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Fall 2016 Vol.12

No.
2



ISSUES IN

TEFL

SOOKMYUNG WOMEN'S UNIVERSITY



Issues in EFL

SOOKMYUNG WOMEN'S UNIVERSITY
MA TESOL JOURNAL

Fall 2016 Vol. 12, No. 2



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Mission Statement

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

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

COMMUNITY CONTRIBUTIONS

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EXCLUSIVE INTERVIEW WITH TESOL MA STUDENTS

INTERVIEW BY JUNGMIN BYUN

It was an honor to interview my colleagues and hear their ideas on how to utilize the TESOL MA program to its full extent. I sat down with Mark who has been editor-in-chief for the Journal, and Jeehee and Yunseon who are working as research assistants. In the interview, they provided us a lot of useful information on how to be more involved with the program other than simply taking classes. I also had the opportunity to interview Jeff, a recent graduate student who just completed his thesis, to ask for his thoughts, experiences, and advice on writing theses. I believe his interview will be very helpful to students who will be writing their theses.

Being Editor-in-Chief of Issues in EFL

WITH MARK RASMUSSEN

1. Briefly introduce yourself and tell us about what your job as Chief Editor was like.

My name is Mark Rasmussen, I just finished my 4th semester in the MA TESOL program at SMU and I have been living and working in South Korea since 2012. During my 3rd semester, I was given the opportunity to act as Editor-in-Chief (EoC) of the Issues in EFL student journal published at SMU.

The journal is one of the more interesting things that anyone can get involved with in our program. It provides an opportunity to practice and experience a large part of what it means to be an educator/ researcher in TESOL, writing and publishing. The EoC is responsible for the production and publication of each issue of the journal. During the semester, the

EoC primarily advertises and recruits other students in the MA program to help out with the journal by contributing and/or editing. They then organize and manage two committee meetings during which the content of the journal is tentatively decided on. The majority of the work, for everybody, happens after the symposium each semester. The professors nominate one or two papers from their classes that they feel should be included in the journal as representative work and then the EoC contacts those students to congratulate them and collect their papers. The EoC then passes those papers along to the volunteer editors on the committee. After they are edited, the EoC makes sure that the edited submissions are passed to the journal designer. The primary duty of the EoC, then, is more managerial than editor. I saw it as my responsibility to make sure all the volunteers had meaningful jobs to complete and then I tried to help by picking up tasks that were left over or not able to be completed.

2. What was the most difficult part of being EOC?

The most challenging thing about being EoC is having sufficient patience. Not everyone checks their e-mails right away, and not everyone will be able to keep your deadlines (everyone is a volunteer after all). Being well organized, patient and a kind communicator are the key attributes of a good EoC. That's why I think this semester's EoC does such a good job. Yoonjung is very well organized and makes the expected deadlines very clear.

An important aspect that everyone should know is that the journal is not a guaranteed thing every semester. If we, the students, don't volunteer to help then the journal just doesn't get done. So, in my opinion, a big (and maybe the most important) responsibility of the EoC is making sure that 1st and 2nd semester students are actively involved in the committee and to start thinking about who might take over the EoC position. If the EoC is too controlling or doesn't let other people see how the whole process is done, then when that EoC stands down, the next EoC and the next committee may have a more difficult time doing all the work.

3. What is the benefit of being involved in the school community and would you recommend it to others?

For people like me, the journal committee was a really nice way to socialize and enter our SMU community. I always felt a little bit out of place in

classes, but I found talking with other students in the committee and working with them was a good way to become better friends. Additionally, the journal is a good way to keep focused on important topics through the summer and winter breaks. Sometimes those long breaks between semesters can cause our reading, writing or thinking skills to weaken. Participating in the journal can keep you sharp. But for me, the most important part of participating in the publication process of the journal is the practice it provides. Many of us want to do research, either as a practicing teacher or in some field related to language, and so becoming familiar with the process and practice of journal publishing is an important step in that. As a fun bonus, Issues in EFL is listed on Google scholar, so if your final paper is published, you can find it by searching there. If anyone is thinking about helping with the journal, they should come to the committee meetings next semester, at least just to get to know the people who are also interested in the journal and get to know them.

Being Research Assistants (RA)

WITH JEEHEE KIM AND YUNSEON KIM

1. Briefly introduce yourself and tell us about your job as research assistants for each professor.

Jeehee: I'm Dr. Kang's RA, Jeehee Kim. This is my second semester at SMU and I've been working with her since my first semester, so for one year. However, I've known Dr. Kang for a few years, and my study of interest was mostly shaped by one of her classes that I took in my first semester as an undergraduate. So I didn't hesitate to apply to be her RA. I mainly help Dr. Kang to prepare classes by searching for articles, finding pictures to include in PowerPoints, copying and scanning books, and setting up the computer and projector in the classroom. In addition, I help the students in the classes, by sending PPT files weekly, clarifying assignments, and answering their questions in relation to the class. Other than that, I sometimes help Dr. Kang with her research by making charts and summarizing survey results.

Yunseon: My name is Yunseon Kim and I am the RA for Dr. McNeil. This was my first semester in the TESOL MA program and everything I saw and experienced was fresh to me. One of the best things I did during this semester was working as an RA. Basically, I worked 3 days a week for 3 to 4 hours per day. My main job as an RA was to assist Dr. McNeil's research by collecting data, information

and organizing the collected information for him. Another job I was given was to support his two classes, for example, by sending e-mails to students, checking assignment submissions, confirming attendance rates and helping students in his classes. Dr. McNeil always had clear guidelines when giving tasks to me and it made my job not too difficult. He wants to make his classes interesting and make sure that he offers better lectures to students every week so he asks for feedback on how the classes went. He pays careful attention to even the most trivial feedback from the students. Working as Dr. McNeil's RA, it gave me a chance to get to know him better and I learned a lot from him, not just about academics, but other matters and his thoughts in life.

2. What were the best or most difficult parts of working as RA?

Jeehee: The biggest advantage of being a RA is being able to communicate with a professor and build a stronger bond. Once, Dr. Kang and I went somewhere far from campus to shoot a video that she was in charge of making. As she knew that I am very much interested in acting, she offered me an opportunity to participate in the project as an actress. After shooting the video and having dinner, she gave me a ride back to campus. Riding in her car was very exciting itself to me because it is unusual to get a ride from a professor as a student, not as an RA though! However, what was more valuable and nice was the conversation I had with her. On the way back to campus, in the car, we talked a lot and found many commonalities, and she listened to my worries about my future and gave me thoughtful advice and suggestions. It was very nice to get to know Dr. Kang even more by talking to her outside of the classroom or campus. That was the best day of my working days and I cannot forget it.

“The biggest advantage of being a RA is being able to communicate with a professor and build a stronger bond.”

....

“Being an RA enabled me to truly experience language socialization by interacting with people.”

Yunseon: The best thing about being an RA was having a strong bond with the MA staff and students, in particular, the professors, other teaching/

research assistants and also classmates. If I had not been an RA, I imagine that my first experience in MA life would have been too boring, just studying alone all day. However, RAs have many chances to communicate with both professors and other students. Being an RA enabled me to truly experience language socialization by interacting with people. Also the RA work helped me adjust and become familiar with the new world of our TESOL MA program. On the other hand, one thing that was difficult would be the lack of spare time to study or socialize in order to do the RA work and study two subjects at the same time. I did not have enough spare time and so I had to focus on spending time efficiently. There were challenges to do all the required reading and to complete my assignments on time as well as working as an RA. Working with Dr. McNeil, changed my personality and habits because as he advised me to make a daily to-do list, prioritizing each task for the day and I came to realize how important it was for me to make a habit of writing up the daily to-do lists and keep doing them at all times. Ironically, now that I fully know what is required of me as an RA and what I have to do, the term is over. However, there is no doubt that I will put everything I learned during the first semester to good use in the next semester!

3. What suggestions or advice do you have for students who are thinking of working as RAs?

Jeehee: Personally, I think RA is a really nice opportunity and job, and I want to recommend this, especially to those who are thinking of continuing studying or becoming a professor or researcher. You can build a better and stronger relationship with the professors as you see them more often than the average student. Moreover, if you are going to do research and write research papers more than once, I think being an RA is very helpful in that you help your professor with research. You can see what kind of things need to be considered and what really happens while conducting research. In addition, you can also improve your ability to find articles you need. By looking at the model who is right next to you, you can get a more specific idea of what it is like to be a professor and researcher.

Yunseon: Working as a TA or an RA provides you with a tremendous opportunity to pursue your goals in the MA program, which will present you with not only academic knowledge but also social interaction with good people. Economic benefits and scholarships are the icing on the cake. One thing I'd like to suggest is, interact with people as much as

you can! In my case, from the beginning of the semester, I only focused on the classes and assignments and hence I feel that I didn't give myself enough chances to talk and interact with other classmates during the semester. I feel studying is only a part of the MA program. Having a special bond with people can last long after the MA program is over. Before I finish off, I would like to offer a word of encouragement to the new students and RAs who are not native speakers of English. One of the things that I remember clearly during my interaction with people during the course was what one of the students said to me at the symposium at the end of the course. I mentioned to the student, a native speaker of English, that it must be easy for him to do the course because he was a native speaker of English and what he said to me gave a great sense of encouragement and relief and I hope it does the same to the new students and the RAs. He said that he and I were in the same boat as the language and the terms used in the MA course were as new to him as they were for me. So, if you are not a native speaker of English, do not be discouraged, go for it!

All about Writing a Thesis

WITH JEFF LUMSDON

1. Briefly introduce yourself and tell us about your thesis.

My name is Jeff Lumsdon and I am a 5th semester SMU TESOL MA student who is just about to graduate. Recently, I submitted and defended my thesis and am currently working on the revisions that should be completed within the next week or so.

My thesis looked at whether students were able to recall vocabulary through exposure to popular music. My primary area of focus was on whether the type of modality had an influence on their recall scores. I found that through exposure to both the aural song and textual input, my participants were able to recall more of the lyrics than with the song alone or lyrics alone.

2. When did you decide on the topic for your thesis? Was it related to the courses you took? What courses were most useful when writing your thesis?

To be completely honest, I wasn't sure what I wanted to write about in my thesis; however during the human cognition class I started to read some

articles related to how music is processed by the brain and I began to question the potential songs had for vocabulary learning.

I would honestly say the class that was by far the most useful for writing my thesis was Research Methods. I would go as far as to encourage any student who is considering doing a thesis to take this class. Before taking this class I had no idea where to start. The course allowed us to break down and analyze each part of the thesis and understand how to prepare each section. I can't even imagine how I would have finished this paper if I hadn't taken this class.

3. *Gathering great and reliable resources is one of the toughest challenges of writing a thesis. Could you share with us how and where you gathered your resources? How hard was the process of getting reliable resources?*

Probably the first step is to find a basic idea or topic you are interested in examining. From there you can begin to look for papers that have already been written about that topic and/or key words that might enable you to narrow down your search.

Next, I would suggest using the google scholar services to begin finding literature. With regard to reliability, it is a general rule that articles written within the last 5-10 years are probably of more use. So start looking for more recent papers and work your way back from there.

There is a good chance you will find 1 or 2 papers that either provide an excellent methodological frame that can be adapted to your own project, or that present results that can be used for comparison. From there you just need to follow the citation trail. Look at who has cited those articles and even go as far as to look at the reference page in each paper you read. Not only will you find works that are applicable, but also you may stumble upon an article that wasn't listed in your original searches.

Once you have found a number of useful papers then I would suggest organizing them into folders based on their theory, topic, or focus. This will help you when you go back to find these works at a later point.

4. *How did you get your participants and how did you do the data analysis for your research? How long did it take?*

I am fortunate to be teaching part time at a college in Seoul and therefore I had access to nearly 100 students that I could use as participants. I would suggest for anyone that doesn't have this luxury that they start compiling possible participant options even before the proposal. Over the years there have been a number of students with excellent thesis ideas, who unfortunately were limited by the inability to find appropriate participants.

My thesis used both quantitative and qualitative data. As such, for the qualitative data I used a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for my data analysis. I probably would have had no idea what this test was if it weren't for the research methods class (seriously, take it!) but my project happened to fall nicely into the criteria used for the ANOVA.

Data coding and analysis was by far the longest part of the project. I have heard this generally the case for the majority of theses. The correction of tests, input and analysis easily took me a month. Now, my project could be an exception considering the number of tests I gave, but don't expect to push through all the data and analyze properly in less than a week.

5. *What was the hardest thing about writing a thesis?*

Motivation and being confident in what I was writing were the two hardest parts. There are ample resources on the tesolma website as well as other websites that can provide guidelines as to what and how to write. However, sitting down and punching out each section night in and night out was exhausting at times. It is far too easy to take an extended break after

your 4th semester and say "I'll start tomorrow". But as the weeks go by you will soon find yourself with only a few months before submission and not as much done as you expected. There is a lot of willpower needed to push yourself to keep writing each day.

With regard to confidence, it is sometimes hard to convince yourself that what you have written makes sense. When you look at the same paragraph or section for weeks on end, things sometimes become blurry and you can confuse yourself. It really wasn't until a few weeks before submission that I finally read the whole thing from start to finish and felt satisfied with what I had written.

"I would honestly say the class that was by far the most useful for writing my thesis was Research Methods."

6. *What would you have done differently during the process of writing thesis now that you have completed it? Or, after having gone through the process of writing a thesis, what advice would you give to students who will soon write a thesis?*

From my experience there are a lot of simple things that can really help in the whole thesis process. But I would have to say that only a few stand out as crucial.

1) *Get the complicated stuff out of the way as soon as possible.*

As noted before, this would be your data collection and analysis. Once you have collected your data you can truly start to write. This might require a few extra weeks post semester to push through all your data, but the faster you get it done the more time you will have for writing.

2) *Organize a schedule that you can follow which will force you to write a little bit each day.*

Even if all you do is one paragraph, it still means you're one paragraph closer to the end. Saving everything till the end is just going to cause more stress and anxiety.

3) *Take a break!*

If you have managed to keep a good consistent schedule going, then you have most definitely earned a break. At some point take a few days off and don't look at your paper. In fact, **DO NOT DO ANYTHING THESIS RELATED!** Not only will this be relaxing, but also it will allow you to come back and have a fairly fresh perspective when you reread what you have already written. At one point I remember I found myself reading my paper and not actually understanding what I wrote. I felt panicked and thought I needed to start over. However, at that point I took a weekend off and when I returned on the following Monday, I was more confident.

4) *Don't be afraid to erase things.*

Just because it is on the page doesn't mean it is actually quality writing. Sometimes erasing that one sentence, paragraph, (or in my case 13 pages) makes everything more comprehensible and organized. It might be hard to believe, but by simply deleting one section, new ideas can come flowing out to take your thesis in a much better direction.

5) *Finally, consult your advisors as much as possible.*

This is not to say you need to ask them to proofread every sentence (they won't), but do keep in contact and ask for guidance. They are your best ally and willing to let you know if the ideas you have are useful or not. They are all here to help us pass, so even if they disagree with your perspectives, it does not mean they will tell you to give up. More likely, they will provide other suggestions and options.

In the end, the thesis was a difficult and at times exhausting experience but I am so happy I went through it. It is hard to describe the feeling of pride and achievement you will get from seeing your finished project. You can expect long hours, frustration and doubts, but in the end it is all worthwhile when you realize what you've accomplished.

HOW TO USE “Smart Sookmyung” Mobile Application

GEONYEONG KIM

What is *Smart Sookmyung*?



Sookmyung Women’s University has a smart phone application that makes life a little easier for all Sookmyung students. In the application, the student’s ID card information is stored, so students no longer need to carry a plastic card and can be used for logging class attendance as well as reserving seats or computers in the library. Every

Sookmyung student can access this application with their student ID number and password. The password can be changed after the first login.

There are NFC and QR code stations both in classes and in the library, and students can do their attendance electronically by just scanning the QR code from the classroom or by touching their smartphones to the NFC tag. Students can also use the app to reserve a study room or even books at the library.

One undergraduate student told the Sookmyung Times, “In the past, I always had to surf the university homepage for Sookmyung webmail, but now the Smart Sookmyung application provides a simpler method of access.” Most student services have been modified to allow students easy access via the application.

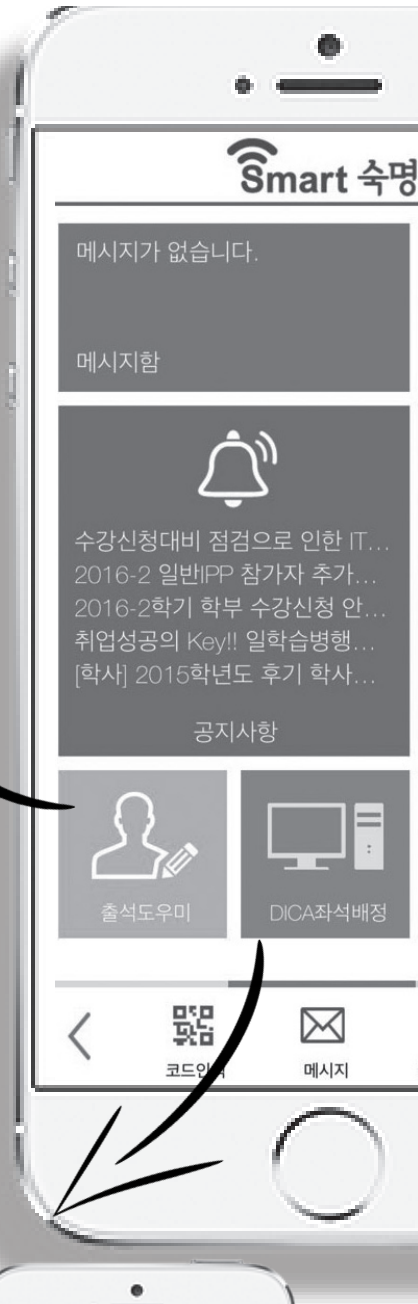
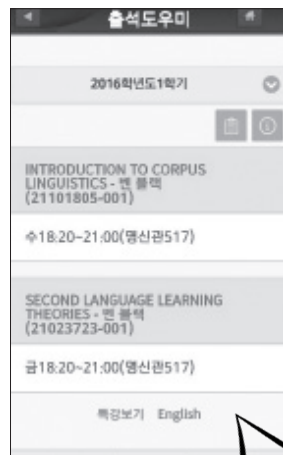


How can you use the *Smart Sookmyung* application more efficiently?

1. Students can check their attendance right away

As mentioned earlier, students can just select and bookmark whatever they need for their convenience. In the example pictured above, I have bookmarked the attendance section called 출석도우미.

There are QR codes and NFC readers on each student desk so that students can snap the code and mark their attendance in class directly from their seat. Students can also find out their attendance from the beginning of the semester through the application. They can check their absences and confirm that their attendance was taken correctly. Students had to use their plastic card in the past, but they no longer have to worry about that.



2. Students can reserve seats before entering the library

In the past, when students had to use the DICA, they always had to line up to reserve a seat in front of a small touch screen as shown in the picture. This touch screen is still available for those whose smart phone might have a dead battery or is lost. However, if you forget your password, you will need to check it on the webpage or renew it again which can be very inconvenient.

Students can now reserve their seats by using the application. They can also check whether seats are fully booked or not which is much more convenient since they can check seat availability as they wander about the library. Students no longer need to wait in long lines to reserve a DICA seat via the touch screen.



Not only can students reserve seats at the DICA Plaza, but they can also reserve seats in the basement library and 5th and 6th floors as well. During exam weeks, the 6th floor in particular tends to fill up very quickly. My experience has been that using the Smart Sookmyung app to check seat availability before going to the library is a real time saver.

열람실 좌석배정				
김건영				
열람실명	전체좌석	사용좌석	잔여좌석	이용률
A1 열람실	142	21	121	14%
A2 열람실	76	31	45	40%
A3 열람실	100	19	81	19%
A4 열람실	132	132	0	100%
S1 열람실	76	10	66	13%



3. Students can check out the menu at cafeterias

Through the Smart Sookmyung app, students can find out the hours of service and what's on each cafeteria's menu. Daily menus are available for all locations on campus (the school staff member's cafeteria in the Soonhyeon Building, Hu (휴) at the library, and Misochan in the Myungshin Building). This feature is especially convenient for busy students who want an easy way to decide where to eat.

4. Students can check the library website through the application

Students can just select and touch the application they have bookmarked. For me, before entering the library, I usually search for the book I want to find first. Checking the information through the application first saves time and energy. In addition, for group study, students usually reserve their room on the library webpage ahead of time. Now, students don't have to be sitting in front of a computer to reserve a study room.



In addition, students can also renew books, search for articles, and also check the library (main, law, music) hours. Library hours in particular have a tendency to change at the beginning of vacations and when starting a new semester.

New students should note that the library orientation schedule is also available through the Smart Sookmyung app. This orientation at the library helps student to search for the right articles quickly and accurately. Having these skills will be of tremendous help to incoming students.

5. Students can enter the library without their plastic student ID card

When I was just starting my first semester, I really wanted to visit the library but the school didn't provide our plastic ID cards until the second or third week. It was then that I figured how to enter the library by using the Smart Sookmyung Application instead of the plastic ID card.

First, download the application (you're now halfway done!). When you open the app, you will see the screen above with the icons and left/right arrows on the bottom. Just tap the right arrow and you will see a digital version of your student ID card. This is especially useful for first semester students who haven't received their ID card yet.

6. Download the Smart Sookmyung app

The Smart Sookmyung app is available for both Android and iOS (Apple iPhone) platforms. It is full of great features that will save you time and effort, and it all but eliminates the need to carry another ID card in your wallet. I encourage all students, especially those who are new to Sookmyung, to download Smart Sookmyung as soon as possible. You'll be glad you did.



HOW TO READ ACADEMIC PAPERS:

Sweet Tips for the First Semester Students

ROSEMERRY KIM

In 2015, the SMU certificate program welcomed me to take a step into the world of TESOL. It was inspiring and motivating since the things I learned there were not traditional. It was student centered. I regretted the way I had taught my students. The program led me to continue to study TESOL in graduate school. However, the program was quite different than I expected. It was more theoretical than practical. It was challenging rather than inspiring due to the unfamiliar text structure of journal articles, which consist of abstract, introduction, literature review, method, result, and reference sections. It forced me to spend the whole week to comprehend the content of all the articles but I was still always short of time during the first semester. Now, two semesters have passed and the time I have to spend on reading and comprehending all the articles has gradually shrunk. Modestly, let me share some tips about reading all the papers to save you time on your assignments.

*Remember that
what you think matters
most and
use everything
you are learning for
constructing
your own castle.*

Firstly, it is important to be aware of your own purpose before you read a thesis. Perhaps you will read a paper to improve your teaching skills or get some ideas for class activities. Or you could read papers and articles for your own research. However, I'm sure that most of the time you will just read in order to do your assignments or gather some information about a new theory or idea. Most of the papers have several sections in them; abstract, literature review, methods, results, discussion, conclusion and references. In the first semester, my biggest mistake was to try to understand every individual word, which was time and energy consuming. I had no choice because I was afraid that I might miss something important if I didn't read all the sentences. If I had used some reading strategies to read the papers with a clear purpose, I would have been less stressed out and I would have saved a huge amount of time. For example, for an assignment mostly about summarizing and constructing my own ideas regarding the

text, I don't actually have to look at the methods or literature review in detail. At first, read the abstract and then try to get what the paper is about. After reading the abstract, read the introduction, conclusion, and some parts of the method section. There is no need to try to find out the meaning of every word unless you are really interested in the content of the paper.

Second, apply some reading strategies like skimming, questioning, predicting, and so on. Doing an assignment shouldn't always be about comprehension only. We read the papers to improve our practical teaching skills and expand our understanding of English education. The knowledge you acquire shouldn't be just the knowledge itself. It should be helpful to harden your new and creative idea. Use the paper and articles as tools for your own good. To be honest, I usually use bottom-up reading strategies when I read something. So it takes a long time for me to read just one paper or a chapter of a book. It is hard to get the gist and it's easy to get off track because I detour for too long. If I had known some reading strategies and applied them, I would have saved more time. There are many tips and books regarding reading strategies. Try to learn some of them and then apply them to reading more efficiently.

Third, share your ideas and understanding with classmates and professors. Actually it could be challenging for you to talk about what you have read with your classmates simply because you might not have time for that. You may be so busy just completing every week's assignment. However, we can still find available time such as after class. Reading only the text can be tough. However, if we talk and share our ideas, it is like reading many books. And the text itself becomes realistic for practical use. What each of us understands is amazingly and slightly different. That is the beauty of discussion. It is a good chance to expand our perspectives. If you don't participate in the discussion or talk about the things that you have learned with classmates, you are missing something very important. Even though you think some ideas are silly, all the ideas coming from us matter and they are all valued. To expand your perspectives, please give your ears and thoughts to others. You will learn more knowledge than just reading the text and will shape your own teaching methodology.

Lastly, do not be overwhelmed by the text. No one is perfect. If you do not understand what you are

reading, don't blame yourself too much for that. You might not be the cause of the problem. The problem might be the author's competence to explain. What I mean is that "Don't be discouraged too much when you do not comprehend the text." What matters is that you explore other ideas and shape your own thoughts. I used to feel depressed when I didn't understand the content of a paper. Feeling blue actually affects the effectiveness of studying because it keeps us from stepping forward. It is okay not to understand everything. Ask questions in the middle of reading and find the answers as often as you can. Have an inner conversation with the author. If you don't get the answers, complain to the author. Be brave when you study. Your ideas are as important as the author's ideas. No! Yours are more crucial. Make a claim, ask "Why?" Then, you will have your own castle of ideas before you even notice it.

Good luck with your first semester! I guarantee you will have so much fun because you are going to meet awesome classmates and professors. Most of all, you will be pleased with what you learn. And you are not the only one who feels what you are learning is challenging. However, trust me, it makes you stronger. Remember that what you think matters most and use everything you are learning for constructing your own castle.

Firstly, it is important to be aware of your own purpose before you read a thesis.

Second, apply some reading strategies like skimming, questioning, predicting, and so on.

Third, share your ideas and understanding with classmates and professors.

Lastly, do not be overwhelmed by the text. No one is perfect.

WHERE STUDENTS CAN GO BEYOND THE LIBRARY

JEEHEEE KIM

What kind of places on campus do you know about? Do you only use your classrooms? In addition to the library, there are many other tranquil places where you can study, use a computer, work on your assignments, and chat with your classmates. The places I'd like to introduce here are not quite as quiet as the library, so it is better for those who like to study with a little background noise in a more casual and relaxing mood.

Starting with the Sunheon building, there are a couple of places where you can enjoy a cup of coffee or tea and work on your assignments: on the 4th floor and in the basement (B1). Both cafés sell bread and sandwiches that you can enjoy with coffee. The café in the basement has a brunch menu including items such as hamburgers, pasta, and salad, so you can have a good meal and study at the same time.

4th floor café



Basement brunch café





Benches near Myungshin PC Labs

Another building we use the most for a class is the Myungshin building. It has many facilities that we can use, such as computer labs, a cafeteria, and nice lounges. First of all, when you want to feel nice breeze and the air in fall, you can sit on a bench outside of the building and chill out. Especially, if you have a class such as CALL in a computer lab, this place can be the best place to rest and have a snack before the class. It is very close to the computer labs. The Myungshin building also has several PC labs for students. Instead of carrying your own laptop, you can go to one of the PC labs and work with a desktop computers. Also, on the other side of Myungshin building, the one closer to Sunheon building has a nice lounge on the first floor in front of the elevators called Myungshin lounge. Amenities here include printers, couches, and tables.



Computer lab in Myungshin building

A building many of you might have passed aside but not noticed is the Haeng Jeong Gwan: administration building. As soon as you arrive at the campus, you can see two buildings first: one with a café named ‘Blueberry’ on your right; the other one with stairs. The one with stairs is called ‘Haeng Jeong Gwan’, and this building is connected to the Myungshin building. On the way to Myungshin building, there is a big space which is popular among students as a group work zone. It has many long tables, chairs, and power outlets, so this is highly recommendable as a place for group discussions and working with a laptop.



Lounge in Myungshin building



Haeng Jeong Gwan lounge

Lounges and cafés on the first campus where we have classes have been introduced in this article. There are similar places on the other campus as well. If you are one of those students who prefer studying in more casual and relaxing places to the quiet library, I recommend you walk around the campus and find good spots for you. Sookmyung has many seated areas outside with shade and lounges for students. When you have assignments and want to enjoy some beautiful weather and fresh air in a less stressful atmosphere, you may want to try some of the seating arrangements close by the trees and nature. However, if you want to study with a cup of coffee and snacks, the cafés in the Sunheon building could be good places for you. Lounges can be pleasant for those who wish to stay inside but study in casual places. Fall, the season of reading, is fast approaching, so why don't you read a book in one of these places? I hope one of these places helps you feel relaxed and happy when studying.

TEACHING PHILOSOPHY:

Principles to Guide Your Teaching in Practice

YOONJUNG LIM

As a student in MA TESOL, you may have heard of ‘teaching philosophy’ once or twice. I remember when I first heard of it. One year ago, I was in a Methodology class in the SMU certificate program. Teaching philosophy was introduced as one of the factors affecting one’s teaching and methodology. When asked to think about my own philosophy of teaching, I found myself speechless. There were many thoughts and beliefs regarding teaching inside of my head but they were scattered and not organized. I tried to take some time to sort out the thoughts and think deeply about what my teaching philosophy was but a year in the MA TESOL program has been tougher than I thought and I couldn’t find time to do that. Now, as a student preparing for a thesis, I feel that this is the right time to organize my thoughts and develop my own teaching philosophy. Before taking the plunge, I decided to seek advice on the matter. On one rainy afternoon, Rosemerry and I sat down with Dr. Rozells, one of our wonderful professors in the MA TESOL program and had a talk about what teaching philosophy is and how it affects teachers and their teaching in practice.

INTERVIEW WITH DR. ROZELLS

1. *Before talking about teaching philosophy, could you share your own definition of teaching philosophy? What do you think Teaching Philosophy mean to teachers and students?*

Your teaching philosophy is basically your own conception of what teaching is. It includes your conception of learning, students, English, what English teaching is and what your goals are for your students. Your teaching philosophy guides your practice and how you teach in class. This is why teachers need to be aware of their own teaching philosophy. Otherwise, we are not guided by principles in our teaching practice.

“Articulating an individual teaching philosophy provides the foundation by which to clarify goals, to guide behavior, to seed scholarly dialogue on teaching, and to organize evaluation.”
- Goodyear & Allchin, 1998, p.103.

2. *As far as I know, practicum students have to write a statement of teaching philosophy. Could you tell us more about what the practicum students do regarding teaching philosophy?*

Yes, this is something we do in the practicum. It is very important for teachers to be aware of their own teaching philosophy in order to be principled and consistent and deliver what they actually want to deliver. For example, teachers may think that an important aspect of their teaching philosophy is learner-centeredness. But they might be talking and lecturing during class all the time. So it is good for teachers to have an awareness of their own teaching philosophy. Another very important thing is reflection on your own practice. Am I actually teaching according to my teaching philosophy? Do I actually carry out what I believe in? This is what we do in the practicum class. We ask practicum students to reflect about what their own teaching philosophy is. We also ask them to

reflect about their own teaching in practice. Every week they write a reflection about 1) how their teaching went, 2) things that went well or didn't go well, 3) why they went well or didn't go well, and 4) what they could do better next time. This is part of what is known as 'reflective practice', which is very important for teachers to commit themselves to.

3. I understand that in the practicum course, the MA students have the option of teaching an undergraduate course at Sookmyung. Do the MA students in the practicum get feedback on their teaching from the undergraduate students?

The practicum students, when they do their action research study, may include some survey where they ask students about this. They might ask students questions such as 'what did you think of this particular method of teaching or intervention?' It is good to know your student's views as well. Part of being a reflective teacher is listening to and observing your students and how they react to your teaching. This helps us to reflect on our own teaching.

4. It seems that not only teaching philosophy affects students, but also one's experiences as a student affects one's teaching philosophy.

Yes, it could be both ways. Think about how someone's teaching philosophy is shaped. It could be shaped from their experiences as a learner. Sometimes, when we were in school, when we had really good teachers, and we could have been inspired to be like them. So they may have influenced our view of what a good teacher should be like. At the same time, we had teachers who we didn't want to be like. These also influence our views of how we want to be as teachers. So it is based on experiences, on one's past experiences as a learner, on one's present experiences of teaching or even on one's current experiences as a learner. One's teaching philosophy is not always fixed. It evolves. It develops over time as we experience new things and try out new things in our classroom or as we learn new theories as the part of the MA course. All of these guide our practice. Well, it should. You should try and see how you can apply these things you're learning in the MA program to your classroom teaching and your experiences of how they work or don't work can further shape your teaching philosophy. Your own views about the world and your own personality can also shape your teaching philosophy. For example, if someone is extroverted or loves drama, maybe they will reflect that in their teaching in class whereas someone who is more shy and introverted may not reflect that kind of teaching. All these things affect your teaching philosophy. And again, it can change and develop. Hopefully it grows over time.

“Through professional and personal growth, what is expressed in the statement likely evolves and changes throughout one's career.”
- Goodyear & Allchin, 1998, p.107.

5. Another big issue revolving around teaching philosophy is a teaching philosophy statement. When I googled teaching philosophy I found most of the things and links were related to writing a teaching philosophy statement. Is it just a statement of teaching philosophy or is there more to it than that?

A statement of teaching philosophy is basically a short discourse about what your teaching philosophy is. So it is an external manifestation of what your thoughts about teaching are. The way I see it, it is good for teachers to verbalize and think about their own teaching philosophy. Rather than just having it inside your head, writing it out actually makes your thoughts clear and helps organize them. It also stimulates you to think and develop your thoughts and your teaching philosophy. So it is always good to have a written statement of your teaching philosophy.

“The statement of teaching philosophy is the expression of desired performance in light of the contextual reality...A statement of teaching philosophy includes specifics to support the professor's holistic view of his or her teaching. ... Overall, a statement of teaching philosophy should provide a personal portrait of the writer's view of teaching.”
- Goodyear & Allchin, 1998, p.110.

6. I found some examples of teaching philosophy statements online. It seems like there are certain formats to follow and components to include.

As I mentioned, your teaching philosophy is your conception of what teaching is all about; English teaching, learning, learners, what good teaching is, what your goals for your students and your own personal goals are, what kinds of theories and theoretical frameworks you draw from and subscribe to in your practice. All these things make up your teaching philosophy statement but these are just one aspect. Another very important component of your teaching philosophy statements is how you concretely carry out your beliefs in practice. For each belief and principle that you have, your teaching philosophy statement ought to reflect how you actually carry that out in practice. For example, if you believe in learner-centeredness, then you need to explain how you actually practice learner-centeredness in your class. Do you make the effort to respond well to your students' questions? Are you flexible in the content you are delivering so as to address the concerns of your students? Do you allow your students to raise questions - or are you the one talking almost all the time? All these are possible ways that show how you practice your particular beliefs in your class. In short, give concrete examples of how you carry out your teaching philosophy in class. Those are the two main things you need to have in your teaching philosophy statement - your beliefs and how you carry them out in practice.

7. It sounds like writing a teaching philosophy is not an easy thing to do. If I were to write one right now, I simply wouldn't know where to begin. What do you think is the first step of writing a teaching philosophy statement? Would it be helpful to jot down all my thoughts on paper?

Well, the first thing to do is to reflect on your own practice and, as you say, jot down your thoughts and think about it over time. It might take some time. It is always good to go back to your teaching philosophy every now and then and see if you've changed, how you've changed and how you can develop further as a teacher. At times, you could also find that you are not practicing what you believe in. Then, you go back to your teaching philosophy statement and remind yourself. That is why it is good to go back to your teaching philosophy statement from time to time even though you've already done it one year ago or three years ago. Go back and see how you've changed or how you've lived up to your teaching philosophy.

“Reviewing and revising former statements of teaching philosophy can help teachers reflect on their growth and renew their dedication to the goals and values they hold.”
- Chism, 1998, p.1

8. Could you share one or some of the beliefs you have and give an example of how it affects your teaching in class?

I strongly believe in learner-centeredness, scaffolding and having students help each other. And I also believe that collaboration is important in class. I like students helping each other and the atmosphere of collaboration in class and this is why I do a lot of group work and discussions in class.

Suggested Reading and References

Chism, N. V. N. (1998). Developing a philosophy of teaching statement. *Essays on Teaching Excellence*, 9(3), 1-2.

Coppola, B. P. (2002). Writing a statement of teaching philosophy. *Journal of College Science Teaching*, 31(7), 448-453.

Goodyear, G. E., & Allchin, D. (1998). Statements of teaching philosophy. In M. Kaplan (Ed.), *To Improve the Academy*, Vol. 17 (pp. 103-122). Stillwater, OK: New Forums Press and the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education. Key Words: self-evaluation, faculty development, portfolios, values.

Schönwetter, D. J., Sokal, L., Friesen, M., & Taylor, K. L. (2002). Teaching philosophies reconsidered: A conceptual model for the development and evaluation of teaching philosophy statements. *International Journal for Academic Development*, 7(1), 83-97.

THE DUAL DEGREE PROGRAM EXPLAINED

STEPHEN P. VAN VLACK

1. Introduction

It should be old news to everybody involved in the program that we have established a dual degree program with the University of Hawai‘i at Mānoa. Indeed it took a very long time for this agreement to be arranged and we are glad that it has come into effect. The spirit of the agreement creates a bond between our two programs and two universities and that is a good thing. It also provides opportunities for our Sookmyung TESOL MA students to study at and get a degree from a big state university in the US with a truly great program. But getting the dual degree is a rather complicated and expensive option that needs to be undertaken carefully to get through all the requirements as quickly as possible. The purpose of this little write up, therefore, is to try to help explain some of the intricacies of the agreement and provide some advice on how best to prepare and undertake the dual degree option with Hawai‘i at Mānoa.

2. The Actual Agreement

Below is the actual agreement in its entirety. Although it is not a lengthy agreement, topping out at just one page, there is a lot of information packed in it. In what follows I will go through the agreement point-by-point explaining each of the major the points and providing advice and commentary on them. We will start from the top of the agreement and move down.

Amended Agreement to Establish a Dual Master’s Degree Program

between the

Sookmyung Women’s University

Graduate School of TESOL

and the

University of Hawai‘i at Mānoa

Department of Second Language Studies

In the interest of academic excellence and international cooperation, the Department of Second Language Studies at the University of Hawai‘i at Mānoa (UHM) and the Graduate School of TESOL at Sookmyung Women’s University (SMU) hereby establish a dual master’s degree program. This initiative is originally designed for graduate students originating at SMU but could subsequently be revised to include students originating at UH Mānoa.

A. In order to participate in the program and receive a master's degree in Second Language Studies from UH Mānoa and a master's degree in TESOL from SMU, a SMU graduate student will have to:

- Apply for admission to the dual degree program and be accepted by faculty at both institutions.
- Complete at least eighteen (18) credit hours at SMU that deal significantly with language teaching and learning. One course should be the equivalent of SLS 441 Language Concepts in Second Language Learning and Teaching.
- Complete SMU's graduation requirements:
 - Plan 1) Thesis writing: Completing a research base thesis and subject to approval by the thesis defense committee. Or,
 - Plan 2) Practicum: Teaching in a real classroom at least 3 hours a week and taking 6 hour lessons a week for teaching reflection. Passing the comprehensive examination & submitting a portfolio.
- Complete at least twenty-seven (27) credit hours at UH Mānoa, including four required core courses, SLS 441, 600, 650, and 660 (twelve credits), one 700-level seminar (three credits), two elective courses (six credits), either in Second Language Studies or an allied field, subject to approval by the graduate chair, and six (6) credits of directed research (SLS 699). The required core courses could be waived if their equivalents are taken at SMU and approved by SLS faculty. Elective courses at UH Mānoa will be substituted for any required courses that are waived.
- If SMU students pass the SLS 441 equivalency examination administered by the SLS Department, it will exempt them from the required core course SLS 441 Language Concepts in Second Language Learning and Teaching. In such cases, an additional three-credit elective course or SLS 699 must be taken in lieu of SLS 441. Students will be given study materials for the examination in advance.
- Complete six (6) credits of directed research (SLS 699). The focus of SLS 699 will be the completion of the Scholarly Paper requirement, done under the supervision of a SLS faculty member. The Scholarly Paper will be evaluated by the supervising SLS faculty member and a SMU faculty member.

Upon completion of the requirements listed above, the student will be eligible to receive an MA in Second Language Studies from UHM. It will be a 36 credit degree: nine (9) credits transferred from SMU; and 27 UHM credits. Additional provisions concerning admissions and advising will be worked out at the departmental level. Students will receive both the UH Mānoa degree and the SMU degree upon completion of SMU's academic and graduation requirements.

B. In order to facilitate student participation in the dual degree program, UHM agrees to facilitate obtaining reserved space in student housing, charged at the regular rates, for two semesters.

This agreement is an amendment to the 2012 agreement. Nothing in this amended agreement alters existing agreements between UH Mānoa and SMU, including the student exchange program, nor does it preclude the development of future areas of cooperation, such as faculty exchange. It should be reviewed in Fall 2016 and terminated December 31, 2016, if there is no participation. This agreement goes into effect at the start of the 2014 fall semester.

2.1 Admissions

As the agreement stipulates, Sookmyung TESOL MA (SMU) students interested in either the dual degree or the exchange program with the University of Hawai'i at Mānoa (UH) need to apply directly and on their own. SMU is not officially involved in the application process. Interested students need to contact UH about application deadlines and procedures. As with most US universities requirements include exam scores including the GRE. This means that candidates will need to plan ahead and plan early. Really to be on time with everything it is important that people, upon entering SMU, have already started thinking about this and even preparing. Remember that applying for a US university takes time.

Here are some important UH websites that can be helpful in providing information.



UHM Department of Second Language Studies
(<http://www.hawaii.edu/sls/>)

Department of Second Language Studies

Navigation: About, People, Undergraduate, Graduate, Courses, Research, News & Events, Alumni, Contact

RESOURCES AT UH-MĀNOA | COE POST-BA CERTIFICATE | ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE (ELI) | HAWAII ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROGRAM (HELP)

About

Wahalea Oona 'Olelo Ika

MA in SLS (<http://www.hawaii.edu/sls/graduate/ma/>)

Master of Arts

MA in SLS Program

The MA Program in SLS at the University of Hawai'i has been in existence since 1961. The Department of Second Language Studies is the first and one of the largest such departments at an American university. The Department has attained top-ranked international recognition due to the diverse expertise and professional activities of its faculty, the ...

[View page »](#)

MA Admissions
(<http://www.hawaii.edu/sls/graduate/ma/ma-admissions/>)

MA Admissions

Overview of Admissions Requirements – Master of Arts in Second Language Studies

Applicants need to apply for admittance to both (1) the University of Hawai'i at Mānoa Office of Graduate Education (UHM Graduate Education) and (2) the Department of Second Language Studies.

Please use the [checklist](#) provided at the bottom of this page to verify that you have submitted the required documents to the correct units. If the due date falls on a weekend or a holiday, then the next working day is the due date.

	Fall Admissions Due Date	Spring Admissions Due Date
UHM Graduate	Online applications open September 1	Online applications open May 1

2.2 Course Requirements

2.2.1 From SMU

Before going to UH the SMU student needs to have completed at least 18 credits at SMU. Since we take/award 6 credits per semester that means that people will/should go to UH after the completion of their 3rd semester at SMU. This means that one needs to plan ahead and make sure they have been admitted and are ready to go at the end of their 3rd semester at SMU.

This seems simple but there are a couple of conditions that students need to be aware of. The student is not required but will find things easier if they have taken the Second Language Learning Theories class here at SMU. This course is required from UH. Students who have not taken this course can

either take it at UH or they can take an exam and try to test out of it. So, there are options available but the easiest path is to take the Second Language Learning Theories course here before going to UH. Another condition relates to credits from the certificate programs. If the interested student has taken an MA accepted certificate program and transferred credits to the MA from the certificate those credits may not be accepted by UH. This is a bit of a tricky situation because UH does not accept credit from pass/fail courses. Although the certificate program courses are not taken as pass/fail and SMU only accepts credit for courses for which the student has received a B+ or above the courses are still listed as pass/fail on the SMU transcripts. So, anyone who has transferred credit from one of the certificate programs needs to be aware of the potential problems they might encounter in getting all their credit recognized by UH.

One last issue is of the graduation requirement for SMU. Because the dual degree takes a total of 6 semesters, those who participate in this dual degree program cannot do the Practicum. This is an issue related to the way SMU does its accounting as well the requirements from UH. Anyone doing the dual degree will need to follow the basic schedule for writing the thesis. This includes writing the proposal and positing it into the portal system during the stipulated dates.

2.2.2 For UH

From UH, the student must take a total of at least 27 credits. This includes 6 credits of Directed Research (SIS 699), which can be completed once the student has returned to SMU. Other details are stipulated clearly in the agreement, but anyone planning on going to UH should contact a UH professor to determine exactly which courses need to be taken. Unlike the program at SMU, UH has both required and elective courses and also courses at different stipulated levels. Students should be aware of these differences.

Under normal circumstances the course requirements mean that the student will need to spend two semesters at UH. This time there does not include the 6 credit hours of Directed Research. These credits can be done while back in Seoul. Essentially the writing of the thesis is considered by UH as the Directed Research. So, the student will be getting credit from both SMU and UH for their final semester thesis writing. They will also have two professors, one from each university advising and helping through the research and thesis writing process. The final product of this effort needs to be approved by both universities.

2.3 Finances

The dual degree is an expensive endeavor. The two universities have different systems for payment. For SMU, in theory the student needs to register and pay for 5 full semesters. Since the dual degree takes a total of 6 semesters the student is not required to pay tuition in the final thesis semester. For UH, the student needs to pay for 2 full-time semesters while they are studying there. In addition they also need to pay for 1 part-time semester. The part-time semester is for the 6 credits of Directed Research. In recognition of the financial burden of paying tuition to 2 schools simultaneously, SMU is prepared to offer scholarships in the form of full or partial tuition waivers while the student is away at UH. This special scholarship is not guaranteed and is awarded based on prevailing conditions such as the number of applicants and time spent away at UH.

3. Conclusion

The dual degree with UH provides a unique opportunity for students in the Sookmyung TESOL MA program to enhance their experience and knowledge as a TESOL student and practitioner. It is not an easy proposition in many respects but if properly planned and executed this dual degree provides a chance to really do something special that you can take with you everywhere you go in the world.

FINAL PAPERS

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- 34** : Implementing Reciprocal Teaching in Practice: A Review of Intervention Studies
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Exploring the Phonological Connections between Korean and English in Bilinguals

Yejin Kim

Introduction to Corpus Linguistics

Abstract

The study seeks phonological links between Korean and English in bilinguals through word association tests. Both spoken and written modes of word association tests were given in English to university students with high level of proficiency. The results showed that there is no strong phonological links between Korean and English. Moreover, participants have stronger graphemic representation than phonological representation in English. It is suggested that this is the results of a lack of production and exposure to English, which mirror rote memorization of English grapheme form.

1. Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the phonological connections between Korean and English in bilinguals.

Vocabulary is a crucial component of language. L2 learners may often feel that English words are difficult to learn and easy to forget. As such, how to effectively teach English vocabulary in classrooms is an essential point for English teachers. The goal of vocabulary teaching is to build up students' mental lexicon by making connections between lexical items. The mental lexicon is a complex structure organized in terms of phonology, semantics and syntax, among other levels (He & Deng, 2015). The mental lexicon is accessed in every act of linguistic communication. We need to find the word that denotes the meaning we want to express, or the meaning of a word we hear or read.

Meara (2009) argued that the L2 lexicon might change to be more like the L1 lexicon as learners become more proficient. Therefore, building connections linked to the target language would be the key because the lack of connections slows down the process of accessing the information they need within the mental lexicon.

The representations of the lexicon have to be stored in the brain in such a way that there are connections between the different aspects of a single word as well as over whole categories of words; words and the

relationships between them need to allow people to communicate concepts and their relationships. This indicates that the lexicon is content-addressable at every level, allowing us to access words in terms of syntactic category, phonological characteristics, and meaning among others (He & Deng, 2015).

Language processing concentrates on the role of phonology because of its critical role in mapping sound information onto higher levels of language processing (e.g., words) as well as providing codes in which verbal information can be temporarily stored in working memory. Phonological processing in spoken language is used to map the acoustic signal onto more abstract representations of sound such as features and phonemes (Burton, 2001). However, if knowledge of both languages is activated simultaneously in the mental lexicon, then there is the possibility that they will interfere with one another and slow down the processing (Jared & Kroll, 2001). Therefore, the following research questions are investigated in the paper: 1) Are there any phonological links between Korean and English in bilinguals? 2) What do these results tell us about the strengths of any English phonological connections?

The current study will be presented as follows. Firstly, the paper will review the relevant theory and studies related to phonological processing and representation. Secondly, the present study will describe the research methodology including participants, data collection, and data analysis. Third, results will

be explained and finally, at the end of the paper, the discussion of the study followed by conclusion and limitations will be presented.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Phonological Processing

Phonological processing refers to the use of phonological information (i.e., the sounds of one's language) in processing written and oral language (Wagner & Torgesen, 1987). In other words, phonological processing is the ability to see or hear a word, break it down to discrete sounds, and then associate each sound with letters that make up the word. The phonological processing system's main role is to analyze and manipulate the sound structures of words.

Brady (1991) discusses these cognitive operations as three classes of abilities that draw on phonological representation. These operations include phonological awareness (parsing of a continuous speech signal into discrete abstract individual phonological segments, or phonemes), phonological recoding in lexical access, and encoding items in phonological working memory (Wagner & Torgesen, 1987).

Phonological awareness is the awareness of and access to the sound system of one's language. Phonological recoding in lexical access refers to recoding a written word into a sound based system to retrieve the lexical referent of that written word, and it is typically assessed by tasks of rapid automatized naming of objects, colors, numbers, and other kinds of stimuli (Wagner & Torgesen, 1987). Verbal working memory refers to brief verbatim retention of verbal items.

2.1.1 Phonological Awareness

Phonological awareness refers to an individual's awareness of and access to the sound structure of oral language (Mattingly, 1972; as cited in Bentin, 1992). That is, this is the mental sorting process of recognizing groups of sounds and understanding their meanings. Phonological awareness is developed by recognizing the letters and the sounds they make when spoken. Then, they are all put together in speaking and reading. Good phonological awareness skills enable learners to read, write, and spell easier. Children and adults who are strong readers and good spellers also tend to be strong in phonological awareness (Walton & Walton, 2002).

2.1.2 Phonological recoding in lexical access

Phonological recoding is a necessary component to understanding symbolic imagery. Phonological recoding in lexical access refers to getting from a written word to its lexical referent by recoding the written symbols into a sound-based representational system (Wagner & Torgesen, 1987). That is, processing of information is related to phonological access in lexical memory. It may be specifically related to access of phonological information or related to the links between phonological and orthographic processing. This construct is associated with speed of lexical access, or naming speed or including a broader construct involving speed of access to information in any form (Chiappe, Stringer, Siegel, & Stanovich, 2002).

2.1.3. Verbal Working Memory

Verbal working memory refers to coding information phonologically for temporary storage in working or short-term memory. Phonological processing in verbal working memory involves holding information in working memory for later synthesis into sentences or into words (Baddeley, Lewis, & Vallar, 1984). It has been theorized that phonological information, such as sound units, is retained in working memory by continuous repetition through an articulatory loop (Baddeley, 1979). Both naming speed and working memory are considered implicit phonological processes because they are cognitive processes that unconsciously involve speech codes (Gombert, 1992).

2.2 Representation

2.2.1 A Phonological Representation

The term phonological derives from the Greek word *phone*, which means voice or sound. At the most basic level, a spoken word such as *cat* is represented by varying waves of acoustic energy (Crowder & Wagner, 1991). The term phonological representation describes the underlying sound structure of specific words stored in long-term memory and it allows accurate recognition across different speakers and acoustic contexts, accurate production and, the development of orthographic connections. (Locke, 1983).

Conceptually, the information contained in a phonological representation includes a word's acoustic structure consisting of phonemic and phonetic-level details. During the perception of the word, the

incoming auditory and visual information is matched with information contained in the phonological representation which enables access to the word's semantic representation (Sutherland & Gillon, 2005).

Children's phonological representations may contain only general acoustic information with some notable phonetic characteristics that help to differentiate words from other words (Walley, 1993). Therefore, a well-developed phonological representation is thought to contain auditory information such as speech sound and visual information such as lip movements in shaping the word that enables it to be perceived and then differentiated from other words (Stackhouse & Wells, 1997).

2.2.2 A Graphemic Representation

Adequate orthographic processing skills, which include the ability to form, store, and access complete orthographic representations of written words in memory play a crucial role in the development of proficient sight word recognition and reading decoding skills, which are necessary in the development of reading and spelling. According to Wolter and Apel (2010), a graphemic representation can be a clear and complete image of a written word that contains all graphemes of the word in the appropriate order (e.g., cat) or, it may be an inaccurate or less complete image, containing only some of the graphemes for a word (e.g. Mediteranen for Mediterranean). When we read, individuals can take advantage of a direct sight word route using clearly stored graphemic representations to quickly access a word's meaning. Writing a word also can be automatic with little thinking about the word's spelling because of a well learned and successfully retrieved graphemic representations.

In a nutshell, the representation of words in the mind is central importance for understanding how languages are used and how they are acquired.

3. Research Methodology

The research design of the study will be presented in this section. The aim of the study is to explore the phonological links between Korean and English in bilinguals. Firstly, the participants will be described. Next, data collection will be explained. Then, data analysis will be addressed.

3.1 Participants

A total of 29 students at a women's university in Seoul, South Korea participated in the study. Of the 29 participants, 22 participants major in TESL, four

participants major in English Language & Literature, and three students major in other subjects. They all took a course taught in English and all participants were women because the study was conducted at a women's university. Thus, the gender factor is controlled for the current study. Student ages ranged from 19 to 22, so the average age of participants is 20.5. Their proficiency in English ranged from intermediate-mid to advanced-mid on the AFTFL scale. The participants attend the class twice a week. The participants spent 75 minutes on their teaching pronunciation class in the afternoon. A total of 28 participants took a spoken mode test. Of the 28 participants, four participants did not fully complete the test. A total of 29 students fully completed a written mode test. However, a total of 23 students completed both spoken and written mode tests.

3.2. Data Collection

The main tool used was the Word Association Test. The word association test was first developed by Francis Falton and later refined by Wilhelm Wundt (Stevens, 1994). It was initially used as a psychological tool to study the subconscious mind, and more recently used by psycholinguists to explore the mental lexicon. There are different variations of word association tests but the underlying principle remains the same: stimulus words are presented to the subject either verbally or in written form. The resulting word association is thought to mirror the way the words are stored and linked in the mental lexicon.

In this study, the participants took both spoken and written mode tests on different dates. Participants took the spoken mode test on Thursday, 14th April, 2016 and the written mode test on Thursday, 2nd June, 2016.

In the spoken mode test, 9 different words were selected for study which have similar phonological structure between Korean and English, 2 different loan words were selected to see how the participant react to those words differently, and 9 different distractor words were selected in order to make the students not notice what the study was looking for. In the written mode test, the same words were selected for study which has similar phonological structure between Korean and English and 2 different loan words as in the spoken test, but different distractor words were used in the written test. The directions in both spoken and written tests were written in both Korean and English in order to awaken their connections between Korean and English. Therefore, the directions in both languages were provided to create a language neutral situation.

The stimulus words	Korean Homophones
Harmony [hɑ:rməni]	할머니 [grandmother]
Pool [pu:l]	풀 [glue], [grass]
Leaf [li:f]	잎, 입 [leaf], [mouth]
Sap [sæp]	삽 [shovel]
Germany [dʒɜ:rməni]	젊은이 [young people]
Meeting [mi:tɪŋ]	미팅 [meeting]
Mock [mɑ:k]	목 [neck]
Coffee [kɔ:fi; kɑ:-]	커피 [coffee]
Gym [dʒɪm]	짐, 찜 [load] [steamed dish]
Toe [toʊ]	토, 토요일 [Vomiting] [Saturday]
Noon [nu:n]	눈 [snow], [eyes]

Table 1. Items Used for the stimulus words on WATs

In the spoken mode test, participants were asked to write words that popped into their heads after they heard a word twice. Each word was recorded by a male and a female voice and the speaking order was switched alternatively because males and females are very different, so women typically find it easier to understand female voices. Participants had 30 seconds to respond to each word and they provided as many responses as possible within 30 seconds. In written mode test, participants were asked to write all words that popped into their heads when they read the word. They were given 30 seconds to respond to each word and 10 minutes in total to complete the test.

3.3 Data Analysis

In answering research question 1, data on spoken WATs was analyzed first. The responses to the stimulus words on the word association tests were put into one of the seven categories. In this study, syntagmatic, paradigmatic, schematic, clang, Korean homophones, others, and no response were used.

Syntagmatic associations are words that frequently occur together. Therefore, an obvious approach to extract them from corpora is to look for word pairs whose co-occurrence is significantly more frequent than chance. Paradigmatic associations are words with high semantic similarity. For example, the semantic similarity of the words red and blue can be derived from the fact that they both frequently co-occur with words like color, flower, dress, car, dark,

bright, beautiful, and so forth (Rapp, 2002). Schematic associations refer to connections among concepts where the linkages are determined by social experience. Clang associations are related to the stimulus when it comes to form, but not meaning (Schmitt, 2000). Responses which rhyme with the stimulus, have the identical first sound and/or comparable structure of a consonant group can be examples of clang association. Associations that were phonologically similar words between Korean and English were measured for occurrence of words with the same sounds as the prompt at the beginning or end, and clang responses. Finally, associations that were not interpretable were categorized as other.

4. Results

4.1 Research Question 1

The research question is to investigate the phonological links between Korean and English in Korean-English bilinguals.

Table 2 shows the results of the spoken WATs. Results from the spoken word association test shows that there is no strong phonological connection between English and Korean. Table 2 shows the results of the spoken word association response stimulus words. Overall, clang responses show that participants do not have strong phonological links between Korean and English.

Syntagmatic	30.50%
Paradigmatic	18.60%
Schematic	15.90%
Clang	19.50%
Korean Homophones	4.00%
Other	4.00%
No response	7.50%

Table 2. Results of Spoken WATs

The stimulus words	Clang	No response
Pool [pu:l]	13	
Sap [sæp]	11	11
Mock [ma:k]	10	6

Table 3. Word Association Responses on Three Major Words participants did not perceive.

Table 3 shows how participants reacted to the three major words that they did not perceive. The three major words are pool, sap, and mock. 13 participants did not perceive the word pool and thus they tended to make clangs such as fool, poor, pull. For sap, 11 participants made clangs such as set, sat, sab, etc., but 11 participants did not write anything in response to the word. For the word mock, 10 participants created clang with much, muk, mug, monk, etc., but six participants did not respond to the word. These results show that participants tended to make clangs with unfamiliar words or words that they did not understand. Moreover, they did not write any Korean homophones in response to those words even if they did not perceive the words. Therefore, the results show that there is no strong phonological links between English and Korea.

4.2 Research Question 2

The second research question is to examine strengths of English phonological connection.

	Spoken	Written
Syntagmatic	30.50%	41.00%
Paradigmatic	18.60%	18.61%
Schematic	15.90%	24.09%
Clang	19.50%	6.95%
Korean Homophones	4.00%	2.04%
No response	7.50%	3.45%
Other	4.00%	3.86%

Table 4. Overall Results of WATs

Table 4 above shows the results of WATs according to mode types. Overall, syntagmatic responses were the most common responses on both spoken and written tests. Also, both types of WATs showed a least percentage of Korean homophones words responses. Overall, both spoken and written mode word association tests, the results show that participants have stronger graphemic representation than phonological representation.

The stimulus words	Spoken Mode Test		Written Mode Test	
	Clang	No response	Clang	No response
Pool [pu:l]	13		1	-
Sap [sæp]	11	11	12	4
Mock [ma:k]	10	6	4	3

Table 5. Comparison of Responses on Three Major Words participants did not perceive on Spoken Word Association Responses.

Table 5 shows how participants reacted to the three major words on the written mode test that they did not perceive on the spoken mode test. Compared to the spoken mode test, the written mode test shows a remarkable decrease in the number of clangs and no responses on the three major words they did not perceive on the spoken mode test. Therefore, overall results indicate that bilingual participants have strong graphemic representation.

Additionally, participants were given 30 seconds to respond to each stimulus on both the spoken and the written mode tests, but the time it took the participants to respond to the written mode test was much shorter than the spoken mode test. Moreover, the participants produce more responses on the written mode test than the spoken mode test within the limited time.

5. Discussion

5.1 Research Question 1

The main goal of the study was to investigate the phonological connection between English and Korean in bilinguals. In answering research question 1, the results from the spoken word association test indicate that there is no strong phonological links between English and Korean. Therefore, the results suggest that participants' phonological representations of L2 are influenced by their L2 phonological structures, not L1 phonological structure. The findings are in line with the speech learning model's (Flege, 1995) hypothesis that learner's phonological structures will be initially based on their L1, but with exposure to L2, their phonological representation in L1 may evolve to incorporate L2 phonological characteristics.

Moreover, general phonological links relating to words with similar beginning and or endings, and clang responses e.g. poor and pull for pool were frequent. Most examples of the bathtub effect where linked words have common beginnings and ends (Aitchison, 2012) such as mock and mug, have consonants or consonant cluster beginnings. Overlapping phonological and L1 influence were also present in this study on the word pool. For example, some participants wrote down full or fool for pool. It indicates that speech pattern where interlanguage is influenced by native language was fossilized because Korean does not distinguish between the sounds /p/ and /f/.

5.2 Research Question 2

In answering research question 2, different modes seem to have an effect on the type of responses. Older

learners make fewer clang associations (Namei, 2004 & Schmitt, 2000), but participants in this study made a lot of clang associations on the spoken mode test even though their proficiency level is high. Moreover, this result suggests that non-native speakers' auditory word recognition is more difficult in the second language than in the first language (Bradlow & Bent, 2002). Also, this result shows that lexical frequency may have an impact on the phonological system because repeated exposure to examples of the target word leads to a better specified mental representation of the phonological information in the word (Menn, Schmidt, & Nicholas, 2013). Alternatively, learners may become more accurate in their recognition of particular words as they gain experience.

The results show a high number of schematic associations. Especially, there are many schematic associations on the loan word meeting. For example, meeting-alcohol-college, were derived from regularized experiences and cultural differences encountered and coded in Korean. Hence, loan words such as meeting could code in their mental lexicon. In other words, this type of loan word could be linked to Korean long-term memory. There are many reflected personal experiences such as Germany-my friend-Professor van Vlack. This is a description of events stored together in episodic memory and coded in Korean as they were experienced in Korean (van Vlack, 2013). The presence of these schematic associations at a high rate offers evidence that much of the associations were found on the written mode test.

For overall paradigmatic responses, the presence of paradigmatic associations on both the spoken and the written mode tests at not very high level in this study indicates that the participants may have difficulties in manipulating language although their fluency is very high. Schmitt (2000) suggests that native speakers seem to go from responding syntagmatically to giving more paradigmatic responses as their language develops. Second language learners appeared to initially respond syntagmatically and as they are more exposed to the target language and/or their knowledge of English progressed they gave more and more paradigmatic association. In other words, deeper linguistic experience is required for paradigmatic responses. Therefore, this may be a product of their language learning experience and learning vocabulary. Imai, Walley, and Flege (2005) proposed that L2 phonological representations become more fine-grained with increased L2 word learning and exposure. Therefore, producing the target language plays an important role as well as exposure to the sounds (Bybee, 2001; as cited in van Vlack, 2013).

The low level of clang responses on the written mode test can be an indicator that participants do not have words connected through phonological networks because the lack of well-developed phonological connections in the L2 mental lexicon will lead to slow processing (van Vlack, 2013).

Overall results clearly show that Korean students tend to focus too much on grapheme form. Therefore, it tells language teachers that exposure and production of language is more important because it enhances expansion and retrieval of vocabulary and is essential in developing a large vocabulary.

6. Conclusions and Limitations

This study attempted to investigate the phonological processing in Korean-English bilinguals. It found there is no strong phonological connection between English and Korean and they tend to have stronger graphemic representation. The results tell us that knowledge of both languages is not activated simultaneously, so one language will not interfere with another in language processing. Also, the results showed how both exposure and production of language is important in order to promote efficient expansion and retrieval of words and is particularly valuable in developing a large vocabulary. Also, phonological processing will be necessary when learners deal with an active vocabulary.

In this study, speaking interviews could have given more specific phonological factors or links. This is an important tool which would help determine whether Korean words occur first when they encounter unfamiliar or unknown words because the participants in this study were required to respond to stimulus words in written form and hence they had time to translate Korean to English. Moreover, stimulus words were selected based on phonologically similar structure, but the selected stimulus words were not considered frequent in both Korean and English. Word frequency in this study would help determine whether bilinguals react differently to high/low frequency words. Also, this study did not conduct any interviews with participants after the WATs. Interview with participants would help interpret unidentifiable chains on other categorization and some exceptions on overall results.

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Appendix A – Word Association Tests (Spoken)

Reaction Game

Name:

Major:

Directions: On this reaction game you will hear a word twice. Please write down all the words that pop into your head after you hear the word. You will have 30 seconds to respond to each word. There are no right or wrong answers.

한 단어당 두 번씩 들려드릴 예정입니다. 단어를 듣고 연상되는 단어들을 모두 적어주시기 바랍니다. 한 단어당 30초간의 답변 시간이 주어지며 정답은 없습니다.

Example (예시) _____

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____
17. _____
18. _____
19. _____
20. _____

Appendix B - Word Association Tests (Written)

Reaction Game

Name: _____

Major: _____

Directions: You will have 10 minutes to complete this game. You will see a list of words. Please write down all the words that pop into your head when you read the word. You will have 30 seconds to respond to each word. There are no right or wrong answers. Below is an example.

이 리액션 게임은 총 10분의 시간이 주어집니다. 각 단어를 보고 떠오르는 단어들을 아래 예시와 같이 적어주시기 바랍니다. 한 단어당 30초간의 답변 시간이 주어집니다.

Example (예시)

Candle: matches, pray, calm, scent, light, wax

1. Pencil: _____

2. Meeting: _____

3. House: _____

4. Pool: _____

5. Door: _____

6. Sap: _____

7. Board: _____

8. Leaf: _____

9. Flower: _____

10. Germany: _____

11. Telephone: _____

12. Coffee: _____

13. Women: _____

14. Toe: _____

15. Mock: _____

16. School: _____

17. Noon: _____

18. Harmony: _____

19. Monkey: _____

20. Gym: _____

Implementing Reciprocal Teaching in Practice: A Review of Intervention Studies

Yoonjung Lim

Teaching Reading

Abstract

Reading comprehension is a critical skill for academic success and future jobs. Many students, however, often struggle to fully understand texts. One of the reasons students have difficulty reading is that they lack reading strategies, which are crucial in reading comprehension. There has been a growing body of literature that introduces and examines the efficacy of various interventions to instruct students in reading strategies. Reciprocal teaching is one of the approaches to teach reading strategies to improve students' reading comprehension. This literature review aims to synthesize research on reciprocal teaching interventions and find out how to effectively implement reciprocal teaching in practice. The search yielded a total of six studies that reported findings on intervention features, including reciprocal teaching in L1-assisted contexts, in CALL environments, with various group sizes, and with self-regulated learning (SRL). The present review suggests that a teacher should consider L1-assisted contexts, groups of more than two students, playing a recording of texts, and SRL instruction in implementing reciprocal teaching effectively.

1. Introduction

Reading comprehension is a critical skill for academic success. According to Law, Chan, and Sachs (2008), comprehension test scores show considerably high correlations with academic achievement. However, many college students who engage in undergraduate study are found to be under-prepared for a university education (Dreyer & Nel, 2003). Chen, You, Yang, and Huang (2004) reported that 71% of college students do not have the necessary ability for college reading, since their reading proficiency is as low as the level expected of junior or senior high school students. When encountering difficult texts, college students often choose ineffective and inefficient strategies with little strategic approach (Wood, Motz, & Willoughby, 1998). Dreyer (1998) attributes this to their low level of reading strategy knowledge and lack of comprehension monitoring engagement. It seems that interventions are essential for those students. Among studies on training reading strategies for enhancing reading comprehension, Reciprocal Teaching has emerged as one important approach (Yang, 2010). Reciprocal Teaching (RT) is “where the tutor and students take turns leading a dialogue centered on pertinent features of the text” (Palincsar & Brown, 1984, p. 117).

Vygotsky (1978) states that knowledge is acquired

through social interaction and the development appears twice; it appears between people first, and then, within the child. Likewise, learners could internalize language, in this case, strategies also, through social interaction with peers in reciprocal teaching context. In addition, the teacher student can get help from the teacher to perform the activities and lead the discussion. In the process, the students gradually take over cognitive work from the adult teacher and Palincsar and Brown (1984) state that the instruction has been influenced by Vygotsky's (1978) developmental theory.

This paper, therefore, examines the effective ways of teaching reading strategies and improving reading comprehension using the reciprocal teaching method from a constructivist perspective.

Furthermore, it is significantly important for me to investigate how reciprocal teaching is implemented effectively for two reasons. First of all, other MA students in this course and I agree that reciprocal teaching can help us get a better understanding of the difficult literature and articles we encounter throughout our MA course and have considered having a regular meeting to study those difficult literatures together using reciprocal teaching. Another reason is that I think reciprocal teaching could be a solution best suited for the Korean students, many of whom experience lack of reading strategies and enjoy

discussion in comfortable atmospheres. In short, this paper seeks to find an answer to the following research question:

How could a teacher effectively implement reciprocal teaching in ways that facilitate learning reading strategies and improving reading comprehension?

In order to answer the research question, this paper is organized into two parts; a review of literature, and an answer and future section. First of all, six research articles which could help answer the research question will be reviewed. In the answer and future section, the answer to the research question will be presented and how the answer and the results from the reviewed literature can be used in the future will be briefly described.

2. Literature Review

Yang (2010) aims to investigate how under-prepared college students solve problems when encountering difficulties in using reading strategies and how they develop their reading comprehension ability through reciprocal teaching in the CALL environment, which provides the functionalities of dialogue boxes, chat rooms, discussion forums, and annotation tools.

A total of 129 under-prepared college students voluntarily participated in remedial reading instruction in a university of science and technology in Taiwan. At the beginning, the participants took an online TOEIC test to identify their reading proficiency. Based on their score, these 129 participants were identified as under-prepared college students in reading. They were randomly assigned to one of 5 classes, with class sizes ranging between 20 and 30 students.

The reciprocal teaching system includes a teacher interface and a student interface. In the teacher interface, the teacher can manage their class, post texts for students to read, and view each student's actions as the students read texts using the four strategies. Both the teacher and students participate in the discussion forum. The students were allowed to use their native language (L1) in the discussion. Students could choose which strategies they wanted to use when engaging in reading. For the strategy of predicting, a dialogue box listing statements such as "What would happen next? Why?" is presented. For the strategy of clarifying, students could ask for help in a chat room when encountering unknown words or concepts. Also, instant messages would be sent and received by the teacher and the students. For the strategy of questioning, the students could generate questions in the discussion forum. In the discussion forum, questions

for the main issues are posted and replied to by the students or the teacher. For the strategy of summarizing, students could take notes by using an annotation tool in the system. Based on their annotations, students could then compose a summary.

Yang (2010) found that students, often, asked for help from peers or the teacher via tools such as discussion forums and chat rooms when encountering difficulties using strategies. Yang (2010) states that this indicates that student solutions for problems were limited, making teacher intervention important. Yang (2010) also points out that students improved their reading comprehension by observing and learning from the demonstrations of peers and the teacher. Students reported that they were able to better understand the main ideas in a text after remedial reading instruction with the RT (reciprocal teaching) system. However, students also expressed suggestions for the RT system. The practice of monotonous strategies in the system seemed to cause them to lose their interest after they became familiar with the use of strategies. Nevertheless, they recognized the effectiveness of using strategies in reading and concluded that they could read more fluently. There was a significant difference between the pre-test (82.77) and post-test (116.49), indicating that participants actually improved their reading comprehension during the RT sessions.

This study relates to the research question in that it shows how reciprocal teaching is conducted in CMC environments and how the students act and feel in the system. The system can be said to be well designed to help students to use all the four strategies easily. However, the participants seemed to get bored by the monotonous strategies to some extent as they became used to the system. In addition, the results show that students often tried to ask for help in using strategies, which seemed to be only resolution they had, which, as Yang (2010) argues, calls for teacher intervention.

Fung, Wilkinson, and Moore (2003) aim to investigate the effects of L1-assisted reciprocal teaching on 12 Year 7 and Year 8 (Grades 6 and 7) Taiwanese ESL students' comprehension of English text. The intervention comprised the alternate use of L1 (Mandarin) and L2 (English) reciprocal teaching procedures. Through 15–20 days of instruction, students learned how to foster and monitor their comprehension by using the reading strategies of questioning, summarizing, clarifying, and predicting.

In the study, twelve Grades 6 and 7 ESL students aged between 11.6 and 13.6 years from three suburban schools in New Zealand were investigated. All students were new migrants from Taiwan, who spoke

Mandarin as their first language and were able to read in Chinese at grade level, whereas their English reading ability was approximately 5 years behind their chronological ages.

The intervention comprised the modified L1-assisted reciprocal teaching procedure in which both Chinese and English reciprocal teaching occurred on alternate days. On each day, prior to the 20-min reciprocal teaching dialogue, there was a 15-min session of teacher-directed explicit strategy instruction. During the explicit strategy instruction, new concepts and strategies were introduced in Mandarin first and revisited in English on the following day. After the 12th day, explicit strategy instruction was omitted and a reciprocal teaching dialogue was held. In the English reciprocal teaching sessions, students were encouraged to clarify the meaning of any difficult words either by consulting a bilingual dictionary or the teacher for the translation equivalents in Chinese. In so doing, the dialogues focused more on idea-level rather than word-level comprehension.

Fung et al. (2003) state that, overall, interactions during L1 reciprocal teaching were more collaborative, fruitful, and enjoyable to students than those during the L2 reciprocal teaching. During the L2 sessions, the teacher was found to be more supportive of students and gave more prompts and praise, and the students were more sympathetic and helpful to each other. By contrast, during L1 sessions, the teacher tended to place higher demands on students, asking more challenging questions. Both quantitative and qualitative data strongly indicate that the L1-assisted reciprocal teaching procedure improved the English reading competence of the participants. Fung et al. (2003) state that one reason for the success is that the ESL students were able to make use of their L1 proficiency and literacy experiences during L1 reciprocal sessions as they learned the higher-level cognitive and metacognitive strategies. During the L2 reciprocal teaching, students already had a clear conceptual understanding about what strategy to use and how, when, and where to use it. Another explanation for the success is that the structure of the intervention helped promote strategy transfer. As students practiced using the comprehension strategies through L1 and L2 reciprocal teaching dialogues on alternate days, they had opportunities to construct understandings about the similarity of the L1 and L2 reading processes. The incorporation of L1 and L2 reciprocal teaching may have helped students develop a sense of conscious control, or metacognitive awareness, over a set of strategies that they could adapt for use with both Chinese and English text.

This study reveals that L1 assisted reciprocal

teaching can be effective in various aspects. The results seem to show that using L1 in reciprocal teaching not only lightens the burden on students' working memory but also facilitates the strategy transfer between languages. Considering these results and assertion, a teacher could consider using students' L1 in reciprocal teaching sessions depending on the students' needs and proficiency levels.

Spörer, Brunstein, and Kieschke (2009) investigated the effects of three different forms of reciprocal teaching on learners' reading comprehension. The participants were 210 third through sixth-graders from two elementary schools in Germany. Students were randomly assigned to the different conditions in two steps. One school was randomly assigned as a control group with traditional instruction. The other school was assigned to the intervention. Students in the other school were randomly assigned each of three different intervention condition group; reciprocal teaching (RT), instructor-guided Reading (IG), and reciprocal teaching in pairs (RTP). All the students in the intervention conditions were taught by instructional assistants in groups of 4-6 students. In IG condition, a small group of 4-6 students was guided by the instructor during the course of the intervention. The instructor modeled the four reading strategies, asked students to apply a strategy and gave feedback about the quality of the strategy used. Unlike the RT condition, the instructor in the IG condition did not hand over the responsibility and students didn't get to lead discussions. In the RTP condition, in addition to students doing the discussion in pair, they also had to record their activities on worksheets.

The study conducted a pretest, posttest, and follow-up test to measure students' performance in reading comprehension. Pre- and posttest materials were administered one week before and after the intervention. A follow-up test was conducted 12 weeks after the posttest. The results show that students in the intervention conditions were better able to use the strategies of summarizing, questioning, and predicting when reading a text during the posttest compared with the control students. The findings indicated that RT students who practiced strategies in small group of 4-6 especially benefited in the short as well as the long run from training lessons. Furthermore, even though RTP and IG students outperformed control students at tests, they did not maintain their superior performance at the follow-up test.

The results of the study are meaningful to the research question in that it shows that reciprocal teaching in small groups is more effective to improve students' comprehension and retain the reading strategies learned during reciprocal teaching. In addition, having students

lead the discussion and handing over responsibility is important for the lasting effects of reciprocal teaching.

Schünemann, Spörer, and Brunstein (2013) combined reciprocal teaching (RT) of reading strategies with explicit instruction in self-regulated learning (SRL) and examined the effectiveness of two different forms of intervention. Zimmerman (1998, p.65) states that “self-regulation is not a mental ability or an academic performance skill; rather it is the self-directive process by which learners transform their mental abilities into academic skills.” Schünemann et al. (2013) speculated that the integration of self-regulatory procedures, such as goal setting, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation, could improve reciprocal teaching.

Participants were 360 fifth-grade students in Germany. Twelve intact classes were randomly assigned either to an RT + SRL condition or to an RT condition without explicit instruction in self-regulation. In RT + SRL, students were additionally explicitly taught, and consequently practiced, goal-setting, monitoring of strategy use, and self-evaluation. Three additional classes served as a control group. In control groups, strategies instruction was delivered by instructors in a conventional lecture context.

The results revealed that both at posttest and at maintenance (8 weeks after the intervention), students in the two intervention conditions (RT and RT + SRL) outperformed comparison students from the control groups in reading comprehension, strategy related task performance, and self-efficacy for reading. In addition, students in the RT + SRL condition were better able to maintain the reading strategies and performance gain induced in reciprocal teaching than RT students over the follow-up interval. An analysis of the data revealed that this difference in the sustainability of the two treatments was most evident among students with poor reading fluency skills.

It seems that the integration of SRL facilitates the acquisition of reciprocal reading strategies and thereby contribute to the improvement of students’ comprehension. In addition, Schünemann et al. (2013) argue that it also helps instructors to structure RT-based activities such as reciprocal dialogs and scaffolded instruction when multiple groups work relatively independently in a classroom.

Izadi and Nowrouzi (2016) investigated the effect of reciprocal reading strategies instruction on reading comprehension of EFL learners. Along with reciprocal teaching instruction, emotional intelligence (EI) was also assessed to indicate whether it plays a role in learners’ reading comprehension. Emotional

Intelligence is the ability to perceive emotions in oneself and in others, use emotion to facilitate thought, and understand emotions (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004, 2008). According to Izadi and Nowrouzi (2016), some scholars in the fields of psychology and language education contend that RT and EI have an effect on each other. Edgcombe-Walker (2010,) argues cooperative learning, peer tutoring and RT are effective teaching techniques that utilize and reinforce social and emotional intelligences. Evidence of the effectiveness of these techniques highlights the power of social and emotional intelligences (Salend, 2005; Westwood, 2006). In addition, Honigsfeld and Lupeke (2010) consider RT to be one of the major strategies to boost emotional intelligence in learners.

The participants were 42 learners and they went through reciprocal reading strategy instruction. High and low level readers’ performances at two levels of emotional intelligence, high and low, were compared. Results of data analysis showed that reciprocal instruction significantly improved learners’ reading comprehension, and emotional intelligence did not reveal a meaningful correlation with reciprocal strategy instruction as far as learners’ reading comprehension was concerned. Since the results reveal there is no significant difference in performance during RT between participants with high and low levels of EI, Izadi and Nowrouzi (2016) concluded that readers do not seem to benefit from their emotions in comprehending reading passages. As one of the possible explanations for this, Izadi and Nowrouzi (2016) point to the nature of the reading passages themselves. Izadi and Nowrouzi (2016) speculate that the more the passages incorporate emotion, the better the learners can exert their EI in learning. This may lead to the optimization of RT strategy use, and therefore, help a teacher implement more effective RT in his/her class.

Fevre, Moore, and Wilkinson (2003) examined the effects of a modified reciprocal teaching intervention for readers with poor decoding skills and poor comprehension. The modified reciprocal teaching in this study, tape-assisted reciprocal teaching, was used to help students develop cognitive and metacognitive strategies and improve their comprehension of expository texts. Tape-assisted reading involves students listening to the reading of a text while simultaneously following the printed text. It is also referred to as reading-while-listening (McMahon, 1983) and talking books (Carbo, 1978).

Six students aged 8-10 years from an urban school in Auckland, New Zealand participated in the study. Two single-subject research design studies involving four groups of students were conducted. Audiotapes of

the expository passages at the students' age-appropriate interest level were introduced for students and they listened to them while following the standard procedures of reciprocal teaching. The audiotape was stopped at the end of each short section of text to allow the reciprocal teaching dialogue to proceed. Following each tape-assisted reciprocal teaching lesson, students listened to and/or read an assessment passage that was simultaneously available as text and audio recording and completed the comprehension test.

As a result of the tape-assisted reciprocal teaching, the poor decoders demonstrated improved application of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and improved comprehension. In addition, the students with adequate decoding skills also showed improvements in comprehension. With the results of the study, Fevre et al. (2003) suggest that tape-assisted reciprocal teaching could be a means of 'cognitive bootstrapping' to enable poor readers to escape reading failure and engage more meaningfully in the process of reading.

3. Answer and the Future

Many college students struggle with literacy skills which are needed to be successful in higher education and their future jobs (Gruenbaum, 2012). Therefore, it is crucial that students be taught these skills and Reciprocal Teaching is one of the effective interventions to enhance students' reading comprehension by teaching reading strategies explicitly and implicitly through interaction. Therefore, it is important to explore how a teacher can effectively implement reciprocal teaching to help students facilitate the use of reading strategies and improve reading comprehension.

Based on the three research articles, the considerations and the factors a teacher should take into account when using reciprocal teaching to foster learners' reading comprehension ability will be presented. First of all, the teachers' guidance and intervention should be considered in various aspects. Teachers should be aware that they play an important role not only in explicit strategy instruction and feedback throughout reciprocal dialogues, but also in students' motivation and other strategic actions. In Yang (2010)'s study, some students found it monotonous to use the same strategies repeatedly regardless of the genre. It is natural that students find using the reading strategies boring as they become used to and competent in using them. In order to avoid that, a teacher could demonstrate the different strategies such as Questioning the Author from time to time. In addition, a teacher should bear in mind that, while teacher intervention and guidance play an important role,

they should give the students opportunities to take responsibility from the teacher by leading a reciprocal dialogue (Spörer et al., 2009).

Second of all, L1-assisted reciprocal teaching procedures could be considered to lower the linguistic burden and facilitate the integration of prior knowledge with the texts. Fung et al. (2003) concludes that students became more deliberate in fostering and monitoring their L1 and L2 comprehension at the idea level, using a wider repertoire of strategies for inferential comprehension. Even though the study was conducted with students aged from 11 to 13, this L1-mediated reciprocal teaching procedure could also be effective for adult students since they have more prior knowledge and strategies to make use of, which are attained in the L1. Similarly, for students with poor decoding skills or low fluency reading proficiency, a teacher could consider using tape-assisted reciprocal teaching (Fevre et al., 2003). The effectiveness of RT did not show significant differences in students of differing EI levels, even though EI is connected to not only personal growth but also interpersonal relationships, which could affect the success of reciprocal teaching. As Izadi and Nowrouzi (2016) speculate, the more passages incorporate emotion, the better the learners could exert their EI in learning. Therefore, a teacher could also consider using literary texts rather than expository texts.

Last of all, the level of social presence and feelings of closeness and connectedness with peers should be taken into account. So and Brush (2008) identified emotional support and communication medium as factors affecting social presence. While it was clear that the sense of emotional bonding played an important role in increasing the level of social presence, some students pointed out that there might be an optimal level of social presence which positively affects collaborative learning, implying that high levels of the feeling of connection could create a negative impact on the learning process. In addition, several students perceived that online communication medium had limited capacity for creating a level of intimacy and immediacy, expressing that online forums were mechanical and writing styles seemed too formal. In order to solve these problems, a teacher could consider offline classes on a regular basis and encourage students to use more emoticons in chat room as a way of raising levels of intimacy.

Based on these ideas, I am considering using reciprocal teaching in CMC environments with my MA classmates. Since most of them are well aware of Reciprocal Teaching, we can discuss the different strategies and the other ways to deal with difficulties during reading

together and implement the ideas as we engage in reciprocal dialogues. In order to grasp and understand difficult concepts, our L1 could be used in discussion as in Fung et al.'s (2003) study. Also, in the future, I could implement it in my class. As mentioned earlier, many students have difficulty using appropriate reading strategies and reciprocal teaching could be a good solution for this. Taking into account the considerations listed above, I would be able to design an effective reciprocal teaching regime that would fit the characteristics and needs of my future students. For example, for low proficiency students, L1 mediated and/or tape-assisted reciprocal teaching would be considered. Engaging students in self-regulatory activities could enhance the sustainability of the training effects produced by the RT and help the students to become autonomous learners and readers (Schünemann et al, 2013).

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Doxy: A Mobile Application for Young ESL/EFL Learners

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Curricula and Materials Development

Abstract

This paper is a description of teaching materials aimed at young learners. Specifically, the material consists of three parts that are currently in development as well as specific parameters for implementation of the materials in the form of a mobile application. The first part of the material is a comic book geared towards EFL learners in South Korea. The second part is a workbook with activities that complement the comic book. The third part is a Facebook page that could assist teachers in particular with lesson plans and alternative ways to use the material. In this paper, we describe the development of these materials and the accompanying mobile app in accordance with learners' wants and needs as expressed through a series of questionnaires.

1. Introduction

This paper is a description of a teaching material that we have developed. Specifically, the material consists of a mobile app for young ESL/EFL learners. The first part of the app is a comic book geared towards ESL/ EFL learners in South Korea. The comic book utilizes language that is found in the National Elementary school English Curriculum of South Korea in order to ease the understanding of, introduce, or strengthen the context of language that they might already know. The second part of the app is a series of in-app activities that can be used to complement the comic book as well as the National Curriculum textbooks. These activities are a combination of creativity, fun, and SLA theories to maximize the English learning experience of young English learners. The third part consists of caring for and feeding Doxy, the app's central character, in order to provide motivation for learners to continue the activities. Essentially, learners earn 'macarons' as they complete in-app activities that they can later feed to an electronic pet Doxy to elicit a joyful response from her. Finally, there is a Facebook page where learners can upload and share their completed activities with other Doxy app users. In this paper, we investigate and describe our learners' interests and needs in order to develop our app. Based on our findings, we describe the development of our materials

that interest and engage them while meeting their needs, desires, and wants.

Section 2 of this paper is an overview of the theories that were taken into account when designing a comic book and the in-app activities. Section 3 describes the process of investigating and analyzing the needs of our students to enhance the development of app material. Section 4 is a detailed description of the comic book and the accompanying app activities. Section 5 describes a small scale study of the use of our materials in print form. Lastly, we conclude our paper with suggestions of ways we could improve our app and materials in the future.

2. Literature Review: Theories of SLA and app games

This section outlines specific theories that support our rationale for the app games and activities we designed that accompany the comic book section of the app. We will outline and describe the theories here, and in section 4.3, we will show how those theories apply to the activities using visual diagrams.

2.1 Lexical Inferencing

One of the theories that we implement in our app activities is lexical inferencing. Lexical inferencing is,

simply put, making informed guesses about the meaning of words by using one's knowledge of the world, contextual cues, and linguistic knowledge. Research has shown that this is a method of effectively learning new vocabulary words (Zeeland, 2014). There are 3 variables that significantly affect lexical inferencing. They are contextual clue types, background knowledge, and L2 vocabulary knowledge. In our app activity design, we take these variables into account.

2.2 Noticing Hypothesis

The Noticing Hypothesis is the hypothesis that input does not become intake for language learning unless it is noticed, that is, consciously registered (Schmidt, 2010). In the simplest terms, people learn about the things that they attend to and do not learn much about the things they do not attend to. Therefore, the noticing hypothesis says it is necessary that learners are motivated to pay attention in order to intake new input. In order to help learners to notice new language, they must be motivated. According to Schmidt (2010), the presence and frequency of communicative input is more helpful to noticing than classroom instruction. Obviously in an app setting, conversation does not easily take place. However, through learners' participating in app activities where they are constantly being exposed to both known and unknown target language, they are also presented with opportunities to notice new language. Following the input, they are able to participate in games and activities that will provide them with continual exposure to the new language and utilize the new language to complete the activities.

2.3 Transfer Principle

The transfer principle refers to activities in which learners are given ample opportunity to practice, and support for, transferring what they have learned earlier to later problems, including problems that require adapting and transforming that earlier learning (Gee, 2007). This does not necessarily refer to manipulating previous linguistic knowledge, but also refers to skill transfer. In our app activity design, we take into account the skills that students have learned in school that could be transferred to help them successfully complete and learn from the app activities.

2.4 Visualization

Visualization in language learning is the ability on the part of a learner to utilize their background knowledge and imagination to create physical representations of language. Visualization is a potentially

powerful tool for becoming an effective self-regulating learner and may greatly increase the efficacy of one's other language learning strategies. In "The L2 Motivational Self System," Zoltán Dörnyei (2009), arguably the foremost expert on motivation and second language learning, reviews a large body of research that confirms the positive role visualization can play in personal performance. In our app, we implement activities that require the learner to visualize words that they hear or that can be gathered from context.

2.5 Listening Comprehension

Two elements transform skillful listening into competent listening: motivation and ability (Karimi & Biria, 2014). People listen well when they are motivated, such as when you like the person who is speaking, or the person is communicating information you want to know. If you are a competent listener, you are motivated to listen even when you would rather not. Therefore, a competent model for listening calls for the listener to apply motivation, knowledge, and skills to the three steps of receiving, constructing meaning, and responding.

The listener's knowledge of the context of situation and background knowledge of the culture and society are crucial to listening comprehension. This is because any sentence listeners hear is matched against their mental models of the world as reflected in scripts and schemas. If the model of speaker and listener differ too much, they will have problems understanding each other.

In our app design, we carefully take these aspects of listening comprehension into account. Through a combination of simple language, repetition, cultural relevance, and motivation based on the central character of the story, learners have the resources to be able to successfully complete multiple listening comprehension activities to solidify their knowledge of the target language.

3. Methods

Three types of questionnaires have been conducted in order to gain more detailed answers from our participants. A fourth and final questionnaire was administered to determine the success of our comic book and activity pages. The results of Questionnaire 4 will be discussed in section 5 towards the end of this paper to conclude our findings and discuss future applications. Questionnaire 1 and Questionnaire 3 consist of closed-ended questions to collect specific data with

regard to learners' perspectives on learning English and reading English books. Questionnaire 2 is an open-ended questionnaire to gain more specific details with regard to what students want and need, and to gain insight into their background knowledge, interests, and tacit knowledge. Questionnaire 3 is a more detailed questionnaire compiled from the results of Questionnaires 1 and 2. The participants and results of the 3 questionnaires will be discussed separately.

3.1 Questionnaire 1

Questionnaire 1 was conducted with 53 grade 5 learners. 32 boys and 21 girls at the same school were asked to complete a closed-ended questionnaire to check and test the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. Grade 5 learners had already experienced English Education in the National Korean Elementary School Curriculum for 2 years. The grade 5 textbook content also pulls together target language from grades 3 and 4, as well as builds a foundation for grade 6. From our experience, grade 5 was a good sample to "test" our questionnaire before applying it to more learners.

3.1.1 Results

60% of the participants were boys and 40% girls. However, we did not record a significant difference between their needs and wants. 75% percent of the learners noted that they liked learning English, whereas 25% said they didn't like learning English. 100% of learners studied English in school as part of the National Korean Elementary School Curriculum. 49% of learners studied English at private academies; 11% in after school programs and 21% at home. 43% of learners said they liked reading storybooks, 52% said they didn't like it and 3% said they sometimes like it. 100% of learners read Korean storybooks, 19% English storybooks and 4% Chinese storybooks. 36% said they never read English storybooks at home; 26% said once a month; 26% said once a week and 11% said every day. When asked the reason for not reading English storybooks at home, 15% said they don't have it; 9% said it's boring; 17% said it's hard and 4% said they don't like English. 58% said they read English storybooks in the English classroom, where 42% said they didn't. 72% of learners preferred paper books and 30% preferred e-books. 72% of learners said they liked the stories in their English textbooks and 28% said they don't like it. When asked the reason why they liked or disliked the stories in English textbooks 15% said they don't understand it; 13% said it's boring; 16% said it's

interesting; 26% said it's funny and 32% said that it helps them to understand the target language.

3.1.2 Discussion

From this questionnaire we gathered that there is indeed a need for English books as the majority of learners answered that they liked English and they do not have sufficient access to English books or to English books they can understand. From the data gathered, we determined that learners do not have access to English books that are motivating and engaging. The majority of learners said that they either didn't have English books or that they were too hard to read. The majority of learners answered that they like the stories in the English textbooks and that the stories help them to understand the target language. We thus concluded that learners have a need for English books that are engaging, easy accessible, easy to understand as well as practice the target language used in the textbooks.

3.2 Questionnaire 2

39 5th grade learners from the same school participated in the open-ended Questionnaire 2 on a voluntary basis. The purpose of this questionnaire was to determine exactly what type of content and items we could include in the materials to include and attract learners, creating a bridge between their pre-existing knowledge, experience, and interests to the new vocabulary in English textbooks. Learners had to answer 7 open-ended questions using multiple answers. Learners could write down their own answers for the questions in either Korean or English. Learners were allowed agency to answer each question with teachers providing explanations where needed. Since we were interested in the "bigger picture" of the diversity of learners' interests, learners were allowed to give multiple answers to each question. Activating learners' background and tacit knowledge while using the materials allow for engagement and personal investment (Gee, 2007).

3.2.1 Results

100% of the participants chose Why? comic books as their preferred type of storybook material. 28% chose "dog" as their favorite animal while 13% preferred cats, and the remainder of participants were split among other animals such as fish, monkeys, rabbits, tigers, and lions. Tteobokki was chosen by the majority as the preferred traditional food. Favorite hobbies among participants included singing, dancing, playing games, playing sports, practicing Taekwondo,

and reading books. Taekwondo was also chosen as the favorite traditional sport with other choices including basketball, dodge ball, soccer, and baseball. Favorite activities at home include watching TV, singing, dancing, resting, listening to music, playing games, and reading books. 41% chose games as their favorite apps while 8% chose YouTube as their favorite.

3.2.2 Discussion

As mentioned earlier, the reason behind the open-ended questions was to collect ideas from the learners for illustrations and content that would be used for the materials. The varieties of answers were recorded rather than the number of learners who wrote down similar answers, as learners were allowed to give multiple answers. We are interested in the diversity of answers as learners want and need significantly different things. However, at the same time it gives us more material for content design and illustrations in order to attract, entertain, engage and motivate learners across different interests, wants and needs.

3.3 Questionnaire 3

A total of 129 learners, we thought it best to include the perspectives, wants, and needs of other grades as well. Question 1 of our questionnaire presents the numbers of learners per grade. This data will allow us to determine where learners study English, how often they read comic books as well as where they get their books.

3.3.1 Results

45% of participants stated that they study English at a private academy while 35% said that they study at home. 12% stated that they study English at school, and 8% study in after-school programs. 42% get their books from a library, 32% from bookstores, and 26% get books from their parents.

3.3.2 Discussion

As per Questionnaire 1, 15% of learners answered they don't read English books because they don't have them. Thus, Questionnaire 3 was designed to get more detailed answers from learners in regards to comic books, how often they read it and where they get them. However, not all learners answered question 3, making the results unreliable. We therefore did not include the answer in our results.

4. Material Design

4.1 Aims

The comic book and activity pages aim to provide additional learning materials beyond the classroom environment and textbook material, available to teachers, learners and parents in order to promote, motivate, engage and inspire L2 learning and opportunities for L2 learning in the both classroom and at home. Learners use their personal interests and background knowledge to engage in a more meaningful context. The learners would be able to read the target language in a situated context of meaning making (Gee, 2007). Learners could also transfer their textbook knowledge to understand the comic stories and participate in accompanied activities (Gee, 2007).

4.2 Objectives

1. The initial comic book will use the target language and key expressions as per National Korean Curriculum for English Language teaching. The comic book will present the target language and key expressions in fun, creative ways while allowing the learner to involve their background knowledge and interests.
2. The comic book will introduce the character and familiarize the learners with her character and personality
3. The comic book will offer a fun story without the burden learners usually face when learning new target vocabulary as decided by the National Korean Curriculum.
4. The comic book will be written to match the Korean context in which learners will read the comic book and complete activity pages.
5. The comic book will make use of images and items from Korean culture to bridge the gap between a foreign language and their own lives as English learners in South Korea.
6. The activity pages will offer extended learning opportunities through activities using the character from the comic book, to further practice target language and key expressions.
7. The activity pages will offer a variety of activities to draw the learner in, offering more opportunities for

using and playing with the target language across different contexts and situations.

8. The activity pages will offer opportunities of interaction, autonomy, agency and creative thinking while still using the target language and key expressions.

9. The Facebook page will offer opportunities for learners to share their activity pages, art, short stories and the like on this affinity space, to interact with other learners, to ask questions about the activity pages and to learn from each other by means of feedback from their peers.

10. The app will introduce the character through the comic book. App users will be able to experience the text with visual and audio input. Through means of audio the learners could also infer meaning through voice inferencing.

We try to implement a majority of vocabulary items and key expressions from 3rd through 6th grade national textbooks to increase the reader's' comprehension of the comic book. The key expressions are taken from the textbook as follows:

- “May I __? ”: Grade 5 and 6.
- “I like __. ”: Grade 3, 4, 5, 6.
- Questions using “What? ”: Grade 3, 4 and 5.
- Feelings: Grade 4 and 6.
- Greetings: Grade 3, 4 and 5.
- Talking about names: Grade 3.
- Physical descriptions: Grade 4, Grade 5 and Grade 6.
- Prepositions: Grade 4, 5 and 6.
- Korean food spelled in Romanized script: Grade 6.

4.3 Comic book design

The first thing that learners can see upon opening the app is an option to begin Doxy’s story. The story is presented in comic book style panels that are limited to actual dialogue between Doxy and her owner. Learners are allowed to swipe through the story at their own pace, panel by panel. They have the option to listen to the story being read to them by clicking on the text. At the end of the book, they can select “Go back to start” and read it again, or they can move on to doing activities that practice target language. The images in Table 1 demonstrate the succession of the comic book.

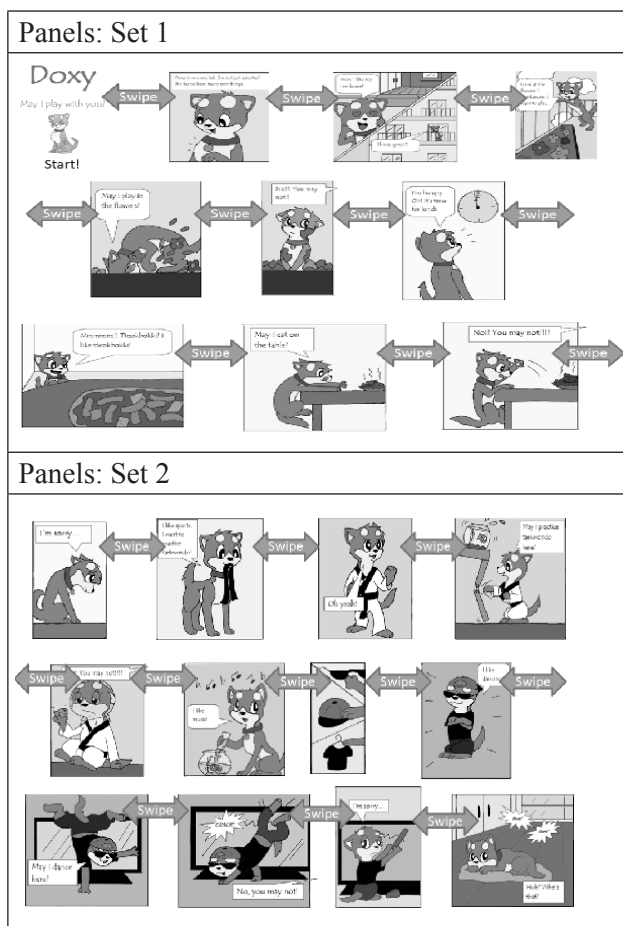


Table 1 Comic book design

4.4 App Activity design

The following activities are organized by activity type for convenience. There are arrows labeled ‘swipe’. The images between the arrows will be referred to as ‘pages’. The arrows do not allow learners to skip activities, but rather allow them to swipe back to review those pages they have already completed. The back swipe option allows them to review the new language in case they need to remind themselves of spelling or a newly acquired vocabulary item. Since learners can complete activities on their own time, the back swipe option allows learners to review previously completed activities. The progression of each activity is designed in a scaffolding manner; that is, each page of an activity builds off of the previous page. Upon completion of a page, a green circle will pop up on the screen with a ring, and Doxy will say ‘Great!’ and learners then earn the ability to swipe to the next page. Upon completion of an activity, learners will earn ‘macarons’ that they collect to feed to Doxy. Additionally, the activities increase in difficulty level as learners successfully complete several activities over time. However, for the simplicity of explaining and demonstrating this process, we will only present one activity type per theory.

4.4.1 Activity Type 1

This activity type is designed to check reading comprehension. For this activity, learners must read the sentence and select the correct preposition by saying it into the microphone of their device. By clicking on the picture on the left, learners will hear the preposition ‘on’. By clicking on the picture on the right, they will hear the preposition ‘under’. The learner then chooses the correct answer and speaks the correct answer into the microphone, “Doxy may eat under the table.” If they are correct, they can continue and swipe to the next activity. If not, they receive a hint which is the sentence repeated to them out loud in combination with highlighted text.

4.4.2 Activity Type 2

This activity type illustrates the app’s use of lexical inferencing. This specific activity aims to introduce food names and their spelling in English. Learners are able to swipe back and forth for review purposes, but can only swipe forward if they successfully completed the activity. The items included in this activity type were chosen based on learners’ answers to open-ended Questionnaire 2.

4.4.3 Activity Type 3

This activity type illustrates the app’s use of visualization. For this activity, learners have to listen to a script and produce their visualization through drawing. Learners are able to take screenshots of their creations and upload them on the affinity space, the Doxy Facebook page. This activity is also designed to give learners opportunities to interact with Doxy. Learners are able to swipe back and forth between activity pages in order to revisit their creations or make a new one altogether. (See Figure 1)

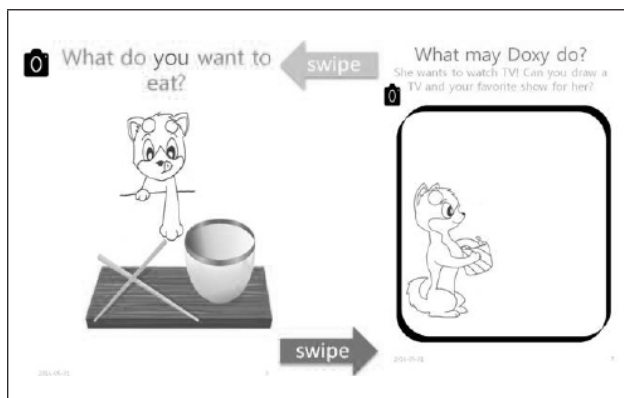


Figure 1 Activity type 3

4.4.4 Activity Type 4

This activity type illustrates visualization, transfer skills, and noticing. In this activity, learners listen to a script and visualize the audio script based on their personal experience and listening comprehension skills. Learners then produce their visualization. Learners are able to take screenshots and upload their creations to the Doxy Facebook page. This activity type is similar to activity type 3. Learners have to transfer their textbook language as well as drawing skills to complete this activity. Listening script 3 makes use of inferencing to help learners notice the new word “collar” and distinguish between the familiar word “color” and the unfamiliar word “collar”.

Listening script 1: *Doxy is taking a picture of your favorite flower. There is a bug on the flower. It’s a small bug. It’s very cute.*

Listening script 2: *There is a fish in the bowl. It has big eyes. It has a small mouth. It has a long tail. It has short fins. It is your favorite color.*

Listening script 3: *Doxy has a new collar. What color is it? Wow! I like it. May I take a picture?*

4.4.5 Activity Type 5

Activity type 5 is designed and presented in the form of a game for learners to interact, have fun and earn ‘macarons’ for Doxy. This activity type demonstrates the app’s use and practice of listening skills. This activity type also focuses on learners’ memory skills. In this activity, the learner listens to the audio script multiple times until they are able to successfully comprehend the intended message and complete the activity. Learners can then move on to the next activity page. The page will swipe automatically (a.s). Learners cannot swipe back. However, at the end of the activity they have the option to do it again. The faster learners complete the different activities, the more ‘macarons’ they can earn. Furthermore, learners are then able to practice vocabulary items repeatedly and recall them easier through visual and audio representation and repeated practice. In Questionnaire 2 learners answered that they liked fruit. This activity type aims to teach English fruit names using learners’ background knowledge and mental models of the world in relation to what fruits are.

4.4.6 Activity Type 6

This activity type demonstrates the app’s use of listening skills and visualization. To complete this activity learners have to listen to the audio script and visualize which fruit it is based on the audio hints. Learners



Figure 2 Activity type 6

Listening script 1: I’m a fruit. I’m red. I have seeds. I have black seeds. I start with an ‘A’. Click me!

5. Follow up Interview: Questionnaire 4

Questionnaire 4 was conducted using the same 53 grade 5 learners as in Questionnaire 1. These learners’ answers to Questionnaires 1 and 2 directed the content and design of our materials. We therefore decided to check our material against the same learners, to get real time and valuable feedback. The questions were as follow:

- 1) Do you like the comic book? Yes/ No
- 2) What did you like about the comic book?
Open- ended
- 3) Did you understand the comic? Yes/ No
- 4) Do you want to read it again? Yes/ No

We asked comprehension and tacit knowledge questions as follow:

- 1) Why not practice Taekwondo in the house?
- 2) Why not dance in the house?
- 3) Why not talk/ bark in the house?
- 4) Where did she play first?
- 5) Where did she eat first?
- 6) Where did she sleep first?
- 7) What does “adopted” mean?

5.1 Results

• Do you like the comic book?	100% Yes
• What did you like about the comic book?	100% Fun and cute

• Did you understand the comic?	100% Yes
• Do you want to read it again?	100% Yes
• Comprehension questions	100% Accurate

Table 2 Questionnaire 4

5.2 Discussion

100% of the learners responded that they liked the comic book. 100% of the learners responded that they want to read the comic book again. 100% of the learners responded that the comic book was cute and fun. 100% of the learners were able to answer the comprehension questions correctly. Learners were also able to infer the new vocabulary item “adopted” based on contextual clues. From the results of this questionnaire we concluded that combining visual and textual inputs, while employing learners’ background knowledge, personal experiences, and wants and needs were the best and most successful option for our current and future material design and development.

6. Conclusion

The comic book is meant to introduce the character, familiarizing learners with Doxy’s character, personalities, likes, and traits. The activity pages are meant to extend learning opportunities while engaging learners, leaving room for self agency, interaction and creativity. The data gathered from the needs analysis questionnaires 1 and 2 allowed us to direct the content, items, design and layout of the comic book.

The data from needs analysis questionnaire 3 gave us feedback on where and how learners gain access to books and which books they choose. We decided to have a printed paper version of the comic book, since

downloaded from educational sites as well as Facebook. This way more learners have access to the materials; at home, school and/or library. Learners can choose which files and activity pages they would like to download, allowing them some agency and language learning appropriate to their level. Also, the Facebook page will act as an affinity page which allows learners to engage more with the character as well as interact with other learners on this shared affinity space. Learners can also download new and updated activities pages.

Finally, the project will be developed into an app. At the time of writing, the comic book is available in text, visual and audio format on the app. As of yet, the app has not been released or tested against learners. The app has a link which connects learners and app users to the Facebook page where they can experience learning and interact with the Doxy and other English learners in South Korea. It is still early days for our app, but we have great prospects and hopes for our comic book and activity pages.

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Implicit and Explicit Knowledge and Language Learning in Second Language Acquisition

Hyejin Park

Second Language Learning Theories

Abstract

The study of implicit and explicit knowledge and learning begins with the curiosity of how we have learned our linguistic information which has been acquired without realizing that it is being learnt, or also the curiosity of the fact that we do not even realize that we already have some linguistic knowledge in our mind. In this paper, implicit/explicit knowledge are explained, after that, the practical applications of two different types of language learning both implicit and explicit are suggested with pedagogical perspectives. Implicit knowledge is seen as being acquired unconsciously, incidentally while explicit knowledge is seen as being acquired through consciousness and intentional attentions. Also, since implicit knowledge is usually seen using embedded rules, it is also called structural knowledge, on the other hand, since explicit knowledge is usually acquired through formal instructions or modeling and it also can be used to analyze and figure out some differences, they are regarded as declarative knowledge. Similar to these facts, implicit learning is the natural, automatic, or conscious knowledge acquisition which is regarded as being caused by or effect on underlying structure of a various and simultaneous stimulus, and knowledge via explicit learning is acquired with more conscious processes about the structure which made by either individuals or by test hypotheses in search for structure (Ellis, 1994).

1. Introduction

The study of implicit and explicit knowledge begins with a curiosity of how we have learned and what we know as much linguistic information is acquired without realizing that it is being learnt, and we do not even realize that we already have some knowledge in our mind. For example, at some point, people can be seen automatically or naturally developing their first language (L1) in the each belonged language environment through their parents, families, or care-takers and soon they become very fluent in their L1, however, people can't explain this linguistic knowledge even though they can use that language in every life very well (Ellis, Loewen, Elder, Erlam, Philp &Reinders, 2009). In this case, this internal linguistic knowledge seems to have its own structural mechanisms so that it can be used to learn new knowledge or activated to do things without awareness, on the other hand, at times people are aware of some ways or forms of the language and able to detect some eroded phrases or sentences and also

explain what they know. The former is called the implicit knowledge, and the latter is called the explicit knowledge, and implicit knowledge is acquired unconsciously and incidentally while explicit knowledge is acquired through consciousness and intentional attentions. Also, since implicit knowledge is usually seen using embedded rules, it is also called structural knowledge, on the other hand, since explicit knowledge is usually acquired through formal instructions or modeling and it also can be used to analyze and figure out some differences, it is regarded as declarative knowledge.

We keep obtaining and using implicit knowledge not only in language learning but also in everyday activities and perception (Ellis et al. 2009), and the moment we are aware of looking more deeply into things, that implicit knowledge would be stored as either implicit or explicit knowledge. Therefore, knowing and distinguishing these two different types of knowledge is very important since they each play a different role from preceding our knowledge to

perceiving, storing, and retrieving that knowledge when there are needed, and they also have different levels of effectiveness to reach better results from second language acquisition environments as well as our daily life environments.

Also, after describing implicit/explicit knowledge, this study also represents different language learning types; implicit vs explicit. Just being similar to the nature of implicit and explicit knowledge, implicit learning is the natural, automatic, or conscious knowledge acquisition, which is regarded as being caused by or effect on underlying structure of a various and simultaneous stimulus, and the knowledge via explicit learning is acquired with more conscious processes about the structure which is made by either individuals or by test hypotheses in search for structure (Ellis, 1994). Two concepts can be seen as two contrary counterparts; regardless of conscious vs unconscious about the structures being revealed, occurring acquiring means that there is conscious procedures focusing on the structures in both. In other words, acquiring knowledge through both implicit and explicit learning is acquired with consciousness on the structures, but the only difference is that implicit learning, which has been acquired through the explicit process itself, is hard to see with our eyes because it is an internal process, we can only assume or see some results from it. Therefore, since they are both regarded as important processes which compensate each limitation from each nature, there is a need to study and know more about the both implicit and explicit learning in SLA.

2. Implicit and Explicit knowledge

2.1. The Definition of Implicit/Explicit Knowledge

Many researchers have studied and defined implicit and explicit knowledge so far. According to Rebuschat and Willimas (2009), “implicit knowledge is unconscious knowledge that subjects are generally not aware of possessing, and explicit knowledge is conscious knowledge that subjects will be aware of possessing” (p. 832). Implicit knowledge also can be defined as tacit, intuitive, procedural, which is target as well as non-target like, and is only observable through behaviors, and explicit knowledge defines as conscious, declarative, and can be verbalized (Esteki, 2014). And, depending on their characteristics; consciousness and unconsciousness, implicit and explicit knowledge can be also explained as ‘knowing that we know’ and ‘knowing what we know’ (Reber’s (1994) personal communication cited in Diene and Scott, 2005 p. 340). Also, according to Willims (2009) in

this definition, implicit knowledge is explained as “knowledge that a person has without knowing that they have it”, and explicit knowledge is also explained as “knowledge that a person know that they know” (p. 321). Lastly, Han and Ellis (1998) defined implicit knowledge as “knowledge of language” and explicit knowledge as “knowledge about L2 which can be broken down into analyses knowledge and metalinguage (p. 5).

2.2. The Characteristics of Implicit/Explicit Knowledge

There are two big issues regarding describing/distinguishing those two types of knowledge; implicit and explicit. First, in the Bialystock’s view (1981), implicit knowledge is analysis which is knowledge itself and explicit knowledge is control which is related to access to that knowledge. Second, in the Ellis’s view (1994), implicit knowledge is procedural knowledge “which is the knowledge of how to do things and explicit knowledge is declarative knowledge “which includes encyclopedic knowledge about the world plus episodic memory of one’s past experiences”.

Basically, within a big picture, implicit and explicit knowledge can be distinguished as a matter of conscious or not. Implicit knowledge is usually acquired incidentally/naturally with unconsciousness, so it is hard to realize how/when/why that knowledge is acquired/processed and also hard to verbalize what we exactly know/have in our brain since implicit knowledge has been just acquired without realizing it. So, this is why implicit knowledge can be regarded as innate and embedded structure of something which contains their own certain principles and rules in our brain, be activated automatically, and, of course, it is also hard to observe what they are, how much we have, or how it is processed. However, on the contrary, explicit knowledge is intentionally learned with awareness of what they are doing as well as what they are learning, in terms of second language acquisition, explicit knowledge is thought to be involved with conscious and metalinguistic awareness helping learners’ improve accuracy in the new language.

Ellis (1994) mentioned in his study, “some things we just come able to do, like walking, recognizing happiness in others, knowing that th is more common tg in written English, or making simple utterances in our native language. We have little insight into the nature of the processing involved - we learn to do them implicitly like swallows learn to fly. Other of our abilities depends on knowing how to do them, like

multiplication, playing chess, speaking pig Latin, or using a computer programming language. We learn these abilities explicitly like aircraft designers learn aero-dynamics” (p. 1). As he explained in his book, since implicit knowledge occurs unconsciously while explicit knowledge occurs consciously using metalinguistic awareness, the acquisition of L1 language structures or usage could be learned naturally/implicitly and is also stored and retrieved from implicit knowledge when it is needed. However when it comes to second language learning, besides implicit knowledge which plays important roles in the first language development, there is a need for additional focus on learning linguistic behaviors with conscious attention by analyzing and comparing the linguistic information which is one of the crucial key processes in SLA. This explicit knowledge would be used in knowing their procedures which can also be applied into other situations not only for that moments, and additional consciousness would help learners build their accuracy in the target language. In the same context, R. Ellis et al. (2009) distinguished these two types of knowledge that implicit knowledge is “related to the processes engaged in learning a language”, but explicit knowledge is “related to the product of language learning” (cited in Esteki, 2014 p. 1520). Not only these factors but the feature of implicit knowledge which occurs in the absence of awareness also can be casually efficacious when other knowledge is acquired as well as it’s processing (Cleeremans, Destrebecqz, & Boyer, 1998). Also, Han and Ellis (1998) distinguished implicit and explicit knowledge with two principal criteria; accessibility and awareness. They addressed that “implicit knowledge is easily accessed in tasks that call for fluent language performance. In contrast, explicit knowledge can be accessed only with controlled effort and, thus, is typically used in tasks that allow for careful planning and monitoring” (p. 6). And they further added implicit knowledge is unanalyzed and automatic, but explicit knowledge is analyzed, model-based and controlled effort is needed, and also may or may not be involved with metacognitive knowledge.

Ellis et al. (2009) clearly showed the differences by comparing and categorizing between implicit and explicit knowledge (pp. 11-14).

- 1) Implicit knowledge is tacit and intuitive whereas explicit knowledge is conscious.
- 2) Implicit knowledge is procedural whereas explicit knowledge is declarative; implicit knowledge is incidentally/automatically processed in embedded

procedures, but “explicit knowledge is comprised of facts about the L2” (p. 11).

- 3) L2 learners’ procedural rules may or may not be target-like while their declarative rules are often imprecise and inaccurate; regarding the exceptions in the language rules, implicit knowledge would go through modification stages encountering exceptions, but explicit knowledge can be often confused and they need another explicit procedure to learn them, in the process they might be less accurate but it will be better in confident with practice.
- 4) Implicit knowledge is available through automatic processing whereas explicit knowledge is generally accessible only through controlled processing
- 5) Default L2 production relies on implicit knowledge, but difficulty in performing a language task may result in the learner attempting to exploit explicit knowledge.
- 6) Implicit knowledge is only evident in learners’ verbal behavior whereas explicit knowledge is verbalizable; since implicit knowledge obtained without realizing it, there’re some difficulties to observe them, but explicit knowledge can be described.
- 7) There are limits on most learners’ ability to acquire implicit knowledge whereas most explicit knowledge is learnable

Especially, regarding the age matters, since implicit knowledge is engaged in automatic process, when it comes to learning language, some limitations are shown regarding the developmental ages. Around the age of 5, as metalinguistic awareness begins to develop, learners become naturally equipped with the ability to analyze and control their language by comparing and contrasting the structures as well as distinguishing whether it is grammatical or ungrammatical with conscious awareness of the language itself (Bowles, 2011). Also, Rebuschat and Williams’s (2009) study suggested that “young learners, especially preschoolers without extensive metalinguistic knowledge, might display more implicit learning than adults” (p. 853), and as a result this fact, children would be more effected by the patterns since they still lack the ability to analyze the language structures, and also this would lead children who have not develop their metalinguistic awareness to obtain the languages in a more native-like way. In short, implicit knowledge acquisition is limited by age, however,

over that age does not mean that there is no more language acquisition. Language acquisition can occur regardless of age, but the only differences shown would be some differences in learning procedures and results. While learners under that age achieve the same proficiency as native speakers using implicit knowledge, adult groups can also learn language but not the same as how native speakers do. There is some research that proves that unlike implicit knowledge, “explicit knowledge can be learned at any age” (Ellis, 2009, p. 14), and explicit knowledge can be positively affected using analytical skills in SLA by providing more chances to reflect on the structures which would lead learners to be more accurate in the use of the language.

2.3. Relationships between Implicit and Explicit Knowledge

Since each implicit and explicit knowledge represents different features, procedures, and some different results, the relationship between implicit and explicit knowledge has long been a controversial issue. Many researchers have asked several questions regarding this issue, for example; “whether implicit and explicit knowledge are related to each other or not? Is it possible for explicit knowledge to be converted into implicit knowledge?” (Esteki, 2014, p. 1521) “to what extent and in what ways are implicit and explicit learning related? Does explicit knowledge convert into or facilitate the acquisition of implicit knowledge? Does explicit instruction result in the acquisition of implicit as well as explicit knowledge?” (Ellis, 2009, pp. 20-21). As these related questions show, knowing the relationship between the two; implicit and explicit, is important and would help us approach to better learning/teaching methods, be able to provide better environments, use more tailored and proper strategies not only in pedagogical environment but also in our everyday life. However, since it has not yet been discovered absolute final answers or conclusive evidence regarding this relationship matter, nothing can be right or wrong. So, there are three main positions regarding the relationship between implicit and explicit knowledge; 1) the non-interface position, 2) the strong interface position, and 3) the weak interface position.

2.3.1. The non-interface position

According to this position, implicit and explicit knowledge are acquired independently, and “stored separately in different parts in the brain and demands strict mechanism and, as a result, cannot be converted to each other” (Esteki, 2014, p. 1521). Also, they are

accessed with different approaches (Ellis, 1994). In short, in this view, these two knowledge types are “completely separated to such an extent that explicit knowledge can never become implicit”, and “explicit knowledge will always remain explicit, despite years of exposure practice, and proficiency in the language” (Bowles, 2011, p. 248)

2.3.2. The Strong Interface Position

According to this position, explicit knowledge can be derived from implicit knowledge, and also with the much practice and environmental exposure such as repeated use can cause that explicit knowledge to be converted into implicit knowledge (Bowles, 2011; Esteki, 2014; and Ellis, 2009). However, regarding the nature of ‘practice’ which is required to the transform explicit knowledge into implicit knowledge, it also has additional issues regarding other mechanical systems are involved or not.

2.3.3. The Weak Interface Position

According to this position, this position is very much alike to the strong position, however, “it is not as categorical as the strong interface position in its formulation” (Bowles, 2011, p. 249). And, this weak position activated under certain constraint conditions. “explicit knowledge can help the acquisition of implicit knowledge by causing some aspect of input more salient and outstanding to learners” (Esteki, 2014, p. 1521). There are three in this position.

First, this version is espoused by Ellis (1993), “the conversion of explicit to implicit knowledge can occur through practice, but only if and when the learner is developmentally ready to acquire the linguistic form in question” (Bowles, 2011, p. 249). Second, is espoused by Ellis (1994) suggesting that “maintains that explicit knowledge contributes indirectly to the creation of implicit knowledge because “explicit knowledge can be also influenced in back-word on perception” (Bowles, 2011, p. 249). Third, version is espoused by Schmidt and Frota (1986) and Sharwood Smith (1981) representing that “learners use their explicit linguistic knowledge to produce output, which, in turn, becomes input for their implicit system” (Bowles, 2011, p. 249).

3. Implicit and Explicit Language Learning in SLA

3.1. Two Different Learning Types; Implicit vs Explicit Language Learning

“Implicit learning is acquisition of knowledge about the underlying structure of a complex stimulus environment by a process which takes place naturally, simply and without conscious operations. Explicit learning is a more conscious operation where the individual makes and tests hypotheses in a search for structure. Knowledge attainment can thus take place implicitly (a non-conscious and automatic abstraction of the structural nature of the material arrived at from experience of instances), explicitly through selective learning (the learner searching for information and building then testing hypotheses), or, because we can communicate using language, explicitly via given rules (assimilation of a rule following explicit instruction)” (Ellis, 1994, pp. 1-2). Also, there have been proven differences between implicit and explicit, supported by some neuroscientific views, implicit knowledge/learning is related to the perceptual and motor cortex areas while explicit knowledge/learning is related to the nerves system in prefrontal cortex which is involved with attention, conscious apperception to the stimulus, and working memory (Sanz & Leow, 2011). Also, according to Sanz & Leow (2011), since new born babies naturally begin setting up their neural cortex according to their L1 from their birth surrounded their linguistic environment, the second language learners are needed to process of overcoming their L1 behaviors by adopting the extra explicit language learning procedure.

3.1.1. Implicit Language Learning

According to Rebuschat (2015), implicit language learning is explained as two aspects; usage-based language acquisition and the role of consciousness.

- 1) usage-based language acquisition : usage-based language theories of language acquisition explain that “we learn constructions while engaging in communication, and that an individual’s linguistic competence emerges from the memories of the utterances in their history of language use and the abstraction of regularities within them” (p. 4). As Rebuschat (2015) mentioned in his book, humans are naturally born with sensitivities to occurrence frequency in the language, in this context, he also suggested that “there must be some cognitive mechanism that tallies the frequencies of occurrence of the units of language during language usage” (p. 6). It was further suggested that the knowledge underlying fluent use of language is a great deal of collections of memories of previously experienced linguistic information.
- 2) the role of consciousness : when using language

such as reading, speaking, without being concentrated on the linguistic knowledge learning itself, still we can naturally obtain “the knowledge of the frequencies of the elements of language, their transitional dependencies, and their mappings” (Rebuschat, 2015, p. 6). Of course, the process itself can be seen as explicit but when it comes to the fact that it occurs involved with our internal processes, almost all learners will find it hard to notice they are learning language rather more or only focusing on the communication or comprehending the whole functions or context not single or multiple linguistic/formatic elements. However, our underlying, unconscious mechanism in learner’s mind leads the language acquisition to occur, and starting with findings regarding the plasticity of synaptic connections related to this unconscious counting by Ellis (2002), it has continually been proved that all levels of language representation can be also applied to this theory, which include “phonology and phonotactics, reading, spelling, lexis, morphosyntax, formulaic language, language comprehension, grammatically, sentence production, and syntax” (Rebuschat, 2015, p. 6)

As the description above notes, it can be possible for learners to automatically acquire “knowledge of the underlying patterns of sequential dependencies” (Rebuschat, 2015, p. 7) in an authentic or more natural situation, which is not related to either the classroom environment or being guided, also without being conscious of analyzing linguistic elements or constructions. Also, it was said that, some learning can be possibly take place with only one incidental exposure (Rebuschat, 2015), and these kinds of invisible, implicit language learning processed engaged with underlying patterns are empowered by the “sequencing in SLA” (Ellis, 1996 cited in Rebuschat, 2015, p. 7) and “chunking” (Newell, 1990 cited in Rebuschat, 2015, p. 7), which is related to ‘probabilistic knowledge’. These two elements lead implicit language learning to be easily processes positively affecting on 1) phonetic processing and lexical perception, 2) reading time, 3) maintenance of material in short-term memory and its accurate subsequent production, which help learners be faster in reactions and better at noticing some high-frequencies of usage patterns like collocates.

3.1.2. Explicit Language Learning

Many researches have proved that language can be acquired naturally or automatically from the context in language usage-based environment, and this is called implicit language learning. Also, there are so

many positive benefits of implicit language learning strongly involved with unconscious natives' fluent language usage. However, at the same time, explicit language learning is also regarded as the one crucial language learning process along with implicit learning. Implicit language learning depends on the "learned attentions" (Rebuschat, 2015, p. 12) to the underlying language patterns, which might play an important role to intake the knowledge after inputs, so it can be not easy to tell whether these internal processes are being activated well or not. Not only for this uncertainty but also, still the implicit learning processes are unclear or ambiguous because they are invisible processes, so with implicit learning process, there is need for the explicit language learning process. (e.g. Schmidt, 1990; Rebuschat, 2015; Ellis, 1994, 2002; Ellis et al, 2009)

Explicit language learning is helpful to guide form-focused instruction which can help learners to notice better, to build-up language structures more accurately, and to store language knowledge better. Moreover, explicit instruction enables language acquisition to be more speedy (Rebuschat, 2015), and also the effectiveness of explicit language learning is durable (Ellis, 2002). In this way, explicit language learning can compensate the vagueness of results or negative concerns regarding insufficient of clear information in implicit language learning.

3.2. Implicit and Explicit Language Instruction in SLA

According to Lado's theory of second language learning (1957, 1964), second language acquisition is built upon "the behaviorist principles of learning (including the fundamental principle of contiguity, the law of exercise, the law of intensity, the law of assimilation, and the law of effect)" (cited in Rebuschat, 2015, p. 13). In this aspect, language acquisition is the "learning of patterns of expression, content, and their association, a concept closely akin to that of constructions" and as being left all the experiences in the brain, previously stored experiences or experienced memories can be all the factors, "either facilitating or inhibiting the learning of a new language" (C. James, 1980 cited in Rebuschat, 2015, p. 13).

As mentioned above, second language acquisition is made up through multiple and dynamic systems which are involved with strong connections, associations of our language experiences with internal as well as external linguistic information. The ways of acquirement up to the significant usage-level, two different ways of learning languages exist; implicit vs

explicit. As the terms imply, language acquisition can occur through both conscious and unconscious processes, and both should be regarded as crucial elements in SLA.

In the study of Norris and Ortega (2000), they conducted meta-analysis on the effects of instructions, after that, they categorized them into four different instructional types "on the basis of two variables, explicitness (explicit or implicit) and attention to form (focus on form or focus on forms) ; 1) focus on form explicit, 2) focus on form implicit, 3) focus on formS explicit, and 4) focus on formS implicit" (cited in Rebuschat, 2015, p. 444). The result was showed that the effectiveness of explicit language instructions were more positive than implicit instructions, and also they concluded that both regarding the focus on form and the focus on formS were more efficacious than implicit groups. However, even though the result has continually shown as the positive aspects of explicit language instructions from the following studies (e.g. Spada & Tomita, 2010; Li's, 2010), as language instructions, there is a need to take into consideration of subsidiary issues by adapting only one sided or bias. For example, explicit language learning environments are usually conducted with a lot controlled L2 knowledge, which is a bit far from the authentic or natural language based on the real-usage (Rebuschat, 2015). Therefore, there is also a need to develop right compromised baselines integrating positive aspects of each, than try to make second language acquisition more effective by compensating each contained limitations.

4. Conclusion

Through this paper, the two important types of knowledge and learning types; implicit and explicit knowledge/learning have observed. In sum, implicit knowledge can be described as "intuitive, procedural, automatic, variable in a limited and systematic way, and available in fluent, spontaneous language use, and also cannot be verbalized, and there is debate over the extent to which implicit knowledge can be learned in adulthood" However, on the other hand, explicit knowledge is described as "conscious, declarative, highly variable, and only accessible through controlled processing" (Bowles 2011, p. 251) So, explicit knowledge can be used in various ways which is needed for spontaneous language use, and also it can enable learners to be better at being noticed, being aware of, perceiving, compare and contrast by analyzing, control the language, and storing acquired knowledge, and also explicit knowledge lets learners monitor in planned language use. Explicit knowledge can be

verbalized, therefore entailing at least some degree of metalinguistic knowledge. Like any other type of declarative knowledge, explicit language knowledge can be learned regardless of age. (Bowles, 2011, pp. 251-252). Namely, rather than just adopting and applying one of them based on dichotomy, there is a need to comprehend and accommodate those two concepts as being co-existed counterparts. For this, there is also a need to know unlike the first language obtained naturally or unconsciously, second language acquisition would occur via some additional conscious language learning processes. In other words, implicit language learning would likely occur through our natural real-life environment without being aware of themselves developing their language, but on the contrary, explicit language learning lead learners to be conscious of their learning behaviors with more concentration on the content. Therefore, learners can be expected to develop their language more naturally and authentically through implicit learning and explicit learning would help them to develop their language and to become more accurate in use.

In conclusion, the most important part regarding these different types of knowledge/learning are that knowing them would bring us to guide, or be guided in the right direction in teaching/learning environments, especially second language learning. Therefore, it is very important to know how they are produced and activated with the right approaches

with the appropriate information based on the distinctions/differences between implicit and explicit knowledge, at the same time, the implicit and explicit learning processes itself. Even though both would be conscious on the structure, but only the difference is the consciousness in implicit learning would probably be hard to see, but it just looks automatically processed. However, the ability to be automatically processed also needs some kinds of structures, and researchers have found that implicit learning might be derived from the operating by underlying structures, which is only the matter of being invisible to the naked eye. Also, the characteristics of those two learning types are distinguished including the result from them. Implicit learning is regarded as internal process while explicit learning can be seen like extroverted process appearing to focus on the forms. So, The linguistic knowledge through implicit learning would be more natural like, automatically grouped called, for example 'chunks', which enables learners be more native-like in fluency, but on the other hand, knowledge through explicit learning would be more accurate since it is gathered via focusing on forms. Thus, these two types of learning are both important, and similar to all other learning processes, intake only occurs through the internal process, so the point to know about is that how to deal with explicitly learned knowledge, then how to transport it to be processed by implicit learning to fully intake it.

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Bridging Activities Cycle: Design and Defense

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Digital Gaming and Teaching and Learning

Abstract

In this paper, I propose a lesson based on the bridging activities model to develop students' awareness of ways of describing a picture in different contexts with different purposes. The bridging activities model consists of three stages: explore, examine, and extend. Its overall goals are to develop language awareness of learners and to have students participate in social practice to use the language. As many Koreans go to private institutions, take online courses, or self-study to achieve a high score on the TOEIC speaking test to get a job, I designed the bridging activities lesson for a TOEIC speaking test preparation class. Specifically, in view of how a picture description is standardized for high scores in the test, I suggest a bridging activities model where the students observe & analyze texts of picture description and participate in authentic online community practices. The game and the community that my bridging activity lesson will be built around is The Sims FreePlay developed by EA Mobile and one of its attendant discourses, Sims FreePlay Google Community.

1. Introduction

According to Thorne and Reinhardt (2008), teens, university age students, and younger people grow up with and participate in many communicative modalities, including Internet information and digital media, and their communication is mediated by participation in digital environments. Thorne and Reinhardt (2008) claim that this suggests “emerging literacies associated with digital media are highly relevant to their current and future lives as language users” (p. 560). That is, literacy is not constrained to only the skill of decoding and encoding printed text anymore. As McNeil (2015) states, “literacy appears in the plural form literacies” (p. 5). New London Group (1996) proposed the concept of multiliteracies, and aligned with this approach, “bridging activities exploit the fact that learners may be more capable of learning new skills and practices via familiar media” (Reinhardt & Ryu, 2013, p. 21). Reinhardt and Sykes’ (2011) framework where game play is regarded as a literacy practice also reflects this “new literacies” approach to L2 teaching and learning. Reinhardt & Sykes (2011) suggest that what fits with the new literacies approach is the language awareness principle, and that the overall goals of Bridging Activities (BA) model are to develop language awareness of learners and to have them participate in social practice to use

the language. It aims to raise “learner awareness of vernacular digital language conventions and analyzing these conventions to bridge in-class activity with the wider world of mediated language use” (Thorne & Reinhardt, 2008, p. 563). It also seeks to develop learner awareness of the grammatical and lexical choices in relation to social purpose and of “how language is used to create socio-cultural context” (Reinhardt & Ryu, 2013, p. 21). In this regard, BA model is different from traditional lessons. Traditional lessons usually focus on literature and print-based text whereas the BA model involves many more communicative modalities. In addition, Thorne and Reinhardt (2008) state that BA provides a realia, real language use, which can balance the prescriptive language found in textbooks used in traditional classrooms. Another important difference is the use of student-selected texts. In BA model, students select and bring in texts “that are relevant to their immediate or projected future communicative interests” (p. 562). On the other hand, in traditional lessons, materials are chosen by a government, school, or teachers, not students. Traditional lessons do not use texts selected and brought by students.

Based on this BA model, I designed a lesson to develop students’ experiential and critical awareness of targeted attendant discourses. This paper aims to describe and support the designed BA lesson.

In this paper, I first present the context and background of the designed BA lesson, including description of the game, the community, and the target context and audience. Then, a general overview of the proposed BAs cycle is provided with explanation of how it meets the overall aim of the BA model and the needs of the target context. This is followed by a description of the main three stages of the BA lesson: explore, examine, and extend and a detailed explanation will describe how it meets the needs defined by the target context.

2. Context and Background

The game and the community that my bridging activity lesson will be built around is Sims FreePlay developed by EA Mobile and one of its attendant discourses, Sims FreePlay Google Community (<https://goo.gl/wolqnt>). The Sims FreePlay is a single-player life simulation game where players build and design houses, complete tasks and quests, and manage avatars called Sims to meet their needs and develop their careers, hobbies, and relationship with others. Players can learn to play the game pretty easily by completing tutorial tasks provided in the beginning of the first gameplay. Due to its long history and popularity, Sims has many big attendant discourses, but those for Sims FreePlay are not so big compared to other Sims game series. Nevertheless, Sims FreePlay Google Community has 5,865 members worldwide (last updated June 14, 2016) and the number of its members keeps growing. In the attendant discourse, people post screenshots of their gameplay with short descriptions, ask and share information about the gameplay, and sometimes share news about real world, not about the game on the community, such as a news about a child abused by his parents and dead.

As companies require TOEIC Speaking test score as the indicator of applicants' English speaking ability, many Koreans go to a private institution, take online course, or self-study to get a high score, and most of learning is to memorize skills and certain expressions for answers. One of the questions in TOEIC Speaking asks a test taker to describe a picture for forty-five seconds, after thirty seconds of preparation time. In view of how a picture description is standardized for high score in the test, I designed bridging activities for a speaking test preparation class. Target audience is adult learners, over the age of nineteen with low intermediate English proficiency level. The class aims to improve students' English speaking ability and to help the students attain a good score on a standardized English speaking test, TOEIC Speaking

exam. In my BA model, students observe, analyze, and participate in authentic online community practices and texts of picture description. First, in the explore stage, students observe the community projected on the screen, go to the community, read posts, and identify, copy and paste at least three posts with a picture and a description that you like. Then, as the examine activity, students analyze the descriptions of the pictures, looking for patterns in the way that a picture is described, and compare and contrast the way of describing pictures with that of the standardized speaking test. After the analysis, as a recontextualizing activity, students, in groups of four, discuss the given pictures and come up with description like the ones in the community. In the extend phase, students to go to the community and post one of their screenshots with the description of the picture. Finally, students examine one another's post and discuss the post in terms of its similarity to the community practice. Since the platform of Sims FreePlay is played through mobile devices such as smartphones, iPads and tablets and requires Internet connection to play, the students are encouraged to play the game in their free time with their own mobile devices. In addition, for teacher's demonstration and students' work, computers and a projector are required in this lesson.

This BA cycle meets the broad aim of BA and the needs in my target context. According to Thorne and Reinhardt (2008), bridging activities aim to raise learner awareness of the linguistic choices constituting a text and to guide the learner to critically examine how different meanings are made in contexts by these choices. Thorne and Reinhardt (2008) elaborate that learners explore "the relationship between features of the texts, the social contexts in which they function (genre), and the social realities specific language choices will tend to instantiate" (p. 563) and examine actual language use. According to Thorne and Reinhardt (2008), one of the principles that aim to develop awareness of language as discourse suggested by McCarthy and Carter (1994, as cited in Thorne & Reinhardt, 2008) is the contrastive principle that "focuses on differences within comparable text types and/or language used to achieve particular social actions" (p.563). By having students focus on differences in a way of describing a picture between the testing context and the online community context, my Bridging Activities cycle develops students' awareness of language as discourse and contextualized use of the language. They can be more aware of ways of describing a picture in different contexts with different purposes.

3. Describing and Supporting the Bridging Activities Cycle

Sims FreePlay is a single-player life simulation game. In this lesson, the language of the game is set in English, and it is assumed that students have been playing the game. The online community that students visit and explore in this lesson is Sims FreePlay Google Community where English is used as the default language.

3.1. Explore Activities: Observation

Project the attendant discourse Sims FreePlay Google Community on a screen and guide students to observe what other players do in the online community. Ask following questions to the students:

- What topics do they discuss?
- What kind of posts are there?
- What do you see the most?
- What speech acts do they perform?

Notify the students that they will visit the online community and look through it for fifteen minutes. Tell them they can go to the community by typing “Sims freeplay google community” on Google. Tell the students to identify at least three posts with a picture and a description that they like. Have the students copy and paste the posts they found on Google word document file in pairs. Designate student As and Bs and tell student As to create the document and invite their partner, student B. Explain that there should be at least six posts written on the word document in total.



Figure 1 Example post in the community, Little Leigh sleeping beside her mom's painting how cute ^-^

The explore stage focuses on the comprehension of attendant discourses related to the game. The aim of this activity is to have students learn and participate in the attendant community. Thus, the explore stage involves less critical activity of participating in the

community and more awareness-oriented activities of noticing and noting. According to Reinhardt and Sykes (2011), explore is the “of” of language learning, which means “experiential awareness, which comes from experiencing language and participating in situated contexts where language is not artificially separated from its function” (p. 3). To have learners experience language and participate in situated contexts of language use, the explore stage involves observing, noticing, and collecting. Observing the attendant discourse is the less critical activity whereas noticing and collecting information with guidance are the more awareness-oriented activities. Reinhardt and Ryu (2013), in their bridging activities about Korean honorifics, had students observe SNS texts and practices, identify and collect them “to develop situated awareness of authentic use of honorifics” (p. 23) in their explore stage. Likewise, my explore activity has students learn and less critically participate in the attendant community first through situated activity, such as reading the posts in the community. Students observe the community with the teacher’s guiding questions first, then go to the community themselves and read through the posts to see what kind of social practices happen in the community. Here, the students experience the attendant discourse by looking at it. To further develop students’ awareness of the language and practice in the community, I designed the awareness activities of noticing and noting the language of community and strategies used to participate in the community. Specifically, to draw students’ attention to the social practices performed in this attendant discourse and eventually to the practice of describing and talking about pictures of gameplay, the teacher asks students what kind of posts are made the most in the community which is the screenshot of gameplay and its description. Then, students are asked to identify and copy and paste the posts with a picture and its description. Here, the students critically look at the types of posts made in the community and notice certain post types and note the texts. They should collect particular types of discourses to analyze later, which is a picture description that matches the lesson objective.

3.2. Examine Activities: Guided Analysis

As a discussion activity focusing on the language practice in the attendant discourse, have the students closely look at and analyze the descriptions of the pictures collected with the following questions:

- Do you see any patterns in the way that a picture is described? How so?
- Any other interesting features?

Have them discuss in pairs. Then, have students, in the same pairs, compare and contrast the way of describing pictures with that of the standardized speaking test. Provide them with sample questions and answers of the test which they can look at and compare with picture description in the attendant discourse (Appendix A). Give instructions as follows:

- Look at the pictures and descriptions. These are sample TOEIC Speaking questions and answers.
- Look for differences between the picture descriptions in the test and the ones posted in the community. How are they different? Why do you think this happens?

Have students discuss in pairs first for three minutes, and then share with another pair, that is, four students discuss, for three minutes. Discuss as a whole class, focusing on similarities and differences between online community picture descriptions and the speaking exam picture description. After the analysis, as a re-contextualizing activity, have the students describe snapshots of the game in groups. Make groups of four and give two interesting snapshots of the game that has been prepared by the teacher to each group. Have them discuss the pictures and come up with descriptions like the ones in the community. To facilitate the discussion, ask the following questions:

- What do you think is happening in the picture?
- What do you think the most important piece of information of the picture is?
- Why do you want to describe the pictures in this way?



Figure 2 Example of an interesting snapshot, Tell students to play the game and take snapshots of their gameplay as a homework.

Thorne and Reinhardt (2008) claim that the examine stage aims to “lead student to notice and critically examine linguistic and social features of observed and collected texts” (p. 566). This stage focuses on interpretation of concepts and meaningful interaction using them, going beyond basic comprehension. It

involves participating in the community with a more intensive focus on discovery and completing analysis activities on discourses targeted to meet the specific linguistic, pragmatic, or sociocultural objectives of the lesson. My examine activities focus on participating in the community more critically and analyzing the attendant discourse, with analysis activities on discourses targeted to meet the specific linguistic, pragmatic, or sociocultural objectives of the lesson. Students analyze posts made by community members and find a specific way of describing and talking about the pictures of the game in that attendant discourse. Students can notice that descriptions are short, brief, and informal. To raise more awareness of different styles of picture description, they look at the posts more critically and analyze them to see how the descriptions are different from those in the other context which is the standardized speaking test. The standardized speaking test asks test-takers to describe a picture with many details in a certain form. The description should be grammatical and formal. To guide and assist the students and to facilitate their discussion and learning, the instructor uses guiding questions in my analysis activities. According to Reinhardt and Sykes (2011), the examine phase requires an instructor’s direction and guidance. The worksheet and the guiding questions help students follow through and focus on the analysis. After the analysis activities, students practice using the targeted discourse in context. They describe snapshots of the game in groups in a way that it is done in the community. Before using the language in real world, the online community, students experience and practice it in the classroom setting. Reinhardt and Sykes (2011) claim that students should experience the concept and practice contextualizing the items in meaningful and contextualized interaction, such as discussion, role play, or other communication focused activity. By having students describe snapshots of the game and discuss in groups, my experiential activity helps them experience the concept and contextualize the item.

3.3. Extend Activities: Simulated Participation and Analysis

Since students should have played the game and taken snapshots of their gameplay, have them share and describe the screenshots they took as homework in pairs for one minute (thirty seconds per person). Tell the students to go to the community and post one of their screenshots with a description of the picture like other community members do. Have students examine and discuss their own post in pairs, answering the

questions below:

- Why did you describe the picture in that particular way?
- Do you think the post is similar to other posts on the community? How so?
- Are there any changes or improvements you would make?
- How would you describe the same picture if it was on the test? Write down a description for the test and share it with your partner.

The extend stage focuses on production and presentation skills and involves the active and reflective creation of, and participation in attendant discourses related to the game. According to Thorne and Reinhardt (2008), the extend phase aims to help students “join Internet communities and participate in text creation” (p. 566). Similarly, Reinhardt and Sykes (2011) state that in the extend stage, students apply their new understandings to create and participate in attendant discourses both actively and reflectively. According to Reinhardt and Sykes (2011), active participation focuses on presentation and production skills, whereas reflective participation involves considering the responses to those presentations thoughtfully. Reinhardt and Ryu (2013) had students create posts and make comments on Facebook as an active participation activity and identify and discuss one another’s pragmatic choices as a reflective participation activity. Similarly, my Extend activities consist of active participation and reflective participation.

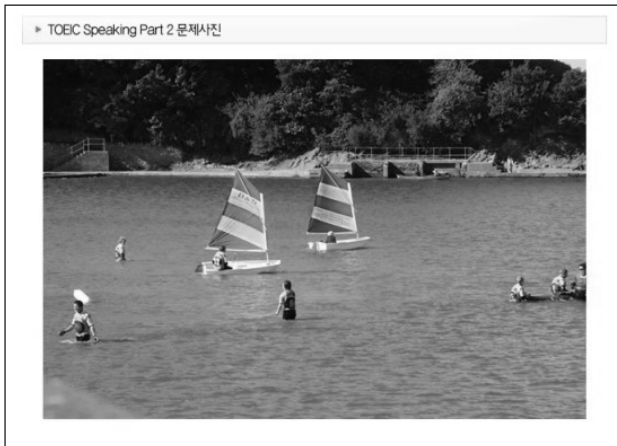
First, as the active participation activity, students post one of their own screenshots of their gameplay with the description of the picture. They participate and contribute to real online community by posting. When they participate and create their post, students apply their new understandings. They are asked to post in a way that other community members do. This asks them to apply what they have learned throughout the examine stage: the particular way of describing the picture of gameplay. After the active participation activity, students are told to examine their own post and discuss the post in terms of its similarity to the community practice, which is the reflective participation. These two activities ask students to apply their new understandings of describing pictures to participate in the attendant discourse according to the social practice in the community. Moreover, asking students to think about the different possible ways of performing the same task in different context bridges the language use in the online community and in real world. According to Reinhardt

and Ryu (2013), “bridging involves making connections, or bridges, between vernacular and academic literacies, experiential and analytic learning, and form, function, and language choice” (p.21). By having students think about two different targeted contexts, the last question helps them make connections between the attendant discourse and the speaking exam and develop awareness of the genres.

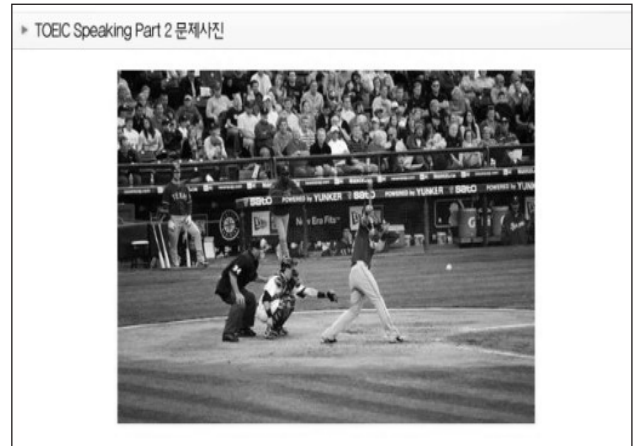
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Appendix A: Sample TOEIC Speaking questions and answers



This photo was taken at a lake. What I notice first is some people standing in the water. A man in the center of the picture is looking at people behind him. On his left side, a man is walking in the water. Also, some people on the right have a small boat. Behind the people, I can see two people with boats. In the background of the picture, there are many trees and a small bridge. Generally, it seems like people are preparing to use their boats in the water.



This photo was taken at a baseball game. What I notice first is a baseball player holding a bat. He is swinging the bat at a ball that is in the air. Behind him, a catcher is ready to catch the ball. Next to the catcher is a baseball referee. Behind them, I can see many players watching the game. In the background of the picture, there are many people sitting in the stands and watch the batter. Generally, it seems like many people are enjoying a baseball game.

Appendix B: Example of reflective discussion



Sweet family! Daddy cooking for his family and mommy listening to her baby.

[Example post]

Do you think the post is similar to other posts on the community? How so?

- Yes. The description is more like talking to someone with phrases rather than sentences.

Any changes or improvement that you would make?

- I would like to add “My favorite moment!” or “I love it!” to show and share my feeling as a game player like other players.

How would you describe the same picture if it was on the test? Write down the description for the test.

- This photo was taken at a house. What I notice first is a man cooking on the stove. He is standing in front of the stove and looking at the dish he is cooking carefully. In the living room, I see a woman and a girl talking to each other. The woman is kneeling and listening to the child. The child is talking to the woman. She seems excited. In the background of the picture, there is furniture, such as dining table, chairs, sofas, coffee table and so on. Generally, it seems like the man is dad, the woman is mom and the kid is their child. This family seems to love and care each other and be enjoying family time.

Code-switching in Casual Conversation among English-Korean Bilinguals

Mallory Moser

Research Methodology

Abstract

Bilingual individuals possess certain communication strategies that monolingual people lack. When a person has two languages available for use, they have to learn how to utilize both of their languages to strategically communicate with other bilingual people. The communication strategy called code-switching is one that only bilinguals can use with other bilinguals of the same two languages, and has also been a hot topic of modern bilingual research (Androutsopoulos, 2013). In an attempt to contribute to the pool of research on the sociocultural aspects of Korean-English CS in discourse, this paper investigates (1) the functions of CS in informal conversation and (2) the reasons participants give for code-switching from English to Korean through a qualitative research project on bilingual CS in a social environment in which the participants are Korean-English bilinguals.

1. Introduction

Bilingual individuals possess certain communication strategies that monolingual people lack. When a person has two languages available for use, they have to learn how to utilize both of their languages to strategically communicate with other bilingual people. The communication strategy called code-switching is one that only bilinguals can use with other bilinguals of the same two languages, and has also been a hot topic of modern bilingual research (Androutsopoulos, 2013). Code-switching (CS) is “the ability possessed by bilingual people to effortlessly alternate between their two languages” (Bullock & Toribio, 2009). CS can be studied as a reflection of social constructs and of the cognitive mechanisms that control language switching, making it an area worth researching (Gullberg, Indefrey & Muysken, 2009). In addition, literature about CS is important (in order) to dispel the myth that CS is performed only by bilinguals to make up for a lack of proficiency in one of the speaker’s languages or lack of control over the languages being used (Bullock & Toribio, 2009). Finally, knowing when bilinguals code-switch and for what reasons they do so may offer insights into cognitive, social, and structural aspects of the bilingual experience.

Research on CS in conversation has developed in two distinct but related directions: Structural and

Sociolinguistic (Boztepe, 2002). The structural approach is related to grammatical aspects of CS, whereas the sociolinguistic approach focuses on CS as a linguistic strategy that attempts to describe why speakers choose the language or languages they do during discourse. There is a multitude of research in relation to both of these directions of study; however, the majority of research on Korean-English CS has been limited to the structural category, focusing on morpho-syntactic aspects of Korean-English CS (Choi, 1991; Lee, 2010; Park, 1990; Yoon, 1992). There is also a growing number of studies focusing on the sociocultural aspects of Korean-English CS in discourse (Chung, 2006; Lo, 1999; Pagano, 2010; Shim, 2014; Shin, 2002; Yoon, 1996). More recently, researchers have been observing the use of Korean-English CS in the media, focusing on the role of English in Korean TV, music and commercials (Lee, 2006; Yang, 2012; Baratta, 2014). This study attempts to contribute to the pool of research on the sociocultural aspects of Korean-English CS in discourse.

Research on Korean-English CS in discourse provides interesting insights on CS as a communication strategy as English and Korean are two typologically different languages. For Korean-English bilinguals, CS reflects the social relationship between speaker and addressee (Kim-Renaud & Chomsky, 1986)

since Korean is an honorific language that necessarily reflects social hierarchies (Klopff & Park, 1982) whereas English, particularly American English, talk is supposed to take place on a level of equality, even when a personal confrontation occurs between perceived superiors and subordinates (Yoon, 1996). Because of this difference in the social reflections of the two languages, studies on Korean-English CS have offered a multitude of rich information to the study of CS in general.

Research on Korean-English CS has been almost exclusively performed on Korean ethnic participants (Pagano, 2010). There is very little research on the use of Korean by non-Korean, Korean-English bilinguals. For example, Pagano (2010) states, “although research has been done on Korean nationals CS from Korean into English, the converse has not been readily addressed within the literature” (p.34). This indicates that there is a gap in the research related to English-Korean bilingual CS. This study contributes to the pool of research that investigates the uses of CS by Korean as well as non-Korean bilinguals. In addition, most of the studies on CS have only one person that reviews the data: the researcher. While the researcher’s perceptions of the participants’ CS are well-informed and likely accurate, it is important to take into account the participants’ ideas about their own language phenomena as well. This study attempts to fill that gap by taking into account the participants’ ideas about their own CS and language choice.

On a personal note, I am interested in researching the use of Korean-English CS because of the group of people at the church I attend in Seoul, South Korea. The church service is in English, and most of the people attending the church speak English as their first language. I first noticed CS here when a Filipino member used the Korean word for subway station instead of the English word. Understood by both her Korean and non-Korean friends, they proceeded to substitute other Korean vocabulary items and phrases into the rest of their conversation. Since then, I have noticed my own frequency of CS into Korean, sometimes words and sometimes phrases, in English conversation with other Korean-English bilinguals. For these reasons, I am interested in conducting this study with my friends, the members of the English church service.

The next section attempts to describe the theories on CS that guide the study by defining key terms. Then, there will be a review of other research found in the area of CS. The research method and data collection

procedures will be described in the third section and results and discussion will follow. Finally, the conclusion will be presented.

2. Literature Review

The goals of this section are to describe the underlying theories that will guide this study and discuss existing research related to this study. Creswell (2009) notes that researchers using a qualitative method could apply theory as a “theoretical lens which provides an overall orienting lens for the study” (p. 62). Therefore, in order to provide this lens, it is necessary to define and describe both CS and identify who can be considered bilingual. This section also summarizes the scholarly dialogue on CS and shows how this study adds to what is not yet known about English- Korean CS.

2.1 Code-switching

CS is a function of communication that is unique to bilingual and multilingual people. In the view of Hamers and Blanc (2010), language is a tool developed and used to serve a number of functions, both social and psychological, which can be classified into two main categories: communicative and cognitive. Since CS is a language phenomenon, it can be assumed that CS also has communicative and cognitive purposes.

There are many conflicting views about the definition of CS. For instance, Bullock and Toribio (2009) state, “code-switching is the ability possessed by bilingual people to effortlessly alternate between their two languages. It can be performed at the single word level or entire phrases and sentences and bilinguals of different proficiency levels may have the ability to switch” (p. 1). This presents a fairly broad definition, however, as it does not specify any difference between CS and other bilingual language phenomena such as code-mixing or borrowing (Poplack, 1980). McClure (1977) sees CS as involving a complete shift to another language system, whereas code-mixing takes place within constituents. Grosjean (1995) defines CS as cognitively shifting completely to another language even for just a single word. For this study, I will use Gumperz’s (1982) all-encompassing definition of CS, “the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or sub-systems.” (p. 59).

To bring other bilingual language phenomena into focus, it is necessary to discuss code-mixing and borrowing which are controversial in some literature due

to their similarity to CS. Some researchers, such as Muysken (2000), differentiate CS and code-mixing because they believe that the term CS should only refer to switching between turns or utterances, but not insertion, which is the act of code-switching at the single word level. Muysken (2000) prefers to use code-mixing as a cover term (in order) to include insertion into the definition, but since CS is much more widely used, I will use the term code-switching as a cover term.

Finally, Eastman (1992) states that “it is necessary that we free ourselves of the need to categorize any instance of seemingly non-native material in language as a borrowing or a switch” (p. 1). If we are to understand the social processes of CS, Eastman (1992) believes that it is a waste of time to distinguish CS, CM and borrowing during research when referring to the social uses of CS. Therefore, for the duration of this paper I will not distinguish between CS and borrowing in the analysis of the data.

2.2 Definition of a Bilingual

In order to fully understand the functions of CS in any context, we must first understand that CS is a phenomenon that is limited to bilingual or multilingual people. Therefore, it is necessary to define and describe who is a bilingual or multilingual and what bilinguality is. Similarly, to the controversies in the definition of CS, there are also controversies in the definition of a bilingual individual. The main controversies in the definitions of bilingual individuals are: the proficiency and competence in both languages, cultural proficiency and the definition of a native or native-like speaker (Hamers & Blanc, 2010). At what level of proficiency is someone considered “good enough” to be bilingual?

Hamers and Blanc (2000) view bilinguality as “the psychological state of an individual who has access to more than one linguistic code as a means of social communication” (p. 6). In this paper, this definition will be used when referring to someone as a bilingual. Some researchers differentiate between a bilingual and a multilingual (Cook & Bassetti, 2011). However, for this study, a bilingual refers to those who can utilize two or more languages in social communication.

2.3 Motivations to Code-switch

Most studies on motivations to code-switch have shown that CS functions primarily as a symbol of group identity among members of a speech

community (Milroy & Wei, 1995). Gumperz (1982) introduced reference to CS functions as ‘we-code’ and ‘they-code’, terms that refer to in-group relations and out-group relations. In-group, or ‘we-code’, refers to the language used in informal, comfortable situations such as with family and friends. The out-group, or ‘they-code’, refers to the majority language that serves the mainstream community. A possible example of this is the use of Javanese in Indonesia, where Indonesian is the ‘they-code’ and Javanese is the ‘we-code’.

2.4 The Functions and Meaning of Code-switching

In fulfilling the aforementioned relational and referential functions, CS is seen to convey both social and linguistic meanings (Cheng, 2003). Cheng (2003) has compiled and expanded on a list which includes Gumperz’ (1982) functions of CS. In this study, these functions will be used as a base for categorizing data elicited from the participants. The functions are as follows (taken from Cheng, 2003):

- To appeal to the literate
- To appeal to the illiterate
- To convey a more exact meaning
- To ease communication; utilize the shortest and easiest route
- To negotiate with greater authority
- To capture attention
- To reiterate a point
- To communicate more effectively
- To identify with a particular group
- To close the status gap
- To establish goodwill and support

This is but an example of the potential functions of CS. Findings that are inconsistent with this list will be described in detail in the discussion.

2.5 Studies on Korean-English Code-switching

The majority of the studies that have been done on Korean-English CS have shown that code choice and CS is either a reflection of the interlocutors’ relationship and/or is context-dependent. Yoon (1996) argues that Korean-English CS is primarily a reflection of the social relationship between the interlocutors. For example, Yoon (1996) found that group membership was an important factor in the code choice of the interlocutors. Her study showed that the more distant

the conversation partners are, the more they use Korean during the conversation. Conversely, the closer or more intimate the relationship they have, the more they use English. In relation to switching in conversation, the interlocutors who were distant used much smaller sized switches and operated in a mostly monolingual mode, whereas the interlocutors who were closer and had a more intimate relationship tended to use large-sized switches and generally favored the use of English. Finally, Yoon (1996) argues that the choice to use Korean with relationally distant Korean-English bilinguals is brought about by cultural features that are embedded in the Korean language. For example, it is appropriate for a Korean to speak in an honorific tone when speaking to someone that they do not know or who is older than them.

Chung (2006) also argues that CS and code choice are shaped by the dynamics of the relationship of the speakers. In her study, she investigates the use of CS among family members who are first and second generation Korean-American bilinguals. She examines code choice and switching with respect to Korean cultural norms. For example, “the expression of [a father’s] affection toward his children or spouse with an ‘I love you’ is suppressed by the influence of Confucianism in Korean culture” (Chung, 2006, p.305). Therefore, when the father switches to English to say ‘I love you’ before going to bed, Chung (2006) sees switching into English to say ‘I love you’ as a way for a first generation Korean-American father to cope with embedded Confucianism ideas yet adapt to his children’s wants and needs as second generation Korean-Americans.

Shin (2010) examines the use of CS in a Korean Sunday school in Illinois, USA. Through her data, she suggests that CS into Korean constructs and reinforces social hierarchies. Additionally, the way Korean Sunday school teachers switch from English to Korean can be useful for maintaining and reinforcing children’s Korean identity. Not only does this type of switching reinforce the children’s identity, but in a teacher-student setting, CS into Korean can be a powerful tool for teachers to transmit Korean traditional values and reinforce hierarchical relationships (Shin, 2010).

Other studies on Korean-English CS have focused less on the interlocutors’ social relationship and more on the context of the CS occurrences. Shim (2014) concludes that CS is a form of language practice that is not only constrained by social and cultural contexts and meanings but also constitutes, transforms, and re-articulates the social/cultural contexts and meanings

attached to them. That is, Korean-English CS can serve not only as a reflection of social relationships but also serve to change the context or meaning of an utterance. Shim (2014) examined a dinner table conversation among 6 Korean-American bilinguals. She found three contextualization cues that were used by the speakers of her study: CS as contextualizing turn-taking, CS as contextualizing emphasis and clarification, and CS as contextualizing repair. She notes that although the individual speakers made their own choice of the codes in their interaction, their choices were still constrained by the norms of Korean society.

Pagano’s (2010) study is one of the few that investigates Korean-English CS from a non-Korean-American context. Pagano (2010) examines an instance of CS between two Korean women who are discussing a political topic in English. It was found that one of the participants used CS to establish intersubjectivity. Interestingly, this attempt at social identity agreement was rejected. The interlocutors in the analyzed conversation were living in Australia as study abroad students. One of the interlocutors, Mi Yun, tried to establish intersubjectivity by using the Korean word *uhnee* (big sister) to address the other, Kate. However, Kate rejects this attempt and when asked why, she said speaking Korean was not appropriate since they were talking about the political topic for an English university project. Pagano (2010) attributes this to Mi Yun’s and Kate’s drastically different attitudes towards Korea and Korean culture.

A study by Flores-Ferrán and Suh (2015) shows how Korean-English CS is used during conflict-related interactions. Their study investigates how bilingual parents and children employ CS as a negotiating tool in a conflict during meal time. Flores-Ferrán and Suh (2015) describe how the parents and three children strategically used Korean and English to overcome the meal time conflict. The way the parents and children used CS was different. For example, the parents used Korean to issue warnings, reprimands, and demands with the purpose of persuading the children to do something. The children used CS to issue appeals, pleas, and mitigated their speech by using Korean and switching registers to persuade their parents to recant or change their stances.

2.6 Summary of the Studies on Code-switching

The three studies from Yoon (1996), Chung (2006) and Shin (2010) have shown how Korean-English CS serves as a reflection of social relationships. Shim (2014), Pagano (2010) and Flores-Ferrán and Suh

(2015) describe contextual uses of Korean-English CS. All of the studies, whatever their focus, show that when a bilingual uses CS, the context of the conversation and the social relationship among the interlocutors cannot be separated. That is, the context affects the relationship and the relationship is a part of the context. The studies also show that the relationship among the interlocutors has a large impact on the amount of CS that is employed in the conversation, even when it is known that the participants are bilingual (Yoon, 1996). Finally, the studies show that CS is used in many ways, particularly for contextualizing (Shim, 2014), intersubjectivity (Pagano, 2010), showing authority (Shin, 2010; Yoon, 1996) and persuasion (Flores-Ferrán & Suh, 2015).

As stated earlier, the large majority of the studies on Korean-English CS have been with only Korean ethnic participants. In the reviewed literature, almost all the participants, with the exception of Pagano's (2010) study, are first, second or third generation Korean-Americans. There have not even been many studies on Korean-English CS in a Korean context except within the classroom (Ahn & Yang, 2004; Liu et al., 2004). Additionally, according to my extensive literature search, there is not any research on Korean-English CS where the participants are not ethnic Koreans. My study serves to observe Korean-English CS in the English worship service of a South Korean church in which several of the participants are not ethnic Koreans. However, all the participants are Korean-English bilinguals though at differing proficiency levels. Additionally, the vast majority of research done on the reasons for CS is only based off of the researcher's ideas of reasons for CS. There are very few studies in which the researcher asks the participants why they code-switched. It would be interesting to compare my own inferences with the participants' ideas of why they code-switch.

The remaining portion of this paper will describe a qualitative research project on bilingual CS in a social environment in which the participants are Korean-English bilinguals. In particular, I would like to research (1) the functions of CS in informal conversation and (2) the reasons participants give for code-switching from English to Korean. My proposed research questions are as follows:

- 1) What are the functions of CS that cause bilingual adults to code-switch into Korean in an informal, primarily English social setting?
- 2) What are the reasons that bilingual adults give for code-switching into Korean in a primarily English social setting?

3. Methodology

In this section, the participants, research design, data collection procedures, data sources and data analysis will be described. Firstly, I will introduce each of the participants and describe my sampling method. Secondly, I will describe the research design and the data collection procedures. In the next section, I will talk about the instruments used to collect data and explain the measures taken to enhance the trustworthiness and credibility of the study. Finally, I will explain how I analyze the data that emerges from the study and answer my research questions.

3.1 Participants

The participants of this study come from a small group of people who attend an English-speaking church service. Approximately 16 people agreed to participate in the study. I want to use this group because the vast majority are young college students, some ethnically Korean and some not, who attend a Korean university and take most of their courses in English, yet have studied Korean extensively and have friends who they speak Korean with. There are also members of the group whose first language is Korean but are also proficient in English.

I chose this group of people because of the unique nature of a group of English-Korean speaking young adults from different parts of the world. I have focused until now on the fact that English speakers may code-switch into Korean. This is a reflection of the growth of Korean as a second language among people who have only learned it for the purpose of functioning in Korean society as their home countries and, for some, their families, do not use the language. Korean was not traditionally a very popular language to learn, but since the growth of K-pop and Korean TV shows, Korean is starting to rise up as a language that young people in particular are eager to learn. Some members of this church group are evidence that Korean is a language that non-Koreans are increasingly making efforts to learn. For this reason, I think this group of people is interesting to study.

It is important to note that I could not collect data from all 16 of the participants. This is due to some participants not joining every church service or some participants standing far away from the recording devices or not producing any code-switching. The 16 participants are the people who agreed to allow me to use their conversations as data for this study.

3.2 Research Design and Data Collection Procedures

The design of this study is a descriptive (non-experimental) study. This design is suitable because the nature of the study is observational. There are no variables in this study that will be manipulated. Simply put, this research project consists of recording naturalistic data, analyzing the data, and following up with the participants who produced the data in a non-invasive manner.

In detail, I video and voice recorded the social that takes place after an English church service in South Korea. The small group usually stands around a café bar (the room used to be a café) and chats about their lives for about half an hour. Prior to data collection, I had already witnessed CS among the group multiple times, which is what gave me the idea to perform this research. I recorded this weekly meeting every Sunday for about 5 weeks. I followed up with the participants to inquire about their opinions of motivation for their own CS.

3.3 Data Sources

There are 4 instruments that I have used to collect and analyze data in this study: an interview, a video camera, a high-quality voice recorder, Audacity and Kakaotalk.

I have designed an interview that I will distribute to the group members who are willing to participate in my research. The type of interview is a semi-structured interview. In a semi-structured interview, the interviewer uses predetermined questions to elicit comparable data across interviewees, but also allows for expansion and elaboration in responses (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). One of the pitfalls of questionnaires or interviews is that the participants may not take them seriously and not answer the questions thoroughly or truthfully. In a one-on-one interview, the interviewer and interviewee engage in conversation and may be more interesting and engaging than just writing answers on a paper. The interview took between 10 to 20 minutes. The purpose of doing an interview in my study is to gather language background information about my participants and to find out how they perceive themselves as Korean-English bilinguals. The interview can be viewed in the appendix of this paper. Gathering this information about the participants is essential because there may be a correlation between their proficiency in English or Korean, ethnic background, attitude about English or Korean, and CS.

A video recorder and high quality voice recorder were used as a pair to collect the data. The video recorder allowed me to see which participant was talking, increasing the trustworthiness of transcribed data. However, due to background sounds or low quality video recording, I accompanied the video recorder with a high-quality conference voice recorder. The recorder has a playback function as well as a built-in USB port for ease of moving files. The recorder also has two microphones for picking up sound from two directions and a function that recognizes background sounds that can be either deleted or enhanced. Using a software program called Audacity, I was able to slow down, speed up and edit the recorded data for maximum accuracy.

Lastly, I used a messaging application, Kakaotalk, to follow up with participants about their CS instances. Specifically, I messaged the participants asking them why they think they code-switched in the instance/instances that they did. I have chosen to use Kakaotalk because it is an application that is familiar and actively used by all the participants. It is a less-invasive method than phone calling to follow up with the participants which could reduce the risk of losing participants during the research period. I also inquired through Kakaotalk less than 3 days after data collection to prevent the participants from forgetting about their conversations.

3.4 Data Analysis

After collecting the data, it is transcribed into a table and the participant follow up is literally transcribed in a column to the right of the transcription. Next, I write my thoughts about the switch based on Cheng's (2003) and Gumperz' (1982) functions of code-switching as well as anything else that might be relevant to the switch, such as context. The reason for using Cheng's (2003) and Gumperz' (1982) functions of CS is that Gumperz' (1982) study is widely used in CS research and is the theoretical base for many researchers' explanations of the reasons of CS. Since it is widely used, using the same piece of literature makes my research more valid because it is similar to other published research.

4. Results

In this section, I will present the data and answer the research questions as I interpret the data. I will describe themes that emerged from the data and offer examples using transcriptions of conversation data collected from the participants.

4.1 Data Presentation

Example 1

Most of the CS incidences were single-word code-switches. The following example is from Uk and Lynn. Uk is Korean and Lynn is Korean-American, and both are highly proficient in both English and Korean. Korean words are translated in caps directly after the appearance of the word.

Speaker	Transcription
Uk	And I heard their average... 근무연수? TIME PERIOD OF WORKING IN A COMPANY?
Lynn	Uh-huh.
Uk	Is seven to nine years.
Lynn	Wow.
Uk and Lynn continue in English for about 30 seconds.	
Uk	And then I did 신체검사 HEALTH EXAMINATION too. Maybe you did that too.
Lynn	Yeah, I did like 논술 ESSAY TEST too and 인적성검사 ATTITUDE AND ABILITY TEST, 영어면접 ENGLISH INTERVIEW.

Table 1 Example 1

In this instance, Uk and Lynn were talking about typical procedures that employees must undergo before starting work. It is probably much easier for both participants to use the Korean vocabulary items for these words because there is a mutual understanding that they both can speak in Korean.

In the first instance, Uk’s tone fluctuates at the end of the sentence in the first code switch, almost like he is asking a question after the Korean word. This could be him checking Lynn’s reaction to make sure Lynn knows the vocabulary item. Once Lynn confirmed, Uk confidently inserted another Korean item into their conversation.

It could be concluded from instances like these that a contextual factor that causes Korean-English bilinguals to switch in conversation is consensual knowledge of Korean vocabulary items that are more accessible in one language than the other. This is consistent with Cheng (2003) and Gumperz (1982) who mention that a function of CS is to ease communication by utilizing the shortest and easiest route.

During the follow up, Uk mentioned that he didn’t know those words in English which is why he switched to Korean to say those terms. When I asked him if he thought Lynn would know those words, he answered yes since Lynn also has a job in Korea. Lynn also said he had never used those words in English, so he just said the Korean word.

Example 2

The next example is a switch that starts as a one-word switch and then moves into a switch that contains grammatical items as well. The participant, Hyein, is from the Philippines and learned Korean from her parents who are both Korean. She feels more confident and comfortable in English because it is the language that she has always used at school and with friends. She also has Korean friends in Korea who she speaks Korean with. In this instance, she is talking to Uk, a Korean.

Speaker	Transcription
Hyein	Maybe I should. And then like, there was one that I bought for like 칠천원 SEVEN THOUSAND WON it was like, pretty 잘 됐는데 저번에 WELL MADE BUT THAT TIME do you remember when it was like, really rainy?

Table 2 Example 2

Similarly to example 1, the switch to talking about monetary items in Korean is probably easier since it is associated with a Korean context. In relation to the next switch, describing the umbrella and then talking about a time in the past, may be due to the desire to connect with Uk who is Korean. Hyein admits, “I had already spoken (seven thousand won) in Korean, so I felt like I needed to continue in Korean... because Uk oppa is better at Korean so I felt like I needed to incorporate a couple Korean words here and there.” Cheng (2003) and Gumperz (1982) discuss that a function of CS is to identify with a particular group, so it appears that Hyein’s use of Korean in this instance is to identify with Uk.

Example 3

Gumperz (1977) mentions that code-switching often occurs when a speaker is reporting someone else’s speech. Kaiying, who is a college student from Singapore, has admitted to not being very proficient in Korean yet code-switches in an instance to report speech while conversing with Vionna from Malaysia.

Speaker	Transcription
Kaiying	Then he was all like, 빨리 가야지 WE HAVE TO GO QUICKLY but then I just turned around really fast because I didn't want to go with him.

Table 3 Example 3

When I asked Kaiying why she code-switched here, she said, at first, that she didn't know, and shortly after she said that that she used Korean because she was talking about exactly what "he" said. From instances like these, it could be concluded that a function of CS is to report speech.

5. Discussion

In this section, I will answer the research questions and interpret my results by comparing them to the other studies on Korean-English CS as described in the literature review. I will also give my own opinions and interpretations on the data that emerged from the recordings based on what I know about this group in particular.

5.1 Research Questions

Unfortunately, I received significantly less data than expected in this study. This is due to the short period of data collection and problems with the recording. The excessive background sound made transcribing difficult and I spent several sessions on "testing out" different ways of placing the recorder and video camera until I could collect data most effectively. Additionally, many of the original participants have not been coming to church because they are busy with final exams at school. Therefore, the answers to my research questions are very changeable and somewhat unreliable.

Research question 1:

What are the functions of CS that cause bilingual adults to code-switch into Korean in an informal, primarily English social setting?

The functions that cause bilingual adults to switch in Korean appear to be consistent with those presented by Cheng (2003) and Gumperz (1982) (refer to section 2.4). In the current, small set of data, there do not appear to be any trends in CS that are more common than others; however, I expect that with more data I would find that single-word code-switching to ease communication would be most common since I have observed this within the group prior to data collection.

This is different from other studies on Korean-English code-switching because most studies, such as Yoon's (1996) study, found that switching to Korean from English was mostly due to intersubjectivity. However, it should be acknowledged that all of the studies on Korean-English code-switching were done with ethnic Korean participants, which may be why the functions of CS are different in this study.

Research question 2:

What are the reasons that bilingual adults give for code-switching into Korean in a primarily English social setting?

According to the collected data, non-Koreans most often said they code-switched because they were talking to a Korean. This is with the exception of example 3, where Kaiying switched to talk about what someone else said to a non-Korean. Koreans mentioned that they code-switched because they knew the listener would understand or they did not know the Korean word in English.

5.2 Comparing to Other Studies

As mentioned in the literature review, Yoon (1996) argues that Korean-English CS is primarily a reflection of the social relationship between the interlocutors. In my study, the primary language of all conversations was English. However, when an outsider joins the group, if he or she is Korean, Korean members of the group will first approach him or her in Korean. This is consistent with what Yoon (1996) found, as her study showed that the more distant the conversation partners are, the more they use Korean during the conversation. Conversely, the closer or more intimate the relationship they have, the more they use English. In an interview with Daniel, an overseas Korean who learned English at school, mentioned that though he considers Korean to be his first language, he is more comfortable using English with his friends because "English doesn't have all that Korean hierarchy stuff that separates us based on age." This attitude is pervasive in other Korean-English CS studies as well. Therefore, I can assume that with more data collection I will find more instances of CS from English to Korean, however maybe not vice versa.

Prior to performing this study, I expected to find instances of using CS to establish intersubjectivity the way Pagano (2010) did with her participants. Intersubjectivity refers to the psychological relation between two people (Pagano, 2010). In example 2, Hyein refers to participant Uk as "Uk oppa" when

referring to him through the follow up message. This is a small example of intersubjectivity as ‘oppa’ is an address referring to a man who is older than a female speaker. This may be an example of how Hyein thinks of her relationship with Uk. Though she considers him her friend, she still feels the need to acknowledge his social position in relation to hers based on the Korean social norms embedded in the language, even though she was actually communicating with me in English. This is very similar to what Pagano’s (2010) participants did when one of the participants felt the need to establish her relationship to the older Korean interlocutor by using the word ‘uhnee’, a word used to address an older woman by a younger woman.

6. Conclusion

In this section, I will briefly summarize the key outcomes of this study. Then I will describe some implications based on my findings. Finally, I will state the limitations of the study and suggest future research related to this topic.

The data set for this study is very small and therefore limited in the comparisons that can be made with other studies. The data that has emerged thus far has indicated consistency with Cheng’s (2003) and Gumperz’ (1982) descriptions of the functions of CS. It is also consistent with Yoon’s (1996) findings that Korean-English bilinguals tend to prefer the use of English when interacting in intimate relationships.

The main limitation of this study is the time period of collecting data. As mentioned before, I collected data over 5 weeks but due to the participants being mostly students and the general fluidity of the church members’ attendance, I was not able to collect as much data as I had hoped. Additionally, finding a good place for the recording instruments was difficult. Due to background sound, I was not able to hear data that may have contained instances of CS. Finally, some participants held their conversations far away from the recorders. As I will continue data collection, I plan to record the participants separately. That is, I will get multiple voice recorders and ask the participants to wear them discreetly. That way, I can more easily get high quality data.

In the future, it would be interesting to observe CS among Korean-English bilinguals in a Korean context (such as a Korean church or workplace) who have only learned Korean as a second language. For example, in what contexts and for what reasons do non-Koreans switch to their native language from Korean would be very interesting to observe. This would be

of interest because of the international growing interest in learning Korean due to Korean TV dramas and K-pop. However, a group of only Korean language learners is still difficult to find outside of a Korean classroom, though there appears to be a large community of Chinese-Korean second language learners in the university communities. Perhaps this kind of research could be accomplished with a community such as this.

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Enhancement of Equal Speaking Opportunities in an English Speaking Class: Action Research

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Practicum

Abstract

This action research aims to see if and how the interventions generated to give students equal presentation opportunities influence on the class. This study implemented pair work, cooperative learning strategies, lexical enhancement, self-assessment, and the presentation chart (EPOC) inspired by the studies performed by Vygotsky (1978), Leeser (2004), and Oscarson (1989). This project started with 35 undergraduate students from S. Women's University in Seoul, and was carried out in the evening class which met twice a week for 15 weeks. The students were grouped in seven groups with seven teachers from the graduate school program. In this study, it was discovered that Equal Presentation Opportunity Chart (EPOC) was effective in giving the students equal speaking opportunities. It was also revealed that pair work, cooperative learning strategies, and lexical enhancement promoted the participation of the low proficiency students in the given tasks. In addition, it was proven that the self-assessment had a good influence on students' having equal speaking opportunities.

1. Introduction

English in Action Speaking class was designed to give the students an opportunity to develop skills and strategies for increasing their English speaking proficiency. This will help the students to develop and build the skills needed for attaining a higher score on the ACTFL OPI and OPIC speaking tests. In this class, the students mainly focused on skills related to spoken English, but other skills, such as reading and writing, are also used in the classroom. This is a student-centered class which focuses on helping the students build their English speaking competency through interactional and transactional tasks. Tasks are designed for the students based on their Needs Analysis (Figure 1). Thus, the tasks are based on students' interests and also help the students practice to improve their English proficiency in the real world.

There were 35 students whose English proficiency levels and majors vary. They were all female undergraduate students in S. Women's University in Seoul, Korea, and their ages ranged from 20 to 29 years old. The majority of students in this class were Korean, but there were three Chinese students and one Taiwanese student. According to the needs analysis, the survey shows that they have an average of 10 years English learning experience at school. The survey indicates that the students have different personalities; some of them were more introverted while some of them were more extroverted. Most students use English an average of 10 hours a week. Based on the survey, all students were more confident in vocabulary, writing, and grammar than speaking, listening, and pronunciation. For the question 'How friendly you are with English?' in the needs analysis, most of them believed that English is their friend, not their enemy (Figure 1). Furthermore, the survey revealed that the favorite types of English learning tasks in the class were: describing, group presentation, vocabulary, and pronunciation practice. The analysis also shows the types of materials they like to use in the class are: social media, video, sound bites, short articles, and worksheets. The most interesting 5 topics were: travel, movies, cultural differences, art/music, and food (cooking).

In this course, the students met twice a week, Tuesdays and Thursdays, and each class went for two hours from 6 p.m. to 8 p.m. There were seven big sisters from TESOL MA program who participated in the class as group leaders and took turns to run the class. Each big sister had around five students with varied language proficiency and provided feedback on their English production. For the assessment, the students were required to take a speaking assessment three times during the course. The students and big sisters had a one-on-one interview formatted according to the ACTFL OPI speaking test. Every week, the students were also responsible for uploading a specific type of speaking assignment on the website on the different topics related to the weekly themes. There were also reading assignments created by big sisters in order to help the students to prepare for class each week. The students had to hand in their reading homework on Thursdays, so that the professor could check and provide feedback on them. This was an English-only class which means that all aspects of the course, including in-class discussion, presentation, and all assignments were conducted in English.

2. Research Question

The positive effectiveness of TBLT (Task-Based Language Teaching) in second language teaching seems obvious and the number of TBLT-based courses has kept increasing in the Korean language teaching environment. Since TBLT runs through tasks which require students' participation, students' participation is regarded as one of the most influential factors in the success of lesson. Likewise, in English in Action Speaking (EAS) class, students' participation is often mentioned as the biggest issue. Some students were eager to speak while others rarely show their initiatives of speaking during class. Also, it is found that the higher a student's proficiency is, the more likely a student will take part in the given tasks. As we noticed this issue, we encouraged the lower proficiency students to participate more so all students would have equal speaking opportunities. Here is the research question:

How can we provide more equal speaking opportunities for our students, encouraging especially the low proficiency level students to speak more?

3. Rationale

We observed the students in EAS class for five weeks. Since the third week we noticed one problematic area to be dealt with, which was the unequal speaking opportunity among the students. In each group, there were one or two advanced level students except one group which consists of four intermediate high students and one intermediate low student. Those advanced level students had more opportunities to speak in group and most of them usually became each group's presenter when we had presentation time. This issue was raised a couple of times in teachers' reflections.

"I noticed that most of the times, more advanced students tend to talk compare[sic] to the shy and less advanced students. We may prepare activities that can be done in pairs more, rather than[sic] whole group activities."

- Hyangwon's reflection on March 18, 2016

"In group activity, there are[sic] always some issues on each member's participation rate though, I should have encouraged some students who just sat and looked at the poster to be more involved in the activity."

- Wookyung's reflection on March 11, 2016

We think some students who are shy and in lower language level are afraid of making mistakes and it causes them to not talk much. To provide the speaking opportunities equally, at the first phase of our intervention, we prepared pair works, cooperative learning strategies, a presentation checklist, and self-assessment. Then, at the next phase, including ex-interventions, we decided to add the activities for enhancing student's lexical knowledge because throughout our classroom observation, the students could be involved in speaking activity more when they had more lexical knowledge on the themes and the tasks. The needs analysis at the beginning of this course showed that our students were the most confident in vocabulary, and the least confident in speaking, listening, and then, pronunciation (see Figure 1). We assumed that if we reinforce the student's strengths, the students could be more confident, which in turn would reduce negative affective filter such as stress, anxiety, lack of self-confidence, and so on.

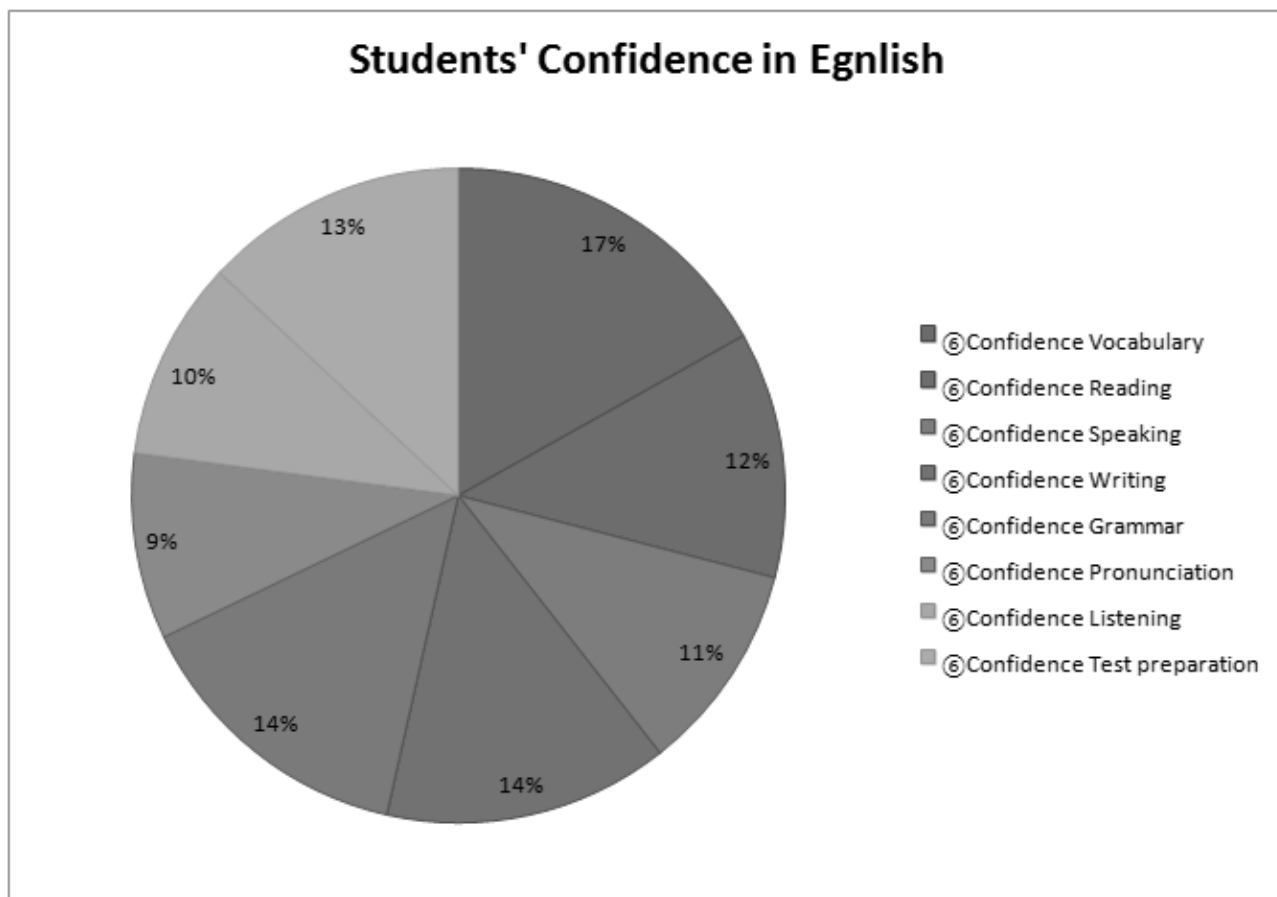


Figure 1. Needs Analysis in EAS class 2016. March.

In short, pair work may reduce their anxiety and they perhaps talk with the partner more comfortably. Also, cooperative learning strategies will surely give them opportunities to learn from their peers. Furthermore, self-assessment can make them aware of how much they participate in every class and will stimulate them to intentionally participate more. In addition, the presentation checklist will be shown to the students and we expect each student to volunteer for the presentation more often by the means of making them aware of how many times they present. Finally, increasing the knowledge of vocabulary related to each day’s lesson will make them more confident and it will surely motivate them to speak more.

4. Intervention

This section shows intervention plan and data collection. The first intervention plan was applied from the seventh week of the course and classroom observations, EPOC, and Self-Assessment were used to collect data.

	Treatment	Description
Week 7	Intervention week 1 Cooperative learning strategies (Write-around) Equal presentation opportunity Self-assessment	In order to help the students to participate actively in activities and have more equal speaking opportunities, we planned four types of intervention strategies: pair work, cooperative learning strategies, self-assessment, and equal presentation opportunity chart.
Week 9	Intervention week 2 Pair work Equal presentation opportunity Self-assessment	

Week 10	Intervention week 3 Cooperative learning strategies (modified Jigsaw) Equal presentation opportunity Self-assessment	In addition, we applied lexical enhancement strategy after three intervention weeks as we noticed the students needed to increase word knowledge in order to speak more confidently using target language. We implemented the intervention strategies and observed our students based on the plans for five weeks. However, the pair work plan and cooperative learning strategies were done every other week to see the effectiveness of the system.
Week 11	Intervention week 4 Pairwork Lexical enhancement (Crossword puzzle, Ice Cream Painting) Equal presentation opportunity Self-assessment	
Week 12	Intervention week 5 Cooperative learning strategies (Tea party & Write-around) Lexical enhancement (Bingo) Equal presentation opportunity Self-assessment	

Table 1. Intervention plan

4.1. Data Collection

In this action research, mixed methods were used to collect the qualitative and the quantitative data from the participants in English in Action Speaking class, the students (called little sisters) and the teachers (called big sisters) including the supervisor of the practicum course. The current study used three instruments to collect data: classroom observation, EPOC, and self-assessment.

4.1.1. Classroom Observation

For the classroom observation, teachers' recorded weekly reflections on the practicum reflection board and classroom video tapes were used. All teachers in English in Action Speaking class wrote their reflections every week on the board which was accessible to the teachers only. Those reflections gave plentiful information of the dynamic that existed between students and students, and students and teachers. Through these reflections, we could get useful information and insights to figure out whether the interventions worked or not and whether we needed to change our strategies. Also, the videos which were taped during every class since the fourth week of EAS class gave more objective evidence that showed how effective or ineffective our interventions were.

4.1.2. Equal Presentation Opportunity Chart (EPOC)

EPOC (see appendix A) was designed to record who gave the presentation to the whole group or within the group in small group work. This chart shows how often presentations were given and by whom. This was checked by each teacher at the end of each class for five weeks. This chart was also shown to the students so that they could know how often and how many times they presented.

4.1.3. Self-Assessment

At the end of every class, all students filled out the self-assessment form (see appendix B). This included four quantitative questions with the following four answer choices: yes, so-so, not really, no, and one qualitative question which asks the students how they can improve their participation next time. The four questions are below:

1. I actively participated in all the activities today.
2. I asked questions to others to carry out the activities.
3. I provided some ideas to complete the tasks.
4. I volunteered to present our group work.

The students' answers were counted and summed up in an Excel spreadsheet in order to see how their answers changed throughout the interventions.

Also, the answers to the last question were categorized in three common themes after they were collected: Reading Homework, Vocabulary, and Presentation.

5. Results

5.1. Equal Presentation Opportunity Chart

In English in Action Speaking class, in order to give the students equal presentation opportunities, we made a chart named Equal Presentation Opportunity Chart (EPOC, see appendix A). We explained to other teachers the purpose of the chart and it has been shown to the students in order for them to recognize how many times they themselves had given presentation to the whole class or in their groups. To see how EPOC affects the

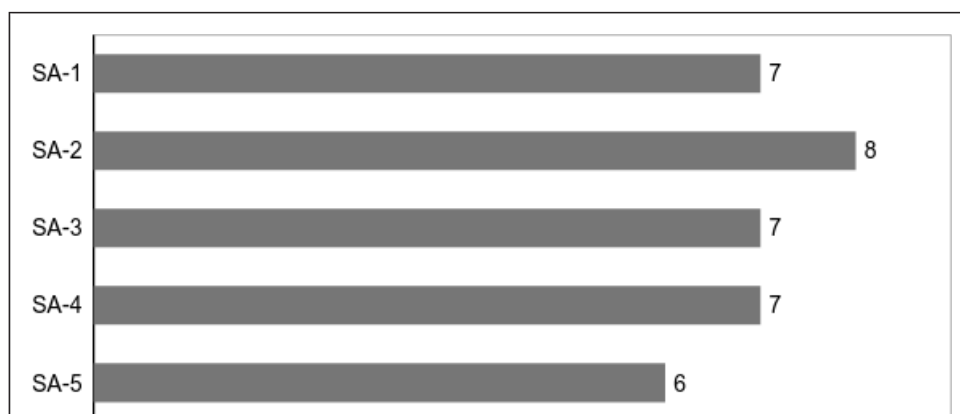


Figure 2. The EPOC Results of Group A

number of presentations given by each student, we collected data from the results of EPOC from week 1 to week 5 of interventions. The results of the EPOC are shown in the Figures below.

As shown above, the students in Group A succeeded in having quite even presentation opportunities. The other groups, whose EPOC results are shown below, were not quite as successful in this regard. We think the big sister of this group used the EPOC effectively to give the students equal speaking chances. The most likely reason this group could yield positive effects from EPOC system is that the big sister of this group paid attention to give equal opportunities with this chart system. We could see that she deeply cared for this system from her reflections.

... In order to have an equal opportunity to present our group's idea, I encouraged them to do 'rock, paper, scissors'.

- HW's reflection on April 08, 2016

... I noticed that because of the checklist system (EPOC), the sisters had an equal opportunity to present either in group or in class this week. In my opinion, the system works well since the sisters can see how often they have been presenting; this led them to volunteer more for the presentation opportunities.

- HW's reflection on May 20, 2016

Figure 3 shows that the students in Group B had fairly even presentation opportunities, but slightly less so than Group A. We concluded that the big sister of this group paid more attention when the students decided who would present using EPOC. However, an interesting fact is that SB-1 and SB-2 with lower proficiency level presented less than other students in spite of EPOC system.

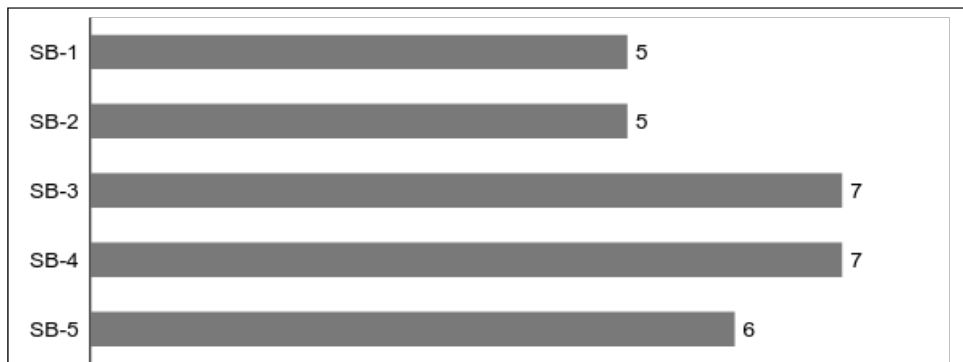


Figure 3. The EPOC Results of Group B

Moreover, from the reflection of the big sister of Group B, we found that the big sister paid close attention to this EPOC system so that it did indeed work well. She explained the purpose of EPOC and facilitated the students to take turns using this system.

... I showed them the equal presentation opportunity chart and explained the goal of the chart, giving them equal chance to speak to the whole class. They seemed to understand the goal of chart and took turns presenting when they were required to present to the whole class.

- WK's reflection on May 02, 2016

... Also, my little sisters had equal opportunities in presenting their work and without my intervention. They divided things they had to do since they all knew they needed to have presenting opportunities equally.

- WK's reflection on May 15, 2016

In Figure 4, we found that the students in Group C had quite even presentation opportunities except student SC-4. We concluded that SC-4 has not only high proficiency level, but also outgoing and hardworking personality. This is the main reason that she had the most presentation opportunities in the whole class.

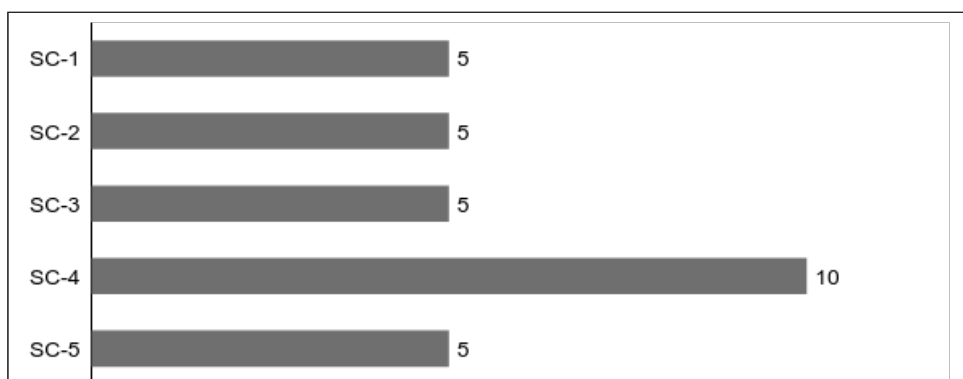


Figure 4. The EPOC Results of Group C

The big sister of Group C endeavored to use this EPOC and its positive effects were demonstrated in her reflections.

Moreover, before they chose the people who would present, I showed them the presentation checklist and accordingly they volunteered themselves for the whole group presentation.

- Seogyeon's reflection on May 01, 2016

...whenever we had group presentations, I showed the students our presentation checklist. The checklist informed them of who had many presentation opportunities and who had less. According to the list, the students decided who would present.

- SY's reflection on May 21, 2016

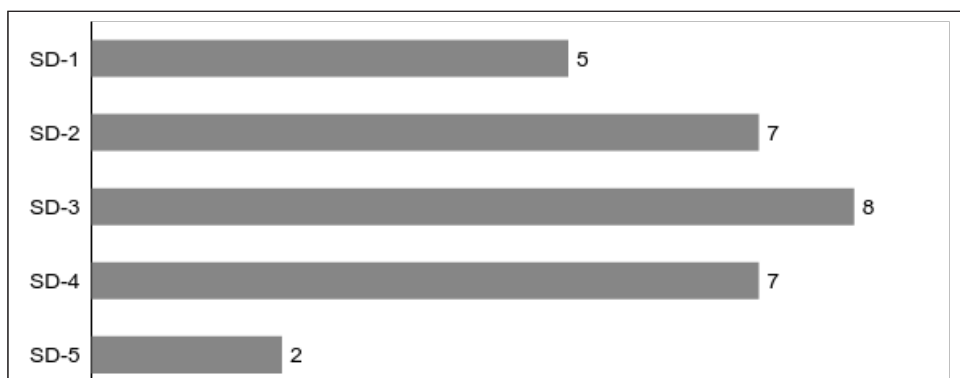


Figure 5. The EPOC Results of Group D

Figure 5 shows that the students in Group D had relatively even presentation opportunities except SD-5. SD-5 was absent since intervention week 2 because of her job training. Since the group atmosphere was quite active because of students' nature and characteristics in this group even though the big sister didn't encourage the use of EPOC, the students could have relatively even presentation chances.

Group E failed to give the students even presentation opportunities. SE-4 who has the highest proficiency level in this group presented nine times and it means that she was dominant when it comes to the presentation. Also, SE-2 and SE-3 had just three presentation opportunities during the whole six intervention weeks even though they weren't absent. Moreover, based on the video observation, we could see that SE-4 and SE-5 actively participated and interacted with the big sister of this group a lot, but rest of the group members did not talk often. We concluded that if the big sister and the students in this group had employed EPOC system more effectively, they could have yielded better results.

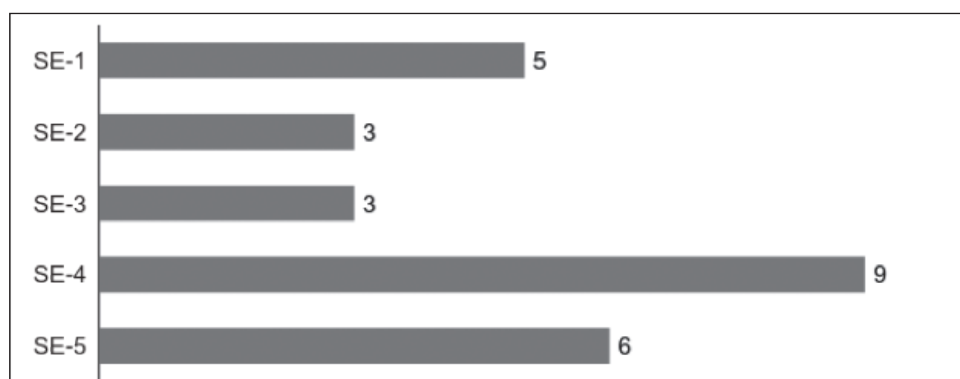


Figure 6. The EPOC Results of Group E

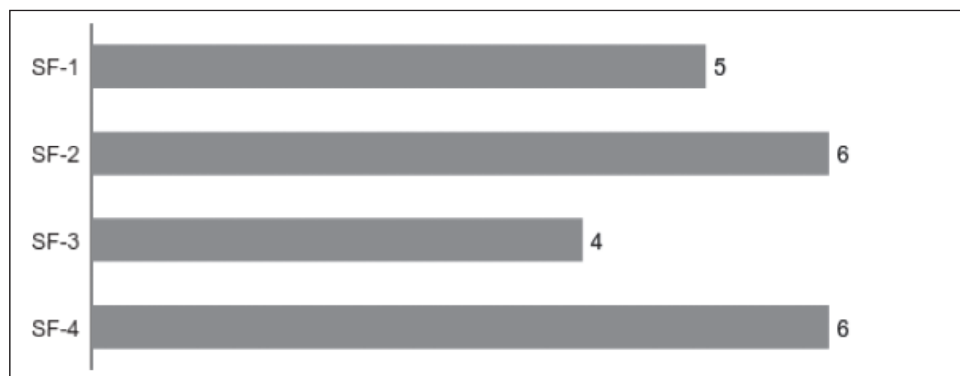


Figure 7. The EPOC Results of Group F

Figure 7 and Figure 8 also show that students in groups F and G had even presentation opportunities and effective EPOC use by big sisters.

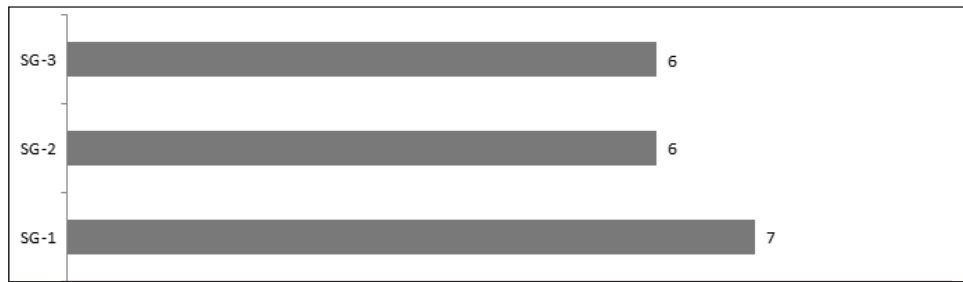


Figure 8. The EPOC Results of Group G

From the all figures above, all the chances of presentation were relatively more evenly distributed than before EPOC system was implemented. We monitored our videotape which had been recorded from week 4. We found that in the beginning of EAS course, we could usually see the same students from each group came to the front and presented on behalf of their group. However, after the intervention, we noticed that in every class, different students appeared at the front for the whole group presentation. Dr. D.R., who had supervised our practicum and watched those videos together, also mentioned in class that our recent classroom videos showed that many different students had participated in the whole group presentation. This, along with the data in the charts above, proved the effectiveness of using EPOC.

Additionally, we found that some students actively took part in presentation activities when they were with other groups, so they had more ticks on the chart. Therefore, EPOC system shows that it also worked when students were with other groups, which might ordinarily discourage students to participate in class activities. Additionally, EPOC promoted students to volunteer on tasks since they could see how many times they presented.

5.2. Increased Students' Participation

From the data, we found that some intervention results show that students' participation in the activities has increased. The interventions were self-assessment and cooperative learning strategy. In order to help the students to speak more, we implemented self-assessment opportunity along with other intervention plans. We thought it could help the students to be aware of their participation in the activities. There are four statements and one question for them to assess themselves (see appendix B).

Figure 9 shows the results of the first statement: 'I actively participated in all the activities today.' This showed a negative result on the second week since the students had a false assumption about the assessment in week 1.

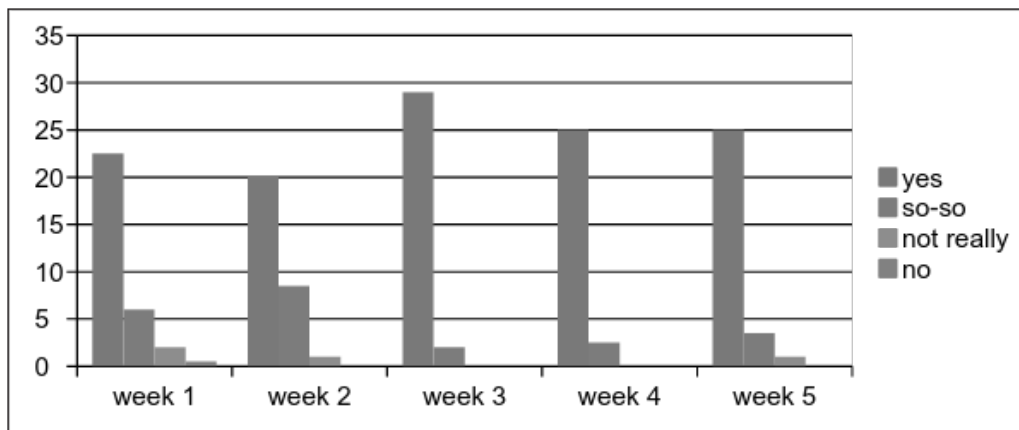


Figure 9. Results of student's self-assessment question: "I actively participated in all the activities today."

They weren't being honest about the statement on the first week since they thought this assessment was a part of the grades. However, the students were honest from the second assessment as we gave them a clear explanation about it. The figure shows that the students' participation in the activities started to increase from the third week which means the students have been having more opportunities to speak. However, we noticed that the blue bar got smaller on the fourth week. This is because we didn't use a mean score on the third week since we had only one class because of the national holiday, Children's Day. In addition, there were more presentation opportunities on the third week compared to the fourth and fifth weeks which we can possibly guess that the students could have felt that they had more actively participated in the activities. Therefore, we can claim that the students' participation and speaking opportunities were increasing from the third week until the fifth week since they were aware of their performance using the target language during classes by assessing themselves. Specifically, as the blue bar for responding 'yes' is much higher than other bars, we can probably argue that the students had more equal opportunities to speak.

Figure 10 shows the results of statement 2: 'I asked questions to others to carry out the activities.' The results have the same problem on the second week because of the false assumption that the students had on the assessment. From the Figure 9, we also noticed that the blue bar on the third week was higher than the blue bars on the fourth and fifth week because of the single class and more presentation opportunities during the week. However, similar to the result of the first statement, this shows a positive outcome overall. The majority of students have been actively asking questions to carry out the activities, which can be interpreted that students' speaking opportunities have increased.

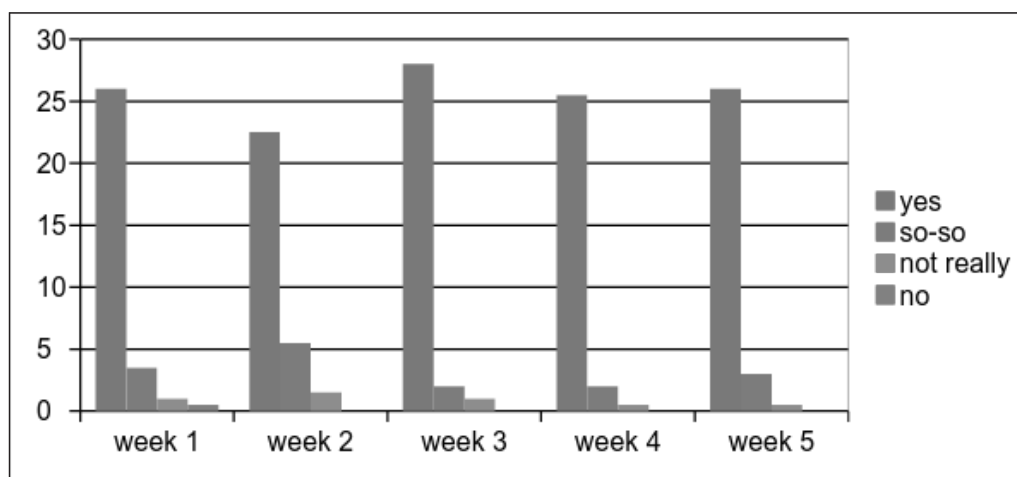


Figure 10. Results of student's self-assessment question: "I asked questions to others to carry out the activities."

Figure 11 shows the results of the statement 3: 'I provided some ideas to complete the tasks.' Similar to Figure 9 and Figure 10, the blue bar has decreased on the second week because of the students' false assumptions on the self-assessment and it also decreased on the fourth week due to the same issues. Nevertheless, on the whole, we could see the students have been providing some ideas for the activities, and the blue bar ('yes') has gradually increased every week. From this, we can assert that the students have been having more opportunities to talk during the class. In addition, as the majority of students checked 'yes' on this statement, we can see that they have been having more equal opportunities to speak.

In terms of students' initiative, we found that EPOC promotes the students to volunteer for the whole group presentation and Figure 12, self-assessment result, also shows the positive effect of EPOC. The answers to the fourth question of self-assessment show that the number of students who said "I volunteered to present our group work" has increased over time. We concluded that the students could see how many times they presented to the whole group and they volunteered to catch up with other students who had already done whole group presentation.

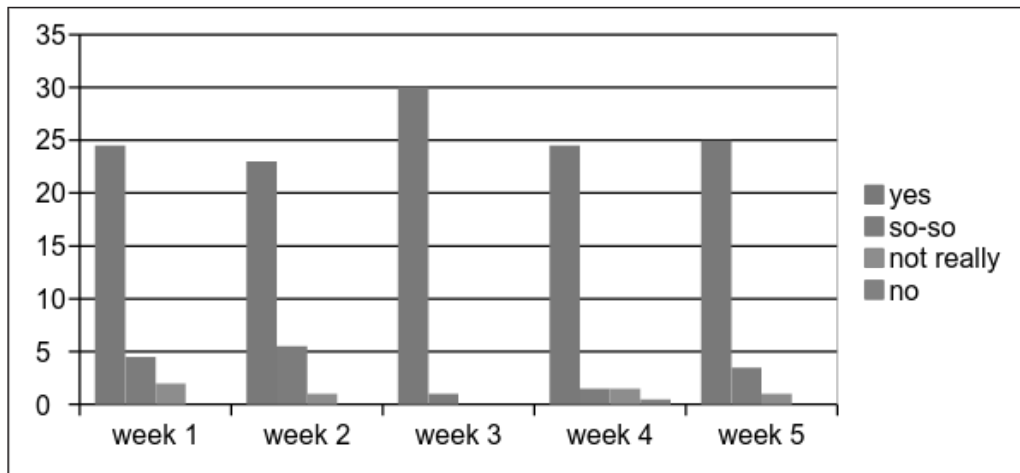


Figure 11. Results of student's self-assessment question: "I provided some ideas to complete the tasks."

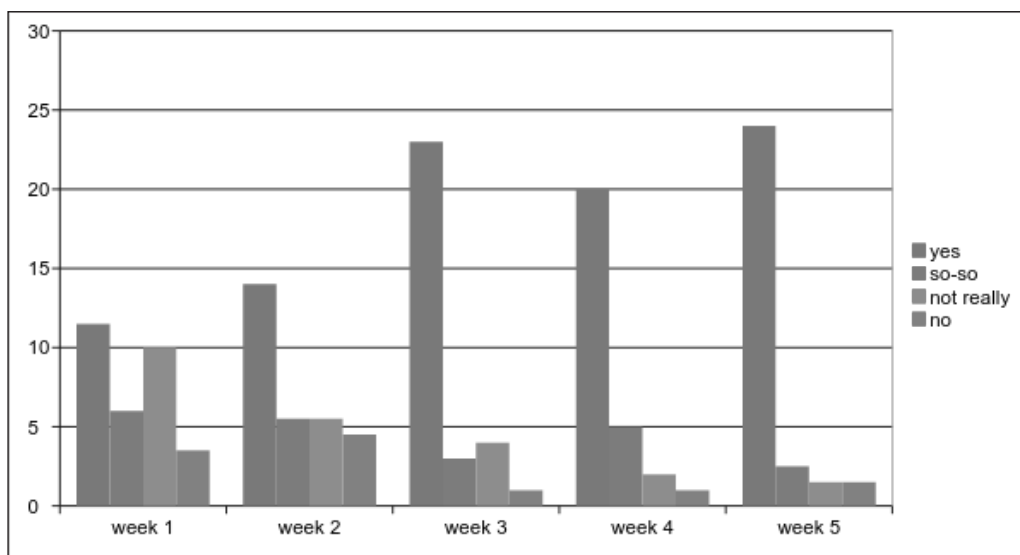


Figure 12. Results of student's self-assessment question: "I volunteered to present our group work."

In addition, cooperative learning involves students working in teams to accomplish a common goal. However, cooperative learning is not simply a synonym for students working in groups. In cooperative learning, team members are obliged to rely on one another to achieve the goal. If any team members fail to do their part, everyone suffers the consequences. All students in a group are held accountable for doing their share of the work and for mastery of all of the material to be learned. Although some of the group work may be parceled out and done individually, some must be done interactively, with group members providing one another with feedback, challenging reasoning and conclusions, and perhaps most importantly, teaching and encouraging one another. Students are encouraged and helped to develop and practice trust-building, leadership, decision-making, communication, and conflict management skills. Team members set group goals, periodically assess what they are doing well as a team, and identify changes they will make to function more effectively in the future.

In order to increase students' participation in speaking opportunities, we implemented cooperative learning activities. They were 'write-around', 'modified Jigsaw' and 'tea party'. In each activity, we noticed that the students discussed together and negotiated the meaning of vocabulary. Also, higher proficiency students helped with lexical knowledge and lower proficiency ones provided outstanding ideas to carry out their tasks. Throughout this cooperative learning the students could gain more knowledge which led to a lower affective filter and this helped them to have more speaking opportunities.

In write-around activity, one student in lower proficiency took time to read and struggled with what to write in the beginning. However, when she received and read the next person's paper, she could manage to write something on it. If she had worked alone, she might have had a few sentences but when her paper came back to her, she found out many sentences on it. This helped her understand the content for the activity and gave her the opportunity to share what she had on the paper.

- SY's reflection on May 21, 2016

'Tea party' and 'write around' worked well enough to encourage all students to speak more. As I mentioned above, the purpose of those two cooperative learning opportunities was to provide the students more equal opportunities to speak as we have been noticed that some of the little sisters who are shy and have low English proficiency level are still reluctant to speak and present while others tend to dominate speaking opportunities.

- HW's reflection on May 20, 2016

As stated above, the students became more confident because of the obtained knowledge through the cooperative learning activities and were surely motivated to speak more.

5.3. Low Proficiency Level Students' Increased Participation

From the class observation at the beginning of the course, we found that there were some students who had a low level of English proficiency and are reluctant to speak during the group discussion. Because of the problem, we planned some intervention strategies, pair work and lexical enhancement opportunities. From the data we gathered, we found that low proficiency students' participation had increased by using the intervention strategies. We collected classroom observation data through our teachers' weekly reflections. According to the data, pair work has helped each student talk to their partners. Here are the examples of teachers' reflections:

...as those two activities held in pairs, all of my little sisters (students) had equal opportunities to speak. I felt that it will be beneficial if we plan more pair up activities in the future since students who have low language proficiency level and are shy can participate more and benefit from doing the activities.

- HW's reflection on April 15, 2016

In the first activity on Tuesday, students were actively participated because they were paired up in each group. Each member had more chance to talk and they enjoyed to talk about culture shock experiences.

- EA's reflection on May 1, 2016

Each week during our intervention, the teachers reported that the students in pairs were busy talking to and listening to their partners. Also, two teachers (HW and SY on April 29) reported that the pairs could present their experiences to the group. This means that each student had an equal speaking opportunity and this pair work helped shy students volunteer themselves to present to the group. Moreover, we found the valuable and important role of pair work activities in SY's reflection on Apr 29. The two students in the pair had a similar character which is shy and unwilling to take initiative for conversation because of their proficiency level. None of them seemed to want to initiate but they finally managed to start their conversation and to finish the task. We are sure that if it was not pair work but group work, they might hide themselves behind other members and not say anything. However, it was pair work and they felt obliged for one of them to start the conversation to accomplish their task and they did it.

In addition, we found that when the students (especially low proficiency level students) had more lexical knowledge, their involvement in the given tasks was increased. Considering this influence of lexical knowledge, we decided to prepare enhancing student's lexical knowledge activities for equal speaking opportunity because throughout our classroom observation, the students could involve speaking activity when they had more lexical knowledge on the themes and the tasks. The needs analysis in the beginning of this course shows that our students are the most confident in vocabulary, and the least confident in speaking, listening, and then,

pronunciation (see Figure 1). We think that if we reinforce the student's strengths, the students can be more confident which will lead to reducing negative affective filter, which includes stress, anxiety, lack of self-confidence, and so on. The following teachers' reflections prove this:

...students had lots of opportunities to speak storytelling informally using connectors (from reading homework and bingo game, added by the writer). I think the students used the target language during all activities without any pause.

- WK's reflection on April 18, 2016

...students actively participated to produce target language which is formal narrative.....and it was good that the students could have ideas about the information for the activities through the reading homework.

- EA's reflection on May 1, 2016

...Cross Puzzle and Ice Cream Painting, made the students focus on the vocabulary which was targeted in the reading homework and for the day tasks.....These lexical enhancement activities made them aware of many different adjectives to describe music and art, and how they feel about the artistic areas and caused them to speak more with their partners because they wanted to give better and easier explanation for their partners to find the answers.

- SY's reflection on May 16, 2016

...from your reflection and those of your classmates, it is evident that the lexical enhancement aspect of your lessons and it's connection with the various activities were effective in helping the students to participate more and to use the target vocabulary more in the lesson.

- Dr. D.R. on May 18, 2016

5.4. Other Outcomes

On question 5 from the self-assessment, 'What can you do to improve your participation next time?', the students responded in various ways. Their answers are categorized into three groups: reading homework, vocabulary, and presentation.

First, there were eight students who answered that they would do their reading homework to improve their participation in class.

Finish my homework before come to class. – KJ

Before the class, I will read the reading materials and memorize the vocabulary. – TK

Do my reading assignment in advance. – NH

Second, nine students answered that they would study vocabulary for participation improvement.

Study vocabulary – JS

Study more words – JH

I think my vocabulary is poor, so I will prepare to learn more words before class. – ZN

Lastly, 12 students answered that they would do more presentation next time.

I just think about sharing the opportunities of presentation for all. – MH

I will try to have a presentation as a representative for my group. – SH

Present instead of making others present – DB

These results show that the students are willing to participate more actively in the class by reading the homework before the class, doing more presentation during the class, and studying more vocabulary. In order to help

the students to speak more, we as teachers have to continue providing reading homework relating to the class activities, adding more lexical enhancement opportunity for the students to improve their vocabulary skills, and using the presentation checklist thoroughly. These provisions allowed the students to have more equal speaking opportunities.

6. Discussion and Implication

This action research was carried out based on three theories: ZPD, cooperative learning strategy, and self-assessment. As far as we were concerned, those theories were effective to help the students to increase their speaking opportunities. According to Vygotsky (1978), “the zone of proximal development is defined as those functions that have not yet matured but are in the process of maturation, functions that will mature tomorrow but are currently in an embryonic state” (p.45). In other words, it is the distance between the learner’s individual ability and the ability to perform with assistance that is the ZPD. From this concept, ZPD is defined where assistance is required and teaching happens with given assistance.

As the ZPD is the theory that can be incorporated to assist students’ learning, we tried to provide opportunities for students to get help from teachers and peers through active interactions and exploring the materials. For example, we provided cooperative learning strategies for all students to have more equal speaking opportunities and especially for low proficiency students to be assisted from interaction with others who are slightly advanced. In addition, we added more lexical items and articles relating to the class discussions in the reading homework for the students to study in advance. As we stated previously, those strategies helped the students to participate more and to have more equal speaking opportunities. Moreover, we as big sisters jumped into the activities whenever the little sisters needed help. The students also had opportunities to study some difficult vocabulary chosen from the reading homework at the beginning of each class. They could ask other group members or big sisters the meaning of the vocabularies. As a result, the intervention strategies’ data turned into positive outcomes as we mentioned earlier.

According to Leiser (2004), research has shown that learners generally perform better in classroom tasks while working together rather than alone (e.g. Storch, 1999). Yule and Macdonald (1990) found that “when higher and lower proficiency learners had certain roles within the task, more negotiation of meaning and turn taking took place” (Leiser, 2004, p. 75). Many researchers argue that cooperative learning puts the student at the center of the class and pair work and group work give many more chances for the students to practice what they already know and use the target language to complete the given tasks properly. Widaman and Kagan (1988) states that cooperative learning is a good way for both high proficiency level and low proficiency level students to learn to facilitate learning.

It is true that the students in EAS class had different language levels, and some of them were a bit shy. However, they performed much better in group work as the advanced students could assist the lower level students. The lower level students would benefit from interaction with peers and teachers. From the data, we can assert that our prediction on using the cooperative learning theory worked well. As we previously indicated, we gave the students cooperative learning opportunities for them to have more equal speaking opportunities and for those who have lower English proficiency level to get assistance from others. For instance, we provided the pair work chances and cooperative learning activities every other week. We can claim that low English proficiency level students had more chances to use the target language when doing pair work activities. From the data using those cooperative learning strategies, we discovered that the students had more actively participated in activities and the low proficiency level students had increased their speaking opportunities as we have provided some various data from teachers’ reflections earlier.

Lastly, self-assessment plays an important role in this research. “Throughout the process of acquiring a second language (L2), learners often assess their own developing abilities. Commonly, this self-assessment can facilitate their learning by helping them develop strategies to enhance their linguistic capabilities” (MacIntyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997, p. 266). Researchers have asserted that self-perceptions of competence are useful for informally assessing mastery of particular skills and may be a key component in any self-regulated learning program. The advantage of self-assessment is learner-centered language teaching and self-regulated language learning. “When students engage in self-assessment and peer assessment, they develop a better understanding of learning goals,

internalize the criteria for high-quality work, and develop metacognitive skills” (Evertson & Neal, 2006, p. 15).

Self-assessment was one of the intervention plans we implemented in order to help our students have equal speaking opportunities and encourage lower proficiency level students to participate more in using the target language. From the self-assessment data, we can argue that the self-assessment helped the students to be aware of their performances in class. There were five statements on the assessment. They are:

- 1 I actively participated in all the activities today.
- 2 I asked questions to others to carry out the activities.
- 3 I provided some ideas to complete the tasks.
- 4 I volunteered to present our group work.
- 5 What can you do to improve your participation next time?

The data shows that all of the above results are positive, which indicates that the students had actively participated in activities and had more speaking opportunities (Figure 2-5). In our opinion, this is because self-assessment was a valuable chance for the students to evaluate themselves, and it gave the students motivation for the next learning opportunity.

Based on the results of this action report, we would like to suggest meaningful ways of applying the findings to the real classroom.

First, the use of equal presentation opportunity chart can be used for various language classrooms to give the students even speaking opportunities. We clearly saw how the use of EPOC positively affected several groups in the class where the students had quite even presentation opportunities and volunteered to present to the whole group. Thus, any teachers who want to have his or her students participate more evenly can take advantage of this EPOC. However, regarding the fact that EPOC system was used for adult students with high language proficiency who might be very capable of performing tasks without difficulties, teachers should make some modifications depending on students’ proficiency level or age. For example, to use this system for young learners, teachers can add a reward system along with the EPOC to maximize its positive effects.

Second, self-assessment can also be employed in language classrooms to promote all students to have speaking opportunities. With self-assessment at the end of every class students can have time to consider how much they took part in the class activities, which helped them to participate more in the following classes. Therefore, EPOC system showed that it also worked when the students were with other groups, which is a meaningful result since sitting with another group tends to decrease students’ participation in class.

Lastly, teachers can prepare more fair activities and collaborative learning strategy activities for the students to have more and even speaking opportunities. Since the students in pairs need to keep communicating with their partners anyway, low proficiency students in pairs are able to have more chances to speak than in bigger groups.

7. Conclusion

7.1 Summary

This Action Research project inquired whether equal speaking opportunity, especially with low language proficiency students, can be obtained by implementing pair work, cooperative learning strategies, lexical enhancement, self-assessment, and the presentation chart (EPOC) inspired by the studies performed by Vygotsky (1978), Leeser (2004), and Oscarson (1989). This project started with 35 undergraduate students from S. Women’s University in Seoul, and was carried out in the evening class which met twice a week for 15 weeks. The students were grouped in 7 groups with 7 teachers from the graduate school program. Reading homework and speaking homework were given to the students every week. After each intervention, data was collected. In this study, it was discovered that Equal Presentation Opportunity Chart (EPOC) was effective in giving students equal speaking opportunities. It was also revealed that using pair work, cooperative learning strategies,

and lexical enhancement promoted the participation of the low proficiency students in the given tasks. In addition, it was proven that the self-assessment had a positive influence on equal speaking opportunity.

7.2 Limitations

There were a couple of limitations throughout this action research. First, even though the students generally got even speaking opportunities, this project showed that compared to the higher proficiency students, the lower proficiency students still had fewer speaking and presentation opportunities. Another limitation was the big sisters' different facilitation in each group. We found that when a big sister, as a group leader, considered low proficiency students' participation and encouraged them to volunteer in presentation, the group's equal presentation opportunity was more apparent. However, when a big sister was not good at facilitating her group for the less active students, the group members' participation was not balanced.

7.3 Future Studies

For the future studies, it may be interesting to see how young learners might perform in a study with similar settings. This will be possibly helpful for the teachers who are dealing with young students who are unwilling to participate and hardly volunteer for presentation in front of other students. Also, researchers may experiment which strategy would be more effective to give the students equal speaking opportunities. This may give teachers the insight of which strategy they can appropriately apply to their target students when they make lesson plans.

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Appendix A - Equal Presentation Opportunity Chart

★ Please check the box V.

Name	Week 1		Week 2		Week 3		Week 4		Week 5	
1										
2										
3										
4										
5										
6										
7										

Appendix B - Self-Assessment

★ Please check the box V.

Name: _____

Name	Yes	So-so	Not really	No
I actively participated in all the activities today.				
I asked questions to others to carry out the activities.				
I provided some ideas to complete the tasks.				
I volunteered to present our group work.				

❖ What can you do to improve your participation next time?

GRADUATE THESIS ABSTRACTS

- 90** : Effects of Modified TPR on Phrasal Verb Learning for Korean Primary School Students
Bomi Choi
- 91** : Describing the Nature of Korean Learners Peer Feedback and Revision in Wiki Tasks
David Ziller
- 91** : Pragmatic Development of Discourse Markers in a Mobile Messaging Environment
Dustin K. Luthro
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Jeffrey Dale Lumsdon
- 92** : The Effect of SCMC on Oral Proficiency
Lawrence C. M. Bowlby

Effects of Modified TPR on Phrasal Verb Learning for Korean Primary School Students

Bomi Choi

This study investigated if a modified Total Physical Response (TPR) method can possibly be an effective method to teach language learners English phrasal verbs. The focus was on the 'body movement's affection to retention of words after treatment. 151 students were gathered: 80 boys and 71 girls. The participants ranged in age from 9 to 12 years old and were from all parts of the city of Seoul the capital city of South Korea. The study focused on three research questions: (1) Do students who are taught phrasal verbs through TPR show higher rates of long-term retention than students who were exposed to phrasal verbs using Grammar-Translation methodology? (2) How is students' knowledge of phrasal verbs reflected on different styles of tests according to gender and ages? (3) How do Korean young English language learners perceive learning phrasal verbs through TPR? For the investigation, a pretest was conducted before any treatment and during the training period learners took a quiz to support their recall of what they learnt each day. After 6 days' training students took 3 types of post-tests to find out what were the effects of TPR on learning phrasal verbs on primary school students. The post-tests were completed by all students and a questionnaire was given to only experimental groups students. The subjects were divided into 2 groups: (1) Students who learnt English phrasal verbs by watching a teacher modeling actions and listening to their voice and were asked to repeat by themselves and (2) Students who learnt English phrasal verbs through English-translation method which was reading the English words and writing their Korean meaning on a paper repeatedly. The results of the post-tests were varied. On the post-test 3 experimental group students showed statistically significant results compared to control group students. The result of questionnaires supported the quantitative analysis of the experiment results, revealing students' perceptions of the TPR approach were positive. The study found that TPR was effective for students both students in the target age groups and for both genders and the results were discussed in the light of the characteristics of children who are from 9 to 12 years old.

Key words: English phrasal verb, Total physical response, a questionnaires of students' perception, primary school students

Describing the Nature of Korean Learners Peer Feedback and Revision in Wiki Tasks

David Ziller

This thesis examined: (a) What are the types of revisions, and comments offered by the learners in an unstructured wiki environment? (b) How do the learners respond to revisions? What factors affect revision i.e. training of how to give effective peer feedback? (c) What are the learner perceptions of the use of a wiki-page system for a peer and group feedback collaborative task in an unstructured environment? Twenty-two Korean university students completed online wiki-based tasks, over two cycles in which they assumed different responsibilities. The results indicate that feedback training does increase the amount and quality of revision. Overall, the learners responded well to peer feedback as well as group feedback incorporating revisions into their work. Generally, the project was perceived well by the learners, although their least enjoyable part was using the wiki system.

Key words: Peer Feedback, Group Feedback, Wikis, Perception, Revisions

Pragmatic Development of Discourse Markers in a Mobile Messaging Environment

Dustin K. Luthro

This study examined the development of discourse markers of three non-native English speakers in a mobile messaging environment in a five-month period. The research questions pertained to quantitative and qualitative development of several discourse markers and how change in discourse marker use relates to native English speaker interlocutor use. The results found pragmatic development of discourse markers in all three participants. Not all markers changed in use for any participant. Pragmatic development was observed in all non-native speakers as both unique as well as including trends. Trends included similar markers changing in use and others being appropriated for the first time during the study period. All participants also displayed varying degrees of alignment and misalignment to native speaker use.

Key words: pragmatic socialization, discourse markers, alignment

Modality Effects and Learner Perceptions of Musical Inputs on Vocabulary Recall

Jeffrey Dale Lumsdon

This thesis examined the effects that songs had on vocabulary recall when presented in three different modalities. Over the duration of six weeks, 75 Korean college level EFL learners in three separate test groups took part in three treatment sessions that included a different song and mode of input (song only, lyrics only, song and lyrics combined) for each. Upon the completion of each session an immediate post-treatment clozed test of the lyrics was administered. After all tests were completed they were gathered, scored and analyzed through a two-way ANOVA to assess for any statistical significance. Results of the ANOVA indicated that of the three modes of input, song and lyrics combined displayed the greatest effect on vocabulary recall scores. Additionally, results also suggested the type of song had an impact on vocabulary recall scores as well. Finally, a post-experimental opinion survey was administered that indicated the participants showed positive opinions toward the use of songs for vocabulary learning, as well as a willingness to use songs for this method of study in the future.

Key words: Modalities, Songs, Lyrics, Recall, Clozed

The Effect of SCMC on Oral Proficiency

Lawrence C. M. Bowlby

This thesis focused on the effect of synchronized computer mediated communication (SCMC) on oral proficiency. The study examined whether second language practice within SCMC (online chat) translated to improved oral proficiency. The 8 Korean University students who participated in this quasi-experimental intact group completed a pre-task (description) and post-task (transfer). The data was analyzed quantitatively by using the Flesch Reading Ease (FRE) formula and corresponding Flesch-Kincaid Grade-Levels. The oral Pre and Post-tests were also analyzed with a 50-point oral proficiency interview scale (OPIS). The results indicated that the treatment group participants who completed the description task through chat outperformed the control group participants who completed both tasks through face to face oral discussion. The results provide evidence that practice in SCMC can transfer across modalities, and contribute to oral proficiency.

Key words: Interaction, FSCMC, oral proficiency, L2, transfer

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