researchers further highlight these complexities, with the realization that implementing language learning strategies into accessible lesson forms for students is needed.

Academic Listening

These complexities are further strained in tertiary-level classrooms as fewer studies have investigated how to specifically implement listening into academic programs (Batova, 2013; Rahimirad & Moini, 2015). Several pertinent challenges exist for tertiary learners in listening. Graham (2006) observed the frustration recognized by students, who cite listening as the most difficult of the skills to master and identified speed, mishearing vocabulary, and inadequate exposure as the major difficulties. English for Academic Purposes (EAP) also remains central to listening controversies, with many lecturers expecting existing schema and a useful repertoire of listening skills to be functional once students become tertiary learners (Alam & Sinha, 2009). More specifically, skills to facilitate comprehending class lectures, taking notes, and following instructions to carry out classroom tasks have become required listening skills in the tertiary-level classroom (Alam & Sinha, 2009). However, directives remain limited as educators have little guidance and students are expected to select their own compensatory skills, irrespective of whether prior knowledge of these methods exists (Vandergrift, 2007).

Listening Strategies

Research also suggests that both educators and students remain unsure about the most suitable approaches to employ in listening,

recognizing parallel processes, learning strategies, and listening competence (Batova, 2013; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012) as pertinent influential components to include when designing listening lessons.

A plethora of learning strategies has been investigated for their suitability in listening. More recently, researchers have examined the effect of three simplified distinctions: cognitive (using tasks actively), metacognitive (thinking about learning processes), and socio-affective (interactive) methods. Specifically, Flowerdew and Miller (2005) have extended these three areas to include specific strategies into learning pedagogy. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) have also advocated particular usage of metacognitive strategies, enabling students to predict, infer, monitor, clarify, respond, and evaluate explicitly. Graham (2011) further supported this notion, noticing how students can reduce anxiety and heighten confidence by employing self-efficacy strategies – the belief is that individuals have the capacity to achieve specific tasks from the choices they make. Thus, the plethora of strategies that exist could cater for disparate individual student needs. Therefore, teaching guidance is needed for educators to promote such complex methods through accessible pedagogical frameworks as students feel helpless and unequipped to deal with real-time listening practices both inside and outside of the classroom (Graham, 2007).

Many researchers have also investigated how parallel processes are employed by students in listening (Batova, 2013; Field, 2009; Tsui & Fullilove, 1998; Vandergrift, 2007). These multiple studies have suggested various combinative methods using bottom-up (decoding of word parts) and top-down (contextual interpretations) approaches (Batova, 2013). Despite research findings that show prominent bottom-up dependency by students, a top-down emphasis and clearer directives to effectively encourage combined approaches (or utilize parallel processes) remain ambiguous. Additionally, varying abilities in the tertiary-level classroom should not be overlooked as differences in students' English exposure and L1-to-L2 transference skills could be problematic for educators with unclear directives as to how to approach teaching listening (Flowerdew & Miller 2005).

Listening Pedagogy

Listening pedagogy also highlights other recognized problems.

Accessible cognitive and linguistic training for learners, using task-based approaches effectively, and adapting lessons to match skilled and less-skilled listeners suitably (Adams & Newton, 2009; Shang, 1998; Tsui & Fullilove, 1998) remain limited in pedagogic form. Therefore, these research areas need to be investigated to provide pedagogical guidance for educators and structured learning for students.

Pedagogically, several approaches have already been examined further, including three-stage lesson frameworks that employ workable listening lesson distinctions (Chou, 2016; Cross, 2009; Field, 2009). These previous studies have advocated using pre-/while-/post- listening stages equally to divide lessons temporally while providing strategic guidance for both educators and learners. However, educators remain limited in implementing these frameworks in their courses as both teachers and students are uncertain in identifying existing learning discrepancies or how to cater to these differences (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005).

Research Context

English education in Korea remains a priority for all students and continues into tertiary-level studies. Most students have been exposed to English instruction from the age of 3, including language development between students and native teachers. The EPIK program, which has introduced native teaching assistants into middle school classrooms since 1997, has continued to prepare students for grammar-based university entrance exams (Cho, 2004). Consequently, university freshmen are required to complete compulsory academic English credits and general English course options as part of their studies. Although motivation can vary, students remain positive in completing English courses to heighten job prospects and enhance graduate course applications (Cho, 2004).

Therefore, this study proposes a pedagogical framework that could be adapted by educators and learners in tertiary-level classrooms. The ten-week longitudinal study employed ten listening lessons and was used to investigate the following research questions:

RQ1. What listening tasks do students identify as pedagogically viable for an Academic English program?

RQ2. Which listening tasks will students use in future academic listening courses?

RQ1 was answered by examining and quantifying completed tasks by students in the listening course. Journal comments were also tallied to illustrate task viability as identified by students. Secondly, RQ2 was investigated using data collected from learner questionnaires to measure which tasks were known to students by the end of the study. By identifying which strategies would be used in the future, the results signified possible task automaticity by students from course exposure.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Existing Academic Listening Perspectives

Approaches in academic listening remain limited with previous skill acquisition often assumed. Alam and Sinha (2009) stated that notetaking, summarizing, and listening to lectures are salient academic listening components that should be included in tertiary-level courses. However, researchers investigating these core components in academic listening have also observed how metacognition (Rahimirad & Moini, 2015), parallel processing (Batova, 2013), and intervention methods (Smit, 2009) are equally important in providing an integrated course for students (see Table 1).

TABLE 1. EAP Listening Approaches

Researchers	Alexander, Argent, & Spencer (2008)	Rahimirad & Moini (2015)	Smit (2009)
Pre-listening	- Read notes from previous lecture	- First verification stage - Planning and prediction	- Explanation of intervention
While-listening	- Listen once, make decisions of notes to make	- Second verification stage - Third verification stage	- Listen to lecture twice
Post-listening	- Recycle/link new ideas to previous ones independently	- Final verification stage - Reflection	- Complete gap-fill to identify intervention

Recent studies have recognized a shift in EAP approaches when teaching listening with researchers designing specific interactive lesson materials into three distinctive stages to encourage listening accessibility in tertiary learning.

However, despite these directives, a systematic and effective methodology is needed to facilitate both the listening skills needed by students and the pedagogic framework needed to incorporate the academic listening components for EAP students to develop listening skills.

Teaching Listening

Additionally, studies investigating appropriate methodological frameworks toward listening in EAP have recognized how listening theories, learning strategies, and task-based learning could provide more systematic approaches to listening (Adams & Newton, 2009; Rahimirad & Moini, 2015; Tsui & Fullilove, 1998).

Listening Theories

Firstly, researchers have considered current theories of second language acquisition that could be adapted to enhance listening development for students. Smit (2009) and Vandergrift (2007) considered the foundation of learning theory by using the models in Table 2 in their studies.

Researchers have also investigated how individual facets of learning theory could be incorporated into listening lessons. Shang (2008) suggested that linguistic and background knowledge are salient factors in affecting a learner's understanding of listening texts and also recognized how schemata is central to input for students. Vandergrift (2007) also advocated the importance of the process of listening and how questioning students and their approaches to listening could help validate and prove individual techniques as reliable for one's learning. Thus, many researchers have incorporated these theories into tasks when using different strategies to simplify listening theories for both educators and learners.

TABLE **2. Learning Theories**

Intake Model (Chaudron & Richards 1986, cf. Smit 2009)	**Monitor Model/Input Hypothesis** (Krashen 1985, cf. Smit 2009)	**Comprehension Model** (Tyler & Warren 1987, cf. Smit 2009)	**Three-phase Model** (Anderson 1995, cf. Vandergrift 2007)
- Input, storage and location of information	- Language acquisition occurs just beyond one's level	- Comprehension occurs once learner decodes incoming input	- Perceptual processing (segmenting phonemes)
- Organize and facilitate information	- Schemata instructs learner and used to assist comprehension	- New information is integrated into existing knowledge	- Parsing (constructing a meaningful representation)
- Input = Intake to assist comprehensible input/recall		- Learner checks to accept or reject new knowledge	- Utilization (using information in long-term memory)

Listening Strategies

In addition to educators considering how learners process input, researchers have also recognized the importance of language strategies. Listening research has identified three learning strategies as salient: metacognitive (thinking about thinking), cognitive (doing and completing a task), and socio-affective (interacting with others) distinctions (Rahimirad & Moini, 2015).

Researchers have investigated metacognition in listening using various methods. Studies by Vandergrift and Goh (2012) have investigated the effect of specific metacognitive approaches in listening by using the uniquely designed MALQ (Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire) to identify learners who could improve by using planning and evaluation tasks in listening repertoires. Consequently, the study concluded that learners who are more prepared for participation in cognitive tasks could perform more ably in while-listening tasks (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Rahimirad and Moini (2015) also found that predicting the text, monitoring and problem-solving their responses, and evaluating their comprehension could improve metacognition. Therefore, such tasks should be considered for inclusion in tertiary-level listening pedagogy.

The process of listening also involves cognition. Vandergrift (2007) defined cognition as one's understanding and interaction with the text. The complexity of listening tasks is perhaps realized at the cognition

stage as dependent on the activity where different learner demands are required. Vandergrift (2007) observed how learners also need to consider the task aims to determine which processes to employ. However, as many researchers have noted (Field, 2009; Graham, 2007; Vandergrift, 2007), students may need to depend on compensatory mechanisms to interpret the input given. Using visual or paralinguistic (speaking features) information could enhance existing knowledge and schemata, and further help processing times and automaticity (Vandergrift, 2007).

Despite the purported developments of metacognition and cognitive practices in listening lessons, the effects of socio-affective tasks have been challenged within the EFL field. Traditionally, collaborative tasks have improved learners' confidence and reduced individual anxiety (Graham, 2011). However, considering Korean learners have minimal contact with native speakers before tertiary-level education, such tasks could be interpreted as intrusive by learners who may feel uncomfortable or embarrassed by interactions. Therefore, collaborative practices should be approached with caution and adapted to include individual personal reflection tasks to accommodate Korean learners and their traditional passive lecture practices (Jong, 2006).

Parallel Processes

Additionally, parallel processes have been thoroughly examined for their suitability to provide learners with strategic options in their learning. Traditionally, bottom-up approaches (understanding lexis at word level) and top-down processes (understanding context and background information) have often been integrated into listening practices (Vandergrift, 2007). However, in previous studies, it was found that bottom-up processes are linked more predominantly with less-skilled or lower-level learners who broach their learning using semantic-level decoding, interpretation, and the individual use of words (Tsui & Fullilove, 1998). In contrast, top-down methods are synonymous with higher-level skilled learners who employ contextual interpretations in tandem with previous knowledge and experiences to arrive at more sophisticated inferences. However, researchers have observed that more competent listeners tend to avoid using bottom-up methods to utilize lexis effectively in interpretations (Tsui & Fullilove, 1998).

Thus, irrespective of the learner's competence level, using specifically bottom-up or top-down methods has been met with much criticism, signifying a balanced approach is needed to successfully

enhance listening with parallel processes. As studies have shown, although students are exposed to both methods, compensatory approaches could lead to an isolated use of one approach, which should be monitored in lessons to encourage an integrated employment of parallel processes more effectively. Consequently, listening learning should include a balance of bottom-up and top-down processes (i.e., parallel processes) with core academic listening task components employed in tertiary-level courses to recognize, interpret, and utilize language.

Listening Tasks

Rahimirad and Moini (2015) presented listening as a passive and challenging skill. As previous literature has shown, traditional academic approaches have been adapted to include limited pre-listening planning tasks, passive while-listening notetaking, and post-listening summaries to provide students with more interactive and collaborative practices (Argent, Alexander, & Spencer, 2008).

Researchers in EAP have also considered the mental processes needed by students to facilitate listening learning more effectively by using theoretical tasks that could further heighten strategic knowledge while striving to include EAP listening components.

TABLE 3. EAP Skills and Resources

What we think learners need...	Necessary Micro-skills (Richards, 1995)	Listening Activities Listening for...
- Comprehend lectures - Take notes - Evaluate relevance of content - Follow instructions - Complete tasks - Interact with others	- Identify listening purpose/topic - Relationships in discourse - Recognize subject lexis - Deduce meanings - Identify structure/cohesion - Follow speaker style/attitude - Pronunciation/accent/speed - Understand function	- Specific Information - General Information - Detailed Information - Transactional Functions - Interactional Functions - Academic Purposes

From Alam & Sinha, 2009

As Alam and Sinha (2009) observed, by combining what we think learners need with linguistic micro-skills in listening texts, activities could be devised to systematically develop listening competence (see Table 3). However, these suggestions have remained unfounded as lecturers still remain presumptuous about listening competence, and

consequently, the differing skills the students possess could lead to further learning discrepancies in classes.

Additionally, listening tasks developed from mental processes employ a balance of product (tangible answers) and process (showing the activity approach) tasks (Field 2009; see Table 4). However, the success of listening tasks is often depicted through monitoring the achievement of the correct answer from product tasks, which results in learners ignoring process approaches that are often cited by students as time-consuming or burdening (Roe, 2013). Therefore, product and process tasks could be problematic to employ in classrooms if students measure their success solely on tangibility as an indicator toward listening development.

TABLE 4. Product and Process Tasks

Task Type	Batova (2013)	Chou (2016)	Smit (2009)
Process Tasks	- Introduce topic using background knowledge of major - Topic under discussion debated in pairs or groups	- Photo/video input - Questions for discussion - Roleplay simulation - Discuss situations - Reflections	- Introduce semantic cue (e.g., discourse markers)
Product Tasks	- Listen to authentic speech excerpts - Make notes while listening	- Sorting, comparing, matching - Notetaking, table, flow chart - Use listening strategies	- Listen to pre-recorded texts - Identify semantic cues - Complete gap-fills to determine understanding of discourse markers

However, recent studies have attempted to further emphasize process tasks. Rahimirad and Moini (2015) and Chou (2016) observed how metacognitive tasks could support students in the planning and evaluation of product tasks by encouraging learners to focus more on processes to further support skill development and improve their listening repertoires. Therefore, a balance of product and process tasks could encourage listening development and, thus, higher competence in learners.

Additionally, metacognition could be encouraged by implementing listening journals. Listening logs (or journals) could expose students to evaluative processes by raising awareness of their individual practices through reflecting upon tasks completed (Kemp, 2010). Rao and Liu

(2010) also advocated journals in listening studies to advance metacognition by adapting Vandergrift and Goh's MALQ instrument to encourage "habitual ways of learning by students" (p. 50). Although reflection and heightened awareness could be gained from additional journal components, Roe (2013) found from her own study that listening fatigue could lead to demotivation and further frustration from students.

Student Attitudes

Studies have also investigated student attitudes toward listening. Graham (2006, 2007, 2011) and Graham and Santos (2011) observed how students remain frustrated toward listening, citing boredom, lacking skill repertoires, and anxiety as contributing factors toward listening failures. Yeldham and Gruba (2016) also recognized how individual discrepancies should be acknowledged by educators and that they should help support students in providing for these individual needs. Flowerdew and Miller (2005) identified how the learning styles of individuals could add further complexities to listening pedagogy in attempts to provide a framework to fit all learners. Korean educators have commented on how attitudes are affected, citing limited teaching knowledge, fewer tangible activities, and varying student knowledge as reasons to avoid task-based activities (Jong, 2006). However, Vandergrift and Goh's (2012) initial development of the MALQ questionnaire has demonstrated preliminary steps in further understanding learner discrepancies by supporting knowledge gaps and providing ample strategic choices to suit individual needs in pedagogical practices (Adams & Newton, 2009).

METHODOLOGY

As research has identified, listening is a complex skill for educators to teach with limited instructional guidance available. Although some studies have suggested improvements toward teaching listening skills, using listening in EAP classrooms, and employing specific listening strategies in pedagogy (Rahimirad & Moini, 2015; Yeldham & Gruba, 2016), further research is still needed to investigate if listening theories could be applied to teaching frameworks. Consequently, this study investigated if listening tasks could be pedagogically viable when

employed in tertiary-level classrooms and also identified which tasks were automatized by students after course exposure.

Study Participants

This study was conducted at a Korean university using two Freshmen Academic English classes. The student participants ($N = 32$) were public health management majors ($n = 10$) and nursing majors ($n = 22$), aged 19–21 years old, and had been exposed to approximately 16 years of English language learning. The two classes each received 200 minutes of English instruction in three lessons per week and were in the second of two semesters of Academic English. The students completed an initial diagnostic at the start of the academic year and were identified as CEFR level B1. The students were chosen using convenience sampling, where they shared the learning conventions of Korean students having received English exposure from the Korean education system and preparing for the university entrance exams, CSAT and CAET (Holstein, 2003).

Research Ethics

The participants were informed about the study using information letters and consent forms. Information letters were given to students in class and explained by the author to inform that the study would benefit their learning by using listening practices, improving learning confidence, and increasing listening strategy usage. Example listening lesson materials were displayed so participation could be visualized by the students. Participatory commitments in completing the listening lessons and journals were also presented and the learners were informed of their rights to withdrawal, anonymity, (using coding; e.g., student 1 = D47), and opportunities to view the study results. Questions were answered by the author to clarify the workload requirements before students were asked to complete and return the consent forms.

Research Approach

The study employed a mixed method approach that used questionnaires, lesson tasks, and listening journals to collect data. By using quantitative questionnaires and qualitative lesson tasks and journal

data, a triangulation of results could be analyzed by the author (Dornyei, 2007). Pre-course and post-course questionnaires were completed by students in week 1 and week 10 of the course to collect listening attitudes and behavior data from the students before and after exposure.

Research Methods

The study used ten TED Talks to create a listening program that incorporated a three-stage lesson framework and listening strategies to heighten students' listening repertoires. The listening lessons were integrated into 10 weeks of the regular 16-week semester of Academic English classes through using lesson materials and journals. Lessons were collected from students weekly and placed in portfolios to provide task data and to determine if automaticity by students had been achieved. The method was adapted from previous studies conducted by Roe (2013), Takaesu (2013), and Zhang (2012), who investigated if structured lesson pedagogy could heighten the task awareness and automaticity of listening tasks.

Consequently, the following research questions were posed:

RQ1. What listening tasks do students identify as pedagogically viable for an Academic English program?

RQ1 was determined by quantifying the number of tasks completed by students in each lesson and then ranking the usage of each activity to measure which activities were ascertained as more pedagogically viable in completing listening lessons.

RQ2: Which listening tasks will students use in future academic listening courses?

RQ2 was answered by comparing the initial and final questionnaire results to determine which strategic tasks were automatized for future listening learning as identified by students.

Lesson Tasks

The study provided students with ten listening lessons to complete

over a ten-week course to enhance strategy use. The lessons were developed using pedagogic directives as suggested by researchers in previous studies to develop the listening framework in Table 5.

TABLE 5. TED Talk Listening Approach

Stage	Tasks
Pre-listening	- Read title and use photos to speculate topic ideas - Write in prediction in "Before Prediction" box - Check "Vocabulary Box" for terms known. Translate any new words - Check information needed to complete "After Listening" activity
While-listening	- Listen once, take notes - Listen again, add to notes - Check notes with peers
Post-listening	- Complete "After Listening" activity - Complete "After Prediction" box - Write summary - Complete journal entry

The ten lessons reflected the developed framework in Table 5. Although tasks were varied between lessons, each plan featured Chou's (2016) Input/Listening/Reflection distinctions to include a balanced task approach that uses pre-listening/while-listening/post-listening stages. Furthermore, components from Flowerdew and Miller's (2005) pedagogical framework were adapted to provide students with parallel processes that emphasize bottom-up and top-down input. Finally, lesson stages also employed a mixture of metacognitive and cognitive practices to encourage learning using product and process learning, thereby leaving the flexibility of socio-affective practices for the educator to include if classroom opportunities were to arise.

Journals

Journals were used to collect further insights from students after lesson completion. Adapting previous journal structures from Roe (2013) and Takaesu (2013), the journals encouraged students to write summary and opinion entries, include reflection comments, and compose future goals. Checklists featuring 28 different listening strategies (adapted from Flowerdew & Miller, 2005) provided further guidance by using strategy

statements as prompts for students to comment about methods for future listening practices.

Questionnaires

The study employed pre-course and post-course questionnaires to elicit listening attitudes and behaviors. The questionnaires were divided into six questions to ask students about what they listened to and their attitudes toward listening, as well as to elicit behavior associated with listening learning habits. The questionnaire employed both quantitative and qualitative components. Quantitative questions were used to determine the students' listening habits by using a Likert scale ranging from 1−5 (i.e., very difficult − very easy; see Table 6) to record positive to negative responses more accurately.

TABLE 6. Extract A − Questionnaire: Item Response Variations

Likert Scale	1	2	3	4	5
	Very Difficult	Difficult	Neither	Easy	Very Easy
Response Options	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
	Yes	No	Maybe		

Qualitative data were also gathered as students were invited to write optional comments to further support their quantitative choices. However, participants were not penalized if comment spaces were left blank.

Procedure

Lessons were presented and completed weekly in either a plenary class or self-study workshop form with minimum educator instruction and interactive task-based activities. Lessons and journals were collected in individual portfolios and were returned every two weeks with feedback provided on self-study lessons and an allocation of 10% of the final grade to encourage maximum completion of tasks. Implemented over ten weeks, the TED Talk lessons introduced and employed listening pedagogy that used the three pre-listening/while-listening/post-listening stages (see Table 7).

TABLE 7. Lesson Schedule

Week	1–2	3–4	5–6	7–8	9–10
Lesson	Lesson A Self-Study A	Lesson B Self-Study B	Lesson C Self-Study C	Lesson D Self-Study D	Lesson E Self-Study E
Date	September	October	November	November	December

Piloting

Lesson A was used as a pilot to introduce the listening course. A class-adapted lesson plan helped students distinguish between pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening activities as strategies and checklist statements were introduced through an initial listening discussion before the lesson was conducted.

Limitations

Piloting lesson A found some study limitations. First, as the listening study allocated a 10% completion grade, all tasks were completed. Consequently, measuring the task viability through completion for RQ1 could be perceived as unreliable data. Therefore, tallying and categorizing the journal comments for each strategy should provide more accurate quantitative task viability insights.

Students were also unclear about checklist item definitions and needed further training to become more familiar with individual strategies. Therefore, each strategy was coded (e.g., CS1 = Cognitive Strategy 1) and reworded to use an accessible sentence to describe the approach and avoid awkward terminology and confusion for the students.

Finally, journal fatigue may have been an issue as some students were not motivated by the listening. Therefore, the program was implemented intermittently each week with other Academic English skills to avoid using an intensive period of listening input.

DATA COLLECTION

Pre-course and post-course questionnaires, and journal data were analyzed to determine task usage and automaticity from the listening

lessons completed for the study.

Journal Selections and Journal Comments

Quantitative data from journals measured strategy selections by students and qualitatively examined comments to provide participant insights (Dornyei, 2007). The convenience sample was transcribed and logged using anonymous, categorized, and systematic referencing for the researcher to locate answers easily.

Comments were counted and then ranked by strategy to determine if task automaticity occurred with listening pedagogic familiarity. The comments also determined if tasks were positively or negatively received by students to further support suggested listening task automaticity (see Table 8 for examples).

TABLE 8. Extract A − Journal Transcriptions

Code	Strategy	
CS2	I guessed the meaning by listening to the speaker's pitch	
Lesson	**Comment**	**Student**
2	I think it is a little helpful because I couldn't understand speaker's word. He said too fast. So it was not easy ☹	D910

Pre-course and Post-course Questionnaires

Comparing questionnaire data identified which tasks had been automatized by students by post-course. The questionnaires completed by all 32 students both before and after the course were recorded using Microsoft Excel workbooks and Likert scale coding.

Questionnaires that contained incomplete answers were excluded from the final totals to prevent researcher assumption or data ambiguity (Dornyei, 2007). Therefore, each question was individually divided by the number of participants who had responded and calculated from 100% to provide accurate results.

Data Processing Limitations

The first limitation found was that, although journal comments analyzed were categorized into positive and negative distinctions, upon

examination, most of the comments were positive. Therefore, the comments were quantitatively tallied to illustrate the strategies used and compared with the questionnaire data to check automaticity.

Secondly, the Likert scale responses were categorized using grouped positive and negative distinctions to illustrate salient patterns between choices. By presenting broader positive and negative selections, it is believed that clearer conclusions could be derived from the data processed.

RESULTS

Listening Task Viability

Task viability was measured by counting journal comments to illustrate the selected listening strategies by students. Using the 28-strategy checklist, the definitions commented on in journals were measured to suggest task viability with the results divided into metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective distinctions.

Metacognitive Strategies

TABLE 9. Task Viability: Metacognitive Strategies

Code	Strategy/Skill	Frequency
MCM1	I stop the talk to listen to/understand short sections.	**15**
MCS3	I listen generally first then listen again for details.	**12**
MCM2	I think about whether the talk is correct with my predictions.	**11**
MCS2	I predict what the speaker will talk about.	**9**
MCS1	I think about what the talk will discuss before I listen.	**8**
MCE2	I can say what was difficult to understand and set myself clear goals for my next listening.	**4**
MCM3	I look at my predictions after the talk and change my ideas if needed.	**3**
MCE1	I can judge how much I have understood using my log.	**0**

Table 9 shows the viability of metacognitive tasks. The eight

categories show an increased employment in four predominantly pre-listening and while-listening metacognitive strategies and limited employment in post-listening strategies.

Students identified MCM1 and MCS3 as useful while-listening practices. Furthermore, pre-listening MCM2 and MCS2 prediction strategies were also identified as practical, signifying predictive strategies as viable tasks. However, post-listening MCE1 journal techniques were not identified as useful by any student. Similarly, changes to MCM3 predictions were not considered as pedagogically viable in improving listening as students perhaps perceived changing predictions as incorrect.

Cognitive Strategies

Table 10 shows 16 different cognitive categories related to the students' practical engagement with the listening text. From the categories measured, while-listening notetaking (C7) was recognized as the most useful. Additionally, pre-listening and while-listening CS2, C5, C9, and CS5 showed a strong correlation between vocabulary, context, and comprehension strategies.

However, students were reluctant to utilize pre-listening tasks to support their while-listening/post-listening with limited selections measured in CE5, CE4, CE1, and CS1, indicating students prefer not to consider the unknown. These results are consistent with Korean learning styles, suggesting tangible product answers cater for task achievement more than prior experience or evaluative predictions, which could be subjective across individuals.

TABLE 10. Task Viability: Cognitive Strategies

Code	Strategy/Skill	Frequency
C7	I can take useful notes to understand the topic.	35
CS2	I guess the meaning by listening to the speaker's pitch.	13
C5	I can use resources like dictionaries, diagrams, and my peers to help me understand the topic better.	10
C9	I can guess words/use synonyms for words I don't know.	10
CS5	I listen for language that will help me understand the talk.	9
CE2	I think about how the topic relates to my previous knowledge.	9

CS4	I guess the meaning by looking at the listening task.	8
CS3	I guess the meaning by looking at body language.	6
C4	I can use the transcript to follow the listening and learn new words.	5
C1	I can give a summary about the main ideas in the talk.	5
CE3	I think about how the topic relates to previous ideas I have studied.	4
C6	I can group together words to help me understand the topic.	4
CS1	I guess unknown words with known words before listening.	3
CE1	I think about how the topic relates to my personal experiences.	2
CE4	I think about what I know and don't know about the topic.	1
CE5	I think about the information I have and make conclusions/ alternate conclusions before listening.	0

Socio-Affective Strategies

All four socio-affective strategies (see Table 11) were positively received by students, identifying discussion (SAS2) as the most viable collaborative task, followed by personal goals (SAS4). However, limited usage in asking questions (SAS1) further reinforces the learning styles of Koreans as reluctant to engage with educators and reluctant to write journals (SAS5), resulting in problematic practices for students reticent to use personal experiences in self-evaluative metacognitive or socio-affective practices.

TABLE 11. Task Viability: Metacognitive Strategies

Code	Strategy/Skill	Frequency
SAS2	I can discuss my ideas with others to understand the topic better.	21
SAS4	I can set personal goals to show how much I have understood/want to understand next time.	10
SAS1	I can ask questions to my peers/teacher if I don't understand.	5
SAS5	I can write a journal to say how I feel about listening and to set goals for next time.	2

Listening Task Automaticity

Listening task automaticity was measured using Likert scale items in pre-course and post-course questionnaires. Students were asked "What strategies would you like to learn?" (Questionnaire 1), which was compared with "Which strategies will you now use?" (Questionnaire 2) in twelve identical categories.

Identified Task Automaticity

As a while-listening item, visual aids were identified as the most "sometimes-useful" task by 97% of the respondents to understand listening texts. Similarly, the pre-listening item "think/discuss topic" was considered practical by 90.62% with an increase in almost 10% by the end of the course.

TABLE 12. Identified Task Automaticity

Skill	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Total	Difference
Think/Discuss Topic	22.72	31.81	27.27	81.80	**+8.82**
	25.00	**43.75**	**21.87**	**90.62**	
Previous Experience	9.09	31.81	27.27	68.17	**+16.15**
	18.75	**43.75**	**21.87**	**84.32**	
Visual Aids	4.54	31.81	36.36	72.71	**+24.16**
	25.00	**59.37**	**12.50**	**96.87**	
Write Notes	9.09	54.54	22.72	86.35	**+13.65**
	43.75	**40.62**	**15.62**	**100.0**	

Note. Regular font style = pre-course results; Bold font style = post-course results.

In contrast to journal results, 84.32% of the students recognized the pre-listening item "previous experience" as salient in understanding the listening context, and the while-listening task of "write notes" was acknowledged as 100% useful, emphasizing the usability of notetaking systems and skills by students (Table 12).

Limited Task Automaticity

In the limited task automaticity category, the post-listening write

summary was considered 20% more in never–sometimes categories, suggesting that information transfer was unsuccessful. Similarly, while-listening speed/ accent/emphasis measured a 25% increase in never–sometimes responses, indicating the component was perceived as unnecessary or too difficult to comprehend independently. Furthermore, pre-listening guess/check word meanings data contradicted previous listening strategy findings in cognitive task viability, indicating that 37.5% of the students would prefer not to infer meaning. However, the remaining 62.5% identified a correlation between pre-listening vocabulary and while-listening comprehension as helpful (see Table 13).

TABLE 13. Limited Task Automaticity

Skill	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Total	Difference
Guess/Check Word Meanings	0	9.09	18.18	27.27	+10.23
	0	**6.25**	**31.25**	**37.50**	
Speed/Accent/ Emphasis	0	13.63	18.18	31.81	+24.41
	3.10	**28.12**	**25.00**	**56.22**	
Write Summary	4.54	22.72	13.63	40.89	+18.41
	0	**9.30**	**50.00**	**59.30**	

Note. Regular font style = pre-course results; Bold font style = post-course results.

DISCUSSION

This study aimed to determine whether students could identify listening tasks as pedagogically viable in listening development and to recognize listening task automaticity after course exposure. The following metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective tasks were recognized by students as viable in their listening progress. Four strategies were also considered automatized by the end of the course for students to use in future independent listening practices.

Listening Task Viability

Metacognitive Strategies

"Listening in sections" (MCM1) and "listen generally/specifically" (MCS3) were considered the most viable strategies by students.

Emulating Vandergrift and Goh's (2012) suggestions that planning metacognitive approaches prepare students more suitably for cognitive tasks, the chosen strategies suggest learner-centered approaches as controlled by students are more effective in learning (Adams & Newton, 2009).

Additionally, "reflecting upon previous experience" (MCM2) and "predict speaker's talk" (MCS2) also recognize a shift in attitudes toward employing prediction strategies. Korean students have challenged existing learning needs for tangible product tasks, shifting towards using background information effectively. Thus, the ability to use schemata to heighten both familiarity and confidence enables students with coping strategies to facilitate dealing with their own listening discrepancies (Rahimirad & Moini, 2015).

However, despite developing schematic links to the listening topics, post-listening reflection and evaluation in journals (MCE1) remains problematic for the students. Although the students had been exposed to autonomous learning and reflective practices during the study, further journal guidance was sought by learners, whom deemed the practice ineffective. Thus, students should be encouraged to recognize listening journals as a learning tool to develop language and reflection rather than an extra chore that is perhaps perceived as an extended post-listening activity (Kemp, 2010).

Cognitive Strategies

Notetaking (C7) was measured as the most viable task, advocating Alam and Sinha's (2009) observations that taking notes cater toward student needs to provide balanced systems and skills using product and process tasks (Field, 2009). Additionally, the pre-listening vocabulary box (C5) raises topic awareness and provides students with tangibility to measure comprehension in while-listening. As recognized in Yeldham and Gruba's (2016) study, lexical scaffolding and exposure to bottom-up approaches in planning and evaluative metacognitive stages enable students to utilize vocabulary confidently in cognitive stages. Consequently, top-down prediction and inferencing tendencies are more competently used, recognizing top-down elaboration in guessing meanings (CS2) and guessing words/synonyms (C9) as a shift from product answers to a balance of mental process approaches by students.

Similarly, post-listening strategies were again perceived as unimportant by students. Cognitively, changing/alternating conclusions

from prior predictions (CE5) was interpreted as a failure by students who still strive for tangible product answers (Field, 2009). Thus, pre-listening strategies such as translating vocabulary and linking the context to existing schemata were perceived as feasible tasks to understand listening, but students failed to extend these strategies from while-listening contexts when elaborating in post-listening tasks (Yeldham & Gruba, 2016). Consequently, advocating Graham's (2007) self-efficacy beliefs, learners have acquired maladaptive instrumentality, suggesting the lack of success is caused by inaccessible or uncontrollable processes. Therefore, further action needs to be taken to reinforce student confidence and provide transparent tasks to achieve adaptive instrumentality (Graham, 2007).

Socio-Affective Strategies

Socio-affective strategies measured a shift toward collaborative tendencies, thereby challenging the passive Korean convention of learners wanting minimal contact or being embarrassed by interaction. Specifically, as Graham (2011) noted, "verbalization helps learners to attend more fully to strategies and aids their encoding" (p. 115). Consequently, learner training and opportunities to use collaborative tasks are essential for educators to heighten confidence and improve task-based performances in learners (Jong, 2006).

Contrastingly, the Confucianism view was identified with students restricted by the hierarchical authoritarian in Korean classrooms. Despite metacognitive and cognitive findings suggesting a positive shift toward learner-centeredness in tasks, students were reluctant to ask peers/ teachers for clarification (SAS1) (Adams & Newton, 2009). Additionally, students were hesitant in writing journals (SAS5), suggesting further training is needed to critically evaluate their own listening. Therefore, although learner reticence has been overcome by interacting with peers, further adapting for educators to help Korean learners achieve meaningful evaluative practices is required (Adams & Newton, 2009).

Task Automaticity

Listening Task Automaticity

Using visual aids (97%) and writing notes (100%) were the most automatized of the twelve skills that students would employ in future listening. While-listening notetaking identifies a combination of the

Intake Model and Comprehension Model (Smit, 2009) used to help students decode input, organize information into existing knowledge, and then accept/reject information. Furthermore, the use of visual aids provides the necessary micro-skills (Richards, 1995) to support students in identifying listening purpose/topic, understanding relationships in discourse, and deducing meaning. Thus, visual aids and writing notes heighten strategic knowledge while promoting fundamental EAP listening components successfully.

Additionally, pre-listening think/discuss and previous experience suggest heightened top-down awareness. By developing lexical bottom-up approaches further, familiarity may have promoted more sophisticated top-down inferences to encourage students to link the topic to their own existing schematic repertoires (Tsui & Fullilove, 1998). Therefore, individual bottom-up and top-down task exposure could develop parallel process practices in pre-listening and while-listening stages. Thus, parallelism and automaticity could be promoted following individual task exposure.

Limited Listening Task Automaticity

Although guessing words/synonyms (C9) was identified as a useful cognitive skill, 10% more students would rarely/sometimes use the approach post-course. Students may lack a form−meaning−function relationship between the lesson's vocabulary box and the listening context, or feel unmotivated or "wrong" due to strategy intangibility (Newton & Adams, 2009). Therefore, learners who retain words or sequences in their echoic memory (a characteristic of Korean learners) need more obvious links to the context to transfer bottom-up knowledge to top-down inferences and activate self-efficacy in their learning (Alam & Sinha, 2009; Yeldham & Gruba, 2016).

Furthermore, the speaker's speed/accent/emphasis was considered difficult by an increase of almost 25% of the students post-course, indicating unfamiliarity could affect comprehension. The comprehension model considers accepting or rejecting new knowledge. However, Anderson's three-phase model emphasizes how limited parsing and utilization could be assisted by controlling speed and familiarizing accent components to further enable students' successful comprehension in listening (Smit, 2009; Vandergrift, 2007).

Finally, in line with Roe's (2013) observations, summary was identified by almost 60% of students as unnecessary. Although results

indicate that metacognition was encouraged, students did not recognize the value of information transfer activities, thereby failing to utilize habitual EAP writing skills (Rao & Liu, 2010). Therefore, information transfer could be integrated with other necessary micro-skills to provide tangible structural or writing cohesion practices to promote EAP skills and further qualify the task as more meaningful by university students (Richards, 1995).

CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated employing listening strategies and skills in pedagogic form for students to develop their individual learning repertoires. Listening task viability and limited task automaticity was measured to suggest that with structured lessons, listening teaching could be simplified and students could improve their listening competence.

Study Findings

Ten TED Talk lessons, student journals, and pre-course/post-course questionnaires were measured to illustrate selected task viability in cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective strategies. Furthermore, four of the 12 lesson tasks students were exposed to were identified as automatized in learning while three tasks were perceived as unhelpful for future listening practices.

In listening task viability, learner-centered strategies controlled by students are considered more practical. Pre-listening and while-listening product tasks are more tangible, and thus, more valued (Field, 2009). Although individual employment of bottom-up lexical tasks and top-down contextual activities were recognized, further research is needed to establish whether parallel employment is evident or if approaches resulted in isolated usage (Tsui & Fullilove, 1998).

Furthermore, socio-affective findings reinforce the learning characteristics of Korean learners, corroborating student reticence to interact with peers or challenge authoritative educator figures (Newton & Adams, 2009). Thus, further transparency and learner training is needed to encourage self-efficacy in individuals to promote autonomy and metacognitive evaluative and self-reflective practices (Graham, 2007).

In task automaticity, the strategies of visual aids, writing notes, think/discuss, and previous experience appeared as independent strategies employed by learners without preparation or the need for educator guidance. Learners have acquired listening task repertoires to employ during while-listening practices to take notes and notice visual aids when listening. Thus, students have developed existing personal knowledge to activate self-efficacy when completing tasks independently (Graham, 2011).

However, listening components beyond the learner's control have proven unfamiliar and difficult to ascertain as supportive in listening. Additionally, information transfer in summary writing further questions Korean learners and their motivation toward evaluation and reflective practices, suggesting Confucianism could limit innovative, less-prescribed task-based learning approaches in the classroom (Adams & Newton, 2009).

Future Recommendations

Further research needs to be conducted to validate this small-scale study. Specifically, research investigating the employment of post-listening strategies and identifying links between parallel processes and tangible tasks would offer further insights into student learning and feasible listening development practices.

Research could also focus on the 12 tasks employed in the pedagogic listening framework to identify strategy employment, familiarity, and usability. By providing further insights into task autonomy, further classroom practice exposing students to maximum opportunities could broaden listening repertoires.

In conclusion, this study provides preliminary strategy suggestions to enhance listening learning. Tentative findings identify prominent tasks used in listening pedagogy, which could support students in their learning practices. Thus, further strategy distinctions could be formulated to hopefully suggest more constructive, practical, task-based pedagogy to students for their listening development.

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An Evaluation of the Extensive Reading Website ReadOasis

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This article analyzes the Extensive Reading (ER) website ReadOasis by using the in-depth framework for materials evaluation outlined by McGrath (2002). Following teachers' concerns over the absence of ER-appropriate materials in Korea, this article evaluates ReadOasis according to its availability of ER-appropriate materials and its accordance with several of Day and Bamford's (1998) ER principles. The in-depth evaluation concludes that ReadOasis meets some key principles of ER and ought, therefore, to be used by teachers looking to implement ER in their classes. The paper then discusses the in-class implications of its findings, where it is argued that Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) would be a suitable approach for teachers to take. Limitations of the study include an absence of a retrospective evaluation of the materials, which may have provided more compelling evidence of ReadOasis' potential for ER.

Keywords: extensive reading, materials evaluation, Sustained Silent Reading

INTRODUCTION

Extensive Reading (ER) has long been a missing ingredient in English education in South Korea. Despite receiving considerable support from SLA researchers (Day & Bamford, 1998; Renandya, 2007), ER is normally eschewed in favor of Intensive Reading (IR) approaches to classroom learning (Cho & Krashen, 2015). In a country that has been described as suffering from "English fever" (Park, 2009), one would have expected ER to have assumed a more prominent role in the English curriculum. The absence of ER, in Korea or elsewhere, denies students a wealth of comprehensible input − the key ingredient for language

acquisition, according to Krashen (2004).

Given that many teachers claim to lack sufficient materials to implement ER in Korea (Byun, 2010; Cho, 2014), the ER website ReadOasis (formerly known as BeeOasis), containing thousands of texts across various genres, would seem to address this problem (see Figure 1). However, a more thorough evaluation is needed to determine whether the site meets other important ER criteria. I have chosen to evaluate ReadOasis after spending some time using it with my low-intermediate students at Duksung Women's University in Seoul, the majority of whom had no prior experience of ER in class, mostly due to the lack of physical materials, especially graded readers. A reasonable research question to proceed with, then, would be the following:
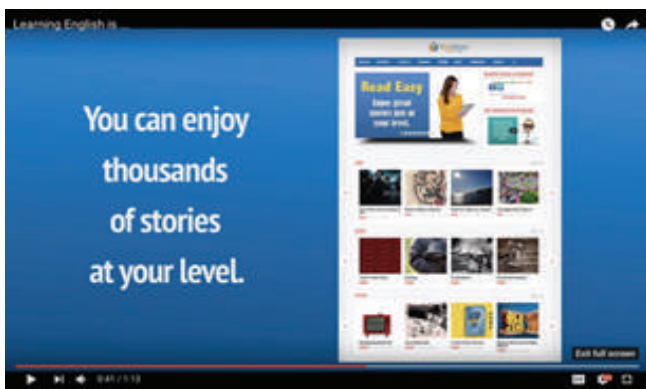
RQ1. Is ReadOasis suitable for an ER approach?

FIGURE 1. Screenshot of the extensive reading website ReadOasis (ReadOasis.com).

To effectively evaluate the materials available in this site, an appropriate framework is needed. Therefore, I will conduct a predictive evaluation of ReadOasis using the in-depth method recommended by McGrath (2002). First, I will outline this framework after a brief discussion of the definition and benefits of ER. The reasons for ER's absence in the Korean English classroom will also be explored. Next, I will offer an answer to the above research question by using my chosen framework to evaluate ReadOasis according to whether or not it meets ER requirements. Finally, there will be an extended discussion of the

in-class implications of the findings by expounding the merits of an ER activity known as Sustained Silent Reading (SSR).

BACKGROUND

What is Extensive Reading (ER)?

Extensive Reading (ER) "is an approach to language teaching in which learners read a lot of easy material in the new language" (Bamford & Day, 2004, p. 1). Normally, this "easy" material is 95−98% comprehensible (Nation, 2009), and sometimes even 100% if the focus is on building reading fluency (Day & Bamford, 1998). The material is almost always self-selected with minimum accountability (Renandya, 2007), meaning that follow-up comprehension questions are invariably absent.

ER is based on Krashen's Input Hypothesis (also known as the Comprehension Hypothesis), which states that we acquire language when we understand it (1985). Drawing a link specifically between reading and comprehension-based language acquisition, Krashen (2004) tells us that Extensive Reading − or, as he calls it, Free Voluntary Reading (FVR) − can be defined simply as "messages we understand presented in a low-anxiety environment" (p. 38). IR, on the other hand, is defined by students working "with short texts with close guidance from the teacher" (Renandya, 2007, p. 135). An IR approach is a much slower, more painstaking process involving close scrutiny of almost every grammatical and lexical aspect of the text (Nation, 2009). For many years, IR has been the accepted mode of reading instruction in English classes in Korea (Youn, 2015), but it is usually found to be inefficient when compared with ER (Elley & Mangubhai, 1983; Hafiz & Tudor, 1989), for which the benefits are numerous.

The Benefits of ER

Bamford and Day (2004, p. 1) tell us that "good things happen to students who read a great deal in the new language," while Krashen (2004, p. 1) has written that ER "is one of the most powerful tools we have in language education." ER has been shown to lead to significant

improvements in reading proficiency (Hafiz & Tudor, 1989; Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass, & Gorsuch, 2004; Iwahori, 2008), writing ability (Janopoulos, 1986; Lee & Hsu, 2009), listening skills (Renandya, Rajan, & Jacobs, 1999; Elley, 2000), vocabulary knowledge (Wodinsky & Nation, 1988; Yamamoto, 2011), and even spoken production (Cho & Krashen, 1994; Elley & Mangubhai, 1983). Perhaps the most widely documented benefit of ER, however, lies in its ability to foster positive affect and motivation towards language learning (Al-Homoud & Schmitt, 2009; Cho, 2013; Susser & Robb, 1990; Takase & Otsuki, 2012). These benefits, though certainly impressive, raise the question of why ER has yet to be embraced by English teachers in Korea.

Why ER Has Not Been Implemented in the English Classroom in Korea

Youn (2015, p. 11) states that "ER has not yet found its way to high schools in Korea," the possible reasons for which are discussed by Byun (2010), who found that common complaints from Korean English teachers included (a) being unable to convince administrators and parents of the effectiveness of ER, (b) the absence of ER materials, and (c) the relentless pressure of test preparation, which leaves little time for novel approaches such as ER to be adopted (see also Cho, 2013). In fact, these findings align with my own interpretation of the neglect of ER in Korea, particularly in the high school environment, where test preparation is at its most intense.

Teachers cannot be expected to change administrative policies, but they can have an impact on deciding which materials are used; so I wondered, prior to this essay, whether ReadOasis could be used as a technology-enhanced form of ER in the absence of graded readers.

Technology-Enhanced Language Learning (TELL)

TELL − or CALL, as it is also known − "is an approach to teaching and learning languages that uses computers and other technologies to present, reinforce, and assess material to be learned" (Stockwell, 2012, p. i). Other titles include "E-learning" and "web-based learning," and the integration of this with traditional classroom learning has been dubbed "blended learning," still considered a superior option to an exclusive

focus on e-learning (Hockly, 2015). Whereas in the past, TELL activities were normally limited to completing gap-fill activities in a computer room (EUROCALL, 2000), 2017 brings with it a vast range of environments for learners to engage with, such as VLEs (virtual learning environments) and LMS (learning management systems). In principle, this ought to make language learning easier, as learners now have a wider array of resources than ever before. However, many of these resources are of dubious quality, even when heavily promoted − as with *Rosetta Stone* (Krashen, 2013) and various kinds of MOOCs (Hockly, 2015). Different forms of website evaluation have followed, focusing on, among other features, the usability and operational efficiency of websites (Hubbard, 2006) and the pedagogical reliability of the e-materials within them (Chapelle, 2001).

As ReadOasis makes thousands of stories available to its readers (Figure 1), it is worth examining from an ER perspective. The prevalence of materials, however, is not the sole requirement for ER, and we must deepen our evaluation of ReadOasis to determine its overall suitability in this respect.

Materials Evaluation

Upon encountering the term "materials design and development," people may limit their definition of "materials" to tangible items like textbooks and worksheets. According to the associated literature, however, the definition of "materials" is somewhat broader. As Tomlinson (1998, p. 2) explains, we use the term "materials" to "refer to anything which is used by teachers or learners to facilitate the learning of a language." The same author goes on to add that materials can refer to "anything which is deliberately used to increase the learners' knowledge and/or experience of the language" (p. 2). McGrath (2013) lists textbooks, commercial materials, and teacher-prepared materials (such as songs and worksheets) as typical examples of materials, but he also accepts Tomlinson's broader definition, writing that materials can include anything that is used "to convey meaning and stimulate language use" (p. 3).

The need for effective materials evaluation is emphasized by Cunningsworth (1979, as cited in McGrath, 2013, p. 25) who argues that teachers "should be helped to develop criteria against which they can make a professional judgment when confronted with new or unfamiliar

material." Many evaluation criteria have been posited to aid teachers in their quest (see for example, Cunningsworth, 1984; Sheldon, 1988), most of which can be termed predictive evaluations (Ellis, 1997), as they focus on likely or possible outcomes of using the materials at hand. The limitations of predictive evaluations were discussed by Sheldon (1988), who called for a retrospective evaluation of materials, where the teacher can, for instance, ask his/her students to complete questionnaires aimed at gauging the usefulness of the activity. The primary function of retrospective evaluations is to decide if the materials ought to be used again (Ellis, 1997), but due to the more time-consuming nature of retrospective evaluations, predictive evaluations have proven to be more popular (Ellis, 1997). Given the generous supply of evaluative criteria − at both predictive and retrospective levels − a specific predictive focus, outlined below, will add more clarity to my own evaluation.

Framework for Analysis

The in-depth method outlined by McGrath (2002) will help to evaluate ReadOasis according to ER principles. McGrath (2002, pp. 27−28) describes his in-depth method as something that aims "to go beneath the publisher's and author's claims to look at...whether the materials seem likely to live up to the claims that are being made for them." When first encountering materials, our evaluation may be what McGrath (2002) terms "impressionistic," whereby our view of the value of course books may be influenced by blurbs or attractive presentation. An in-depth approach, on the other hand, allows the evaluator to probe beneath superficial attractiveness and assess the pedagogical strength of the materials. Though McGrath (2002, p. 28) refers specifically to course books, his in-depth method can equally be applied to ReadOasis, which makes appealing claims about ER's holistic benefits (see Figures 2 and 3) but may not necessarily "live up to the claims that are being made for [it]." Therefore, an in-depth approach − to be taken up in the next section − will offer a sterner examination of the pedagogical suitability of ReadOasis' materials and help us to ascertain whether or not ReadOasis is in fact "based on the idea of extensive reading" (Figure 2).
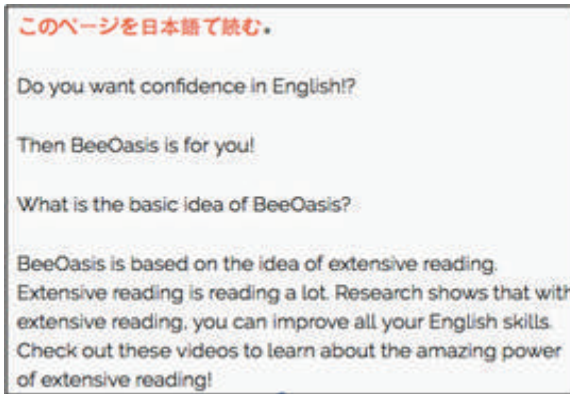
FIGURE 2. ReadOasis claim of holistic benefits "based on the idea of extensive reading" (ReadOasis.com).

ANSWERING THE RESEARCH QUESTION

Is ReadOasis Based on ER Research?

As shown in Figure 3, ReadOasis contains a video that states that ER's benefits include vocabulary growth (word power), grammar, listening, and speaking. On an impressionistic level, these claims are admittedly attractive, but may invite scepticism from in-depth evaluators. Closer scrutiny of the "About" section adds veracity to the statement in Figure 3, thanks, in part, to an interview with renowned ER researcher Richard R. Day. Day states in his video that the "improvement in the affective side of language learning of extensive reading extends to the entire scope of learning the language" (ReadOasis, 2011), and the literature, as listed in The Benefits of ER section above, strongly supports his view.

The two experimental groups in Elley and Mangubhai (1983), for example, displayed a significantly stronger grasp of reading, vocabulary, and grammar when compared to an IR control group. Hafiz and Tudor (1989) compared two experimental groups to one control group and found that the experimental groups (U.K.-based ESL learners aged 10−11) exhibited notable gains in reading and writing when compared to the control group. At the level of speaking, Elley and Mangubhai (1983)

report stronger oral production of sentences from their own experimental groups, while anecdotal evidence for improved speaking skills is also persuasive. In a Facebook conversation with Paul Kei Matsuda (2016, July 13, personal communication), professor of Second Language Writing at Arizona State University, Prof. Matsuda informed me that his extensive reading of English texts greatly improved his spoken proficiency. It must be acknowledged, however, that more research is needed to firmly establish a causal relationship between ER and speaking skills. Cho and Krashen (1994), for example, did not conduct a speaking test and instead relied on the single testimony of one of their participants (who was living in America during the course of the study) to reach their conclusion. Nevertheless, the evidence that currently exists is worth pursuing, not least because the Input Hypothesis supports the notion that lots of comprehensible input (i.e., through ER) would lead to much-improved output (Krashen, 1985).

FIGURE 3. Appealing claim by ReadOasis about its holistic benefits (ReadOasis.com).

In a separate video, ReadOasis states that the "magic number" for ER is 95−98% (Figure 4). It is at this point, we are told, where reading becomes pleasurable, with a lexical coverage of 98% equating to about 20 unknown words every four pages. This is an assertion that can be validated by referring to Liu and Nation (1985) and Hu and Nation (2000), with both studies confirming that 95−98% lexical coverage makes it much easier to guess the remaining 2−5% from repeated contextual clues. In fact, the latter of the two studies suggests that 98% ought to be the optimum number for adequate comprehensibility. ReadOasis, therefore, is evidently based on solid theoretical ground. At

the in-depth level stipulated by McGrath, the website gains some credibility due to the creators' strong understanding of ER principles. We must now deepen our evaluation yet further to investigate whether the variety and volume of materials are appropriate for ER.
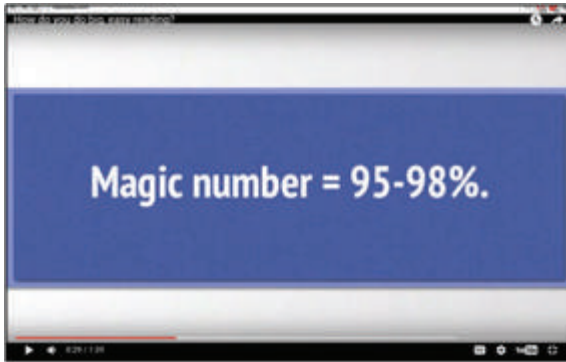

FIGURE 4. ReadOasis video statement concerning the percentage of lexical knowledge required to make reading pleasurable (ReadOasis.com).

Are ReadOasis' Materials Varied Enough for ER?

As shown in Appendix A, the importance of having a large and diverse selection of reading materials is one of Day and Bamford's ten essential principles of an ER program because it "encourage[s] reading for different reasons and in different ways" (Day & Bamford, 1998, p. 8). Some students may be interested in developing their knowledge of the scientific method through extensive reading of science-related texts, while others may be interested simply in reading for general entertainment. Studies of successful ER programs have included a wide variety of materials as one of their central features.

In a review of several "book flood" projects, for example, Elley (2000, p. 250) concluded that "a rich diet of high-interest reading materials has produced powerful language benefits for children learning in a second language." A wide variety of reading material, Krashen (2004) writes, leads to more reading. To give a personal example: When I arrived in Korea, I had limited access to English books in Daegu, my city of residence. I was forced to order most of my books online, often waiting two weeks before they arrived. Matters changed, however, when I purchased my first Kindle over two years ago. Suddenly, I was able

to download virtually any book I wanted in a matter of seconds, which in turn led to a two- to threefold increase in the amount of books I read, all thanks to a much wider variety of easily accessible materials.

ReadOasis, as Figure 2 tells us, provides more than a thousand stories across various topics, and several stories are added on almost a daily basis. On July 13, 2016, for instance, eight new stories were added to the site, six of which are listed in Figure 5. Furthermore, there are eight categories of stories from which readers can choose: namely, Arts, Biz, Ideas, Story, Sciences, Styles, Tech, and Times. As such, there is likely to be sufficient, interesting material for the majority of users, lending the website further credibility from an in-depth perspective. Having used ReadOasis several times with my university students, I can reliably conclude that students almost always find something interesting to read.
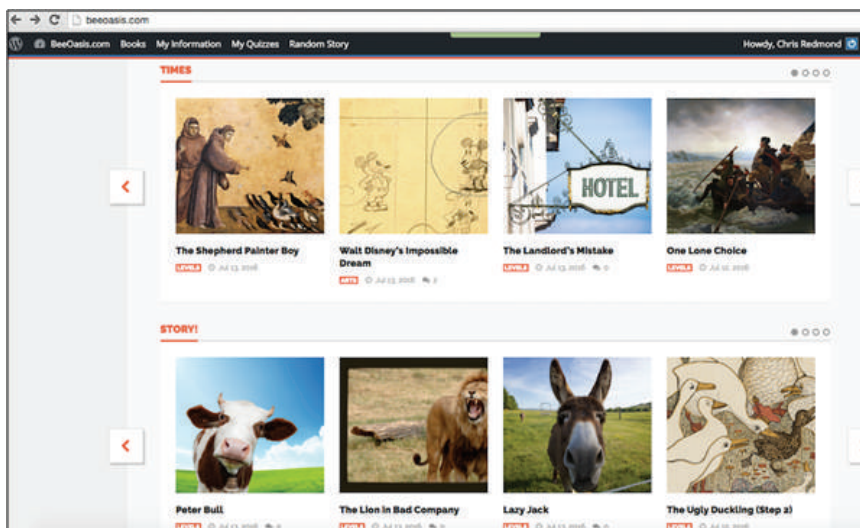

FIGURE 5. A sample of the numerous categories and stories available for reading on the ReadOasis website (ReadOasis.com).

Are ReadOasis' Materials Easy Enough for ER?

But what, we need ask, is meant by "easy"? Bamford and Day (2004, p. 2) classify easy reading material as being "no more than one or two unknown vocabulary items per page for beginners; no more than

four of five for intermediate learners." Hu and Nation (2000), as cited, state that 95% vocabulary coverage can lead to adequate comprehension, but 98% coverage would lead to better comprehension of the unknown items, while also being more enjoyable.

Day and Bamford (1998) have aimed for an even higher level of comprehension, one where learners will be able to develop their sight vocabulary; that is, "overlearning words to the point that they are automatically recognized in their printed form" (p. 162). Such a skill can only be possible when learners read at a level that is only slightly below their current stage of proficiency. At this point, reading fluency is fully enhanced, with known words becoming automatized as a result of repeated encounters (Day & Bamford, 1998). Nation echoes this point, agreeing that near-complete comprehensibility is required for reading fluency development (2009). The figure of 95–98%, then, represents the most effective range for the acquisition of new vocabulary items, while 99–100% is most effective for consolidation of already-known language items through the development of sight vocabulary. ReadOasis would appear – impressionistically – to fulfill this important requirement, as it contains five steps of difficulty, but we need to test this positive impression using the more scrupulous in-depth method.

As a matter of fact, an in-depth analysis reveals some apparent inconsistency in the five steps of difficulty. First of all, unlike in graded readers, which state the level of difficulty on the back cover, ReadOasis does not offer enough help for teachers looking to recommend an appropriate step for their students to begin with. In the graded reader, *A Christmas Carol* (Cornish, 2005), the number of headwords is given on the inside cover (Figure 6), along with the corresponding level of proficiency – Elementary, in this case. ReadOasis does not furnish us with that kind of information, which must cast some doubt on the validity of each step. After running the Step 1 story, *Why Philosophy?* (Wise, 2016), through the vocabulary profiler, Web Vocabprofile Classic v.4 (Cobb, n.d.; see Figure 7) – based on Laufer and Nation (1995) and Heatley, Nation, and Coxhead's (2002) *Range* – the results revealed that 90.59% of the words in this story fell in the K1–1000-word range; that is, the 1000 most common words in English. As Figure 7 also reveals, 1.49% of the words fall within the most common 1001–2000-word range, while 7.92% qualify as words from the AWL academic word list (i.e., words in the 2000+ range; Coxhead, 2000). It is unclear, therefore, for whom Step 1 would be most suitable, but it does seem unsuitable

for Beginners and Starters, whose known words are unlikely to exceed 600 (Figure 6). Indeed, the five steps appear to be quite imbalanced.
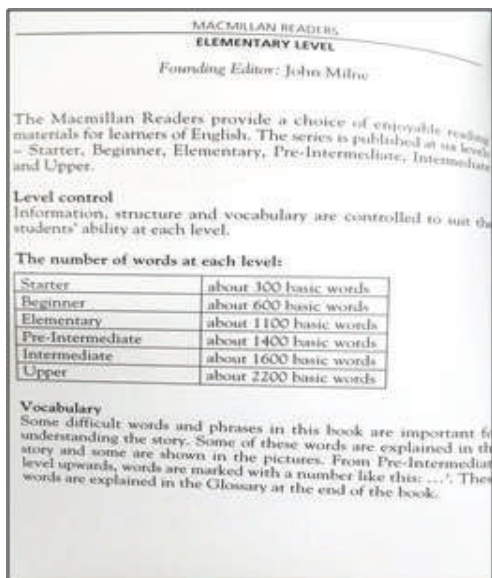

FIGURE 6. Level of proficiency of the graded reader, *A Christmas Carol*, and the number of headwords at each proficiency level (Cornish, 2005).
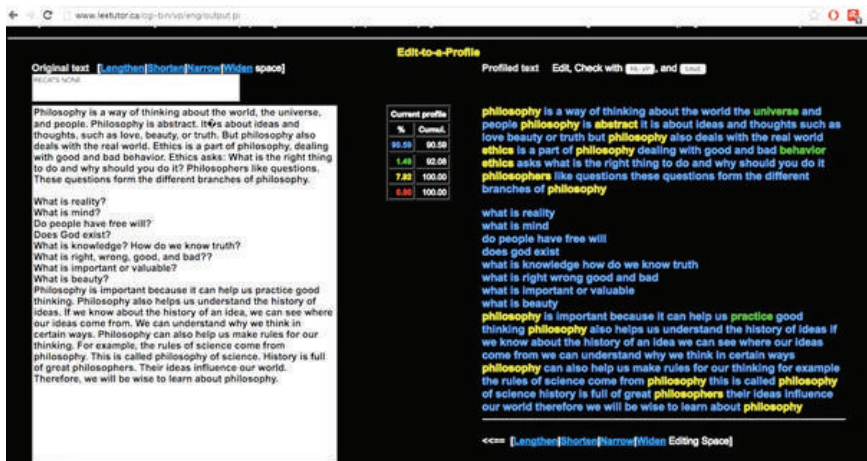

FIGURE 7. The Web Vocabprofile Classic (Cobb, n.d.) with word frequency data for the story *Why Philosophy?* (Wise, 2016).

For example, the Step 2 story, *Beauty, Goodness, and Truth* (Poulshack, 2016) contains 81.15% of words in the 1−1000 range, determined by Cobb's (n.d.) Web Vocabprofile, while 7.26% of them fall within the 1001−2000 range. By contrast, 87.07% of the words of the Step 3 story, *The Golden Arm* (ReadOasis, n.d.), fall within the 1−1000 range, and 6.59% occupy the 1001−2000 range. The Step 4 story, *The Lion in Bad Company* (Babbitt, 2016b), contains 83.46% words within the 1−1000 range, and 2.56% in the 1001−2000 range. Finally, the Step 5 story, *The Bird, Turtle, and Deer* (Babbitt, 2016a), comprises 88.65% words within the 1−1000 bracket, and 7.98% not exceeding 2000 words.

At this point, we ought to remind ourselves of the research question: Is ReadOasis suitable for an ER approach?

From the preceding analysis, we can conclude, with some reservations, that it is. At the in-depth level, ReadOasis emerges strongly as a suitable website for ER, despite some uncertainty surrounding the suitability of each step. The wealth of stories and the relative ease of the reading material should ensure that ReadOasis is fully suitable for learners at a pre-intermediate level and above. For learners at the elementary level, it is not clear whether the "magic number" of 95−98% will consistently be met. Starters and Beginners (possessing a lexical knowledge not surpassing 600 basic words) are unlikely to benefit sufficiently from ReadOasis.

Without the support and guidance of a teacher, students may not know how best to reap the benefits of this site, so in the following section, I will explain why Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) would be an effective activity to maximize ReadOasis' potential for ER. For teachers unsure of how to incorporate ER, this section should also be relevant.

DISCUSSING THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS

Why SSR Would Be a Sensible Approach to Take

For a website that largely conforms to the principles of ER, it would seem logical that any adapted activity ought to meet the same principles. In its close adherence to the tenets of ER, SSR would be an ideal in-class activity to promote self-selected reading. SSR is simply a period during class time where both students and teacher read self-selected

materials silently and continuously for about 15 minutes (Pilgreen, 2000). Like ER, it is also defined by students reading large amounts of self-selected materials (Krashen, 2004), and it has been lauded by Day and Bamford (1998, p. 128) for its ability to "further extensive reading and help students begin to see reading as a valuable, exciting, pleasurable, and worthwhile activity." SSR has acquired many other acronyms over the years – USSR (Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading) and DEAR (Drop Everything and Read) among them – but the underlying principles remain the same (Day & Bamford, 1998).

As with ER, the benefits of SSR have been thoroughly documented, with Krashen (2011) examining 54 studies of SSR and finding that in 51 of the studies, SSR students did as well as, or better than, those who received intensive reading instruction. Pilgreen and Krashen (1993; cited in Krashen, 2011) found that SSR students continue to read more after the course is finished, while Greaney and Clarke (1973) report that, even years later, students engaged in SSR programs read more than they did before their involvement with SSR. In a further connection with ER, SSR has also rarely been implemented in Korea. After collecting data from several Korean English teachers, Cho (2014, p. 13) found that the "lack of time, the pressure of exams, and a lack of access to English books" prevented SSR from being integrated into the curriculum. In addressing the last of these problems, ReadOasis would be a useful means of initiating SSR, as its thousands of stories offer ample room for students to select interesting texts. There are some theoretical underpinnings to this activity, however, as well as some possible limitations, that need to be considered before beginning SSR in this online environment.

Why the Teacher Needs to Orient and Guide the Students for SSR to Work

In any SSR activity, it is imperative for the teacher to act as a model for the students. McGracken and McGracken (1978, p. 406) "came to the key notion that all adults in the classroom have to read or SSR does not work." More recent research has validated these claims, with Newman (2007) finding that teacher modeling and guidance were as propitious in the success of SSR programs as McGracken and McGracken had found them to be three decades earlier. Therefore, in order to guide and orient

the students, the teacher should also participate in SSR. In her table of eight features of successful SSR programs, Pilgreen (2000) lists teacher encouragement as the fourth of these features. By modeling the reading process, the teacher provides implicit encouragement free of coercion – a philosophy shared by the author of *The Book Whisperer*, Donalyn Miller (2009, p. 50), who agrees that "students need a reading role model in front of them."

When adapting SSR from ReadOasis, I take my students – most of whom are low-intermediate university freshmen – to one of our computer labs and allow them 20–30 minutes to self-select and read stories from the website. During this time, I act as a model for the students by displaying what I am reading on the projector. After finishing an engaging story, I recommend it to my students, and they usually proceed to read it themselves. I sometimes highlight interesting passages from my own reading material, enabling students to read it if they so choose. In a similar vein, I listen to their recommendations. By spending time orienting and guiding the students, ReadOasis-based SSR becomes a collaborative, mutually beneficial process. Considering the low availability of graded materials at many language centers in Korea – my own institution being an example – the presence of online materials would help to make SSR more effective (see Cho & Kim, 2004), particularly in institutions that contain only textbooks. A successful period of SSR is also dependent on an appropriate time limit, which, as the next section tells us, tends to vary somewhat.

How Much Time Should SSR Take?

While studies of SSR do indeed vary in their recommended time limit for the activity, they still converge on a limit of about 10-30 minutes. Day and Bamford (1998, p. 48), for instance, cite a teacher who reported that the final 30 minutes of a class ought to be used for SSR time, as students often become so engrossed in the reading process that they have little interest in stopping. For students new to SSR, 30 minutes may be overly ambitious. To this end, Krashen (2011) has concluded that a "less is more" approach would be preferable, whereby, if the teacher thinks that his/her students can read silently for 15 minutes, the SSR period should be no more than 10 minutes. Pilgreen and Krashen (1993) had their subjects participate in 12–15 minutes of SSR per day, while Ozburn (1995) had 60 of his 9th-grade students read silently for

10–15 minutes of class each day. In his book-length study of SSR, Steve Gardiner (2005) reported having his students read silently for the first 15 minutes of class each day, a strategy matched by Donalyn Miller (2009, p. 49), who has written that she begins the day with "as little as fifteen minutes" of SSR time. By springtime, however, Miller (2009) reports allowing her students to spend 30 minutes of a 90-minute language class engaged in SSR.

In my own implementation of SSR, I have adopted Krashen's "less is more" approach and found it to be the most useful means of incorporating SSR time in a class of inexperienced L2 readers of English. I have observed that student attention begins to wane after about 15 minutes, the point where silence begins to be eroded by incremental smartphone tapping. With older learners, however, this has not been an issue. For students even more unfamiliar with this process, it may be unrealistic to expect a period of SSR to last much more than 10 minutes, and there is an additional factor from a Korean perspective that needs to be considered before online SSR is attempted.

Why Smartphones Could Interrupt SSR

Ten years ago, Anna Mindess (2006) adopted the phrase "thumb tribe" to describe the young generation of Japan's proficiency with texting, a skill which often comes at the expense of regular conversation. In the nine years since, the march of this "thumb tribe" would appear to be continuing unabated. Recent research by Stothart, Mitchum, & Yehnert (2015) concluded that even when not engaged in texting or gaming, smartphone users operate in a permanent state of distraction, causing them to perform poorly in sustained attention tests. In South Korea, smartphone use has reached unprecedented levels, which could have significant consequences for SSR.

Poushter (2016) found that 88% of Koreans own a smartphone – the highest rate of smartphone ownership worldwide (see Figure 8, for a familiar Korean scene). In my four years of teaching in Korea, smartphone addiction has been widely apparent, often affecting classroom instruction, with the majority of my students struggling to ignore their phone during the 50 allotted minutes of class time. Some students have reported to me that their near-obsessive smartphone usage has led to a substantial decrease in their volume of reading. With such short attention spans, 20 minutes of SSR is probably excessive, meaning

that teachers would be advised to begin periods of SSR in conservative fashion, for perhaps as little as five minutes. Adopting SSR from ReadOasis would also bring with it potential difficulties, as in addition to their smartphone, students could also be distracted by Internet access on their classroom computer. Acknowledging this ever-growing "thumb tribe," Trelease (2013, p. 86) warns us that "the more distractions confronting a nation, family, or class, the less reading is accomplished." As a result, the maximum time limit of 30 minutes would likely be unrealistic for a class of young Koreans more accustomed to using digital devices for instant messaging. A possible remedy for this exists, and it involves the self-selection of stories.

FIGURE 8. Smartphone Addiction: A typical scene of university students on a Korean university campus. (Park & Ha, 2012)

Why Is It Important That Students Select Their Own Texts?

For SSR programs to be effective, the students ought to have control over what they read. This does not imply that the teacher should take a passive role in student selection of materials, for while experienced readers can more easily select their own texts (Krashen, 2001), inexperienced readers usually require guidance (Newman, 2007). I have found that my own students sometimes choose reading materials that are too difficult for them, perhaps because of persistent beliefs that reading materials ought to be painstakingly translated for learning to occur.

Moreover, the majority of my students have only ever used teacher-selected materials for English reading, which is unsurprising given the teacher-centered role of education in Confucian societies (see Neuliep, 2014).

In a country with similar attitudes to classroom reading (Huang, 2015), Taiwan-based researcher S. Y. Lee (2007) made 570 graded readers available to her students, recognizing that their known headwords were unlikely to greatly exceed the maximum capacity of 3300 provided by most graded readers. In Lee's study, the experimental group, who had 570 graded readers to choose from, outperformed the audiolingual control group on a vocabulary test. For an SSR approach, self-selected materials usually work better than assigned reading because very often the students do not find the assigned text particularly engaging (Ujiie & Krashen, 2002; Lao & Krashen, 2008). As Gardiner (2005, p. 68) adds, "Leaving SSR book selection open to choice creates balance for all students." By allowing self-selection, even within the relative restrictions of ReadOasis, the chances are that students would still be able to find stimulating stories, following some initial guidance. A teacher using ReadOasis for SSR can point science students, for example, to the science and technology categories, or, as I have done, direct art and design students to the arts section, from which they can self-select stories that relate to their chosen major. This should ensure that one of the most important aspects of an SSR approach (i.e., student-selected material) would be comfortably met by ReadOasis.

It is possible, however, that students may not find more than a few stories that interest them. Despite its impressive variety of available stories, ReadOasis lacks the wealth of reading materials offered by a voluminous library. Its resources are limited to mostly short texts, meaning that if students find a compelling story, it would still provide less input than a graded reader. Even when my students find a story that engages them, they usually finish it by the time SSR has been completed. One of the goals of SSR is to encourage students to continue reading their text outside of class (Miller, 2009), and while it is possible that a positive experience using ReadOasis would lead to further use of the site, research is needed to establish whether ReadOasis is still used by students after the initial novelty has subsided. What would likely contribute to an interest in reading is the opportunity for discussion of the stories after the SSR period has been completed.

Why Story-Sharing Is Important

The importance of having students share what they have just read is a post-SSR activity that has received steady support in the literature (see, for example, Elley & Mangubhai, 1983). It would make sense, then, to include a follow-up discussion of the stories the students read. In Elley and Mangubhai (1983), the authors found that the second experimental group (i.e., the book-sharing group) displayed far greater superiority to the control group in tests of reading, writing, and grammar. Perhaps defying conventional wisdom, one of the least popular ways for students to share what they have read is to write a book report on it (Gardiner, 2005; Newman, 2007), as it makes the act of reading less pleasurable by placing too much accountability on students. "Like answering comprehension questions," Day and Bamford (1998, p. 142) write, "writing a summary of what you have read is a less than natural form of response to reading." Book-sharing ought to be done in a natural way to maintain the "integrity of the reading experience" (Bamford & Day, 2004, p. 3) − after all, how often do people recommend a book to a friend by writing them a report on it under the pressure of a deadline? Incorporating written book-sharing in class could take too much time and turn an otherwise pleasant activity into an uncomfortable one.

Oral book-sharing has proven to be more successful (Elley & Mangubhai, 1983; Newman, 2007), probably because it is a more natural response to reading. It can be done in a variety of ways. Lee (2007), for example, had students discuss their readings in groups, and they also made presentations on what they read. For my low-intermediate students, oral book-sharing activities meet one of their most pressing needs: speaking practice. After reading their stories, they were quite willing to share what they had read, and they also had a lot of content to discuss. Oral book reports give students the added advantage, then, of extending SSR into fluency practice by allowing them to share the content of their story with multiple partners. Repetitive sharing, in fact, has been cited as a key factor in oral fluency development, especially when the topic is interesting (Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2010; Nation, 1989). Post-SSR book-sharing may therefore be more effectively implemented at spaced intervals, allowing students to discuss the stories that truly engaged them rather than ones that may not have made much of an impression.

LIMITATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

As a tool for initiating ER, ReadOasis survives its in-depth evaluation. It is evidently supported by ER research, conforming to Day and Bamford's well-supported principles in its rich variety of graded reading materials designed to meet the needs of learners at lower stages of proficiency. There are some doubts, however, as to how stringently the materials have been graded, with no information pertaining to the number of headwords per story. The apparent inconsistency between the steps of difficulty would make it harder for the teacher to recommend an appropriate level, so students may have to browse through several levels before finding one that is comfortable for them. Additionally, despite the wide variety of available texts, they are all relatively short, and students may, as a result, lack the vast exposure to input that is available in graded readers. What ReadOasis could be successful in doing, however, is stimulating an interest in ER, making students more likely to seek out more input-rich materials in the future.

To adopt ReadOasis as a tool for learning, an SSR approach ought to be taken. As SSR is based on the fundamental tenets of ER (i.e., largely unaccountable reading of easy, self-selected texts), it would be a useful means of adapting ReadOasis for classroom purposes. SSR stands a greater chance of being effective if the teacher acts as a model for the students by joining them in reading stories from the website. There may be some limitations to using ReadOasis as a gateway to SSR, for despite the wealth of available stories, students are more restricted in choosing what they want to read. On-hand technology could act as a distractor for students, so SSR time should be short, especially at the beginning. Follow-up activities ought to reflect everyday reading as much as possible, in order to remove excessive accountability that can make the reading experience less enjoyable.

Furthermore, my attempt to answer the research question is limited by the absence of a retrospective evaluation. For a future analysis of ReadOasis as a tool for ER, it is recommended that pre- and post-activity data be collected from students, in both quantitative and qualitative form, to more accurately gauge students' view of using ReadOasis for ER purposes. Due to time constraints, I was unable to collect empirical data from students over the semester, which means that the discussion of the implications of the findings of this essay remains mostly hypothetical

and occasionally anecdotal. Complemented by a retrospective evaluation, McGrath's framework would not need to change much, if at all. Data collected from the students would offer a more rounded examination of ReadOasis' materials, allowing the evaluator to more accurately deduce whether or not the materials "live up to the claims that are being made for them" (McGrath, 2002, p. 28).

Despite some potential obstacles, then, ReadOasis ought to be high on the list of English teachers looking for new ways to introduce ER to their classes.

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APPENDIX A

Day and Bamford's 10 Principles of Extensive Reading
(Adapted from Day and Bamford, 1998, pp. 7–8)

1. Students read as much as possible.
2. A variety of materials on a wide range of topics is available.
3. Students select what they want to read.
4. The purposes of reading are usually related to pleasure, information, and general understanding.
5. Reading is its own reward.
6. Reading materials are well within the linguistic competence of the students.
7. Reading is individual and silent.
8. Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower.
9. Teachers orient and guide the students.
10. The teacher is a role model of a reader for students.

APPENDIX B

Materials for Section 3

Sustained Silent Reading: 30 minutes.

Pre-activity Stage (1–5 minutes)

The teacher brings the students to the computer lab to begin story selection. After accessing the website, the teacher should allow students some time to browse through the stories before choosing which one(s) they would like to read. Alternatively, students can choose their stories before class; it does not matter if they have already read the story, as repeated reading of an interesting story can enhance fluency. During this time, the teacher adopts the same strategy, spending a few minutes browsing through the website until finding one or more interesting stories. Phones should be switched off, and the teacher should make his/her reading materials available for students to see on the projector screen (if available).

Whilst-Activity Stage (5–20 minutes)

This is simply a period of time where both teacher and students read their chosen stories for anywhere between 5 and 20 minutes. For classes unfamiliar with this approach, the teacher should reduce the time limit for SSR, though an average period of about 15 minutes should be appropriate. The only acceptable interruptions would be for either the teacher or students to recommend a story that they enjoyed. This could also be done at the end of the activity, in order to prevent interruption.

Post-activity Stage (20–30/35 minutes)

This is when the participants share their stories, and it can be done in several ways. One option would be for the participants (including the teacher) to summarize their stories with a teacher-imposed time limit. For example, the teacher could allow the students 3 minutes to share their story with a partner, before next sharing with another partner in just 2 minutes, and then again with a third partner in just 1 minute.

A Conversation Analysis of Code-Switching Among Multilingual EFL Students

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The use of code-switching plays a significant role in conversation to negotiate meaning with more clarification and comprehension among EFL students. Increasingly, EFL university classrooms in Korea are adding more students from a variety of backgrounds. In this present study, the particular functions and benefits of code-switching with the Korean language were examined in conversations between multilingual students. This study distinguishes itself from others in that it used an EFL environment with an investigation of functions of code-switching in conversations among graduate students with Korean as an L2, English as an L3, and Korean as an L1. The results discovered four primary functions of usage, which are to deliver a culture-related message, to compensate for a lack of target language knowledge, to maintain the communication flow, and to help interlocutors' comprehension. This study provides implications for EFL pedagogy and supports the use of code-switching as a communication strategy.

Keywords: code-switching, EFL, communication strategies, conversation analysis

INTRODUCTION

Globally, English conversation is highly emphasized in education institutions. In Korea, English is considered extremely important for occupations that support the globalization of the country. Second language acquisition research has found that learners use communication strategies to compensate for their lack of target language (TL) skills. However, these strategies also function to maintain the fluency and flow of the topics in lieu of interrupting the conversation to find precise

second language (L2) terms. This idea of compensation for lack of TL skills is not fully conclusive when other positive functions should be considered. Full English immersion classrooms can lose sight of the merits of use of the first language (L1) in developing a second language. Students can communicate effectively with 100 words, for example. "They use their hands, they imitate the sound or movement of things, they mix languages, they create new words, they describe or circumlocute something they don't know the word for − in short, they use communication strategies" (Dornyei, 1995, p. 56). Code-switching as an EFL or ESL communication strategy has widespread support through previous research (Adendorff, 1996; Kim, 2012; Lee, 2010; Lo, 1999).

Several strategies are commonly used in conversational EFL, and the focus in this study is to analyze a strategy of using a learner's native language (NL) within the target language of English conversation and also when Korean is the L2 used within the conversation of multilingual learners that have English as their L3 (third language). This communication strategy can be labeled as "code-switching." How instances of language are used in code-switching and an understanding of the functions of these instances are essential to understanding the merits of the use of this strategy in EFL. Numerous functions are supportive. A study by Ariffin and Rafik-Galea (2009) found eleven functions of code-switching. These were signaling social relationships, signaling language preference, obviating difficulties, framing discourse, contrasting personalization and objectification, conveying cultural-expressive messages, lowering language barriers, maintaining the appropriateness of context, and showing membership and affiliation with others. Further, it concluded that code-switching is "a negotiation between language use and the communicative intents of the speakers" (pp. 5−15). A variety of examples such as these provide examples of the usefulness of this.

Moreover, this study will observe the Conversational Analysis (CA) framework with transcriptions to describe the use of code-switching to Korean as an L2 for the multilingual graduate students and code-switching as a native language for Korean graduate students. It will explain how the conversational instances are used in contexts and provide implications for pedagogy. Additionally, the analysis will provide further understanding on how the instances of code-switching were used and on the responsive roles and functions of the strategy within the conversations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Definition of Code-Switching in the Present Study

John J. Gumperz defined code-switching in the text *Discourse Strategy* as "conversational code-switching can be defined as the juxtaposition within the same speech exchanges of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems" (Gumperz, 1982, p. 59). This involves two speakers using a second language to clarify ideas and answer questions. His definition included the use of any two languages that have different grammatical systems. The definition can be used in a variety of contexts in EFL, including gestures and prosodic patterns. In particular, Korean language speech exchanges within English conversation topics are prevalent. These individuals connect with each other in English instruction with the use of English as their second language and the alternation of their first language. There are different variations of usage definitions with L1 or first language, L2 as the second language, and L3 as the third language. Additionally, the term "code-mixing" was given to describe linguistic units or pure language item code-switching. There was never a fixed definition though with the terms, but the Gumperz definition is adequate for the study.

Previous Studies on the Functions of Code-Switching

Often, native language and target language use in the communication context have been studied in second language acquisition. Though English is becoming increasingly ubiquitous in the world as an international language, many ethnic communities do value and express their own culture through their native languages. Native language expression takes place worldwide throughout classrooms of English instruction to bridge gaps of understanding among interlocutors. Code-switching as native language expression takes place in EFL and ESL classrooms worldwide and the understanding of the uses of the word or phrase instances is highly beneficial (Liu, Ahn, Baek, & Han, 2004). Support for this communication strategy is expressed through the following studies that identify a number of functions. One positive function and purpose of code-switching is inter-subjectivity. This can be

defined as the noun form of the word *inter-subjective*, which means that a concept or idea can be accessible for two or more subjects with mutual understanding. This can connect students in various settings and can be used as a cultural bridge to mutual unity through language with specific speech instances.

According to Lo (1999), useful insights into code-switching were found. This study took place in Los Angeles between a Chinese American and a Korean American. It had found a relationship between code-switching, speech community membership, and the discursive construction of ethnic identity. Solidarity through code-switching was attempted throughout the course of the conversation. The results provided valuable information on the significance of this strategy in use. In this case of Asian-Americans, it was found that code-switching was used to establish ethnic identity and also inter-subjectivity. This study has examples of relevant functions that apply to both EFL and ESL classrooms.

However, it is important to note that in the following studies a balance of the use of the strategy is emphasized, and they found it is important to not overuse it and thereby undermine the goals of communicative English immersion classrooms. For instance, Yataganbaba and Yildirium (2015) investigated EFL language teachers' use of code-switching in the classroom in Turkey. The research identified 20 different purposes. The results found that while this strategy is useful and beneficial, it should not be used as a replacement for the L2 or target language in the classroom.

Another example of research that found some suggestions for use of this strategy is Stylianou-Panayi (2015). This study strongly supports the use of code-switching naturally among bilinguals in numerous languages that are shared. Increasingly, it is commonly taking place among multilinguals in their communities. The study provides evidence to support its claims of importance and found that most code-switching occurred within the sentence. Most instructors were aware of code-switching taking place. Instructors benefit from the strategy also under certain circumstances. Moreover, the use of L1 provided students with much higher rates of comprehension. As recommended by Stylianou-Panayi, "when teachers choose to code-switch from the L2 to the L1, and vice versa, they should only choose to do so for better results, to motivate students or even to clarify certain tasks" (p. 262). She also states that "each classroom is unique and each teacher, native

or not, should decide on the techniques which will be used for better understanding, based upon their learners' needs" (p. 262). Each classroom is different with a diverse set of needs for successful language acquisition. The instructors' awareness is critical. Macaro (2006) conducted a study in Cyprus that revealed a need to increase instructors' awareness on when and when not to code-switch in their settings of EFL. "There are certain ways to promote code-switching in EFL classes and to provide more seminars, workshops, and organizational meetings weekly or monthly" (p. 1). Knowing the limitations and purposes of this strategy is essential for effective places of instruction.

Similarly, more research suggests use of the strategy under proper circumstances. Code-switching can also be viewed as a contextualization cue. A study by Adendorff (1996) explores functions of code-switching in South Africa. A section on contextualization cues were given. Code-switching is viewed as a "contextualization cue" that aids interlocutors to signal information such as activity types, meanings of words, or other social relationships. "Contextualization cues are signals which can take any linguistic form − a phonetic, lexical, or syntactic choice, for example, or a dialect, a register, or a formulaic expression of some kind, to name just a few" (p. 390). This is an important function that supports the use of the strategy.

A variety of functions with different meanings were given in a study by Appel and Muysken (1987). In this study, six functions for code-switching were discovered. First, it found a referential function where learners switched codes when they did not know a particular word or concept in another language. Next, a directive function involved another speaker by connecting with that speaker's language. The expressive function was used to express identity. Emphatic functions were used to make a change in tone or emphasize a certain part of speech. A meta-linguistic function was used to suggest a point about another language. Lastly, the poetic function was used primarily in code-switching for entertainment. Widespread supportive functions were discovered in the research.

Within EFL instruction, communicative language teaching (CLT) is highly prevalent. Instructors of EFL can benefit from a stronger understanding of the multiple functions of code-switching and their uses in diverse classrooms with students from a variety of nationalities. Students will experience communication breakdowns at various times throughout their classroom interactions and they should feel comfortable

with the use of code-switching. Additionally, they should understand that it is a natural part of language learning (Kim, 2012; Macaro, 2006; Stylianou-Panayi, 2005).

Code-switching of expressions can make the intended messages much clearer as well. Various cultural expressions are part of specific languages and cannot be translated into other languages properly. Speakers often switch back and forth between languages to properly provide their intended meaning. These instances enhance speech, clarify, and organize thoughts in a way to accomplish objectives of the discussion. (Ariffin & Rafik-Galea, 2009, p. 10).

Unamuno (2008) found that code-switching could be used to increase the amount of sociolinguistic competence among those studying English. Even though use of NL or L2 with a trilingual speaker should be kept to a minimum in target language (TL) speech, it still should be considered relevant for use as a communicative strategy in a variety of functions. Rational choice is an example of positive support and as a function. A study with Chinese students by Wei (2005) explains a rational choice model (RC) for code-switching. It is described as the actions of interlocutors that are assumed to be oriented to conversational structures aiming at achieving coherence in the interactional task at hand. It states that code-switching occurs among bilingual speakers through rational choices within the given conversation. It explains that the Conversation Analysis (CA) approach to code-switching supports the rational choice model for bilingual speakers (Wei, 2005, p. 37).

Code-Switching Among Korean Learners of English

The functions and benefits of the strategy are explained through research in Korean schools. Liu, Baek, and Han (2004) stated the importance of this in a study with Korean high school students. The results found that the South Korean high school instructors were not using enough English. The use of code-switching was effective for several functions, including the thought that teachers' beliefs affected their code-switching practices and that the teachers' language use affected the students' behavior. Additionally, this follows previous research by Lee (2010), which also considers code-switching as a highly relevant classroom strategy. It should be noted that some research follows the notion that code-switching should be used more with beginner to intermediate levels and be tapered off successively in

advanced levels (Horasan, 2014). Using one's native language is considered a strategy to ease the flow and comprehension during a conversation. Studies support the idea that code-switching does not mean that the learners necessarily have low proficiency. They point to the fact that it serves important communicative and social functions (Kim, 2012; Lee, 2010; Liu, Ahn, Baek, & Han, 2004; Pagano, 2010).

A number of individuals cannot separate their culture from utterances produced in a second language. Mixed-abilities are always a factor in ESL and EFL classes. Multilingual students, and especially Korean students, are known to be apprehensive about speaking out using English linguistic structures (Pagano, 2010). Apprehension should be avoided as much as possible. Despite English immersion being the most sought-after form of EFL instruction with the maximization of English as the goal, the sociolinguistic competence that code-switching provides is vital (Unamuno, 2008). The research suggests a balanced approach in pedagogy.

Research Questions

Based on prior research in second language acquisition, the code-switching strategy should be encouraged in EFL classrooms. This present study distinguishes itself from others in that it uses an EFL environment with an investigation of functions of code-switching in conversations among multilingual graduate students with Korean as an L2 and English as an L3, and Korean nationals with English as an L2. Numerous studies on this topic focus on participants with one nationality rather than with diverse nationalities. This study will seek out the communicative and sociolinguistic functions of code-switching in non-native speakers of English. Using this conversation analysis framework, the study attempts to investigate the following research questions.

Research Question 1. What are some of the functions of code-switching used among multilingual EFL students?

Research Question 2. What are the stated benefits of this strategy in interactions according to the participants?

METHOD

Participants

For this study, conversations among four graduate students (A, B, C, and D) were analyzed. All students were living in Korea and studying English at the time. One student was from Pakistan (C), one from Mongolia (A), and two other students were from Korea (B and D). The Mongolian student and Pakistani student both spoke Korean as a second language L2 and English as a third language L3 based on their indicated ability. The two native Korean speakers were advanced learners of English. All students were majoring in English language and literature. Table 1 shows the amount of time that the graduate students have spent in Korea acquiring Korean as a second language. The Pakistani student had lived in Korea since birth but Korean is not the student's heritage language, which makes the student an L2 student of Korean, as is the Mongolian student. The Korean native speakers have spent their whole lives in Korea. None of the graduate students have spent any time in an English-dominant country. Therefore, no time was spent in an L3 or English-as-a-third-language environment for multilingual speakers. This includes Korean native speakers with English as a second language. The profiles of the participants are given in Table 1.

TABLE 1. Participants

Name	Gender	Major	Nationality	Korean Proficiency	English Proficiency	Time in Korea
A	F	English	Mongolian	TOPIK: L5	TOEIC: 800	L2: 10yrs
B	M	English	Korean	Native	TOEIC: 900	Life
C	F	English	Pakistani	TOPIK: L5	TOEIC: 700	L2: Life
D	F	English	Korean	Native	TOEIC: 800	Life

Materials

Participants were recorded on three different occasions to cover the six topics. The author did get consent for the recordings. Participants were aware of the recordings at the time of the study. As the recordings progressed, the students became more comfortable and less aware that they were being recorded, which is important for the purposes of

transcription in conversation analysis. The focus of the study and instances of code-switching took place specifically between Participants A, B, and D. The recordings had good voice quality so they could be adequately transcribed. Detailed information is described in Table 2.

TABLE 2. Materials

Recording	Recorded date	Topic	Total Time	Time of Code-Switching
(1)	May 18, 2016	Festivals	3:22	N/A.
(2)	May 18, 2016	Korean Culture	4:24	3:34-3:55, 5:54-6:03.
(3)	May 23, 2016	Interests	2:04	N/A.
(4)	May 23, 2016	Ideal Partner	3:10	3:52-4:06.
(5)	May 23, 2016	Relationships	4:18	5:45-6:00, 8:26-8:51.
(6)	May 24, 2016	Family Life	5:16	22-45, 1:08-1:35, 2:04-2:25, 2:35-2:43, 2:43-2:58, 4:08-4:21.

Data Analysis

The frequency and function of NL and L2 code-switching episodes from the recordings were analyzed. Following the analysis of the transcription, self-perceptions and a report of the reasons for code-switching in each instance was asked to be completed by the participants. This was completed in the form of interview questionnaires. The information from the interviews along with the analysis is provided in the next section on results and discussion. The transcription for the present study's conversation analysis followed the outline of the transcription of Du Bois, Schuetze-Coburn, Cumming, and Paolino (1993).

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

In this section, each episode of Korean L2 usage is provided and analyzed. The transcriptions of code-switching in the study suggest four main functions of L2 use: (a) delivery of culture-related message, (b) compensation for the lack of TL knowledge, (c) maintenance of the communication flow, and (d) helping interlocutors' comprehension.

Delivery of Culture-Related Message

The first category of functions is the delivery of a culture-related message. Code-switching can function as culturally expressive. The follow-up interviews concluded that these instances were used to explain culture in a more precise manner. Further, English equivalents were either difficult or not possible. Three conversations about Korean culture, family life, and relationships contained code-switching of this category.

Excerpt 1. Korean Culture
1.→ A; Well...in my case I like:(H) a <L2>KR **hoesik** KR<L2> yeah
2.   How can I say in: in English,
3.   <L2>KR **hoesik** KR<L2>
4.C;   gathering,
5.   [just a gathering]..
6. A;   [gathering]
7.   In my case I'm working in a <L2>KR **hoesa** KR<L2>,
8.   So (Uh).. in our country we don't have any concept of,
9.   <L2>KR **hoesik** KR<L2> or [gathering].
10. C;   [um]

Excerpt 2. Family Life
1. D;   Korean memorial dinner.
2. D;   They had to prepare a lot of food for.
3. A;   Yeah yeah.
4. D;   What what was the name? ah
5.   <L2>KR **jesa** KR<L2>
6. A;   <L2>KR **jesa jesa** KR<L2>
7. A;   In in <L2>KR **chuseok** KR<L2> and in Korea I feel like <L2>KR **chuseok** KR<L2>
8. A;   <L2>KR **seollal** KR<L2>we call the food<L2>KR **chalye** KR<L2>
9. A;   Ah <L2>KR **chalye** KR<L2>.
10.D;   <L2>KR **chalye** KR<L2>yeah and that s un but in for dead people.

In the first two topics of discussion about Korean culture and family life, Participant A had a total of six instances of code-switching. Participant D had two instances. The word *hoesik*, a way to describe a company outing in Korea, was used as a culture-related message in this

conversation. In the speaker's interview about the word, the participant stated that it would be too difficult to explain in English because it was such a Korean culture-specific word. She stated that it was irreplaceable in English with its own sociocultural connotation. This was the same as with *jesa, chuseok, seollal, hoesa*, and *chalye*, which all functioned as a delivery for culture-related messages. These have to do with culture traditions and holidays. According to the interviews, it would have been significantly difficult to explain each term in English if a proper English translation did, in fact, exist.

Excerpt 3. Relationships
1. B;   One day she brings a boyfriend,
2. A;   uhmm.
3.   she's going to marry him,
4.   And maybe.. instead of giving the congratulations,
5.   I'd feel very sad...honestly...
6. A;   <L2 KR **seopseophada** KR<L2>
7. B;   <L2 KR **seounhago** KR<L2>
8. A;   [<L2 KR **gaseumapeugo** KR <L2>]
9. B;   [<L2 KR **gaseumapeugo** KR<L2>] something like that,

In the last conversation (Excerpt 3), A and B both used code-switching in two instances each to convey a sociocultural message that described their feelings. These instances had to do with sadness in relationships. The words would be difficult to change into English. In both of the interviews, the participants explained why they used the words. Participant B said, "Because it was hard for me to express the feeling in English." Participant A said, "Too difficult to explain." The statements support the instances of code-switching as appropriate for a culturally related message that can be difficult to explain in English. Speakers displayed their responsive roles in the conversation.

Compensation for the Lack of TL Knowledge

The second function found was the compensation of target language knowledge and included the two topics of Korean culture and ideal partner. Instances of code-switching did result from lack of language knowledge. Based on the interviews, participant A did code-switch because of the fact that she could not find equivalent TL words. In this

case, the Korean phrase for age that means "people in their twenties and thirties," *20-dae 30-dae*, was used. The code-switching with numbers could be considered a crossover to maintain the function of the communication flow (Kim, 2012). However, in this case, it was placed in the current function category based on the explanation from the participant. From the interview of Participant A, the person stated that this phrase sounded better to use, and she could not think of the English words to explain it. She realized in the interview that it was not a particularly difficult phrase in English, but she just didn't know it at that time.

Excerpt 4. Korean Culture
1. A;   because we are...
2.   Almost all the same age.
3. C;   [um]
4. D;   [um]
5. → A;   <L2>KR **20dae 30dae** KR<L2>...
6.   So it's very good.

Excerpt 5. Ideal Partner
1. → A;   I will choose by their character is <L2 KR **seonggyeokseong** KR <L2>.
2. B;   Ok..they [character] personality.
3. A;   [yeah]
4.   Personality.
5. B;   Personality...ok.
6. A;   I will prefer personality...more...than appearance.

On the topic of ideal partner (Excerpt 5), Participant A had one instance of code-switching. In the instance of the Korean word for "personality," which is *seonggyeokseong*, Participant A used this because of the lack of TL knowledge based on her response in the interview. The participant didn't consider this word to be easily transferred into English. Although there were cases of compensation for lack of target language knowledge, it is essential to not consider this as the most common function of code-switching, and it did not occur frequently in the data. There were only two instances of code-switching in this category.

Maintenance of the Communication Flow

The third function is for maintenance of communication flow. One of the strategic functions of communication is to maintain the flow of conversation (Kim, 2012). In the topic of family life (Excerpt 6), Participant A stated that the two instances of code-switching were used to be understood more quickly for the other interlocutors. Participant A was aware that the transfer was not difficult in English, but wanted to maintain the flow of conversation.

> **Excerpt 6. Family Life**
> 1. A;   So,, In Korea there are two concepts and about family one concern is big family and small ➔ family<L2>KR **daegajok** KR <L2>
> 2. A;   Uhm
> 3.   Its yeah uh so
> 4. D;   I heard that the big family has to uh uh <L2>KR **chuseok** KR<L2>.
> 5.   (Uh).. in our country we don't have any concept of it,

The Korean word *daegajok* ("big family") was used to maintain the flow of conversation about family life. The English equivalent was stated before the code-switching took place. This conversation did not breakdown or face any roadblocks in understanding because of this strategy. Faster communication was key to maintaining the flow of communication. The speed of conversation was maintained among these participants. Participant D used *chuseok* to add to the topic of family life and ease the flow of communication in the discussion. Both participants stated that switching languages allowed them to have faster responses.

Helping Interlocutors' Comprehension

Lastly, the final function was for helping interlocutors' comprehension. This function helps listeners understand the utterances easier, and the participants indicated that this was the reason for doing this in the conversations. Comprehension is an essential function of the strategy. In these discussions, the participants used both English and Korean for the instances of code-switching. This aids context for the interlocutors.

Excerpt 7. Relationships

1. → A; He is <L2>KR **gunin** KR<L2> soldier,
2.   he studied in at...you know in Russia:,
3.   people study at university
4. B;   Oh military academy

For the topic of relationships (Excerpt 7), Participant A chose to describe her current boyfriend. For instance, she used the word for "soldier" in Korean, which is *gunin*, but then immediately said it in English afterwards. This switching between languages makes it much easier for the multilingual participant to communicate with the Korean participant and highly aids comprehension.

Excerpt 8. Family Life

1. A;   They are concerned about... the time with family its very.. interesting and very..
2. D;   You mean important?
3. A;   In person
4. → D; Important<L2>KR **jungyohada** KR<L2>
5. A;   Ya yeah important and.. um .yeah
6. A;   I think im more independent from my family than uh...
7. → D; <L2>KR **bigyohada** KR<L2>
8. A;   Relative?
9. D;   No no no not relative
10. A;   Compared
11. A;   Compared to Korean families I mean,, so.. in my back base ah in our country we will like not really uh unique we have our hobbies ah we have our free times...
12. → D; We had that ah <L2>KR **yeonghyanghada** KR<L2 um intuition
13. A;   Intuition
14. A;   Not intuition<L2>KR **yeonghyanghada** KR<L2> influence
15. D;   Influence. We had a big influence from Russia.

For the topic of family life, several instances in this category were noted. *Jungyohada, bigyohada*, and *yeonghyanghada* were each used to help interlocutor's comprehension. *Jungyohada* means "important," *bigyohada* means "to compare," and *yeonghyanghada* means to "influence." Participant A did repeat these words in English each time so these instances were not used because of a lack of target language

knowledge. According to the interview, Participant A wanted the Korean native interlocutor to have better comprehension of the topic and feel more comfortable in the conversation.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study reported on university multilingual EFL learners use of code-switching in conversations, analyzed the functions of the instances, and determined how they were used. Further, the study provides implications for EFL pedagogy and supports the use of code-switching as a communication strategy. The study was limited to the use of the Gumperz (1982) definition of code-switching. There were different variations of usage definitions with L1, L2, and L3. The term *code-mixing* was also given to describe linguistic units or pure language item code-switching.

Three recordings with six different topics were used and sections of the recordings were transcribed and analyzed. There were four graduate students that participated in the study. A total of 27 instances occurred in the data with 16 different words or phrases of code-switching taking place. They were used for examples within the conversations and some words were repeated. All of the participants indicated in the follow-up interviews that the use of this communication strategy should be embraced and encouraged in EFL instruction. Increasingly, multilingual students from a variety of backgrounds are attending classes in Korean universities, so code-switching with the first language and Korean as a second language in the case of students with English as a third language is highly valuable for improvement. This EFL study included students from diverse linguistic backgrounds from the countries of Pakistan, Mongolia, and Korea. This contrasts with numerous other studies that primarily focus on participants of one nationality or two nationalities in an ESL setting.

To answer RQ 1: What are some of the functions of code-switching used among multilingual EFL students?

Four main functions were found with this strategy in EFL communication with this study. Initially, the first function was a culture-

related message, and it had the highest number of occurrences of code-switching with a total of 17. This was assumed to be the highest because discussions of culture undoubtedly have words that are not easily translated or that may not have translations. The learners used Korean words when they thought there were not any equivalent English words to describe Korean holidays and other cultural vocabulary. The speakers did indicate in the follow-up interviews that the culture-related words could not translate easily into English and could lead to misunderstandings with others.

The next function was compensation for lack of TL knowledge. The interview indicated that the code-switched words were not particularly difficult, but they sounded much better and more appropriate to use. Also, these words were not known correctly at the time. The students indicated that some of these instances could have been spoken in a translated form, but it would slow down the conversation and act as a bit of a roadblock in communication. It is important to note that all the participants in the discussion did not necessarily lack knowledge in the TL for the instances described. Kim (2015) reported that "learners only switched codes in word levels not above sentence levels, and in most cases, they used Korean for difficult academic or specific terminology" (p. 315). Likewise, in the present study, specific terminology and words without an easy translation into English were often used to provide ease of communication flow and comprehension.

The third function of code-switching was found to be for the maintenance of communication flow. The interviewees indicated that words were chosen to continue the conversation with ease. As stated earlier, this function commonly occurred in other studies. The code-switched words allowed for much faster communication.

The last function described was for aiding the interlocutors' comprehension. The topic of relationships came up in the conversation, and Participant A described her boyfriend. She used the word for "soldier" in Korean first, but then immediately said it in English afterwards. In this instance, code-switching was used in consideration of the listener's comprehension of the sentence. Using both Korean and English together in the conversation functions to enhance the interlocutors' comprehension (Kim, 2012).

To answer RQ 2: What are the stated benefits of this strategy according to the participants in the interactions?

According to the participants, the code-switching was mostly beneficial for bridging gaps in understanding between them. Effective communication and inter-subjectivity can be established with this. This is extremely helpful for the culture-related messages category of function, which had the highest number of instances. Each instance eased the flow of the conversation as well, and according to the interviews, the participants stated that it felt natural to do this type of code-switching and much more comfortable. Comprehension was stronger as a result also. Studies suggest that the use of this strategy may not mean that they completely lack the target language in the instances of code-switching.

However, as observed in the data, a few instances of code-switching did result from lack of language knowledge. Participant A did code-switch because she could not find equivalent TL words. In this case, the Korean phrase for age that means "people in their twenties and thirties," *20-dae 30-dae*, was used. Some functions can cross over to other function categories. For instance, code-switching with numbers, in this case, could be considered a cross-over to the function of maintenance of the communication flow. All the participants found this strategy a positive one, highly beneficial in the English discussions.

An important implication of this study is that the learners took responsibility in the communication and considered the interlocutors listening comprehension. EFL university classrooms in South Korea are becoming increasingly diverse with a broad range of nationalities and speakers of different languages. In the case of the participants used in this study, and through campus observations with other classes by the author and instructor, many foreign students were found to have English as a third language and Korean as a second. Switching to Korean was very comfortable for the participants and other students.

Lastly, in this present study, the particular roles and functions of code-switching were examined in conversations between two multilingual and two Korean university students. The four functions discovered are necessary and essential for bridging successful connections among students and between teachers and students within CLT in EFL conversation classes.

Several limitations of the study should be recognized. One limitation has to do with sample size. This case study could have had a larger sample size for data to lend broader support to the study by providing more extensive results. Another limitation is the categorizing of the functions. Functions can overlap and the development of more categories

would be beneficial to further develop results of the study. A third limitation is the time and topics of discussion. It would be useful to transcribe conversations in more diverse areas of discussion with more in-depth explanations. The final limitation is that code-switching should be used in the right settings of EFL to maximize its benefits. For example, it is an important strategy to be used with lower- to intermediate-level students and less extensively with advanced students. Limiting use of the first language in higher levels of EFL would achieve stronger results in communicative classrooms.

A variety of other functions could be explored for further research. Prior studies on code-switching have not covered numerous multilingual speakers in EFL settings of instruction. Many have focused more on data from participants with the same NL. It would be useful to extend the study to speakers of more NLs to gather diverse data results. Another area for further research could include a comparison of classes using code-switching and classes not using it.

In this instructor/author's experience, the use of code-switching has been commonly used and considered a natural part of EFL instruction with significant benefits to learners. Instructors have often used this with their students as well. It supports personalization and a stronger connection between students and instructor. Students and instructors should code-switch when necessary to maximize mutual understanding between their cultures. This bridges gaps in language learning. Namely, it can build more community ties, cohesiveness, and a comfortable environment for students. Second language learning can be stressful and difficult enough, so methodology should be adjusted in lessons to include code-switching. Moreover, it is essential to hold a class that is comfortably easing the flow of information in a communicative environment. In the current study, the referential function was found. However, this is not explicitly stated in the analysis. The referential function is common within significant instances of code-switching because it allows for an easier flow of information on a given subject, and it is more suitable for pairs or groups of student–student interlocutors.

Apprehension and confusion take place in language learning and communication is hindered if students are not given ample opportunities for code-switching. With a fixed amount of time, classes should have students easing the flow of the message for faster comprehension. Communication and comprehension in conversation are necessary in EFL

classrooms. This study suggests that any strategies that support communication should be utilized when possible and when needed. These strategies should not be considered inappropriate for language learners, and they should be highly embraced as natural expressions. EFL learners' backgrounds and culture have an influence in second language acquisition, and NL or L2 should not be taken out and isolated from the conversations. This strategy should be explicitly emphasized for students to take more personal responsibility in their learning, and it should be suggested for use with teachers in future EFL curriculums. This study supports other studies in the conversation analysis framework, and it provides some functions found in multilingual EFL conversation. The use of Korean as a NL or L2 in code-switching should be considered as part of a responsible and active effort among EFL educators to provide faster comprehension among an increasingly diverse population of learners in communicative conversation.

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APPENDIX

Interview questions for background/code-switching

1. Where are you from?
2. What is your TOPIK score in Korean language?
3. What is your English level? TOEIC score?
4. How long have you lived in Korea?
5. Participant A: Why did you use **hoesik** in conversation topic 2?
6. Participant A: Why did you use **hoesa** in topic 2?
7. Participant A: Why did you use **20-dae 30-dae** in topic 2?
8. Participant A: In conversation 4, why did you use **seonggyeokseong?**
9. Participant A, B: In conversation 5 why did you use **gunin, seopseophada, seounhago, gaseumapeugo?**
10. Participant A, D: In conversation 6 why did you use **bigyohada, chalye, jesa, jungyohada, yeongyanghada, daegajok, chuseok, seollal,**
11. If you used English translated words in these cases of codeswitching, would it lead to misunderstanding of the intended messages?
12. Should code-switching be used in EFL classrooms? Why?
13. What are the benefits of codeswitching for EFL students?

The Required Levels of English Proficiency for Non-native EFL Teachers: Voices from Experienced NS and NNS Teachers

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This qualitative study has accessed the perspectives of 33 experienced EFL teachers on the level of proficiency (mainly fluency) required for non-native English-speaking teachers in their teaching practice. The participants were given a set of questions to explore their experiences of teaching English and their perceptions of non-native speakers' level of fluency for teaching English as a profession. The results suggest that many teacher-participants want non-native (EFL) teachers to have an advanced/expert-user level to be able to teach the language properly, but some still think it would depend on where the classrooms are and on how many fluent (i.e., native and non-native) speakers are available to teach English. In some cases and in some countries such as in Thailand or in Myanmar, fluent speakers are unlikely to be found and institutions have no choice but to employ only intermediate and expert-level users.

Keywords: levels, native and non-native-speaking teachers, ELT

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THIS STUDY

When learning English, some people strive to be able to speak like native speakers. This expectation makes an impact on language schools' employment, their marketing, their reputation, and their recruitment of students. Cook (2005, p. 56) mentioned some of the teaching job vacancies (e.g., one in Indonesia that needs "Native EFL teachers" and one in China looking for "Enthusiastic NATIVE English Teachers") to identify the large demand for native speakers to teach English. Ali (2009, p. 56−57) also highlighted some teaching recruitment posts that requested applicants to be either native speakers of English or an

"English Teacher with Native Accent for elementary students" to show the demand for native speakers of English by employers. This is happening because people assume that "NS (native speaker) teachers are models of correct usage, and as such, there are considerable demands on the NNS (non-native speaker) instructor to appear to be a native speaker" (Modiano, 2005, p. 27). Cook (2005, p. 53) also explained that native speakers are more favored in terms of employment for teaching a language because they are acknowledged "as having the only acceptable form of the language."

It is reasonable to assume that non-native speakers are less competent in using a language than native speakers as they have to learn it rather than using or speaking it from birth. In Ulate's eyes, non-native speakers of English are able to reach certain proficiency levels to use the language and to teach it as they "can be trained to obtain the necessary knowledge native speakers possess" (2011, p. 59). However, native speakers are more favored even for elementary level (Ali, 2009) in terms of employment as mentioned above. On a positive note on hiring a non-native-speaker teachers, Coşkun (2013, p. 4) affirmed that "the NNEST [non-native English-speaking teacher] can set a good example for learners as imitable models of successful English learners" since they have been through all the language acquisition and learning stages before becoming teachers. However, the research question addressed in this study is whether their level of English should be at a native educated speaker level and whether their experiences of learning will determine their EFL teaching professions. I therefore intend to look at what other experienced EFL teachers think about a non-native English-speaking teacher's language level for a teaching career. I recruited both native and non-native teachers in order to validate the findings and studied if there were any different perspectives between these two types of teachers.

LITERATURE REVIEW

ELT and English Language Users

In terms of the use of language, numerous people nowadays need English as an additional language for a variety of reasons (e.g., to keep up with world news). The English language is used by professionals and

students in particular for work and for advancing their knowledge in professional fields, such as by reading textbooks (e.g., accounting and finance, biomedical and medicine, etc.), by doing research within their own specialized professional fields, and by using social media for work perspectives (such as LinkedIn, which many people use for professional endorsement and for uploading their posts in English). One example is my personal experience of sending an email written in English to a Japanese senior member of staff from a Japanese University due to my lack of knowledge in writing the Japanese language.

According to Mishan and Timmis (2015, p. 35), "English is spoken most commonly among non-native speakers" and the estimate of speakers of English is 422 million including the post-colonial countries (e.g., Singapore, Hong Kong, etc.). As for communicating, taking academia as an example, many non-native-speaking people first attempt to write emails in English when asking about conference programs, venues, or lectures − a practice which I include myself in. An ability to speak the English language can therefore help one to be able to connect with the world as it has become a key for communication. Moreover, Kubota (2012, p. 55) also expressed that "the notion that English is an international language that connects diverse speakers has driven the current emphasis on teaching English in many countries."

In terms of the role of English language teaching (ELT) and the teachers' roles, Lee (2010) has said that non-native speakers of English take a major role due to the limited availability of native speakers who are able to teach English. It is reasonable to assume that not all English native speakers are fond of teaching English since it requires a certain level of passion for raising learners to become a part of the target language community and a massive commitment of time for learning themselves to be able to produce effective lessons.

Native- and Non-native-speaking Teachers in ELT

In the ELT world, teachers are, both theoretically and practically, separated into native speakers of English (i.e., "someone who was exposed to a language and learned it from birth" (Murray & Christison, 2011, p. 20)) and non-native speakers, who speak English as a second or foreign language. Some schools provide students with English native-speaking and non-native-speaking teachers. Many language schools and universities employ both of them as long as they have

earned the required degrees and certificates (e.g., CELTA, MA in English language teaching) and have relevant teaching experience. Although it depends upon the employer's choice, there is generally a better chance for native speakers to become English teachers even without a teaching certificate or prior teaching experience. Ulate (2011) highlighted the situation of NNSs being less favored in the teaching job market although they are qualified to teach, and Mariño (2012, p. 134) explained that NSs are preferred as "they are the perfect model to follow and that, because they know the language, they will correctly teach it to the students."

It is a truism that there is some honor in being a native speaker of a language, such as knowing all "the meanings of words" (Swe, 2016). However, the English language has been taught by both native (e.g., British, American, or Australian) and non-native (e.g., Chinese, Bulgarian, Mexican, Polish, etc.) speakers in every corner of the world due to the high demand for English use currently; and Matsuda (2012, p. 2) mentioned that English is taught in some countries such as Brazil, China, Germany, and Japan "as the most popular foreign language, and is widely used for its symbolic effect in such areas as ads, store and brand names, and pop culture." Thus, the English language has now gradually become "a common language and is spoken in many countries" (Al-Nawrasy, 2013, p. 252). The consequence is that teaching English has also become enormously popular in some countries such as Thailand, Mexico, and Spain. When there is a limited availability of native English-speaking teachers and large numbers of students registered at schools, both native and non-native speakers who are literate in English are employed to teach English. The role of native and non-native speaking teachers will be discussed in the following section.

The Strong Impact of Native-Speakerism in ELT

Ulate (2011) explained the different values attached to NS and NNS by many learners and employers: an NNS is seen as negative and an NS is seen as positive. The influence of native-ness and being a native speaker undeniably holds a higher status than that of non-native-speaking teachers of English.

In a language teaching setting, the value of being a native speaker of the language was described by Ishihara (2010, p. 36) as thus: "NS teachers are often believed to be more knowledgeable about the target

language and culture, and better able to use language more competently." Ali (2009, p. 42) has also shared his experience of having native speakers in his institution: "We have some 'native teachers' who are hired whether or not they are trained because their 'nativeness' can compensate for their lack of qualification and experience..." This kind of situation disappoints; some non-native-speaking teachers who have even earned more professional teaching qualifications are less favored in terms of employment in teaching English. It is depressing when applying for teaching posts to see the terms "Native Speaker (preferred)" or "Native Speakers Only" appear in job advertisements for someone who is unfortunately a non-native-speaking teacher.

Byram Gribkova, and Starkey (2002) noted that an NS knows the language with a deeper understanding of meanings and its correct uses, and a NNS will never be able to attain this level. It is undeniably true to say that native speakers of any language are more likely to have the right pronunciation, correct grammatical usages, and a wide range of knowledge of vocabulary (i.e., both formal and colloquial). It is, though, somewhat disconcerting to learn that non-native English-speaking teachers are less favored compared to native English-speaking teachers in the ELT world for job prospects. For example, in Rubin's (1992) study, a native (Caucasian) and a non-native teacher (Asian) each gave a lecture to a group of undergraduate students, and "the group that was presented with a picture of an Asian female instructor perceived more accent and performed more poorly on a listening comprehension test compared to the other group" (as cited in Kubota and Ward, 2000, p. 81). In terms of native speakers' accents, these can also be variable: NS usage in the UK varies widely according to the area one is from (e.g., people from Liverpool and Newcastle have strong accents although they belong to the category of "native speaker"). Those who learn English outside of English-speaking contexts will also have strong accents, but this will be of less significance if a user of the language can write or speak accurately and fluently to convey messages.

Teaching English in EFL/ESL Settings

Those who learn English in their home countries where English is not the mother tongue are mainly taught by non-native speakers of English. For example, many language schools in Myanmar are run by local NNS teachers and only a few employ native speakers. However,

schools in Japan and Thailand with NS teachers are very common, even though many of those teachers may have no strong formal education and qualifications (such as an MA or certificate in TESOL or a CELTA). However, Ulate (2011, p. 59) argued that "having English as one's mother tongue does not automatically qualify anyone to teach the language." Accordingly, I agree with Walkinshow and Oanh (2014, p. 2), who have stated that "teachers who are not native speakers find themselves viewed as deficient educators." Those who attend classes at privileged schools (such as the British Council), however, receive a standard level of teaching and quality, and are provided with native-speaking teachers who are well-trained for language teaching or delivering a specific course (e.g., IELTS or other exam preparation courses). I, therefore, sought to find experienced EFL teachers' perceptions on the level that non-native-speaking teachers (e.g., an intermediate level or near-educated-native-speaker level) should have for their teaching profession to either confirm or deny the belief that non-natives can teach English if they have a sufficient level of fluency and accuracy, and know the pedagogy of teaching a language.

This small-scale study therefore aimed to ascertain teachers' (NSs' and NNSs') perceptions on the level of fluency required for teaching English as "fluency is important in the receptive skills of listening and reading as well as in the productive skills of speaking and writing" (Nation, 2014, p. 12). Therefore, the question which will be answered in this paper is thus: What is the level of English proficiency for NNSs to have in order to teach the English language as recommended by experienced NS and NNS teachers?

METHODS

Design, Participants, and Instrument

I have chosen the qualitative method for this study as "qualitative researchers are concerned with how people think and act in their everyday lives" (Taylor, Bogdan, & DeVault, 2016, p. 9), and my research is designed to study how experienced EFL teachers perceive NNS teachers' level of English before they embark upon their teaching. I, however, designed a questionnaire that contained both quantitative

(i.e., multiple-choice questions to save the participants' time) and qualitative questions (which allowed the participants to express their beliefs and opinions in detail) based on my aim of studying experienced NS and NNS teachers' perspectives of the level of proficiency required for teaching English. It was tested by asking a colleague to complete it before taking the final version into language schools for the main data collection.

The design of this study can be classed as mixed-method as the questionnaire included a total of twenty-two questions that were both closed and open-ended so as to be analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively, although it is more of a qualitative method as explained above. Combining the two types into one questionnaire helps to eliminate the quantitative weakness of having restricted pre-judged answers, and the mixed-methods will "generate a better understanding than will a single method alone" (Greene, 2007, p. 98). The other reason why I chose this approach was that it enhances "personal understanding" (Greene, 2007, p. 13), which would allow me to learn where and how teachers are trained and their experiences.

To implement this study, I surveyed experienced native- and non-native-speaking English teachers to find out their opinions. To this end, three English language schools in England were contacted by emails. A few teachers were recruited through a friend of mine for participation in this study, and some of my friends, and old officemates were contacted through Facebook Messenger and sent the questionnaire pack if they agreed to participate. As for participants who worked in schools, I distributed questionnaire packs through course coordinators, and I also went into some of the participating schools. I chose a survey method as "survey methodology typically obtains information about a number of different variables in which the researcher is interested and identifies the relationship between those variables" (Haslam & McGarty, 2014, p. 53). This seemed the most appropriate way to collect opinions and beliefs in a short period of time as teachers are busy, and I had experienced that many teachers decline to participate in other methods (such as interviews or writing diaries) as they think it consumes too much of their time. It is acknowledged, however, that a disadvantage of a survey is that "the surveyor does not have an opportunity to probe for more in-depth answers or to determine if the respondent understood the questions appropriately" (Mertens, 2015, p. 186).

For the face-to-face surveys, participants were asked to complete

them quickly and I collected them. Some were monitored by their course coordinators, and they were sent back to me by email in PDF format. The questionnaire was composed of 22 questions and took about 20–30 minutes to complete. Some questions were designed as structured questions (such as "definitely yes" or "probably yes" or "definitely not") where "all the responses fall into categories that are determined beforehand by the researcher" (Newby, 2014, p. 300) as this helps participants save time. The open-ended questions gave "space where [the participants] can answer the question in their own words" (Newby, 2014, p. 300); and in this study, it enabled participants to share their opinions and ideas. The Likert scale sets of questions (e.g., Q21) and the open questions (e.g., Q22) are linked. In the questionnaire, demographic background information of the participants was also asked (especially where they trained to be a teacher of English) to allow me to discover whether or not they had been professionally trained before they started their teaching as a profession.

Data Analysis

As Macmillan and Keonig (as cited in Curry & Nunez-Smith, 2015, p. 246) noted about the connection between the use of software and data analysis, "software does not 'do' the analysis, nor does software automatically produce high-quality results." To avoid technical failure, all raw data were read and notes were made on the completed returned questionnaires. Thus, they were processed manually, which was a very laborious task, and I then coded the data and saved it in Microsoft Excel. Subsequently, this data was interpreted thematically in the search for my participants' perspectives on EFL teachers' levels of English proficiency. This stage gives researchers room to "scrutinize and interact with the data as well as ask analytical questions of the data" (Thornberg & Charmaz, 2014, p. 156). To avoid discrepancies and to ensure confidentiality, I gave codenames in order (e.g., P1, P2) to each participant as soon as I received their returned questionnaire.

RESULTS

This section presents all the findings that I received from the

participants and also aims to answer the research question of what level of English proficiency NNS teachers should have for teaching English. In terms of the number of participants, 13 native-speaking and 20 non-native-speaking teachers participated in this study. Some questions, however, were ignored by some participants, and therefore, the following results have been generated from those who have given answers.

Participants' Education, Training, and Years of EFL Teaching

Teachers were asked whether they had been trained and had classroom practice before they embarked upon their teaching careers. Many of them had earned teaching certificates such as the CELTA, the DELTA, or TESOL certificate, which are well-known qualifications in the ELT world. Some participants had earned degrees such as a BA TESOL or an MA in ELT and Applied Linguistics or even PhDs from reputable universities. Some other teachers were locally/in-house trained in their home countries. Having looked at their academic backgrounds, they can be classed as having substantial knowledge in the areas of language learning, language teaching, and linguistic aspects of the language. Among the participants, 28 had classroom practice during their training, and the number of those who had not accessed classrooms was relatively low (3). The participants had taught English for one year as a minimum and some had been in teaching for more than ten years. The following bar graph represents the participants' years of EFL teaching experience.
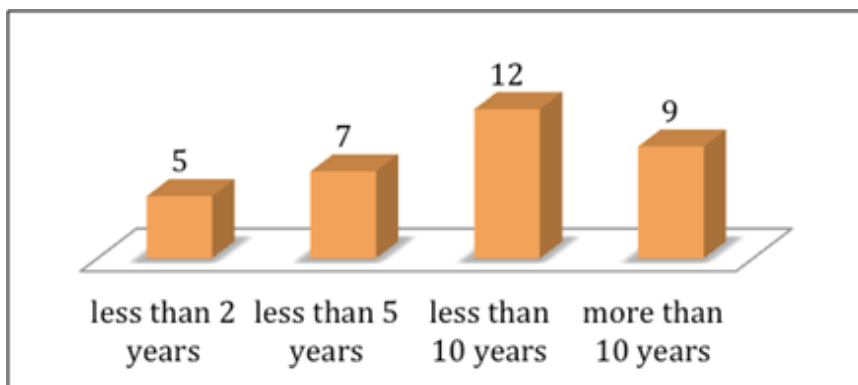

FIGURE 1. Participants' Years of EFL Teaching Experience.

To understand the 33 teacher-participants' (NSs and NNSs) teaching backgrounds, I asked where they had taught English throughout their teaching career. Twenty-nine (29) participants responded that they had taught at private language schools and 24 out of 33 participants had had one-to-one lesson experience. One teacher said some private (group) tuition sessions are occasionally run depending upon students' requests. Several (5) participants had taught in other settings such as at companies and one participant had given online lessons via telephone and Skype. There were three teachers who had taught English at universities in their own countries. Eleven teacher-participants mentioned that they had taught English in public schools and also earned some years of teaching experience in private settings as well.

Of the 33 participants, many of the native-speaking English teachers had taught in a variety of countries: the UK, China, Japan, Thailand, Malaysia, South Korea, Italy, Spain, Romania, and Australia (for P3, P6, P8, P9, P10, P15, P16, P19, and P20). Some non-native teachers had similar teaching experience in different countries (P1, P5, P13, P17, and P18 had taught in Poland, Colombia, Portugal, Greece, Spain, Italy, the Czech Republic, or the UK). The other teachers (P2, P24, P26, P28, P32, and P33) had taught locally in their own countries: Libya, Sudan, Thailand, and Myanmar.

Participants' Opinions on NNS Level of English for Teaching English

When asked about their perspectives of the level of English proficiency that non-native-speaking teachers should have, 10 participants (5 participants each from the NS and NNS groups) thought they should have a native-like fluency (i.e., the level of Expert user), 13 participants (6 NSs and 7 NNSs) said teachers should be at an Advanced level, 3 other participants (NNSs) said they should be between Advanced and Expert level, and 2 (NNSs) thought that an Intermediate level is enough to teach. Some other participants (2 NSs and 3 NNSs) explained that it would depend on who they teach and that it would not be problematic as long as they could cope and teach professionally. It is clear, though, that the largest section thought that an Advanced level is sufficient to be able to teach English language, as depicted in Figure 2 (40% at the Advanced level, but only 30% at the Expert level).
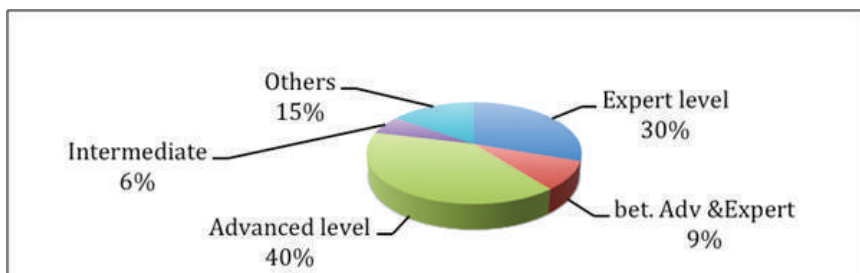
FIGURE 2. Participants' Perspectives on Level of English Proficiency Required of Non-native-speaking English Teachers.

Participants' Beliefs on Having Specific Levels

I examined the participants' reasons for their beliefs about these expected levels, gathering the information from my qualitative open-ended questions. Participants such as P19 and P20 who are NSs wanted NNS teachers to have an Expert user level (i.e., good knowledge in the target language) because teachers are the models who students will imitate. P19 expressed that

> fossilized errors (continually reinforced and uncorrected) are learnt by students from their teachers who have the same fossilized errors or who aren't of a C2 level. These mistakes are nigh on impossible to unlearn after a certain amount of time. [P19]

Other participants, such as P33, thought that as long as a teacher is an experienced target language user, they should be able to teach, and P5 and P32, NNS teachers, believed that teachers who teach in non-English-speaking countries should be at an Advanced level. P32 explained as follows:

> Non-native speaking teachers should have Advanced level of English as they are the ones who train and share their knowledge of English. Without fluency and good skills, the learners may not be skillful enough to communicate with others. [P32]

P4, who uses English as a first language although she was not born of native-English-speaking parents, also expressed her thoughts as follows:

Advanced is an adequate level to start teaching Beginner–
Intermediate lessons. Then, after a period of experience, the teacher
might improve their level and be able to teach beyond Intermediate.
[P4]

Another opinion that was expressed was that the required level of
proficiency would change depending upon where a NNS teacher teaches,
as P5 also mentioned: "If they teach high levels or in the Inner circle
countries, teachers should be 'expert users' to satisfy the students' and
employers' expectations."

Despite the fact that teaching English puts focus on one's language
skills and raises confidence in being able to teach the language, there are
certain situations where fluent English users are hard to find. Some
participants believed that it mainly depends on the settings where the
classrooms are based and how widely English is used in a specific
country. P14 shared his experience:

I've known Advanced level students who can give useful teaching
to lower level students when they return to their own country. They
may not give perfect lessons but it's still useful and may be virtually
all that's available in some countries. [P14]

One participant (P24), who is an NNS, also shared her views: "If the
number of the teachers is low compared to the number of students, the
institution might not have many choices to choose the best teacher for
their students." However, P10 had an opposing view: "I believe
intermediate level is too low to answer all the questions that students
might have, even if they are only A1 or A2."

Several participants thought that if a non-native-speaking teacher is
teaching young learners to enable them to become Basic/Elementary or
Intermediate users of a language, they should be able to manage with
less that Advanced level proficiency. P1, a non-native speaking teacher,
explained thus: "If you're teaching 5 yr olds, it's probably enough to be
at Intermediate level." P9 thought similarly: "If they are teaching young
children very basic English then Intermediate level would be fine." P24,
who is also an NNS teacher, expressed the opinion that "if the students
have low proficiency, the teacher may not need to have advanced level
as the input to give students will be basic too." P25, another NNS
teacher, similarly noted that "the teacher has to finish the intermediate

level to teach the beginners." The other NNS participant (P27) said much the same: that the teacher should "have intermediate level before they start teaching."

These findings indicate that it is essential that English teachers need good knowledge of language use in any context (i.e., either teaching in native or non-native English-speaking settings). According to these results, it is assumed that an Advanced level is adequate for non-native speakers to choose English teaching as a profession. The situation, however, would be different for those who grew up and were taught in an English-as-the-medium-of-instruction educational system. They would probably have an Expert level use of English, and thus, they would be able to teach and perform as well as native English speakers do.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The Relationship Between Language Proficiency and Teaching Skills

Having a good knowledge of the language is essential for those who choose to teach English as a profession. However, having this knowledge does not automatically imply that it will help learners to make use of the language as teachers still need to know and be able to apply pedagogical aspects (Swe, 2016). Han (2003), who did a study on Korean students' perceptions of NS and NNS teachers, explained that "using a language fluently and confidently is different from teaching the language effectively and in ways appropriate to the learners' culture." P13 had a similar thought and voiced that "knowing a lot about subject matter doesn't mean people know how to teach." Moreover, Lipovsky and Mahboob (2010, p. 165) have suggested that "native speakers actually may not know about grammar until they learn how to teach it." Thus, it seems that the critical point is that they be in charge of the proper proficiency level of classes based on their ability to teach English. P17 had similar advice: "They [teachers] should have sufficient confidence to teach it...in a non-native-speaking country privately teaching at least one level up from the students." P5 explained that a teacher's level would depend on where they teach: "If they teach lower levels, esp. in non-English-speaking countries, Advanced level should be sufficient."

It is unfortunate that some employers and learners believe that native English speakers make the best teachers, especially in East and Southeast Asia, in countries such as South Korea, China, Japan, and Thailand. The demand for employing NS teachers is relatively higher than NNS teachers in some non-native English-speaking countries (see Ali, 2009) but continuous learning (i.e., upgrading of language skills and teaching ability) is recommended for NNSs as P25 asserted: "We must improve our skills all the time. Teachers are forever students." There is no requirement of being an NS in terms of language teaching, as one of the participants in the Ali (2009) study expressed:

> The one who has a very strong accent I cannot understand. Yet, as long as the teacher can communicate, has a good English and does not misuse words, she or he is a good English speaker and does not need to be born in the UK to be a native English speaker." (p. 46)

Having looked at his findings, Ali found that the overriding aim of English teaching for the participants in his study was to make students able to use the language expertly. However, a participant from my study, P1, explained that "you may be at advanced level but still do not understand certain language concepts."

According to the findings of this study, if a teacher has a proficiency level lower than Advanced, they might struggle with students' questions in term of lexical and semantic aspects of the language. P3 voiced why he thought a teacher should have an Advanced level as a minimum: "If someone is teaching a language, they need a good knowledge and practice of its use, anything less than advanced would not indicate a good knowledge." P8 had the same thoughts on a teacher's competency in teaching and using a language: "A teacher with a low level may by accident mislead or incorrectly teach students the incorrect/unnatural way of saying a word."

It is therefore suggested that a teacher should have a well-prepared lesson that includes confirming correct pronunciation and practicing for oneself before teaching it. As Nelly and Arvizu (2014, p. 11) voice, "English teachers should know the language as well as how to teach the language."

Knowing How to Teach Is Key

From these participants' opinions, it can be concluded that, in general, the participants believe that teachers should possess at least an Advanced level of English proficiency to support learners effectively with different areas of knowledge (i.e., grammar, lexis). P10 said that "Advanced and expert should be sufficient, though." However, individual teaching skills and training are also critical: How long a teacher has been trained and how expert they are at liaising between linguistic knowledge and teaching techniques are essential in determining how successful they may be in the delivery of a lesson. P12 shared her opinion as thus: "Some people who have English skills close to [those of] natives but that doesn't mean that they teach well. Even if they are natives, it is possible that they don't teach well."

Certainly, an English teacher should know how to teach the language. To teach a language expertly and professionally, a teacher should understand both lexical and grammatical features of the language. Of particular interest is that some participants highlighted that an Intermediate level of English would be sufficient for teaching children. My personal point of view is that the goal of these children is to develop their language skills, over time, to become adult advanced language learners. Therefore, I think that whether teachers teach children or adults, they require the same level of fluency (at least at an Advanced level), and they should be trained as teachers of young learners and teenagers as these learners' needs differ from those of adult learners.

To produce and create supportive lessons and have better classroom management, taking a training course such as CETYL by Cambridge is highly recommended to those who aim to teach students under 16 years old. Therefore, having an advanced level is necessary to teach all levels of English classes, and NNS teachers everywhere, including Korean teachers of English, should strive to acquire a near-native-speaker level so as to promote their employability and thereby reduce the need to hire native speakers with no formal educational backgrounds since local Koreans would need more English language skills than in the past as English has become the most important language after Korean in South Korea (Seo, 2015, p. 2). A combination of formal training and a good level of English proficiency should be sufficient to help a NNS teacher to earn a better teaching job.

Sharing the Same L1 with Learners Has Some Benefits for Learners

When I was teaching in Thailand, I experienced that many of my colleagues taught English (mainly grammar and usage) through their L1, and Mullock (2010) explained that lower-level students could benefit from learning a foreign language from the same L1 teachers because they can explain or translate for students to clear the doubts when students are confused by language patterns or meanings of words. This is supported by Han's study (2003) where one participant voiced "KTE [Korean Teacher of English] teachers understand what I am going to say before I answer through *nun-chi* but foreign teachers tend to make me tense without understanding why I am quiet when asked to answer...." When it comes to language teaching, Cook (2005, p. 53) also explained, "Rather than encouraging the students to get as close to the native as possible, teaching should try to make them independent L2 users who can function across two languages with mental abilities the monolingual native speaker cannot emulate."

If this is the case, a non-native-speaking teacher would be better able to help learners as they pass through all stages of learning as mentioned above. Certainly, learners can ask questions in L1 and ask for examples of language usages if both parties share the same language. Therefore, Tayler (2014) highlighted the advantage of being an NNS teacher is that they can "provide their students with an excellent role model of how to study and succeed." It is thus the NNS teacher who knows the different grammatical patterns between their L1 and the target language, and the NNS teacher can better explain by comparing two different patterns. I am a non-native speaker and was taught by a number of qualified non-native-speaking teachers. In consequence, I believe that anyone (i.e., either a native or non-native speaker of English) can teach the language. However, the drawback is likely to be, as Florence Ma (2012, p. 289) explained, "limited opportunity for students to practice English."

Teachers' Confidence and Students' Respect

In terms of practicality in teaching, the primary goal for a language teacher is to help learners to use the target language expertly, and to attain this, "learners need to pay attention to and become aware of the

language they are being exposed to in order to be able to understand its uses" (Lopriore & Vettorel, 2015, p. 22). Therefore, teachers should select and develop relevant materials for lessons and expand their knowledge to maintain students' respect and gain more confidence in themselves. However, it would take less time and less effort in preparing a lesson if the teacher (whether an NS or an NNS) is competent in both language and teaching pedagogy. If a teacher is incompetent in language content (such as grammar or lexical usage), they will lose the students' attention. As P6 explained, "I, perhaps, would lose confidence in my teacher if he/she failed to answer my vocabulary/grammar questions."

To deliver successful lessons and engage with students, teachers should have acquired teaching techniques and teach at a lower level of proficiency than they themselves actually possess, as Swe (2016) has suggested. Teachers should have excellent proficiency as it would likely earn their students' confidence. As P20 responded, "The students need to feel confidence in their teachers' ability." However, Wardak (2014, p. 139) noted that "it is often impossible for an individual teacher to possess all of the valuable qualities, albeit not always impossible." Therefore, I suggest that language teachers (both NSs and NNSs) should strive to develop both language and pedagogical knowledge (i.e., they should remain up-to-date with current trends in teaching English, and with new or better approaches to teaching and learning English effectively).

LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY

This study does not include participants' suggestions on how EFL non-native-speaking teachers can improve their language proficiency, and actual classroom practices; its discussions and issues are not considered. Although I tried to include both native- and non-native-speaking English teachers who are teaching in different countries and in different settings, and who have accumulated many years of teaching experience, the results could be different if the study was conducted in one specific country with a homogeneous group (i.e., only native or non-native English-speaking teachers). If the number of native-speaking participants were relatively high, the results may also be different. The findings of this study could still be different from the opinions held by readers due

to different training, different classroom settings, and different backgrounds.

CONCLUSION

Although the findings from this study are not significantly new for ELT academia, the aim is to share this knowledge about experienced native and non-native English-speaking teachers' perspectives on non-native EFL teachers' language proficiency to give some idea to novice NNS teachers as to how to be well-prepared for teaching. As the findings suggest, any non-native speaker of English who has an advanced level of English is able to teach the language, but their language skills still need to be combined with teaching techniques and classroom management skills. Moreover, I would suggest that teachers should be well-trained before they start teaching a language as a profession in order to not face difficulties with lesson planning, classroom management, and searching for relevant materials, and to create a successful teaching and learning atmosphere.

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Flow in Foreign Language Reading for Korean University Students

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This study examines and compares the flow experiences (state of intense focus and involvement leading to enjoyment and improved performance) of Korean university students as they read second language extensive reading (ER) and academic texts in an intermediate-level academic English course. This study was a qualitative, interview-based study triangulated by repeated-measures surveys and regular classroom observations. The results indicate that a majority of the students experienced a greater amount of flow and that more of the conditions for flow were met with the ER texts. The results indicated that ER texts may benefit second language instruction by increasing flow experiences.

INTRODUCTION

Extensive reading (ER) is an approach to second language (L2) reading that has led to gains in motivation to read and positive attitudes towards reading. Day and Bamford (1998) explained this phenomenon through the ER Bookstrap Hypothesis, which states that initial positive experiences with ER feed back into continued ER experiences resulting in increased reading proficiency and affect (p. 30). Furthermore, Day and Bamford (1998) claim that ER may lead students to become hooked on books and experience flow (p. 30), the optimal psychological state of intense focus and involvement that has led to increases in performance and continuation of activities (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Flow is critical to L2 reading success as it is "a powerful incentive to continue one's involvement with reading and to make reading a part of one's life" (Day & Bamford, 1998, p. 30).

Although reading is one of the most identified flow activities, and there is preliminary evidence of flow in ER treatments, there is a lack

of empirical evidence to confirm if flow occurs while students read L2 ER materials that are well within their linguistic competence. Presently, the occurrence of flow while reading L2 ER materials is uncertain as Csikszentmihalyi (1990) claims that a high level of challenge is an essential condition needed to produce flow.

Therefore, the present study examined whether more flow occurs while Korean university students read L2 ER or academic reading (AR) texts. The study investigated the students' flow experiences through interviews and quantified flow by determining the extent to which each condition for flow was met on a survey Likert scale. Additionally, this study investigated how the students prioritized the conditions for flow and how their flow experiences changed with increased exposure to the texts. Based on the results, this study provides suggestions on how to improve L2 reading materials and instruction.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Extensive Reading: Framework and Findings

Day and Bamford (1998) define ER as "an approach to the teaching and learning of second language reading in which learners read large quantities of books and other materials that are well within their linguistic competence" (p. xiii). The Top Ten Principles for Teaching Extensive Reading provides a basic framework for ER treatments and programs (pp. 137−140):

1. Students read as much as possible.
2. A variety of materials on a wide range of topics are available.
3. Students select what they want to read.
4. Reading purposes relate to pleasure, information, and general understanding.
5. Reading is its own reward.
6. Reading materials are well within the linguistic competence of students.
7. Reading is individual and silent.
8. Reading speed is usually faster than slower.
9. Teachers orient, explain, keep track of, and guide students.

10. Teachers role model reading for students.

Through the ER approach, a substantial number of studies have provided evidence that students have improved in the following areas:

- Reading rate (Bell, 2001; Iwahori, 2008; Kusanagi, 2004; Masuhara, Kimura, Fukada, & Takeuchi, 1996; Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass, & Gorsuch, 2004)
- Reading proficiency (Elley, 1991; Lai, 1993a, b; Masuhara, Kimura, Fukada, & Takeuchi, 1996; Robb & Susser, 1989)
- Listening proficiency (see general language proficiency)
- General language proficiency (Bell, 2001; Elley & Mungubhai, 1981; Iwahori, 2008; Sheu, 2003)
- Writing proficiency (Hafiz & Tudor, 1990; Janopoulos, 1986; Mason & Krashen, 1997; Tsang, 1996)
- Speaking proficiency (Cho & Krashen, 1994)
- Vocabulary range and knowledge (Hafiz & Tudor, 1990; Horst, 2005; Lai, 1993a, b; Pitts, White, & Krashen, 1989)
- Motivation and positive attitude (Asraf & Ahmad, 2003; Cho & Krashen, 1994; Elley, 1991; Elley & Mungubhai, 1981; Nishino, 2007; Robb & Susser, 1989; Takase, 2003)

Relationship Between ER and Affect

As ER affect was the focus of this study, previous ER studies on affect are reviewed in this section.

Elley (1991) conducted a series of studies on the effect of providing books to elementary school students in Fiji. Each group of students was provided with approximately 250 books to conduct ER reading activities. The questionnaire results indicated that over 90% of the teachers observed their students enjoying and benefitting from the ER program, and there was also a rise in literacy levels. The subsequent studies also indicated high levels of motivation and positive attitudes, and a majority of the success was attributed to the appeal of the ER books.

Asraf and Ahmad (2003) conducted a program evaluation on an ER program at a rural middle school in Malaysia. Through classroom observations, open-ended interviews, and the teachers' diary entries, they observed changes in the students' attitudes toward L2 reading. As the program progressed, the students also demonstrated increases in

participation, enthusiasm, and affirmative responses towards the program.

Takase (2003) examined the L2 reading motivation of Japanese university students in an ER program, using questionnaires and interviews. Overall, there were increases in instrumental motivation, sense of achievement, and positive attitudes. This study highlighted several important factors in L2 reading motivation: (a) reading materials and attitudes were critical to motivation, and (b) L2 reading proficiency was not a major variable in motivation.

Nishino (2007) conducted a longitudinal case study with two Japanese middle school students on their motivational changes towards L2 reading with graded readers. The interviews and observations provided evidence of increased enjoyment, interest, and achievement. Increased motivation led these students to read more often and challenge themselves to read books at higher levels. Based on their actions and comments, Nishino (2007) claimed that the students might have experienced flow while reading.

Flow: Framework and Research Findings

Csikszentmihalyi (1990) defines flow as the optimal psychological state of intense focus and involvement that leads to an increase in performance and continuation of activities. By interviewing chess players, rock climbers, dancers, and others who have experienced enjoyment in their activity, Csikszentmihalyi identified the conditions and characteristics of flow (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002; Csikszentmihalyi, 1997a; 1990, p. 53−70):

1. Skills match challenges at high levels
2. Merging of action and awareness − problems forgotten, irrelevant stimuli excluded from consciousness
3. Clear goals and immediate feedback
4. Intense concentration − attention is focused on task
5. Sense of control − capable of success
6. Disappearance of self-consciousness − sense transcends ego limitations
7. Altered sense of time − seems to pass by more quickly
8. Experiences becomes autotelic − continually sought out for the experience itself

Csikszentmihalyi (1997a) claimed that these major conditions were universally applicable based on over 8,000 interviews from various countries including Japan, Korea, and India. As there is evidence that flow may lead to improved performance (Lefevre, 1988), the concept of flow can also be applied to learning as shown in Figure 1 (from Egbert, 2003).
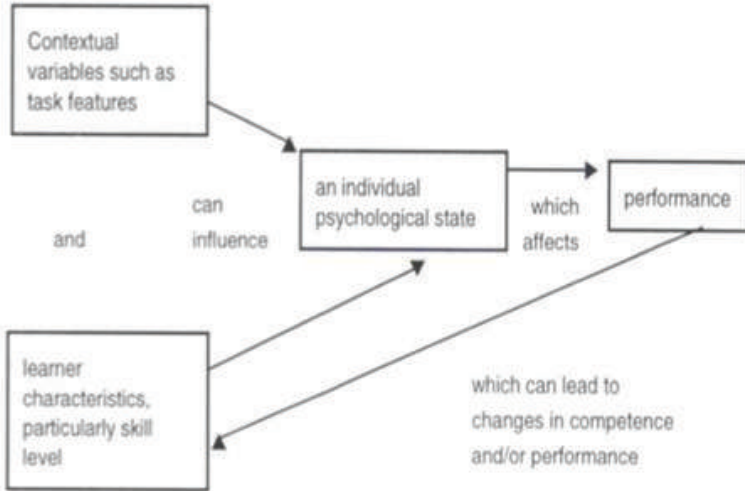
FIGURE 1. Simplified model of flow and learning.

Level of Challenge Needed in Activities to Produce Flow

For all activities, Csikszentmihalyi identified the most important condition for flow as a balance between "the challenges that a person reports" and "the skills that a person possesses" at high levels. (Hektner & Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002). This is shown in Figure 2 in the adapted model of the flow state from Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi (2002).

The optimal level of challenge has also been explained in terms of "skill-stretching" (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002, p. 90, 94) and Krashen's i+1 principle for learning grammar (in Schmidt & Savage, 1992; Krashen, 1985). However, the level of challenge needed in activities to produce flow remains largely subjective (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002), limited, and critically debated (Egbert, 2003).

The next section examines studies that point out inconsistencies in Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) condition of a balance between challenge and skills at high levels.

Schmidt and Savage (1992) examined the role of challenge and skills in producing flow for the staff members of a post-graduate institution in Thailand who were enrolled in a voluntary EFL program. Based on the questionnaire data, it was determined that there were no clear patterns between challenge and skills in producing flow. The participants reported flow in English learning activities with both a high and low level of challenge. Schmidt and Savage (1992) concluded that Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) conceptualization of flow is "simplistic" as it leaves out many interacting factors, and is "ethnocentric" as universal application is assumed (p. 25).
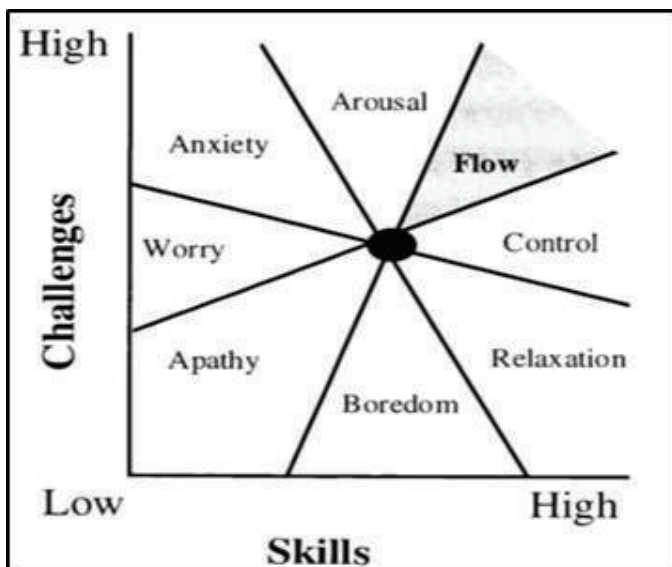
FIGURE 2. Model of relationship between challenges and skills.

Egbert (2003) investigated flow in computer and reading tasks in a Spanish language classroom at a secondary school. The results from observation checklists, post-task questionnaires, and interviews indicated that (a) twelve of the thirteen participants experienced flow during one or more of the tasks, and (b) moderate to high flow occurred with the computer tasks. Although the students had insufficient training and

encountered technical problems while working the computer tasks, there were other interacting factors (mentioned in Schmidt & Savage, 1992) that overcame these problems and resulted in flow. Thus, Egbert modified and incorporated additional conditions to Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) conditions for flow to make it applicable to L2 learning tasks (p. 554):

1. Challenges are appropriate and goals are clear
2. Tasks are interesting
3. Sufficient time is allotted
4. Feedback is immediate
5. Learners have control
6. Learners have chances to focus without interruptions

Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) conditions for flow, concerning clear goals, immediate feedback, and sense of control are still relevant to this model. However, Egbert (2003) also incorporates the conditions of interest, time allotment, and appropriate challenge.

Huang (2007) also investigated flow in L2 learning tasks in a case study with five graduate students in Taiwan enrolled in an English writing course. The results from the observations and interviews showed that three of the five participants experienced flow during some of the L2 learning tasks, and more flow was produced in tasks involving more flexibility, creative thinking, and student control. Furthermore, Huang (2007) identified the following factors as obstacles to flow: boredom, disinterest, lack of preparation and English proficiency, and over-challenging tasks (p. 94).

From these studies, it can be concluded that Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) conditions for flow concerning clear goals, immediate feedback, attention, and control have consistently contributed to producing flow. However, the condition concerning challenge and skills is still inconsistent, ambiguous, and largely subjective. Moreover, although Csikszentmihalyi (1990) emphasized the importance of challenge and skills, and autotelic experiences, the necessity of each condition of flow remains varied and uncertain.

Flow Experiences While Reading L2 Texts

Massimini, Csikszentmihalyi, and Delle Fave (1998) conducted a

study on the differences and similarities of flow activities across cultures. In an open-ended questionnaire, reading was the most often mentioned activity that produced flow across a wide range of participants (pp. 75–80).

Csikszentmihalyi (1990) referred to Nell's (1988) "motivational model of lucid reading" to explain how reading can produce flow. This model claims that if (a) the antecedents of ludic reading are adequate, (b) there will be attraction to reading and the reader will feel like reading, which (c) leads into reading processes involving lucid reading, attention, and comprehension. If readers experience positive physiological and cognitive changes, they will most likely continue to read (p. 257). There are noticeable similarities between the "motivational model of lucid reading" and the ER Bookstrap Hypothesis.

In two related studies, McQuillan and Conde (1996) examined the conditions under which flow occurs while reading. The first interview-based study presented preliminary evidence that self-selected texts had a greater likelihood of producing flow. For their second study, McQuillan and Conde (1996) investigated this phenomenon and the validity of the conditions through a large-scale survey. The results indicated that the participants experienced flow with texts that met the following conditions (p. 126):

1. Subjects had prior interest or knowledge in the subject, author, or topic
2. Text contained new or unfamiliar information to produce challenge
3. Texts caused growth and perceived intellectual or personal benefits

McQuillan and Conde (1996) claimed that the results of their study supported Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) condition of skills meeting challenges.

The literature indicates that flow has occurred while reading L2 texts (Nishino, 2007; McQuillan & Conde, 1996), and reading is one of the most common activities that has consistently produced flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Massimini, Csikszentmihalyi, & Delle Fave, 1988). There were also parallels found between Day and Bamford's (1998) ER Bookstrap Hypothesis and Nell's (1988) "motivational model of lucid reading," which was drawn on by Csikszentmihalyi (1990) to

explain flow while reading. These findings come together to strongly support the possibility of flow occurring while reading L2 reading materials.

As discussed above, there is a widespread debate about the amount of challenge needed to produce flow. Therefore, this study examines and compares flow occurrences while reading two types of L2 texts with differing amounts of challenge.

METHOD

Research Questions

This study compared the occurrence of flow while students read L2 AR and L2 ER texts. The students were asked about their flow experiences based on the definition provided by Csikszentmihalyi (1990) and the extent to which the conditions for flow, identified by Csikszentmihalyi (1990), Egbert (2003), and McQuillan and Conde (1990), were met to determine the overall amount of flow that occurred with each type of L2 text. With these purposes in mind, the study was guided by the following research questions (RQ):

RQ1. Did the participants experience flow while reading the L2 AR texts?

RQ2. Did the participants experience flow while reading the L2 ER texts?

RQ3. Did the participants experience more flow with the L2 AR or L2 ER texts?

RQ4. Which conditions for flow were met while reading the L2 AR texts?

RQ5. Which conditions for flow were met while reading the L2 ER texts?

Participants

The participants were university students in Korea who were enrolled in an intensive, short-term academic reading and writing English course. The majority of the participants were juniors and seniors from

a wide variety of majors including music, law, theology, engineering, and business. There were a total of fourteen participants who fully participated in the study.

In the interviews, all of the participants indicated that they had experienced flow in a variety of activities including watching movies, physical activities, and reading in their first language. When asked about previous flow experiences while reading in English, a majority of the participants experienced "none" to "little flow."

Course Information and Materials

The course was a four-week course that took place for two hours a day, four days a week. The main objective of this course was to develop the students' English academic reading and writing skills to a pre-determined intermediate level. The students mainly used an academic reading and writing textbook and a grammar workbook. In addition, magazine and journal articles were incorporated on an irregular basis. As Sengupta (2002) defines AR as "purposeful and critical reading of a range of lengthy academic texts for completing the study of specific major subject areas" (p. 3), such texts were designated as L2 AR materials for the study.

The students were required to complete several major assignments, which included the Reading for Fun project which was worth 20% of their final grade. The students had to read at least 100,000 words from the school library collection of graded readers, these texts were designated as the L2 ER materials for the study.

Instruments and Procedure

As a qualitative study, the main method of data collection was guided individual interviews triangulated with repeated Likert scale surveys and regular classroom observations. The interviews were conducted in Korean by the author to encourage in-depth, detailed answers from the students. A total of seventeen students were interviewed from the end of Week 1 to the middle of Week 4. The interview was divided into three parts, focusing on the following: previous flow experiences, flow while reading the L2 AR and L2 ER texts, and reflection on these flow experiences. A complete set of interview questions can be found in Appendix A.

The Likert scale survey was designed by the author based on the conditions for flow mentioned in the literature review (see Appendix B). The questionnaire was divided into two parts examining flow with the L2 AR and L2 ER texts separately. For each part, the students were asked to answer a total of fifteen items, which inquired about the conditions for flow on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). The survey was administered at the end of Week 1, Week 2, and Week 3. Based on the study by Egbert (2003), a mean between 4 (slightly agree) and 5 (agree) was described as "low flow," and a mean between 5 (agree) to 6 (strongly agree) was described as "flow" on the survey's Likert scale.

To triangulate the data from the interviews and surveys, classroom observations were conducted during every class session. The author sat at the back of the classroom and filled out a research observation sheet (see Appendix C), taking notes on the types of texts presented, participants' responses to texts, and methods of text interaction that corresponded to the conditions for flow. An analysis of the interview, survey, and observation results are presented in the next section.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As stated above, this study was an interview-based study, triangulated by survey data and observation notes. A discussion of the relevant interview, survey, and observation data is presented below for each research question.

RQ1: Did the participants experience flow while reading the L2 AR texts?

To determine if the participants experienced flow while reading the L2 AR and L2 ER texts, the author inquired about their flow experiences with the texts.

In the interview, 15 of the 17 participants claimed they experienced "low flow" to "flow" with the L2 AR texts. Of the 15 participants, 2 participants indicated they experienced low flow, and 13 participants indicated they experienced flow. For the survey data, as a mean between 4 (slightly agree) and 5 (agree) was established as low flow, the survey

results in Table 1 indicated that the participants continually experienced low flow with the L2 AR texts.

TABLE 1. Descriptive Statistics for the L2 AR and L2 ER Surveys

Reading Type	N	Overall Mean	Item Mean	Standard Deviation
Survey at the end of Week 1				
AR	14	60.00	4.00	11.51
ER	14	64.36	4.29	11.85
Survey at the end of Week 2				
AR	14	59.50	3.97	14.51
ER	14	62.57	4.17	14.38
Survey at the end of Week 3				
AR	14	61.14	4.08	12.94
ER	14	67.29	4.49	9.50

RQ2: Did the participants experience flow while reading the L2 ER texts?

In the interview, all 17 participants stated that they experienced flow with the L2 ER texts. Of the seventeen participants, 3 participants claimed they were able to experience good flow. As shown on Table 1, the survey results indicated that the participants continually experienced low flow to a greater extent with the L2 ER texts, as shown by the consistently higher L2 ER surveys means.

RQ3: Did participants experience more flow with L2 AR or L2 ER texts?

In the interview, the participants were asked to compare the amount of flow they experienced with the L2 AR and L2 ER texts. Although the difference varied for each participant, 15 of the 17 participants claimed that they experienced more flow with the L2 ER texts. Some responses from the participants who elaborated on the differences in flow between the L2 AR and L2 ER texts are

- "AR takes energy to read but with ER, I experience flow naturally like surfing. ER is like riding the wave, and AR is going against the wave";

- "I don't have to look up words because the content is easy to understand for the ER texts, that's why it's a little better";
- "ER is not really academic or skill-based so it is easy to read like novels. It's easier to experience flow because it's more like storytelling."

For the survey, there was no significant difference (at the 0.05 level) between the L2 AR and L2 ER survey means based on the t-test values presented in Table 2. However, there is a possibility that the values would have been different with more participants.

TABLE 2. *t*-Test Results for the L2 AR and L2 ER Surveys

	N	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Survey at the end of Week 1	14	-2.064	13	.060
Survey at the end of Week 2	14	-1.115	13	.285
Survey at the end of Week 3	14	-1.956	13	.072

Note. p < .05.

RQ4: Which conditions for flow were met while reading the L2 AR texts?

To compare flow with the L2 AR and L2 ER texts, the amount of flow the participants experienced was determined by whether the conditions for flow, identified by Csikszentmihalyi (1990), Egbert (2003), and McQuillan and Conde (1996), were met.

The extent to which these conditions were met was determined by the survey item means above 4 indicating "low flow," the amount of times the characteristics corresponding to the conditions were mentioned in the interviews, and the text types and interactions that the author perceived as helpful to flow in the observation notes.

In the interviews, 5 or more of the 17 participants described the L2 AR texts as challenging, appropriate, beneficial, and/or interesting. While reading the L2 AR texts, they experienced the following actions: worrying about reading skills and abilities, running out of time to finish the texts, thinking about other things, and feeling time pass by quickly. Additionally, more than half of the participants claimed they were

worried about their reading skills and abilities.

The survey items' mean values, presented in Table 3, show that the conditions of interesting tasks, previous interest, previous knowledge, new information, intellectual benefits, appropriate texts, and challenge were met by the end of the third week. The survey item mean for the condition of intellectual benefits met the mean standard of flow, a mean between 5 (agree) to 6 (strongly agree).

TABLE 3. Individual Item Mean Values for the L2 AR and L2 ER Surveys

Survey Items	N	Survey at the end of Week 1		Survey at the end of Week 2		Survey at the end of Week 3	
		L2AR	L2ER	L2AR	L2ER	L2AR	L2ER
1. Personal benefits	14	4.50	4.86	3.86	4.79	3.93	4.86
2. Interesting tasks	14	4.57	4.93	3.71	4.86	4.00	4.93
3. Previous interest	14	4.07	4.00	3.93	3.93	4.50	4.07
4. Previous knowledge	14	4.00	2.86	4.29	2.64	4.21	3.71
5. New information	14	4.50	3.93	4.36	3.86	4.79	4.43
6. Intellectual benefits	14	5.07	5.00	4.79	4.71	5.00	4.86
7. Challenge	14	4.93	4.79	4.57	4.50	4.50	4.43
8. Appropriate texts	14	4.43	4.64	4.14	4.21	4.57	4.79
9. Loss of self-consciousness	14	2.86	3.14	3.57	3.50	3.79	3.64
10. Sufficient time allotment	14	3.57	4.64	3.71	4.57	3.93	4.50
11. Opportunities to focus without interruptions	14	3.50	4.43	3.93	4.57	3.79	4.79
12. Intense concentration	14	3.43	4.14	3.64	3.93	3.43	4.57
13. Action-awareness merging	14	2.79	3.57	3.00	3.71	3.14	3.93
14. Time distortion	14	3.64	4.43	3.86	4.21	3.64	4.71
15. Autotelism	14	3.93	5.00	3.93	4.64	3.93	5.07

From the classroom observations, the author identified several L2 AR texts types and interactions that might have led to conditions for flow concerning control, new information, clear goals, and appropriate texts being met at certain points during class. From the collected data, there is a possibility that the following conditions for flow were met at certain points while reading the L2 AR texts:

Conditions for flow identified by Csikszentmihalyi (1990)
A. Skills match challenges at high levels
B. Sense of control − capable of succeeding
C. Altered sense of time − seems to pass by more quickly

Conditions for flow identified by Egbert (2003)
A. Challenges are appropriate and goals are clear
B. Tasks are interesting
C. Learners have control

Conditions for flow identified by McQuillan and Conde (1996)
A. Subjects had prior interest or knowledge in the subject, author, or topic
B. Text contained new or unfamiliar information to produce challenge
C. Texts caused growth and perceived intellectual or personal benefits

Although a majority of the conditions for flow identified by Csikszentmihalyi (1990) and Egbert (2003) were not met, all the conditions for flow identified by McQuillan and Conde (1996) were met with the L2 AR texts in this study.

RQ5: Which conditions for flow were met while reading the L2 ER texts?

In the interviews, 5 or more participants described the L2 ER texts as enjoyable, interesting, appropriate, and/or familiar. While reading the L2 ER texts, they experienced the following actions: worrying about reading skills and abilities, running out of time to finish the text, reading without stopping, thinking about other things, feeling time pass by quickly, and wanting to read more in English. More than half of the participants claimed the L2 ER texts were enjoyable and interesting, and they were able to read without stopping and wanted to read more in English afterwards.

The survey items' means, presented in Table 3, show that the conditions of personal benefits, interesting tasks, previous interest, new information, intellectual benefits, challenge, appropriate texts, sufficient time allotment, opportunities to focus without interruptions, intense concentration, and time distortion were met by the end of the third week.

The survey item mean for the condition of autotelism met the mean standard of flow.

Although some of the conditions were met for both the L2 AR and L2 ER texts, the survey means indicated that the conditions for interesting tasks and appropriate texts corresponded more with the L2 ER texts; and the conditions for previous interest, new information, intellectual benefits, and challenge corresponded more with the L2 AR texts.

As the ER component of the course mostly took place outside of class, there were only a few observation notes on the text types and interactions that could have led to conditions for flow concerning opportunities to focus without interruptions, immediate feedback, interesting tasks, and control being met at certain points during class. From the collected data, there is a possibility that the following conditions for flow were met at certain points while reading the L2 ER texts:

Conditions for flow identified by Csikszentmihalyi (1990)
- Skills match challenges at high levels
- Clear goals and immediate feedback
- Intense concentration – attention is focused on task
- Sense of control – capable of succeeding
- Altered sense of time – seems to pass by more quickly
- Experiences becomes autotelic – continually sought out for experience itself

Conditions for flow identified by Egbert (2003)
- Challenges are appropriate and goals are clear
- Tasks are interesting
- Sufficient time is allotted
- Feedback is immediate
- Learners have control
- Learners have chance to focus without interruptions

Conditions for flow identified by McQuillan and Conde (1996)
- Subjects had prior interest in the subject, author, or topic
- Text contained new or unfamiliar information to produce challenge
- Texts caused growth and perceived intellectual or personal benefits

Based on the results, the conditions for flow identified by Egbert (2003) and McQuillan and Conde (1996) were all met at certain points while reading the L2 ER texts. The results clearly indicated that more conditions for flow were met with the L2 ER texts than with the L2 AR texts.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

To conclude, the results of this study lead to the possible implications that (a) students are able to experience challenge with L2 ER texts, (b) L2 ER texts are beneficial to experiencing flow while reading in the L2, and (c) L2 AR and L2 ER texts can be used as complementary materials for L2 reading instruction.

Review of Challenge While Reading L2 ER Texts

The survey results indicate that the students were able to consistently experience challenge with the L2 ER texts throughout the course. Furthermore, the survey results indicate the possibility of experiencing challenge with texts that are appropriate to students' reading levels. Thus, texts associated with "skill-stretching" (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002, p. 94) or Krashen's *i*+1 principle (Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi, 2002) may not be necessary to provide students with the amount of challenge needed to experience flow. Moreover, the students mentioned in the interviews that difficult or over-challenging texts might be a hindrance to flow.

Benefits of L2 ER Texts to Experiencing Flow While Reading in the L2

It is evident that a majority of the conditions for flow were met at certain points while reading the L2 ER texts. Most importantly, the students indicated an increased desire to continue reading in English after reading the L2 ER texts. The condition of autotelism, to continually seek out the experience for the experience itself, was consistently met with the L2 ER texts throughout the course. This desire led several students to read beyond the 100,000-word requirement for the Reading

for Fun project; two students read over 150,000 words and one student read more than 600,000 words.

In the interviews, some of the students provided additional insight into why flow was critical to L2 reading and English language learning success:

- "When we experience flow, we will read more and seek out more English texts."
- "We need flow to have interest in reading and to invest more time in it."
- "When I read texts in English, it is much more effective with flow."
- "We need to experience flow for personal motivation. If there is no flow, no matter how much we do it, there will be no use for it."
- "Flow is not just for English education, it is necessary in all areas. It can make two or three times, even as much as one hundred times the difference."

There are additional L2 ER activities that can enhance flow as students interact with L2 ER texts (in Day et al., 2011, and in Day & Bamford, 2004).

Complementing L2 AR Texts with L2 ER Texts in L2 Reading Instruction

Although all the conditions met with the L2 AR texts were also met with the L2 ER texts, certain conditions for flow such as new information, intellectual benefits, challenge, and previous knowledge were met to a greater extent with the L2 AR texts. As each of the conditions were met to a greater extent with either the L2 AR or L2 ER texts, L2 instructors can increase the possibility of producing flow in L2 reading by incorporating both L2 AR and L2 ER texts.

Limitations of the Study

There were weaknesses concerning the course timeline, participants, and the L2 AR materials for the study. The conditions of loss of

self-consciousness and action-awareness merging might not have been met with neither the L2 AR nor L2 ER texts because it was an intensive, short-term summer course. In addition, the recommended N size for the quantitative component of this study was not met, as only fourteen participants fully participated. Moreover, as the participants were drawn from a sample of convenience, the generalizability of this study is limited to Korean university students with intermediate English proficiency.

The final weakness was the lack of variety in the L2 AR materials used in the course. An increased variety of L2 AR texts might have provided a more accurate and comprehensive comparison between flow with L2 AR and L2 ER texts.

Despite the limitations, this study demonstrated that L2 ER texts are beneficial in meeting the conditions for flow while reading in the L2, supporting the ER Bookstrap Hypothesis by Day and Bamford (1998) and reconfirming the possibility of flow with ER texts as mentioned by Nishino (2007). This study also indicated the possibility that students can be challenged by texts that are appropriate to their reading level, which reemphasizes the need for an appropriate level of challenge for flow in L2 learning as mentioned by Egbert (2003) and Huang (2007).

Directions for Future Research

This study provided preliminary evidence of greater flow experiences with L2 ER texts. To further investigate this possibility, a longitudinal study with repeated interviews is recommended. This study also conducted an initial investigation into which conditions the participants perceived as essential to flow. These conditions were (a) interesting tasks, (b) opportunities to focus without interruptions, (c) action-awareness merging, and (d) time distortion. This information can be used as a basis to develop conditions for flow specific to L2 reading building on the conditions identified by Csikszentmihalyi (1990), Egbert (2003), and McQuillan and Conde (1996). Through future research on flow in L2 reading, valuable insight can be provided for L2 reading materials, curriculum, and instruction.

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APPENDIX A

Interview Procedures

1. Record date and survey ID number for each student.
2. Confirm participant understands definition of flow.
3. Inquire background information concerning flow and L2 reading.
   - What kinds of activities do you experience flow in?
   - Have you ever experienced flow while reading in English?
     - If yes, how often do you experience flow while reading in English? (e.g., "every time I read," "only when I read...," "seventy percent of the time I read," "I read three times a week, so about once a week")
     - If yes, what kinds of English reading materials help you to experience flow while reading? (e.g., "while reading comic books," "... magazines," "... newspapers")

4. Examine the following characteristics: enjoyable, interesting, familiarity, academically/personally beneficial, positively/negatively challenging, appropriate

   - In addition to other characteristics, which of these characteristics would you use to describe the AR texts you read in the course?
   - In addition to other characteristics, which of these characteristics would you use to describe the ER texts you read in the course?
   - In addition to other characteristics, which of these characteristics do you think are essential to experience flow?
   - What kinds of characteristics may hinder flow?

5. Examine the following actions that may occur while you are reading: (a) worrying about reading skills and abilities, (b) running out of time to finish a book, (c) reading without stopping, (d) thinking about other things, (e) forgetting where I was physically, (f) feeling time passing by quickly, and (g) wanting to read more in English.

   - In addition to other actions, which of these actions have you experienced while reading the AR texts in the course?
   - In addition to other actions, which of these actions have you experienced while reading the ER texts in the course?
   - In addition to other actions, which of these actions best describe what you experience when experiencing flow?

6. Conclusions

- Do you experience more flow while reading AR or ER texts in English?
- Has the degree of flow you experienced while reading AR texts changed throughout the course?
- Has the degree of flow you experienced while reading ER texts changed throughout the course?
- How important is experiencing flow while reading in English to English academic success?

APPENDIX B

Research Survey: Part 1

Week: _____   5-digit number: _____

Please select a 5-digit number and write it in the space indicated above. This will be the number that you record on ALL future surveys. Next, think about an **ACADEMIC TEXT** you have read for your reading course during the week. Please write down the title in the space indicated below. Then, please describe your reading experience with this text by responding to the following items on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

ACADEMIC TEXTS are texts read for homework, the mini-books on English grammar, and the texts you read for the Academic Reading requirement worth 5% of your grade.

Title of text: _____

Questions	Degree of Agreement					
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I enjoyed reading the academic text.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. The academic text was interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I had previous interest in the topic of the academic text.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I had previous knowledge on the topic of the academic text.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I learned new information from the academic text.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Reading the academic text helped me learn more English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. While reading the academic text, I felt challenged.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. The academic text was appropriate for my reading level.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. When reading the academic text, I was worried about my reading skills and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6

10. I had enough time to finish reading the academic text.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I was able to read the academic text without stopping.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. When reading the academic text, I thought about other things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. When reading the academic text, I forgot where I was physically.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. When reading the academic text, time passed by quickly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. After reading the academic text, I wanted to read more in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Research Survey: Part 2

Week: _____   5-digit number: _____

Please select a 5-digit number and write it in the space indicated above. This will be the number that you record on ALL future surveys. Next, think about an **EXTENSIVE READING (ER) TEXT** you have read for your reading course during the week. Please write down the title in the space indicated below. Then, please describe your reading experience with these texts by responding to the following items on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).
EXTENSIVE READING (ER) TEXTS are texts read for the Reading for Fun project worth 20% of your grade, and other self-selected books read for pleasure.

Title of text: _____

Questions	Degree of Agreement					
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I enjoyed reading the ER text.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. The ER text was interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I had previous interest in the topic of the ER text.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I had previous knowledge on the topic of the ER text.	1	2	3	4	5	6

5. I learned new information from the ER text.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Reading the ER text helped me learn more English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. While reading the ER text, I felt challenged.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. The ER text was appropriate for my reading level.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. When reading the ER text, I was worried about my reading skills and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I had enough time to finish reading the ER text.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I was able to read the ER text without stopping.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. When reading the ER text, I thought about other things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. When reading the ER text, I forgot where I was physically.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. When reading the ER text, time passed by quickly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. After reading the ER text, I wanted to read more in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX C

Research Observation Sheet I

Background information:

- Date of observation:
- Observation number:
- Course title:
- Lesson focus:

Observation focus:

1. What types of texts are presented? (Academic or Extensive Reading? Self-selected or assignment? Familiar or unfamiliar? Easy or difficult? Etc.)

2. How do the students respond to the texts? (When texts are introduced, when reading or discussing text, etc.)

3. How do students interact with texts? (Different kinds of pre-, post-, and while-reading activities, previous or follow-up assignments, negative/positive student response, instructor feedback, etc.)

4. Additional comments:

Research Observation Sheet II

Refer to the conditions for flow listed below. During the observation, make note of any conditions that were met/not met with appropriate evidence, and how it affected the students and the overall classroom environment.

Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) general conditions for flow
1. Equal balance of challenge and skills at high levels
2. Action-awareness merging
3. Clear goals and feedback
4. Opportunities for intense concentration
5. Sense of control
6. Perception of time passing by more quickly
7. Perceived as autotelic experience

Egbert's (2003) conditions for flow in L2 learning
1. Appropriate challenges and clear goals
2. Interesting tasks
3. Sufficient time allotment
4. Immediate feedback
5. Opportunities to focus without interruptions

McQuillan and Conde's (1996) conditions for reading flow
1. Prior interest in the subject, author, or topic
2. Prior knowledge of topic
3. Acquisition of new information
4. Personal or intellectual benefits from text

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Manuscripts should follow APA style guidelines (*Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 6th ed.), especially for in-text citations, references, tables, and figures. Submissions should be made with tables, figures, and other graphics included in the manuscript text (and upon request, as separate files). All figures should be created in black and white, and graphs must display distinctive shades or patterning for readability. Manuscripts should be submitted as MS Word (DOC or DOCx) files.

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