Primary English Education in the Era of Globalization

Hosted by

The Korea Association of Primary English Education
Gyeongin National University of Education
Graduate School of Education, Gyeongin National University of Education

This work was supported by the National Research Foundation of Korea Grant funded by the Korean Government.
2015 KAPEE International Conference Committee

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Opening Address

Myong-Ock Won
Conference Chair
Chinju National University of Education

Good morning, distinguished speakers, honorable guests and presenters, and esteemed colleagues and teachers. It is my great honor to welcome you all to the 2015 International Conference of Korea Association of Primary English Education (KAPEE).

The theme of this year's conference, "Primary English Education in the Era of Globalization" stresses the expending role of English as an International Language and encourages us to gather our knowledge and wisdom to respond in timely manner to needs and issues in the field of primary English education in Korea. I expect that informative, insightful speeches and presentations will provide us with new and broader perspectives into the needs and development of primary English education in the age of international communication in flux, stimulating our passionate instinct to put a new realization into practice.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the keynote speaker, plenary and featured speakers who have travelled a great distance to be here. In addition, I am deeply indebted to the conference committee members who have sacrificed enormous time and effort for this event. I was blessed to work with each of them and grateful for their academic strengths as well as personal merits. Then, I would like to thank the conference presenters, chairs and attendees whose participation and enthusiasm will make this conference successful. Lastly, my thanks go to the KAPEE's sponsors and Gyeongin National University of Education for their assistance in organizing today's conference.

I hope that this conference will be enlightening and enriching to all of you. Please, enjoy the conference.

Thank you very much.
It's my great honour to deliver a welcoming address at this 2015 KAPEE International Conference. To all of you, honorable presenters, participants for discussion and distinguished guests, I would like to express my gratitude for being able to join you all in celebrating this occasion. Also I'd like to extend my appreciation to Gyeongin University of Education and its president, Dr. Jai-Hee Lee, for providing this wonderful venue. I should mention that this conference would not have been possible without the dedication of the conference committee including the conference chair, Dr. Won, MyongOck, the program and proceedings chair, Dr. Lee, Sun, and the site chair, Dr. Sim, Chang-Yong.

The theme of this year's conference is "Primary English Education in the Era of Globalization." In this globalized era people start to learn English as early as possible and equip themselves with competence in English, the international language. As a result, primary English education is the focus of English education organizations all over the world. In this context, current issues on many areas such as methodology, material development, professional development, and testing will be discussed in depth at this conference, and appropriate future direction will be explored.

Please enjoy this academic festival and make maximum use of the keynote speech, the plenary and featured sessions, the concurrent sessions and the poster sessions. At a glance, you may notice that the program is carefully organized, and will provide plenty up-to-date information about primary English education both inside and outside the country. I hope and believe that this conference will be an ideal forum for sharing research findings, and all the participants here will gain new ideas and renew passion for developing themselves as teachers, teacher educators, and researchers.

As President of KAPEE, I once again welcome all of you, and send my heartfelt New Year wishes. Please keep in good health and be blessed with prosperity in the new year.

Thank you.
Dear former presidents of KAPEE, presidents of sister organizations, invited speakers, distinguished guests, members of KAPEE, and every participant in the 2015 KAPEE International Conference,

I would like to express my hearty new year wishes for the prosperity and happiness of everyone. I am greatly honored to make a welcoming address for the 2015 KAPEE International Conference. Before I begin, I would like to extend my appreciation to KAPEE president, Dr. Youngsuk Kim, for preparing this wonderful academic festival. Also, this conference would not have been possible without the dedication of the conference committee members.

The theme of this year’s conference is “English Education in the Era of Globalization.” In recent years, there has been a strong emphasis on cultivating global-minded teachers around the world. Insofar as English maintains its position as a lingua franca, English education can take the lead in the globalization of educational fields. In this vein, KAPEE has invited renowned scholars in the area of illuminating new angles on primary English education in many different educational settings. I hope that every participant will enjoy the keynote speech, the plenary and featured sessions, the workshops, and the concurrent sessions.

As the days get colder, our passion for learning new ideas is becoming much stronger. It is a timely moment for researchers, teacher educators, and teachers to gain wisdom about developing creativity at elementary schools. I firmly believe that all participants in the 2015 KAPEE International Conference will leave this conference venue with useful insights.

Thank you very much.
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<th>Time</th>
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<tr>
<td>09:00-09:30</td>
<td>Registration [Lobby, Liberal Arts Building]</td>
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<td><strong>Main Sessions</strong></td>
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<td>09:30-10:00</td>
<td><strong>Opening Ceremony</strong> [Room 103]</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Opening Address: Myong-Ock Won (Conference Chair, KAPEE)</td>
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<td>Welcoming Address: Younssuk Kim (President, KAPEE)</td>
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<td>Congratulatory Speech: Jai-Hee Lee (President, Gyeongin National University of Education) Moderator: Chang-Yong Sim (Site Chair, KAPEE)</td>
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<tr>
<td>10:00-10:50</td>
<td><strong>Keynote Speech</strong> [Room 103]</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Roger Barnard</td>
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<td>(University of Waikato, New Zealand)</td>
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<td>Current Issues in English Language Education in Asia: A Personal Perspective</td>
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<td>Moderator: Seungbok Lee (Chuncheon National University of Education)</td>
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<td>10:50-11:00</td>
<td>Tea/Coffee Break</td>
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<td>11:00-11:10</td>
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<td><strong>Plenary Sessions</strong></td>
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<td>Plenary Speech A [Room 103]</td>
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<td>Chutkaew Bhaowises</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(Suan Dusit Rajabhat University, Thailand)</td>
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<td>11:10-12:00</td>
<td>Change Implementation in TEFL at Primary Level in Thailand: Managing the Uncontrollable</td>
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<td>Moderator: Deok-Gi Min</td>
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<td>(Cheongju National University of Education)</td>
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<td>12:00-13:00</td>
<td>Lunch &amp; Book Exhibition</td>
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<td><strong>Concurrent Sessions/Poster Session</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>13:10-14:40</td>
<td>A Globalization and Primary English Education [Room 302]</td>
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<td>B Teaching and Learning English as an International Language [Room 303]</td>
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<td>C Professional Development of Primary English Teachers [Room 304]</td>
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<td>D Pre-service Teacher Education [Room 305]</td>
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<td>14:40-15:00</td>
<td>Tea/Coffee Break</td>
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<tr>
<td>15:00-16:30</td>
<td>F Literacy Education [Room 302]</td>
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<td>G Vocabulary Teaching &amp; Learning [Room 303]</td>
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<td>H Curriculum and Textbook Development [Room 304]</td>
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<td>16:30-16:40</td>
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<td><strong>Featured Sessions</strong></td>
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<td>16:40-17:30</td>
<td>Featured Speech A [Room 103]</td>
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<td>Joseph Sung-Yul Park</td>
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<td>(National University of Singapore, Singapore)</td>
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<td>Globalization, Neoliberalism, and Primary English Education: Channeling Desire</td>
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<td>Moderator: Sun-Ho Hong (Secretary General, KAPEE)</td>
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<td>17:30-18:00</td>
<td>Closing Ceremony &amp; General Meeting [Room 103]</td>
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<td>Moderator: Sun-Ho Hong (Secretary General, KAPEE)</td>
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## Concurrent Session A: Globalization and Primary English Education

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<th>TIME</th>
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<tr>
<td>13:00-13:30</td>
<td>Jeong-ryeol Kim (Korea National University of Education)</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>Teaching English as an International Language: Components and Skills</strong></td>
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<td>Moderator: Lisun Kim (Anyang Kwanak Elementary School)</td>
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<td>Discussant: Yeobom Yoon (Seoul National University of Education)</td>
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<td>13:30-14:00</td>
<td>SunYoung Chun (Kyungpook National University)</td>
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<td><strong>How Do Young Learners Perceive Native and Non-native English-Speaking Teachers?: A Study of Korean EFL Elementary School Students</strong></td>
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<td>Moderator: Eunsil Yang (Chorim Elementary School)</td>
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<td>Discussant: Sook Kyung Jung (Daegoeun University)</td>
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<td>14:00-14:30</td>
<td>In Lee (Jeonju National University of Education)</td>
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<td><strong>Comparative Analysis of Children's Narratives in English: Nonnative vs. Native/ESL vs. EFL Contrasts</strong></td>
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<td>Moderator: Jungsook Kim (Chinju National University of Education)</td>
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<td>Discussant: In-Ok Kim (Chuncheon National University of Education)</td>
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## Concurrent Session B: Teaching and Learning English as an International Language

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<th>TIME</th>
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<tr>
<td>13:00-13:30</td>
<td>Mark Preston (Jeonju National University of Education)</td>
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<td><strong>Digital Literacies: The Use of Social Networking Services to Prepare for and Aid in the Process of In-class Discussions, Debates and Projects</strong></td>
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<td>Moderator: Kyoung Soon Ko (Shin-ri Elementary School)</td>
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<td>Discussant: Kitaek Kim (Gyeongin National University)</td>
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<td>13:30-14:00</td>
<td>Jin-a Seo (Seoul Mullae Elementary School)</td>
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<td><strong>An Acoustic Analysis on the Rhythm Pattern of English of Korean Primary Students</strong></td>
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<td>Moderator: Hyun Sun Oh (Seongnam Shinhung Elementary School)</td>
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<td>Discussant: Miae Park (Chuncheon National University of Education)</td>
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<td>14:00-14:30</td>
<td>Won Kim (Phajang Elementary School) &amp; Chang Yong Sim (Gyeongin National University of Education)</td>
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<td><strong>Comparative Study of Regional Differences in Beliefs in English Learning, Learning Strategies, and Achievement: 6th Graders from Three Regions</strong></td>
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<td>Moderator: Youngsook Kim (Seoryoung Elementary School)</td>
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<td>Discussant: Joongsun Sohn (Daegoeun National University of Education)</td>
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## Concurrent Session C: Professional Development of Primary English Teachers

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<th>TIME</th>
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| 15:00-15:30 | Kyungja Ahn (Seoul National University of Education)  
EFL Teacher Identities: A Narrative Inquiry into Primary English Teachers’ Autobiographic Essays  
Moderator: Mingyu Ko (Yebong Elementary School)  
Discussant: Jaemyung Goo (Gwangju National University of Education)                  |
| 15:30-16:00 | Yun Sook Yoo (Anyankwanak Elementary School)  
An Analysis of Perceptions toward Effective Scaffolding Ways of Teacher Talk in TEE among Elementary School Teachers and Learners  
Moderator: Younggoo Kang (Gwangju Nam Elementary School)  
Discussant: GyeongHee No (Seoul National University of Education)                  |
| 16:00-16:30 | Hyunhee Cho (Daegu National University of Education)  
Dialogic Space in I-R-E Discourse: Teacher Talk in Storytelling in Elementary English Lessons  
Moderator: Donghan Lee (Busan National University of Education)  
Discussant: Yung Suk Jung (Cheongju National University of Education) |

## Concurrent Session D: Pre-service Teacher Education

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| 15:00-15:30 | Petra Glithero (Gongju National University of Education)  
Reappraising "Apprenticeship of Observation": Belief Development within Pre-Service Teachers  
Moderator: Eun Jung Ko (Beak Song Elementary School)  
Discussant: Seungbok Lee (Chuncheon National University of Education) |
| 15:30-16:00 | Maria Oh (Jeonju National University of Education)  
Why Can't J Focus on Classroom English Practice?  
Moderator: Juncheol Park (Seoul Chungmu Elementary School)  
Discussant: Hyoshin Lee (Konkuk University Glocal Campus) |
| 16:00-16:30 | Sun Lee (Gongju National University of Education)  
Error Analysis of Classroom English in Primary Pre-service Teachers’ Scripts for Their English Micro-teaching  
Moderator: Hejin Hwang (Daegu Dongsan Elementary School)  
Discussant: Seongshik Kim (Jeonju National University of Education) |
Concurrent Session E: Reading Fluency

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| 15:00-15:30 | **Soo-jin Choi** (Seoul Soosong Elementary School)  
The Effects of Phonemic Awareness Instruction with Repeated Reading on Elementary School Student's English Reading Fluency  
Moderator: Mi Hyoung Kim (Shinbaekhyoen Elementary School)  
Discussant: Deok-Gi Min (Cheongju National University of Education) |
| 15:30-16:00 | **Jin Kyung Park** (Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)  
Effects of Indirect Syllable Splitting Task through Shared Storybook Reading on Preschooler's Phonological Awareness  
Moderator: Taek Nam Yoon (Chuncheon National University of Education)  
Discussant: Hee-Jeong Ihm (Seoul National University of Education) |
| 16:00-16:30 | **Jennifer M. Yi** (Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)  
Comparison of the Effects of Timed Repeated Oral Reading on Partner and Independent Groups on Reading Fluency of Young Korean EFL Learners  
Moderator: Yangsook Kim (Incheon Dongbu Elementary School)  
Discussant: Eun-Sook Jang (Korea National University of Welfare) |

Concurrent Session F: Literacy Education

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<th>TIME</th>
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| 15:00-15:30 | **Youn-Hye Youn** (Seoul Sangdo Elementary School) & Hae-rí Kim (Seoul National University of Education)  
Effects of Dramatic Play Based on Picture Storybooks on Elementary English Learning  
Moderator: Yang-sun Park (Pyeongtaek Anil Elementary School)  
Discussant: Kyung Sook Cho (Busan National University of Education) |
| 15:30-16:00 | **Kyoung-ah Han** (Backwoon Elementary School)  
Leveled Reading Program  
Moderator: Tae-Eun Kim (Seoul National University of Education)  
Discussant: Hyun Jin Kim (Cheongju National University of Education) |
| 16:00-16:30 | **Hyun-Joo Kim** (Gyeonggi Gunpo Elementary School)  
Developing Oral Production Skills for Korean Primary EFL Learners through Retelling Stories  
Moderator: Kitaek Kim (Gyeongin National University of Education)  
Discussant: Seungmin Lee (Cheongju National University of Education) |
Concurrent Session G: Vocabulary Teaching and Learning

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| 15:00-15:30| Chair: Sangdo Woo (Gongju National University of Education) Hye Sun Lim (Hankuk University of Foreign Studies) *Analyzing Young Learners Textbook According to Vocabulary Difficulty*  
Moderator: Jeongmi Byun (Nanum Elementary School)  
Discussant: Jae Hyuk Kim (Gwangju National University of Education) |
| 15:30-16:00| Chang Young Kang (Woongyang Elementary School) *Enhancing English Vocabulary Ability of 5th Graders through Keeping a Vocabulary Journal (K)*  
Moderator: Sung Il Jin (Naengcheon Elementary School)  
Discussant: Chang Hak Lee (Gongju National University of Education) |
| 16:00-16:30| Yeoin Lee (Incheon Geum Gok Elementary School) *The Effect of Collaborative Play on Vocabulary Development of English in the Primary Schools*  
Moderator: Joo Hyun Back (Busan National University of Education)  
Discussant: Kyu Nam Shim (Cheongju National University of Education) |

Concurrent Session H: Curriculum and Textbook Development

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| 15:00-15:30| Chair: Jung Cheol Kim (Gaerim Elementary School) Young-A Lee (Cheongju National University of Education) *Future Directions for the National English Curriculum: Voices from Teachers*  
Moderator: Kyung Eun Seok (Neulpureun Elementary School)  
Discussant: Dongkyoo Kim (Busan National University of Education) |
| 15:30-16:00| Eun Kyeong Jung (Pyeongchon Elementary School) *ESL Teaching and Implication to English Education in Korea*  
Moderator: Kyuwan Hwang (Chinju National University of Education)  
Discussant: Young-Cheol Kim (Gongju National University of Education) |
| 16:00-16:30| Ji Young Kim (Center for Creative Intellectual Education) *Perspectives on Teaching and Learning English*  
Moderator: Yeong-Tae Kim (Jeonju National University of Education)  
Discussant: Jin Seok Kim (Seoul National University of Education) |
## Concurrent Session I: Classroom Observation & Action Research

[Room 305]

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<th>TIME</th>
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| 15:00-15:30 | Young-suk Kwon (Samil Elementary School)  
*Qualitative and Quantitative English Class Analysis Tool and an Applying Case*  
Moderator: Inah Sung (Chunghyun Elementary School)  
Discussant: Sungwoo Kang (Cheongju National University of Education) |
| 15:30-16:00 | Heungjar Lim (Buwon Elementary School)  
*Students Centered Class for Elementary English Class (K)*  
Moderator: Shin-Hyun Yoon (Milyang Yerim Elementary School)  
Discussant: Younghwan Kwon (Busan National University of Education) |
| 16:00-16:30 | In-Sook Lee (Seoul Keumsan Elementary School) & Hae-ri Kim (Seoul National University of Education)  
*Action Research on Developing Creative English Writing Skills Using Fantasy Stories*  
Moderator: Jungjin Kang (Gyeongin National University of Education)  
Discussant: Sang-Ki Lee (Korea National University of Education) |
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<th>Time</th>
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| 13:00 - 16:30 | **Jiwon Jung (International Graduate School of English)**  
The Effects of Learner-Development Portfolio on Learners' Autonomy                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                            |
|            | **Su-Jin Oh (International Graduate School of English)**  
Teaching Dictionary Use Skills to Elementary Students: A Curriculum Specially Designed for Elementary Students in Consideration of their Characteristics, Needs and Errors in Using English Dictionary                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                             |
|            | **Mi-sun Hur (Kwolcheon Elementary School/International Graduate School of English)**  
The Effects of Task-Induced Involvement Load on Korean Young Learners' Vocabulary Acquisition                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                         |
|            | **Eun Jung Ko (Baek Song Elementary School)**  
The Effect of Theme-Based Language Instruction on Primary School Student’s Attitudes and English Literacy                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                             |
|            | **Hejin, Hwang (Daegu Dongsan Elementary School)**  
How to Raise Global Citizens in an English Classroom                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                        |
|            | **Jung-hee Chae (Seoul Eungahm Elementary School)**  
Developing Communicative and Characteristic Competencies through Reader's Theater Based on English Picture Books                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                          |
|            | **Su Jung Jung (Busan Daesin Elementary School) & Hye Seong Ahn (Busan University of Foreign Studies)**  
An Analysis on the Effect of Korean-English Storytelling on the Development of Vocabulary Ability of Elementary School Students                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                               |
|            | **Seon Hee Lim (Gwangju Gyelim Elementary School)**  
Teaching Culture in English Class Using Video Conferences with a Native English Speaker: With Reference to 5th Graders                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                           |
|            | **Eun Sil Park, Yangsook Kim, & Kelsey Loe (Incheon Dongbu Elementary School)**  
Dongbu Tree: Learning English through Music, Drama and Dance in Practice                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                   |
|            | **So-Young Cheon (Dowon Elementary School)**  
2014 Understanding Familiar Opportunity Now                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                |
|            | **Min-Jeong Sim (Naepo Elementary School)**  
Hold Hands with Extensive Reading                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      |
|            | **Yungju Jo (Jeonggeum Elementary School)**  
The Way to Improve English Communication by the Collaboration of On & Off Live English                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                            |
Keynote Speech [Room 103]

Roger Barnard

(University of Waikato, New Zealand)
Current Issues in English Language Education in Asia: A Personal Perspective
Roger Barnard, University of Waikato

Abstract
This paper discusses a number of key issues in English language education in a variety of Asian countries. The points presented arise from the author’s experience of teaching and researching in collaboration with a wide range of academic colleagues-applied linguists - working in these contexts.

The issues discussed include: the aims of language teaching (linguistic, communicative and intercultural competence); current methodological approaches (for example, task-based language teaching); ‘native’ and ‘non-native English-speaking teachers of the language; the teaching of English to young learners; and the introduction of programmes of English medium instruction in schools and universities. Each issue will be preceded by a short historical sketch, as the author believes that the present can only be understood in the light of the past, and the key points will be illustrated by data from case studies from research conducted by the author and/or his colleagues.

The paper will conclude by emphasising the need for appropriate research to be conducted before curricular innovations are introduced in school systems or universities. In particular, such research should explore the opportunities and constraints to curriculum reform in the specific contexts in which it is intended to take place. Importantly, such research should also take into account the knowledge, beliefs, and practices of practitioners whose responsibility it would be to implement the proposed changes. Wherever possible, research should be conducted by, or with, the practitioners themselves, in order that the can be empowered to become educational knowledge-makers rather than the consumers of other people’s theories and ideologies.

Biodata
Dr Barnard is an associate professor in applied linguistics at the University of Waikato. Before taking up his present post in New Zealand in 1995, he worked in England, Europe and the Middle East as teacher, manager, teacher educator, and advisor to ministries of education. He frequently presents papers at international conferences, and has accepted visiting professorships and lectureships in many Asian universities, where he teaches and carries out research projects and publications with local colleagues. He enjoys supervising research students, and frequently publishes journal articles and book chapters with them. His most recent book, which he co-edited in 2014 with James McLellan is Codeswitching in university English-medium Classes: Asian perspectives. Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters. His previous book published in 2012 with Anne Burns was Language teacher cognition and practice: International case studies to illuminate methodological issues. He is currently overseeing an international project on language learner autonomy, due to be published in 2015 as Barnard, R. & Li, J. (Eds.) Language learner autonomy: Teachers’ beliefs and practices in East Asian contexts. Phnom Penh: Cambodia: IDP Publications Asia.
Introduction

This paper will discuss my reflections, after a career of over 40 years in the field, on a number of important practical issues in English language education arising from curriculum policies of Ministries of Education in Asian countries. It will argue that many of these policies have been decided with neither sufficient reference to either local, contextualized, research nor taking into account the existing knowledge, beliefs and practices of the key stakeholders in the educational systems in which curricular reforms are intended to take place. Chief among these are the teachers in local schools and universities, who are, after all, the executive decision-makers in curricular implementation.

The paper will begin with a brief overview of the aims of English language teaching in terms of the shift from linguistic to communicative competence in the late 20th century. The implications of this shift will be discussed with reference to case studies in specific contexts. Firstly, in terms of methodology, the implementation of Task-Based Language Teaching will be discussed from the point of view of high school teaching in Vietnam. Then the issue of which is the more effective teacher of the language – the ‘native English speaker’ or the teacher whose first language (and culture) is the same as their learners - will be discussed in the light of recent research in a Japanese context. Thirdly, the question of when to begin English instruction will be considered in the light of the experience of introducing English in Korean primary schools. The next issue to be considered is the use of the students’ first language with specific reference to a university context in the People’s Republic of China. Finally, the increasingly widespread adoption of English as the medium of instruction in schools and universities will be critiqued firstly in Malaysian primary schools and then in universities in various Asian contexts. It should be noted that in each of the issues discussed, the data are drawn from specific contexts and therefore it is not intended to suggest that the findings are generalisable; rather, it is hoped that readers will be able to judge the validity of the points raised in this paper in the light of their own professional experience in relatable contexts.

The paper will conclude by emphasising the need, before curricular reforms are introduced by policy-makers, for relevant contextual research that takes into account the perspectives of teachers. Moreover, wherever possible, such research should be conducted with the participation of the teachers themselves so that they can be empowered to become knowledge-makers within the curriculum.

The aims of teaching English as a foreign or second language

For most of the 20th century, it was generally agreed that the aim of teaching a foreign language was linguistic competence – the ability to accurately use the spoken and/or written grammar of language. This aim was sought to be realised in approaches as diverse as Grammar-Translation, the Direct Method, Audiolinguialism and the Silent Way. The focus changed in the 1970s, when Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) began to be propounded and then taught using communicative course materials – the first of these being Strategies (Abbs & Freebairn, 1975), which then generated a very popular series with the key word in the title. The point of CLT was to enable learners to communicate not only accurately but appropriately according to the sociocultural context in which the communication occurs – taking into account the notions, functions, roles of the speaker and spatial and temporal setting of the communicative event. There are a number of problems inherent in the concept: firstly, it requires that those who teach CLT should themselves be communicatively (as well as linguistically) competent in English; regrettably, this is not the case for many teachers of English across Asia who have not had the opportunity to
experience at first hand the sociocultural norms implied in English communicative competence. Secondly, it begs the question of whose sociocultural norms are to be inculcated; most learners of English, if they do actually have any opportunities to communicate in English are likely to interact with other people for whom English is an additional language, rather than with ‘native speakers’ of English. Thirdly, if communicative competence is to be a curricular aim, then it should be assessed; in the education systems of most Asian countries, as elsewhere, tests and examinations are heavily focused on elements of linguistic competence because this is simple and relatively inexpensive. Fourthly, there needs to be a viable methodological approach; and attention to this will now be turned.

**Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)**

CLT has been described (Howatt, 1984; 2006) as being of two forms: a ‘weak’ version in which the explicit teaching of grammar plays an important, but secondary part in the curriculum, alongside notional, functional, and skills-focused syllabi. Generally speaking, this version has been the popular trend in schools and approved textbooks, such as the *Headways* series (for example, Soars & Soars, 1987). A ‘stronger’ version replaces an explicit focus on grammar with merely transitory treatment of grammatical issues – incidental ‘focus-on-form’ (Long, 2000) when they arise during communicative activities when grammatical issues disrupt, or are anticipated to prevent, communication taking place. The most favoured approach to the strong version is Task Based Language Teaching (for example, Ellis, 2003; Samuda & Bygate 2006) in which it is proposed that a syllabus be based on increasingly complex tasks for learners to work through using whatever linguistic resources they have available. Such focus on grammatical issues that arise may occur in the middle of a series of tasks (Nunan, 2004), or after the tasks have been completed (Willis & Willis, 2001). The pre-teaching of grammatical features is strongly discouraged.

In 2006, the Ministry of Education and Training in Vietnam replaced the existing structurally-based English curriculum with one intended to develop communicative, rather than linguistic competence. To achieve this aim, it commissioned a new series of textbooks (Hoang et al. 2007), which specified that the methodology would be based on TBLT, and mandated their use in the nation’s high schools. Some attempt was made to provide guidance to English language teachers by way of short workshops attended by representatives of schools in the provinces, who were then expected to return to their schools and induct their colleagues into the new pedagogic approach. Empirical studies of the teachers’ use of these textbooks (Le, 2011; Nguyen, 2013) clearly, indicates that the teachers in these contexts were unaware of what TBLT meant, and – while they indicated approval of communicative teaching in principle – firmly believed that this could only occur on a firm foundation of students’ linguistic competence. Hence, they adapted the materials in the textbooks in such a way as to promote explicit, teacher-fronted grammatical instruction, as this was the pedagogical expertise that they possessed – in this way, they poured ‘new wine in old bottles’ (Nguyen, Le & Barnard, in press).

**‘Native’ or ‘Non-Native’ English speaking teachers**

It has long been assumed that the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker (NS) of that language. This was promulgated at the Makarere Conference organised in 1961 by the British Council (cited in Phillipson, 1992), but in fact the argument goes back to the Direct Method of the early 20th century and popularised by the world-wide Berlitz schools. The point was that the NS could provide an authentic model of pronunciation for the learners to
imitate, and to act as a cultural mediators. However, it assumed that the NS spoke an educated version of a standardised pronunciation, and there are a number of implications of this assumption. Firstly, it begs the question of what ‘standard’ is applied –typically, British or North American – but in the real world of communication, NS teachers may speak any number of sub-varieties (some of which are almost unintelligible to other ‘native’ speakers). It also lends undue strength to the notion that communicative competence is essentially oral, whereas much international communication occurs in the written form. That NS teachers may represent a target culture obscures the fact that they may know little or nothing of English-speaking cultures which they have not inhabited. The issue is complicated by the fact that, in many Asian contexts, being a NS is the major, if not the sole criterion, for a teaching appointment, as is the case of the JET scheme in Japan.

The Japanese Exchange Teaching scheme, like the EPIK programme in Korea, annually employs thousands of Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) to support the work of trained and qualified Japanese teachers of English in the school system. While there are come variations, the main requirements are that ALTs should be young native speakers with a degree in any subject, and they are given employment packages including flights, health insurance and generous salaries (CLAIR, 2012). A recent study (Hiratsuka, 2014, pp. 103-112) has revealed the perceptions of the local teachers to the ALTs employed in their schools. Firstly, there is acknowledgement of the role that they could play. One teacher said: “Grammar, reading and writing can be taught by anyone...but the native English is something that only the ALTs can offer”. Another pointed out: “The ALTs are authorities of cultures in English speaking countries because they were born and grew up in one”. However, there was also some disillusionment – on both sides: “I was not impressed with [the ALT’s] classes, which repeated endlessly the same content”, and the ALTs frequently commented that they were not contributing to the English learning of their students. The impact of young teachers was a mixed blessing: “Some students were so excited to run into [one of the ALTs] that they screamed and jumped around in the hallway”. There were also some cultural differences: “The ALTs always have parties on weekends”, and the Japanese teachers had to spend much time dealing with issues other than pedagogy. In short, the pedagogical value of these ALTs, and probably many others like them, is questionable.

“The earlier, the better”? 
Although the Makarere Conference referred to above argued that the earlier children start to learn English the better, until the 1960s, it was generally considered that a foreign language should not be taught to primary school children, However, the central argument of the Critical Period Hypothesis (Lenneberg, 1967) was that it was impossible to master a second language after puberty. This influenced language educators to introduce foreign languages to young learners. However, much empirical research clearly shows no obvious advantage of an early start (Burstall, 1970; Burstall Jamieson, Cohen, & Hargreaves, 1974; Kubanek-German, 1998). Despite this lack of evidence, there is an increasing trend in schools systems across the world to introduce EFL to ever younger children; for example, in Oman the starting point was lowered from Year 4 to Year 1 in the state system. It has been consistently argued that too often there is often a lack of well-resourced classrooms, trained teachers, appropriate materials, and age-sensitive evaluation procedures.

Since 1994, the Korean government has invested huge sums of money in developing communicative EFL
programmes at all educational levels. At present, children in primary schools Years 3-6 receive three or four lessons a week, and most primary teachers have specialist EFL training, through, for example the various levels of the TEE programme and MA courses as universities of education. In general, classrooms in the nation’s primary schools are well-resourced with equipment and materials (although some of the recommended textbooks may be considered excessively childish and repetitive), and many schools have set up special areas for experiential learning in quasi-authentic situations. As in Japan, many – if not most – schools employ ALTs to provide authentic linguistic and cultural input. In short, Korea stands out as an example of how best to deal with an early start to EFL.

However, there are still some issues that give rise to concern. The introduction of English means that the other subjects in the primary school curriculum are reduced or displaced. It is still the case that (junior) high school teachers tend to introduce English ab initio, perhaps because of a lack of standardised and age-sensitive assessment procedures for students exiting primary schools. Despite the government’s concern and attempts to regulate private after-school institutions (hagwon), these are very popular with middle class parents - if less so with their children – and their prevalence tends to undermine confidence in the state system. Lacking faith in the state system, thousands of parents send their children to schools in English-speaking countries to acquire the language to give them a head start over peers remaining in Korea. The point is this: if an early start to English in the well-resourced Korean context does not lead to positive results, what is the likelihood of success in less-well-resourced systems?

Using the students’ first language (389)

For much of the 20th century the use of students’ first language in EFL classrooms was discouraged, if not actually prohibited, in order to ‘teach English through English’. Many educational policy-makers (as well as language teaching methodologists) still insist on the exclusive use of English. Recently, however, a number of distinguished scholars (G. Cook, 2010; V. Cook, 2001; Levine, 2011; Macaro, 2001; 2009) have presented cogent arguments in favour of the principled use of the students’ first language to facilitate the learning of the language, as well as to achieve wider educational and social goals. It has been said that “using more than one language in spoken and particularly written academic discourse remains one of the ‘dark spots’ in classroom research” (Van der Walt, 2013, p.130), and case studies (and commentaries) such as those presented in Barnard and McLellan (2014) are throwing light on codeswitching practices of university teachers in various Asian contexts. Typical classes in each of the ten case studies were observed, firstly to calculate the proportion of teacher talk in the first language, and then to categorise each codeswitched in terms of the interactional function each was intended to serve (explaining language, giving directions, eliciting responses from students, etc.).

In the study from the People’s Republic of China, the two observed teachers used Chinese for 9.5% and 11.1% respectively in their lessons. Like all the other case studies, these findings reveal the use of two languages was normal practice. When interviewed, the teachers involved in these studies gave sound reasons for the use of their students’ first language, which was of course also their own. For example, one of the Chinese lecturers said: “If there is a criterion for me to choose between Chinese and English explanation, it is to judge students’ needs upon their English proficiency level.” Like other teachers interviewed, they were also concerned with: a wish to avoid embarrassing students or giving rise to undue stress; the varied extent of motivation to learn English (especially
among non-English majors); the need to maintain classroom order; and a wish to express social solidarity with their students. Thus, while it is the case that there were spontaneous, and perhaps unnecessary codeswitched utterances, these Chinese teachers – like all the others observed, gave sound, professional reasons for their use of their students’ first language – in spite of restrictive institutional policies.

**English Medium Instruction in schools (289)**

The contemporary origins of school-based English Medium Instruction programmes can be traced to the experiments in immersion education in Canada and the development of European schools in the burgeoning European Union in the late 1960s. These were rapidly followed by the widespread growth of International Schools, run either as private businesses or with external (e.g., British, American) government support. Although these were primarily intended for the children of expatriate English-speaking workers, they rapidly enrolled considerable numbers of students for whom English was not their first language, including many from the host nation, whose parents saw the advantages of such education for their children. These schools tended to charge expensive fees, and as a result were able to provide resource-rich environments and well trained teachers from English-speaking backgrounds. Such was their perceived success that a number of Ministries of Education decided to introduce English Medium Instruction programmes in state schools.

In 2001, the Ministry of Education in Malaysia decreed that Science and Mathematics in primary schools should be taught in English. Prior to this policy decision, all primary school teachers had previously been trained to teach these subjects using Bahasa Malaysia or Mandarin, according to the ethnic status of the school. Recognising the need for the English language competence of teachers to be enhanced, provision was made for intensive English training programmes, although these were usually very short – perhaps only three weeks. Empirical evidence (for example, Eng, Kumar & Barnard, 2009) suggested that such training was inadequate and that, as a consequence, the children neither learned the content subjects nor acquired sufficient competence in English. In 2010, the Ministry reversed the policy, and these subjects are (again) to be taught in the students’ first language.

**English Medium Instruction in universities**

The first non-English universities to teach academic programmes through the medium of English in the 1980s were in Europe, especially in the Netherlands, Germany and the Scandinavian countries. By 2008, there were estimated to be over 2400 such programmes in Europe (Wachter & Maiworm, 2008). The number of universities running EMI programmes across the world is rapidly increasing for reasons such as (according to van der Walt, 2013): the desire to attract international students to enhance the university’s international connectedness in teaching, scholarship and research; to fit domestic students for the increasingly anglicized global market; to establish new academic programmes; thereby to heighten the academic profile of the university; and, more recently, to increase revenue at a time when Ministries of Education were reluctant to continue to provide the major financial support for mass tertiary education; for many universities, it has become a matter of competitive survival. Across Asia, there is considerable pressure on universities to meet the demand for competence in English, which is the working language of organisations such as WTO, AESAN, SEAMEO.
Thus many Ministries of Education across Asia have encouraged more and more universities to introduce English medium programmes (Barnard, 2014). The Vietnamese Ministry of Education instructed universities to make plans “to use English as a medium in their training programs. Priority should go … to science, economics, business administration, finance and banking” (MOET, 2005; objective 3, output 2). In Malaysia, public universities mandated the use of the English language in Science and related subjects (Mohini, 2008), and the government allowed, indeed encouraged, an increasing number of private universities to introduce EMI programmes (Tham & Kam, 2008). The Japanese government, major industrial and businesses leaders, and private educational authorities have urged universities to offer 10-30% of their academic courses in English (Brady, 2008, p. 97). In 2001, all universities under the control of the Chinese Ministry of Education “were instructed to use English as the main teaching language in the following subjects: information technology, biotechnology, new-material technology, finance, foreign trade, economics, and the law (Nunan, 2003, pp. 595-6). Nunan noted that English has been maintained as a language of tertiary education in Hong Kong, (2003) and Li (2013, p. 66) argues that “the controversies over the past few years were triggered by [his] university management’s decision to offer more courses across a wide range of disciplines in English.” More controversy has been caused by the 2006 policy decision at KAIST, a highly prestigious Korean university, that “all lectures … are given in English in principle to better serve a growing number of graduate and undergraduate students from overseas” (http://www.kaist.edu/ English/01_glance).

This decision seems to have had a severe impact on some of the domestic Korean students at this university(Choi, 2011; Jee, 2012; Kim, 2011);

**Implications**

The above discussions show that there is often a wide gap between the curriculum intended by policy-makers, and that which is actually realized by practitioners. In many cases, this leads to a failure of the desired aims and objectives, and a sense of frustration among teachers and students. Three major implications arise from this: firstly, the need for appropriate research to be conducted prior to policy decisions being made; secondly, the necessity to take into account the existing knowledge, beliefs and practices of the teachers expected to execute the reform, and – wherever possible – to engage teachers in the research process; and thirdly, to effectively plan the implementation by taking into account the necessary material and financial resources available, particularly as regards the professional development of teachers.

With regard to research, rather than (as often happens) ‘cherry pick’ the findings of theoretical perspectives and empirical studies carried out elsewhere, policy-makers should commission local research to be conducted to explore the opportunities and constraints in the specific contexts where the innovation is intended to be implemented. By its nature, such research would collect qualitative data from case studies, such as those outlined above; while it is true that findings from such research cannot be generalised beyond the actual settings, such studies give valuable insights into the complex reality of classroom teaching – a complexity not always appreciated in many Ministries of Education.

In such research, data should be collected and analysed which can gauge the readiness of the key stakeholders involved in the innovation to adopt the new principles and procedures – administrators, leaders and managers,
perhaps the students themselves. Above all, the key stakeholders are teachers, whose knowledge and beliefs have a strong influence in classroom activity (Barnard, 2011). Unless this is done, the innovation will be, wittingly or otherwise, resisted by the force of dynamic conservatism (Schön, 1973). One way to overcome any such resistance is to involve typical teachers as participants in the research and thereby not only provide them with an opportunity to invest morally and practically in the curriculum change but also to add validity to the findings for the vicarious benefit of other teachers. The advantages of teacher research have been argued by many educational authorities, and have been summarised in Borg (2013, pp. 15-17).

The understanding gained by such research, should enable effective implementation of the policy – provided sufficient and appropriate resources are made available. As indicated above this has tended not to be the case – that, in many cases, classrooms are unfit for purpose, that teaching and learning materials do not lend themselves to the intended outcomes, that evaluation and assessment procedures mitigate the effect if the reform. Above all, insufficient provision has been made for the professional development of teachers to enable them to understand the principles underlying the reform, to be inducted into the required procedures, and to provide them with the skills needed for systematic reflection in-, on- and for-action (Farrell, 2007; Schön, 1983.)

Conclusion

Perhaps the key message from this paper is ‘to look before you leap’. When envisaging changes to the existing curriculum, policy-makers need to consider not only the theories, ideas, and practices recommended by outside consultants, but also to explore what is happening, and what can happen, in their own educational system. The findings of contextual research should enable them to judge the feasibility of the intended reform, and then estimate the amount and type of resources needed to plan the effective realisation of the intended curriculum change. Teachers know very well that, however well they plan ahead, their lessons always vary from what is intended; sometimes with negative, sometimes with positive outcomes. But a careful plan enables them to make adjustments to meet the inevitable challenges that arise in the course of their work. Policy-makers should pay close attention to the experiential wisdom of their practitioners, and this acknowledge that teachers can be, and should be, knowledge-makers, not merely the consumers, of educational development.

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Plenary Speech A [Room 103]

Chatkaew Bhaowises
(Suan Dusit Rajabhat University, Thailand)

Plenary Speech B [Room 104]

David McMurray
(The International University of Kagoshima, Japan)
Change Implementation in TEFL at Primary Level in Thailand: Managing the Uncontrollable

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Dean, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences
Suan Dusit Rajabhat University
Bangkok, Thailand

Abstract
This paper is aimed at sharing views on TEFL at a primary level in Thailand in terms of change implementation at classroom level, particularly on the utilisation of the 2008 Basic Education Core Curriculum under the second decade of the national education reform which has proved that change in education takes time. No one knows what is going on during the process of change; moreover change in terms of implementing new policies under the 1999 National Education Act (2002 Amendment) is definitely uncontrollable in real practice. Even though educational change has been implemented in Thailand since 1999, the Ordinary National Education Test (O-NET) Report unveils students’ low learning achievement in English (core) subject continuously. Such results give policy makers lessons that change is a complex process; no one can mandate change; or have control over teachers; only the delivery of clear change concepts and knowledge of how to implement change in curriculum, learning materials, teaching strategies and teachers’ beliefs under the strong support from change facilitators could make the real change in TEFL at primary level in Thailand to happen. Most of all, teachers are the heart of change.

1. General background

“...Getting a new idea adopted, even when it has obvious advantages, is difficult. Many innovations require a lengthy period of many years from the time when they become available to the time when they are widely adopted. Therefore, a common problem for many individuals and organizations is how to speed up the rate of diffusion of an innovation...” (Rogers, 2003:1)

Rogers (2003) indicates that change is difficult to manage and needs time for the adoption of new ideas. If this is so, what significant factors are required for successful change in education, particularly in a small unit like the EFL classroom at primary level? And, in order to make change sustainable, who would play an important role in the change process and implement innovations in terms of “...an idea, practice or object that is perceived as new by an
individual or other unit of adoption..." (Rogers, 2003: 12). My particular objective in this point, I define the word “change” as the ‘change in teaching English as a foreign language’ which refers to the implementation of new government policies which relates to change (i) in curriculum and learning materials, (ii) teaching strategies and (iii) teachers’ beliefs, in order to create better learning outcomes for students. Based on researchers and change practitioners (Czarniawska-Joerges, 1997; Fullan 1991 and 2001a; and Hall and Hord, 2001), change in education mainly occurs at classroom level and teachers are the most significant group of people in implementing the successful change.

2. Theoretical framework

The concept of change theory indicates that (i) the boundaries between the cause and effect of change are hard to detect, (ii) the development of change is non-linear and unable to anticipate the intended outcomes which are explained by the ‘butterfly effect’ that small incidents can create incredibly huge results, (iii) change may create contradictions e.g. gain-loss, constancy-adaptation, simplicity-complexity, etc. and that (iv) the way of dealing with change is interaction under uncertain, diverse and unstable conditions (Fullan, 2001a; 2001b; 2003; and Stacey, 1992). I, then, view change as a complex process which is difficult to achieve. Change needs time for whoever belongs to such an organisation to take part in – make sense of new policies, learn new ideas, practise advanced skills and gain new experience while they move forward along the process gradually - for change is unavoidable, pervasive, persistent, and eccentric (Czarniawska-Joerges, 1997; Ellsworth, 2000; Fullan, 1995a; and 2001a; Hall and Hord, 2001; Hopkins, 2001; March and Olsen, 1989; Marris, 1993; and McKinney et al., 1999).

In this point, I witness EFL teachers as the main agents of an educational change at classroom level. They are also the clients of change facilitators e.g. policy-makers, school principals, head teachers, and educational advisers whom need support in every step of change. To make sense of change in TEFL at primary level in Thailand that emphasizes the management of the uncontrollable, this paper is, then, relied on these three following concepts:

- Educational change is the implementation of the government’s new policies in terms of utilising new curriculum and learning materials, changing teaching strategies, and shifting beliefs for better outcomes in terms of students’ learning achievement. The educational change at classroom level is the practice of change in curriculum and instruction (Czarniawska-Joerges, 1997; Fullan, 1991; and 2001a; and Hall and Hord, 2001).

- Change takes time and is a complex process which requires skills, new knowledge and commitment (strong beliefs) and support from change facilitators (Fullan, 1995; and 2001; Hall and Hord, 2001; MacGilchrist et al., 2004; McLaughlin, 1990; and Rogers, 2003).

- Within the process of educational change, implementation is the most critical step and without change in individual teachers, lasting change in education is unlikely to succeed (Brighouse and Woods, 1999; Fullan, 2001a; Hall and Hord, 2001; and Verspoor, 1989).
In summary, change is a complicated process which takes time to achieve. Educational change is, therefore, the implementation of the government’s new policies in terms of utilising new curriculum and learning materials, changing teaching strategies, and shifting beliefs for the better outcomes in terms of students’ learning achievement. In brief, change at classroom level is the practice of change in curriculum and instruction.

Grounded in these perspectives, this paper presents the ideas of exploring change implementation in TEFL at primary level in Thailand, and ‘change management’ which is uncontrollable in two particular terms: (i) every EFL teacher has their own beliefs, attitudes, interests, background knowledge, and teaching aptitudes which are totally different. Without the provision of continuously careful training in terms of new knowledge and necessary skills, change implementation could not be occurred; and (ii) managing change in TEFL at classroom level is hard to control or detect.

3. TEFL at primary level in Thailand

After an educational reform and the promulgation of the National Education Act of B.E. 2542 (1999), 12-year basic education is provided for all Thai people for free. Learners are recognised as the most important in the process of educational change. They are capable of learning and developing at the best of their own pace and potential.

According to the mentioned Act, all teachers are asked to change their teaching strategies from the traditional teacher-centred to the child-centred approach of which teachers have to change their roles to the curriculum developers and learning facilitators. The most important thing is the teaching and learning process should meet the learners’ needs and serve the students’ individual difference.

The statement of the Act also indicates the importance of learners in the teaching and learning process. It challenges teachers to change their beliefs that learners have the potential to learn and are able to develop themselves based on their own pace. Changes in beliefs are the most difficult of all the changes in education. In this sense, education in Thailand has changed in three critical areas: curriculum, teaching strategies, and teachers’ beliefs.

The 2008 Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (2008) sets the learning standards and learning indicators as a core framework for each school to develop its own curriculum of which 70 per cent of the learning content is grounded upon the 8 subject groups and the rest must be concerned with the need of the local communities. In this new curriculum, English is made a priority of the foreign language being taught in schools at all levels. The EFL curriculum covers four areas: language for communication, language and culture, language and the relationship with other subject groups, and language in connection to the community and the world. However, due to the limitation of the budget for publishing and training necessary information about change, or related knowledge and new teaching skills to EFL teachers, as well as the lack of encouraging teachers to understand the difference of individual student; Thailand has been now facing the failure of implementing the successful change at classroom for almost two decades (1999 – 2014). The result of this could be seen from the low level of English language performances in O-NET.
Evidence shows that the policy-makers’ underestimate change complexity in education by not providing teachers across the country with new knowledge and necessary skills; particularly, how to bring the standard-based curriculum into practice, how to apply the child-centred approach – a new teaching skill in a classroom, and how to make teachers believe that individual student is different in terms of learning capacity, interest, need and aptitude (Bhaowises, 2005; Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison, 2009). This makes students get lower learning achievement, particularly, in English language subject. Details giving in Table 1 show the national average scores of English language learning achievement in the past five years. From this perspective, we can observe that the O-NET scores are pretty much lower than 50 per cent of the full scores (100 marks). These results prove that every area of change in education demands effort from all parties. Successful change needs time and full support from change facilitators.

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<th>subject</th>
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<td>38.37</td>
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Table 1: Grade 6 students' English language average scores in the Ordinary National Education Test – O-net during 2009 – 2013.

Moreover, when we look at change at classroom level, Hopkins (2001), and Joyce et al. (1999) emphasize that an educational change in the classroom is the practice of change in the curriculum and teaching methods. Hopkins (2001) observes that change at classroom level is practised in two critical areas: curriculum and instruction. He emphasises the implementation of change in education at this level as the most complicated and lengthy process, particularly, in the sense that application of new curriculum and teaching approaches “…requires a sensitive combination of strategic planning, individual learning and commitment to succeed…” (Hopkins, 2001: 36). This means that it demands the organisation of school conditions in reality which is based on human resources together with support for teachers during the challenging time of change. However, not every educational change or reform at classroom level can succeed with satisfaction or sustainability. Brunsson and Olsen (1997) warn policy-makers that change is hard to achieve because most change in education at classroom level is grounded in “…the energy and drive of individual reformers…” (Brunsson and Olsen, 1997: 192). In this respect, teachers are the grass roots of real change for they are implementing change in the classroom.

4. Managing the uncontrollable

Change is complicated and hard to detect, following is the information supports the idea that change is difficult to manage. Managing change is managing the uncontrollable for it is complex process and takes time to achieve the success goals.
4.1 Change is a complex process and takes time

The Chinese Bamboo

“...when you plant it, nothing happens in the first year, or in the second or the third or the fourth years. You don’t even see a single green shoot. And yet in the fifth year, in a space of just six weeks, the bamboo will grow 90 feet high. The question is, did it grow 90 feet in six weeks or in five years?...”
(Dick, F., 1992: 186 cited in MacGilchrist et al., 2004: 34)

Change is similar to planting Chinese bamboo. It takes time to achieve and we do not always know what is going on during the process which EFL teachers implementing change at the primary level. Change is a complex process which requires development in human resources, individual skills and commitment, as well as support from change facilitators (Fullan, 1995a; Hall and Hord, 2001; MacGilchrist et al., 2004; McLaughlin, 1990; and Rogers, 2003). In this sense, the degrees of understanding and implementing change in TEFL by each change participant or each EFL teacher indicate that change is hard to conduct. In real teaching situations, we will never know whether EFL teachers have implemented change or the standards-based curriculum correctly as guided or not. Moreover, we also do not know whether they are able to adopt various teaching activities to fulfil their students’ learning capacity or individual difference in the classroom as mentioned in the 1999 National Education Act (2002 Amendment). Managing change is absolutely managing the uncontrollable for individual EFL teacher responds to change differently and the interaction within a group of change (e.g. teachers to teachers, teachers to students or students to teachers, etc) is unpredictable. Thus realistic plans, learning communities for new knowledge and skills, and support are needed.

Hopkins (2001: 39) illustrates the process of change in education in three stages. They are initiation, implementation and institutionalisation and these stages overlap to each other.

- Initiation is the stage of making the decision to launch a well-structured approach to change by using a good quality innovation which is based on local needs, providing active support and developing commitment among change participants towards the change process.

- Implementation is focussed on utilising change innovation. At this phase, improving and retaining commitment, evaluating progress, solving problems, giving support to change participants are important activities in targeting for success.

- Institutionalisation is the phase that change and innovation has already introduced and carried out in schools. In order to set up change in the system permanently, it is important to embed change into every part of organisational structures and broaden links to promote the desirable practices in terms of developing curriculum and teaching strategies and supporting teachers with necessary knowledge and skills (Hopkins, 2001: 39).
Fullan (2001a) also states that the length of time from the initiation to institutionalisation of most changes takes 2 or more years, while moderately complex and large-scale changes take 3-5 years and 5-10 years respectively. But in reality, change can take a longer time if it lacks the clarity of change objectives and budget as well as support from the central authority. According to the research review on the national reform in industrialised countries conducted by Dalin et al. (1994), the length of the change process between the implementation and institutionalisation stages of major reforms can take as long as 20 years. Hence it is not surprising when the process of educational reform in Thailand in the late 1960s (Verspoor, 1989) takes nearly 20 years to provide 50 per cent of all secondary schools with equipment and arrange in-service teacher training to implement a new curriculum. In this case, change takes time to accomplish because there is a lack of authority to manage change. Change is left with a small unit like the National Curriculum Development Centre and is not run by the Ministry of Education. It has unclear change objectives and an insufficient budget. Moreover, there is uncertainty in responding to local needs and conditions (Verspoor, 1989).

In brief, even though the process of change is divided into various stages, it mainly consists of three crucial stages: initiation, implementation of change innovation and institutionalisation, as described by Fullan (2001a) and Hopkins (2001). Within these three stages, I view implementation as the most significant stage in the educational change process in the sense that successful implementation leads to the sustainable change and “...[I]mplementation success was the prerequisite of institutionalization...” (Verspoor, 1989: 8). Therefore without the pathway of putting new ideas into practice, change cannot occur and be sustainable.

4.2 No one can mandate change

Educational change in TEFL at classroom level depends on teachers’ concerns which could not mandate by policy-makers or authority (Fullan, 1995; and McLaughlin, 1990). Research practice proved that what teachers had thought and done was not the same. Findings (Bhaowises, 2005; Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison, 2009) revealed that EFL teachers in primary level failed to develop an adequate understanding of change objectives and could not foster a clear perception of the basic principles of the new curriculum e.g. child-centeredness, authenticity, action research, and collaborative teaching. In EFL teachers views, critical problems to change implementation included: pedagogical knowledge and skills, change clarity, teaching skills and learning materials, teachers’ qualification and teaching capacity, professional development, teaching activities, and learning materials quality and authenticity. EFL teachers wanted support in professional development, teaching activities, as well as the quality and authenticity of learning materials (Bhaowises, 2005).

Havelock and Huberman’s (1978), and Stacey’s (1992) views of change are similar to those of Hall and Hord (2001) in the sense that educational change is complex and its success is likely to take time for individuals to make sense of, learn, absorb and respond to. But on the other hand, change participants (e.g. teachers) may or may not implement change elements (e.g. curriculum and learning materials, teaching approaches, and teaching beliefs) at all. In this sense, a teacher may use a new curriculum without changing a teaching method. He or she may use new learning materials and alter slightly teaching behaviours but still stick with the old teaching assumptions or beliefs.
With this limitation, change in education is uncontrollable and we cannot force it to happen immediately as the policy-makers wish. Just as McLaughlin, (1990) mentions “...implementation dominates outcome...policy cannot mandate what matters...” (McLaughlin, 1990: 12).

4.3 Short course training could not change EFL teachers’ teaching behaviour

The ‘quick-fix’ workshops packaged management approaches which failed to acknowledge the characteristics of the local environment, and one-off pre-implementation training (Goldenberg and Gallimore, 1991; and McLaughlin, 1990) were ineffective in accelerating change at classroom level. It could be seen that even though all EFL teachers had been trained in how to implement the new curriculum several times before change adoption, they could not implement change effectively (Bhaowises, 2005; Prapaist de Segovia and Hardison, 2008). Findings suggested that EFL teachers had problems in implementing change under the concepts of child-centeredness, action research, authentic learning materials, and integrated or collaborative teaching.

In fact, the Ministry of Education had provided the short course training on how to implement the new curriculum to school representatives of EFL teachers across the country. After training, the representatives were assigned to organise personal network training by transmitting the framework for development of the EFL curriculum to other EFL teachers in schools. Bhaowises (2005) indicated that even though all EFL teachers had been trained for several times, not all of them had confidence in the school-developed curriculum, and not all of them had a chance to take part in EFL curriculum development. The latter phenomenon mostly happened in primary schools. However, based on McLaughlin’s work (McLaughlin, 1990), to change teaching behaviours of EFL teachers to a new teaching strategy (a child-centred approach), it needed no less than a year of continuous training.

4.4 ‘Change clarity is important’

Change with unclear objectives which failed to address key aspects of the change process could delay the success of change and prevent successful implementation (Fullan, 2001a; Hall and Hord, 2001; and Havelock and Huberman, 1978). Even though at this stage it was not clear whether the ambiguity of the 2008 Basic Education Core Curriculum as well as school vision and policy would delay the success of change implementation in TEFL at classroom level or not, findings revealed that EFL teachers were uncertain about the quality of the school EFL curriculum which they had developed (Bhaowises, 2005). And without basic understandings, people were unable to apply change innovation effectively (Fullan, 2001a).

The clarity of change in TEFL objectives is important. Brunsson et al. (1997) make a critique of the utilisation of change. If change objectives are unclear, it is possible that change applicants may misunderstand and this can delay the success of change or reform. Fullan (2001a) explains that educational change which lacks clarity e.g. uncertain goals and undefined process of implementation could bring a critical problem at the utilisation stage, particularly to teachers who have to interpret, make sense of and practise change.
Moreover, Fullan (2001a) states that without basic understandings of change, people are unable to apply innovation. He defines the complexity of change as “...the difficulty and extent of change required of the individuals responsible for implementation—and extent of alterations in beliefs, teaching strategies, and use of materials...” (Fullan, 2001a: 78). He concludes that the complexity of change demands more effort from each change participant or each EFL teachers in learning new things and at the same time it also challenges the risk of failure.

Based on these notions, it can be summarised that the clarity of change influences the capacity of change participants in interpreting and responding to change. This means that different EFL teachers may respond differently to the same change in accordance with their understandings and the way they see it. The response to change therefore can be varied in a wide range from complete rejection to absolute acceptance (Senge, 1990 cited in Morrison, 1998). The more complicated a change, the more requirement there is for learning time (Havelock and Huberman, 1978). In short, no one can judge how an individual puts change into practice. The complexity of change is thus grounded in the unpredictable and uncontrollable interaction between change participants and the individual’s concerns about change.

4.5 ‘No one had full control over teachers.’

This paper confirms Havelock and Huberman (1978), McLaughlin (1990), and Wong’s (2001) studies that policy-makers could not have full control over EFL teachers’ teaching behaviours and that whether change would be implemented or not was definitely based on the teachers. Findings from observations (Bhaowise, 2005; and Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison, 2009) showed that EFL teachers still carried on teaching based on their old teaching styles: employing teacher-centred and grammar-translation approaches with Thai language as a means of instruction, using the former curriculum as teaching guidelines, and managing teaching and learning activities based on their own interests not the learners’. Based on this, the change process was complex. It was the unpredictable interaction between change participants and the individual concerns about change which was based on their attitudes, beliefs, knowledge, experience, and skills (Fullan, 2001a; and MacGilchrist et al., 2004). Hence no one could judge how each EFL teachers put the new curriculum into practice. So far, EFL teachers at primary level implement none of the fundamental principles of the new curriculum because of the lack of clarity and requisite knowledge and skills necessary for change. A successful change should, therefore, focus on altering every component in a system and emphasise that people implementing change are the most significant factors in the change process. However, change is not easy to achieve unless all change participants are well trained with new knowledge and necessary skills. And because change naturally threatens each member’s existing status, it is therefore slightly difficult to train people for new roles, particularly when such roles demand something different from the existing roles. According to them, people will hold their existing roles “...until the new roles become dominant or some accommodation is made...” (Havelock and Huberman, 1978: 156). This perspective indicates the complexity of change in education in the sense that it is unlikely to be accomplished as planned for it needs interpersonal relationships among participants and institutions to learn and share new knowledge and skills before successful change can take place. Change therefore requires time for learning and upgrading advanced skills all throughout the process of change.
In summary, the complexity of change is based on change participants’ concerns. So it is hard to set a long-term plan for change. Havelock and Huberman (1978) conclude that if the policy-makers or planners are unable to control the behaviours of all the institutions and change participants who are involved in change innovation, a plan for change in education could differ from its original shape because the dynamics of change within the setting will modify the plan. This is the reason why Stacey (1992) guides policy-makers and planners towards realistic plans as they move along the unpredictable change process while Havelock and Huberman (1978) suggest local cooperation and urge more reliable and accurate plans which are based on “…a careful study of the local setting(s)…(and) negotiated with the institutions and key persons in this setting…” (Havelock and Huberman, 1978: 157).

Successful change at classroom level is, therefore, based on individual teachers’ understanding in implementing change together with full support from change facilitators. Under these conditions, no one can mandate change. Within this, teachers play the crucial roles in implementing change at classroom level, without change in individual teachers, lasting change in education is unlikely to occur (Brighouse and Woods, 1999; Fullan, 2001a; Hall and Hord, 2001; and Verspoor, 1989).

5. Teachers are the heart of change in TEFL at primary level

“…Educational change depends on what teachers do and think – it’s as simple and as complex as that…” (Fullan, 2001a: 115)

According to Fullan (2001a), change implementation is demanding because it needs the interrelation between and across groups of change participants in different contexts and at various points of time. Within this, a fruitful change requires change in an individual teacher as a small element to drive the whole system of change. Hall and Hord (2001) emphasise the importance of individuals in the change process and argue that the success of change is grounded in how change participants understand and implement it. In their view, change cannot be developed by each member equally. They say “…[A]lthough everyone wants to talk about such broad concepts as policy, systems, and organizational factors, successful change starts and ends at the individual level. An entire organization does not change until each member has changed…” (Hall and Hord, 2001: 7).

Wang et al. (1993) indicate, without teachers’ cooperation, successful change in education is unlikely to happen. They point out “…[P]olicies do not always reach down to the classroom level. Effective policies require implementation by teachers at the classroom and student level…” (Wang et al. 1993: 276)

Fullan (2001a), Joyce et al. (1999), Hargreaves (1989), and Wang et al. (1993) identify teachers as the key persons in implementing change at classroom level. Joyce et al. (1999) argue that a good curriculum has no effect if it is not utilised in schools by teachers. To be effective, initiative changes in curriculum and instruction are required. Similarly, Hargreaves (1989) emphasises that change in education is ineffective if there is no change in teachers at the same time. In this sense, when change has already been introduced, teachers will formulate their own visions and try to make sense of and utilise change e.g. curriculum, learning materials and the new processes of teaching and learning according to their knowledge and experience. So the same change or innovation will be perceived,
interpreted and implemented differently by different people in different classroom or local settings (Hall and Hord, 2001). This means that what teachers think, believe, assume and behave influences the implementation of change in terms of interpreting change into practice and the outcomes of the students’ learning achievement (Hargreves, 1989; and Hopkins, 2001).

From this perspective, Hitchcock and Hughes (1997) warn policy-makers that even though teachers are recognised as professionals, they are human beings who come to class with their own personal background, personalities, attitudes, values, beliefs and experiences which are shaped by their past. Educational change or reform which fails to grasp that changes in education also involve changes in teachers’ lives tends not to be successful. Hence it can be concluded that teachers are the heart of educational change (Fullan, 1995a; and Hopkins and Stern, 1996) because “… [A]ny benefits that accrue to students as a result of educational policies require the enabling action of teacher s…” (Hopkins and Stern, 1996: 501).

In brief, even though change is initiated for all members in an organization at the same time, each member will implement change differently. In addition, the personal skills for new roles of change participants need time to be developed gradually, individually, and unequally. The progress or the delay of change in education is definitely based on the concerns of the individual teacher in implementing change. I therefore conclude that teachers are the most significant implementers of change. To accelerate change in education means to assist teachers to learn and gain new knowledge and skills which are necessary for implementing new roles. The more they learn and make sense of change in curriculum and learning materials, teaching strategies, and teaching beliefs, the faster the change is established and institutionalised in the educational system.

6. Conclusion

This paper shows that educational policy-makers in Thailand underestimate the complexity of change implementation in TEFL at primary level. As indicated in the theoretical framework, change implementation was based on the competence, experience, understandings, knowledge and skills of individual EFL teachers, which were absolutely out of the control of the authorities. We can witness that there is a big gap between policy and practice. It is, indeed, not surprising to see EFL teachers put the basic principles of change into practice only at the superficial level and carried on using teacher-centred and grammar-translation approaches in their classroom. It also reveals that the ‘quick-fix’ workshops and the packaged management approaches by the Ministry of Education did not work. They failed to fulfil EFL teachers’ needs and could not change teachers’ teaching behaviours and beliefs as demanded by the new policy of educational reform.

Problems of change implementation indicate by EFL teachers clearly suggest that educational change in TEFL at primary level in Thailand is not well planned and does not provide enough time for teachers to learn and absorb change into their teaching lives. EFL teachers lacked adequate support in terms of training in teaching strategies (e.g. child-centred and communicative approaches), EFL subject content and curricular knowledge. EFL teachers have no opportunities to learn new knowledge and practice new skills related to change. Moreover, change with a lack of
clarity also blocked the progress of change implementation. This affected EFL teachers at primary level in developing the school EFL curriculum because they lacked confidence in interpreting and making sense of the real meaning of change.

In brief, if the Ministry of Education, Thailand had a strong will to stimulate the success of educational change at primary classroom level, policy-makers have to provide more investment in terms of time, budget, and support in teachers. They have to understand that change in TEFL at primary level classroom is unpredictable and uncontrollable. The authority could not mandate change (McLaughlin, 1990) and that the real lasting change in the quality of TEFL at primary level will definitely occur only in the classroom and only with the implementation of EFL teachers (Brighouse and Woods, 1999; Fullan, 2001a; Hall and Hord, 2001; Verspoor, 1989; and Wang et al., 1993). Hence it was important to focus on individual EFL teachers’ concerns about change, particularly in professional development based on EFL teachers’ problems and needs. Under collegiality, EFL teachers would gradually learn how to solve problems among their school colleagues during the difficult time of implementing change, acquire new knowledge, develop teaching skills, and improve their professional quality and competence on their own. However let us conclude that:

“. Educational change depends on what teachers do and think – it’s as simple and as complex as that...” (Fullan, 2001a: 115).

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References


Creative Primary English in the Era of Globalization:
Comparing Mr. Sono’s Grade 5 Class in Japan with Mrs. Alcordo’s in Canada

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Abstract
This paper addresses the subject of English education for primary school teachers in this era of globalization. English education teaching techniques useful to elementary school teachers in Japan are explained in this paper about how elementary school teachers with ten years of experience introduce international understanding in their classrooms. By comparing a grade 5 classroom lesson in Japan with one in Canada readers can learn how to teach creatively in English by composing haiku poems, painting pictures, and singing English songs. The synergy can combine to create a magnificent quilt.

Keywords: creativity, haiku, elementary school, whole language learning

Introduction
Allow me to begin with a haiku penned in English by a grade 5 pupil and follow with a haiku by a primary school teacher.

Tree watching
grub of cicada
like mother
* * *
--Cherry Mori (Kagoshima, Japan)

Sunset
almost small enough
to put on my palm
* * *
--Kazue Moriki (Shatin, Hong Kong)

These haiku are noteworthy because the student is a 10-year old Japanese girl and she mustered enough courage to not only write but to introduce herself in English and read her haiku aloud to the US Ambassador Caroline Kennedy when she entered my classroom. The proud primary school student was awarded an honorable mention in the contest and a bouquet of flowers from the ambassador. In a speech made at the International University of
Kagoshima, the ambassador told 300 participants who had gathered for the event that she believed “words and ideas can change the world.” The ambassador judged the haiku in English contest during a visit to Kagoshima Prefecture prior to making a rocket launch inspection on Tanegashima Island. Noting the long history and traditions of Japan, she told university students, “In today’s world of business and science, it is important to express ourselves, although it can be difficult studying another language.”

The Japanese teacher’s haiku was penned while she was teaching abroad at an elementary school in Hong Kong. Now living in Kagoshima where she is in charge of a grade 5 class at a publish elementary school, Kazue Moriki is highly motivated to help her students learn English. She enrolled in my 2014 Power Up course offered by the Ministry of Education in Japan for primary school teachers with ten years of experience. In addition to wanting to learn useful classroom activities and techniques, I remember that Moriki often asked questions that began with the word why.

1. Problems

The winter birds
singing their
glum songs
* * *

This is a haiku poem composed by 10-year old Andrew Kochel. To motivate better performance from the sparrows, nuthatches, tits, and spotted woodpeckers that winter in Japan, his teacher might try installing a birdfeeder outside of his elementary school in Aomori Prefecture.

By the time your pupils reach high school motivation becomes the major hurdle, but I think the motivation to learn a new song or a new language is not so difficult to achieve with primary school students. Accepting that this is the era of globalization, it no longer seems necessary to debate why we should teach English. And in Korea, it is no longer essential to debate when is the best time to begin teaching English. Even in Japan, it seems a new curriculum will be set introducing the topic at the grade 3 level and making English a compulsory subject from grade 5.

Instead, what, how, where, and which kind of English are the questions that form avenues for practical research. Creativity is the keyword I would like to discuss for this conference on primary English Education in the era of globalization. Creative people are already motivated. So, if we are blessed with the opportunity to teach motivated primary students for six years, I argue that we should help them be creative learners of English.

2. Wait-to-see-what-the-neighbors-are-doing way of teaching English

Following global innovators by improving upon their original ideas had been a successful strategy in the past century for Japanese companies such as Sony with its Walkman recorders and Toyota with its automobiles that keep ahead of Kia. Just in time speed of delivery and quality control were the hallmarks of Japanese progress.
Even at the start of this decade, J-Pop sensations Perfume could perhaps rival Korea’s Kara, and Japan’s blue-colored soccer teams could keep pace with Korea’s red jerseys.

Wait-to-see-what-the-neighbors-are-doing type strategies no longer work. Speed, innovation, and creativity are the hallmarks of the era of globalization. The Internet, International English, the sharing of information to improve quality and standardization, more level economic playing fields because of free trade, and the speed of connectivity and globalization in this new era have changed the way business is done. Sony’s plasma screen televisions and cellphones now have difficulty challenging Samsung’s ultra-high definition televisions and smartphones. Now China has become a new player in these technology fields to observe carefully. And yet, American culture and Apple i-pads, iPhone 6, and maybe its watches continue to be the creative products that today’s youth want.

This line of argument might also be made in the field of English education and teacher training. The globalizing world of business desired far-reaching and instantaneous communication and therefore English quietly and relentlessly spread. It became the pre-eminent international language during the previous century, the de-facto language people used and wanted to learn. During the past decade Japan has tended to play catch up with Taiwan, and Korea in teaching English. At the public school level, methodologies such as communicative language learning, task-based learning methods entered schools in Taiwan and Korea for decades before Japan’s. In 2001, English was introduced from grade 5 in Taiwan (Leung and Katchen, 1999). Teachers at elementary schools in Thailand were directed to teach English long before they were in Taiwan and Korea.

At the main speaker podium of the Korea Association of Teachers of English international conference on Teaching English as a Global Language in the Asian Context, Kwon (2001) introduced research by Smith and Rafigzad who had taped the narratives of highly educated English speakers from the US, Japan, Korea, Hong Kong, the Philippines, Malaysia, India, Nepal, and Sri Lanka. When these tapes were played back to over 1,300 educated listeners from these countries and also from Bangladesh, Thailand, Indonesia, and Taiwan, the most internationally intelligible pronunciations were those of Japan, India, Sri Lanka, and Malaysia while the pronunciation of the American was close to being the least intelligible. Somewhat to the chagrin of the American main speakers and perhaps to the relief of the Japanese main speakers who followed Kwon, his statement highlighted the conference that was entirely conducted in English and was much appreciated by the predominately Korean audience.

At your Korea Association of Primary English Education (KAPEE) 2005 International Conference, delegates assembled here in Anyang at Gyeongin National University of Education to address the theme “The Past 10 Years of and the Prospects for Primary English Education.” Curriculum changes in Japan take place about every 10 years.

When curriculum changes follow other Asian countries, however, Japan has not always implemented improved learning programs. Recent Ministry of Education in Japan mandates to become "Super Global" and teach English in English made a negative impact on high school teachers. English only recently became an official subject in grade 5 and 6 at elementary schools.

On January 19, 2013, at your Korea Association of Primary English Education (KAPEE) International Conference the theme Creativity in Primary English Education was addressed at the Seoul National University of Education. And therefore with your exploration of creativity, I believe delegates at this conference in 2015 are well-positioned to discuss and debate primary English Education in the era of globalization.
3. Background

World sporting and trade events such as the Olympics and World Cups as well as world economic trends such as aging populations and the need for migrant workers have spurred Japan to think more seriously about enabling its youth to learn English. The challenge to compete for the chance to host the summer Olympic Games in 2020 required Japan’s negotiating committee—which included the Prime Minister, the Tokyo city mayor, and member of the emperor’s family--to make publicly televised speeches in English. Achieving success in its bid, the Japanese government quickly proposed changes to increase the level of English ability in students: Changes such as starting introductory classes of English for third graders, and making the subject compulsory from the fifth grade.

4. What other researchers have discovered

Japan presents a particularly compelling case for the examination of the realities of English as a global language. Seargeant (2011) adds to an emerging body of literature that provides an update on the intricacies and complexities of contemporary Japan's linguistic ecology. Galan and Heinrich (2010) follow the interplay between globalization and language by examining the role played by the English language in contemporary Japanese society. Their various chapters cover the nature, status, and function of English in Japan, focusing on the ways in which globalization is influencing language practices in the country. They claim that the Japanese people have shown an intense fascination towards English yet, it has no official status, nor, has it become a significant part of everyday life in modern Japan. The majority of citizens do not require any great fluency in English for their everyday lives.

Razak (1996) assisted the government in Singapore to change its focus from rote learning and test obsessed students to shine on creativity and independent thinking at the start of the 21st century. Kim (1998) noted the sixth curriculum introduced by the Ministry of Education in Korea started to focus on creativity as well as English and computer education.

5. What, how, where, and which kind of English?

To prepare kindergarteners for elementary school, teachers aim at developing the child’s whole personality, particularly focusing on their health, social skills, language, interest in study, and ability to express themselves. On January 18, 2015 a haiku for second language writers meeting will be held in Gunma to explore how Japanese students can learn to write in English. The presenter discusses how composing haiku can facilitate their development of voices and demonstrates some haiku activities for use in the EFL classroom.

5.1 How does Mrs. Alcoro teach grade 5 students in Canada to be creative?

Sheri Alcoro regularly asks her grade 5 class at Driftwood Public School in Ontario, Canada to engage in projects that beautify the school yard and local environment. For example, her students joined together with parents and neighbors to plant and paint garden boxes adorned with key positive words about their inner city community. Alcoro’s class is a model demonstration class for equity, inclusion, and cultural relevance for the Toronto District School Board. She teaches a diverse group of children, including those who have special needs in the areas of ESL,
learning disabilities, and giftedness.

Sheri Alcordo asked her grade 5 class at Driftwood Public School in Ontario, Canada to draw pictures and write messages about hope, peace, and love as a gift for children in Tohoku who had been hurt by the tsunami. The students arranged their messages onto a large canvas quilt. While sewing their creative handicraft, they talked about how grade 5 students in Japan might react when they received their gift.

According to Alcordo (personal communication, May 1, 2012), the students wanted to be part of the quilt project because they “were inspired by the sense of community and inclusion it promotes by bringing others from around the world together for a common cause.” Alcordo found the quilt project to be an enjoyable learning technique that encouraged all students in her class to read and write in an entertaining way.

In recognition of her global and local community outreach activities, Alcordo was named Omni TV Golden Apple Teacher of the Year in 2011 and in 2012 was named Teacher of the Year by the Premier of Ontario. In receiving her award, she was praised by her school principal as an instructor who “willingly and enthusiastically shares her expertise, knowledge and resources with others and identifies, fosters and celebrates the strengths of others.” Students say she makes learning fun and challenges them to think (Toronto District School Board, 2012).

More than 20 quilts with messages from children all around Canada were delivered to schools affected by the tsunami and earthquake in Tohoku, Japan.

Ohama spoke with principals at elementary schools in Tohoku about the situation they were facing. She learned that emergency assistance had restored power failures, shortages of food, water and gas to communities. She was informed that financial assistance from overseas had helped alleviate the terrible conditions. The words of encouragement sent by the Canadian children were appreciated and helped to inspire students and teachers who were trying to rebuild their lives day by day. She learned that schools had been used as emergency shelters. When people moved from the shelters to temporary housing, the school classrooms were quickly restored. School playgrounds would be used to build temporary shopping centers. As children went back to school and temporary shopping centers opened up, these activities became symbolic of the rebuilding of the town. In addition to being a place of learning, schools are part and parcel of community life. In addition to being convenient places to buy supplies, shopping malls are places of rest and relaxation for residents. The cloth letters from Canadian children could be displayed at schools and malls where people could come together to chat and rebuild their personal networks. As murals and wall paintings, the quilts could beautify the schools and centers in Japan. These combined efforts became the Canada Cloth Letters project.

The students in Japan who read the letters from Canada, responded by painting their own cloth letters and these became the Tohoku Cloth Letters. Since October 13, 2011, the Canada- Tohoku Cloth Letters have been on an exhibition tour, beginning with an exhibition at the Canadian Embassy in Tokyo.

5.2 Contrasting how creativity is taught in Mr. Sono’s Grade 5 class in Japan

Takaaki Sono teaches his grade 5 students at Kinko Dai Elementary School in Kagoshima, Japan how to paint, sew, and write poetry. He periodically teaches English lessons, too. As a result, colorful water paintings of dream homes and environmentally friendly buildings, designed by the students, adorn the classroom walls. Students exchange lucky charms and tissue paper covers made from an assortment of colored buttons and cut cloth. On PTA
(Parent Teacher Association) days, the students recite poems adapted from classic Japanese literature for their parents to appreciate. For example, this poem penned by Sei Shōnagon in 1002.

「春はけぼの。やうやうしろくなりゆく山ぎは、すこしずかりて、紫だちたる雲のはそくたなびきたる。」

The poem was translated into English by Ivan Morris and Nobuko Kobayashi.

“In spring it is the dawn that is most beautiful. As the light creeps over the hills, their outlines are dyed a faint red and wisps of purplish cloud trail over them.” (Ivan Morris)

“In spring, at dawn, the dark mass of the mountain lightens little by little at the edge and slowly the blue mists float away. How lovely.” (Nobuko Kobayashi)

In the opening section of The Pillow Book, which begins *haru wa akebono*, or “spring, dawn,” is arguably the single most famous passage in Japanese literature. *The Pillow Book* has been translated countless times. It has captured the European imagination with its lyrical style, compelling images and the striking personal voice of its author. There are more than fifty published translations of the “spring, dawn” passage, which span one-hundred-and-thirty five years and sixteen languages. Translations of classical Japanese texts have had enormous impact on English literature.

The Tale of Genji (Genji Monogatari) was written by Murasaki Shikibu in 1021. The original manuscript written by Murasaki Shikibu no longer exists, but 300 copies were produced. It is acknowledged as a masterpiece of Japanese literature and the first novel. Lady Murasaki’s 11th century novel is a beautifully crafted story of love, betrayal and death at the Imperial Court in Japan.

*Nodding wisteria
an untold love affair
Tale of Genji
--Jun'ko Yamada (Kamakura)*

Royall Tyler's 2001 translation for the 1,216 page Penguin Classics Tale of Genji is true to the Japanese original but appeals to the modern reader of English. Penguin Classics are published by The Penguin Group (Canada), a division of Pearson Canada Inc.

Another aspect of the language is the importance of using poetry in conversations. Modifying or rephrasing a classic poem according to the current situation was expected behavior in Heian court life, and often served to communicate thinly veiled allusions. The poems in the *Genji* are often in the classic Japanese *tanka* form. Many of the poems were well known to the intended audience, so usually only the first few lines are given and the reader is supposed to complete the thought themselves, much like today we could say "when in Rome..." and leave the rest of the saying ("...do as the Romans do") unspoken.
In English class, the students learn the names of colors and how to extend greetings. Children all over Japan are introduced to similar lesson plans during the integrated period of study in accordance with national curriculum guidelines. In 2008, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (2008) revised the national course of study by mandating English classes be introduced at all the nation’s elementary schools from 2011.

When the March 11, 2011 tsunami devastated Japan, Linda Ohama was spurred into thinking of a way to synergistically combine the practical skills children had learned from their teachers in Canada and Japan. In addition to touring Tohoku, Linda Ohama visits universities in Japan to talk about the project. At Aoyama Gakuin University, 250 students and teachers from the English Department participated in her June 5, 2012 lecture. During a 90-minute classroom appearance, she showed photographs of her volunteer efforts and talked about how the Kids for Kids quilt project began. She explained how young people from the Canadian provinces of British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Ontario and Quebec as well as the Yukon Territory created a quilt made by patching together hundreds of letters painted on cloths in an effort to cheer up the children of farming villages, towns, and cities in northern Japan after the March 11th Earthquake and Tsunami. When displayed in schools, town halls and community centers, the quilts beautify the community and create a sense of pride in the place students call home (Aoyama Gakuin University, 2012).

6. Creativity

Creativity means something new rather than imitated, but it is also a term defined by culture. Educational philosophy in America and Canada contends that creativity is a desirable trait. In Japan, Confucian philosophy expects students to follow. Before students can become creative, or even express themselves, they must be taught possibilities and limits. Routine is important. In Japan it takes courage to be creative. Primary school teachers of English in the era of globalization have opportunities to create lessons in fresh and dynamic ways.

6.1 Haiku

Holly Hartman encourages children to count syllables when they read stories, such as Harry Potter. Recalling the fun she had writing haiku as a kid she searched for quotes from the dialogue that she could transform into haiku. In order to meet her qualifications for what haiku is, the quotes had to naturally break into lines of five syllables, seven syllables, then five syllables -- the traditional haiku form when written in Japanese language. For example she found these 17 syllables.

How many times will we be able to witness a dragon hatching? ***

--Ron Weasley
Her creative idea motivated dozens of kids to create their own poems based on the popular books. Hartman said she received an e-mail from a primary school aged girl, "I hope you like this. It's the first poem I've ever written."

*His hair black as night*  
*A lightning scar tells his life*  
*He is a legend.*

***

-- Cherie, age 10

*A powerful blast*  
*Harry is blown off his feet*  
*From the shadow steps ...*

***

-- Alyssa, age 12

Here are haiku I have received from students in Japan.

*Evening drizzle*  
*comes and goes*  
*jeweled grass*  

***

*First storm*  
*unsteady on*  
*the river*  

***

This poem by 12-year old Shunan Mori won the second prize in the 2013 Mainichi newspaper haiku in English contest.

*Walking through the park*  
*twenty-one mosquito bites*  
*just on my two legs*  

***
Closer to here in Anyang, at the Gyeongin National University of Education – Gyeonggi Campus, Teacher-Education Center Room 101, Charles Hill (2014) presented a lively workshop on See the Apple: Teaching Creative Writing and Poetry Appreciation for Korean Elementary School Children. Hill, a Canadian teacher who moved to Korea in 2005, suggested to his audience that “Poetry, at first glance, may seem laborious and thusly undesirable as a subject to offer for elementary-aged children, but the brevity and intensity of this concise art form makes it attractive in this age of 'sound bites'.

Hill (2014) suggested that the questions about self and identity that arise from within as a result of the careful study of poetry, make it both necessary and rewarding for young students on the threshold of adolescence. In his abstract he claimed “The intrinsic value of poetry goes beyond just the very real study of syntax, grammar, and diction; it is psychological, it is a study meant to root out the very nature of the individual. Poetry is cognitive learning, it is personal expression. Poetry is an exercise in fantastical language competency.”

6.2 Students with special needs who respond to nature

During the first class in my English Education course in the graduate school where I teach, and at the beginning of my Power Up course for primary school teachers with 10 years of experience, I read from a children’s book. Here is what I read this semester to prove Hill’s (2014) point that indeed, poetry is an exercise in fantastical language competency.

CAW CAW CAW CAW CAW, a lone crow is perched on a tree.

Rides alone
crow’s joyous hail from
magic twig
***

“Everybody’s mind was taken to the far mountainside from which Chibi probably came to the school... to imitate a crow on an old tree, Chibi made very special sounds deep down in his throat...Now everybody could imagine exactly the far and lonely place where Chibi lived with his family. Then Mr. Isobe explained how Chibi had learned those calls – leaving his home for school at dawn, and arriving home at sunset, every day for six long years...Soon after that came graduation day. Chibi was the only one in our class honored for perfect attendance through all the six years” (Yashima, 1955).

In discussion with students we raise the issue of multiple intelligences and how we must be on the lookout for students who might learn better and faster or more creatively. In the story of Crow Boy, it seems the pupil didn’t engage in his studies until his graduating year when a new teacher encouraged his naturalist ability for learning the language of crows. Being a naturalist is a multiple intelligences recognized by Howard Gardner (1999) in his theory of multiple intelligences (MI). Understanding these intelligences can help teachers to design classrooms and curricula in a way that will appeal to all of our students. They can help us to curb negative behavior by reaching students in different ways. Traditional teaching focuses on two intelligences: verbal-linguistic and logical-mathematical skills.
Haiku literature with its 5-7-5 counting of syllables lends itself to these skills. MI incorporates six more: visual-spatial, body-kinesthetic, musical-rhythmic, interpersonal, intrapersonal and naturalist. Haiku can also draw on and develop musical rhythm and naturalist abilities.

Chibi, who later got the nickname the Crow Boy, started out school by hiding from his classmates. Because he was afraid of his teacher everyone thought that he would not learn a thing, and his fear of children meant he could not make any friends. He suffered from issues of self-identity that required the use of an intrapersonal intelligence he didn’t have. And lacking interpersonal intelligence he suffered much social and peer pressure. Fortunately, through encouragement by his new teacher Mr. Isobe, he autonomously studied various types of living things and received peer recognition for doing so.

6.3 A longitudinal study on language creativity

Languages take new directions through the coining of new words and EFL speakers today have introduced many new words and ways to use them. Non-native speakers in Asia are beginning to take advantage of their additional language and use it in unique ways. These new players in the tug-of-war over the ownership of English are coming to the fore the strength and creativity of whom we have not felt in Japan since team teaching was introduced in primary classrooms. Now creative compositions have come to the fore.

During a 20-year longitudinal project I collected more than 250,000 haiku poems that were forwarded to me in letters, faxes and e-mails by poets living in 46 countries. Listed alphabetically, here are the 46 nations, including Korea, regularly write haiku in English and enter contest: Australia, Austria, Bangladesh, Belgium, Belarus, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Brazil, Bulgaria, Canada, China, Columbia, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Iran, Israel, Italy, Japan, Kenya, Korea, Lithuania, Macedonia, Mongolia, Montenegro, Myanmar, New Zealand, Nepal, Netherlands, Philippines, Poland, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Singapore, Switzerland, Taiwan, UK, Ukraine, and USA.

Each week, 10 of the best are selected and published in the Asahi Shimbun and at <www.asahi.com/english/haiku>. During the first 3 years most of the published haiku were by native English speakers, but lately by my count on average 7 of the 10 selected haiku are by EFL poets. Surprisingly during the past 3 years 1 of the 10 selected haiku have been penned by elementary school students.

Japanese haiku was introduced to American and British poets in the mid-1900s. Translated 17 onji (Japanese sound syllables) poems, as well as those originally written in English are immensely popular. After 50 years of development in standard varieties of English however, remarkable changes are beginning to appear. Hisako Akamatsu, a Japanese EFL speaker, creatively customizes English words to fit a new 3-5-3-syllable count proposed as an optimum form for haiku. She takes control of English, and effectively demonstrated Kachru’s (1996, p.135) response to the question of language ownership that "If you can use it, you own it," when she composed:
Counting blooms
reveals day's fortune
morn' glory

She truncated the flower name for colleagues around the world because the full name "morning glory" is a four-syllable word that wouldn't fit on the last line; the preferred position for haiku season words.

This is a simple example, but when multiplied by the million EFL haikuists in the world today they suggest that in future more creative forms of haiku could emerge. Poetry aficionados may soon feel a competitive tug for the ownership of English haiku toward Japanese composers.

The study of language change is labeled "historical linguistics." Traditionally, scholars studied just the origins of language and the overall differences in the sounds of the language through the ages. In the 20th century up to present time, however, most language changes have taken place at the level of syntactic change, meaning of words, growth of pidgins and creoles, and sociolinguistics. The haiku example above contain all these elements. Coining phrases such as "Morn' glory" were achieved by combining an understanding of traditional Japanese thinking with an accepted modern English format.

7. Conclusion

Language teachers have led many innovations during the first decade 21st century such as teaching of English at elementary levels; task-based learning; and the introduction of computer-based testing. In this era of globalization, I now look forward to facilitating the introduction of creative and beautiful newly coined English words and poems from Japan, and perhaps Korea if you and your students are willing, into the world.

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Featured Speech A [Room 103]

Joseph Sung-Yul Park

(National University of Singapore, Singapore)

Featured Speech B [Room 104]

Makoto Hotta

(Yamanashi Daigaku Fuzoku Elementary School:
Attached School to Univ. of Yamanashi)
Globalization, Neoliberalism, and Primary English Education: Channeling Desire

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One important aspect of globalization that we are witnessing today is how it is closely intertwined with the ideology of neoliberalism, in which endless competition and freedom of capital is considered the dominant norm. In thinking about primary English education in the age of globalization, I want to discuss why neoliberalism becomes an issue for the English language learning of young students. What kind of impact does neoliberalism have on primary English Education, and what can we do to deal with it?

■ Aspects of neoliberalism

Neoliberalism is a belief that market-based principles of competition and individualism serve as the ideal guidelines for all domains of social life (Harvey 2005). On the level of global-level economics, this is realized in the form of free trade and flexible flow of capital across national borders. On the national level, it means reducing the responsibility of the state to intervene in the market, so that the role of the state is limited to guaranteeing private property rights, a free market without regulations, and a stable rule of law. This typically leads to privatization of state-owned enterprises, reduction of welfare, greater responsibility and accountability demanded of the private sector, and increasing flexibility of employment processes so that workers can be hired and fired more easily. On the individual level, then, neoliberalism is experienced as increasing competition, constant evaluation of performance at work (instead of permanent jobs based on past achievements), precarity of labor (in the form of increasing part-time and irregular work), pressure to invest in continuous self-development so that one can stay marketable and relevant to the changing demands of work. Generally, neoliberalism means undermining of values of community and collectivity, as individual rights and endless competition is valorized as universal values (Bourdieu 1998).

Neoliberalism is not just an economic ideology, as it also has a huge influence on the way individuals view themselves and society. The ideal neoliberal worker is the entrepreneur; she is not expected to reluctantly engage in work, but to enthusiastically seek new challenges and willingly take up more responsibilities, welcoming such challenges as an opportunity to constantly improve herself. Individuals are understood as “human capital”—that is, a source of potential profit that exists in human, embodied form. Projects of personal branding and continuous self-development, in this context, takes on an ethical implication; not engaging in project of self-development is immoral, as it lets valuable human capital go to waste. In this sense neoliberalism necessarily is a reshaping of subjectivities, rooted in dimensions of affect, emotion, feeling, and sense of self; it does not merely force us to work harder for the demands of capital, but entices us to willingly adopt a state of mind that better aligns ourselves with the ideal model of the subject required under neoliberalism.
This shows how neoliberalism must be understood as a most recent iteration of capitalism, in which capital’s pursuit of profit now extends even into our very own sense of being. Capital continuously seeks ways for making profit, but as markets get saturated and competition intensifies, capitalists need to find new domains and fields from which to extract profit. This leads to a need for freedom to seek new market across borders, to exploit workers without worrying too much about their welfare and security. Critics of neoliberalism see it as a move by the ruling class to restore their class power that has been threatened in times of falling profits and increasing competition (Duménil and Lévy 2004). The recurrent global financial crises that we have been seeing since the 1990s are in fact commonly attributed to the unchecked run of capital. Increasing inequality in terms of gap between the rich and poor, intensifying dehumanization of work, and general disintegration of a sense of community are some real consequences of neoliberalism (Callinicos 2003).

Neoliberalism and primary English education

Primary English education is a crucial site for the reproduction of neoliberalism. Let us consider this from the three elements that make up primary English education—primary (i.e., youth), English, education—starting from the end.

Education is a crucial domain for neoliberalism, because it is seen as an important way through which the potential of human capital is developed and realized. Thus neoliberalism continuously puts pressure on educational institutions to produce workers that are well prepared for the needs of the workplace. The emphasis on continuous learning and self-learning is a reflection of this: instead of producing elite graduates that only know what they are taught, schools are expected to produce workers who continuously renew and improve themselves through constant self-development to flexibly adapt to the quickly shifting conditions of production in the new economy. For this reason, developing marketable skills becomes the utmost priority for education (Urciuoli 2008). Spirit of competition predominates the field of education under neoliberalism. In the name of excellence, students are pushed into increasing competition with each other, based on the belief that this will lead to higher achievement. Schools are also subjected to constant evaluation and ranking, which exerts a significant influence on the way educational practice is structured. In Korea, for instance, neoliberal reform of education has dismantled the long-standing policy of equalization, which banned ranking of schools based on academic achievement, leading to the emergence of elite schools and increasing competition among students to get into those schools (Park 2013).

English is an important index of an ideal neoliberal worker, because as a global language, it allows one’s potential as human capital to be realized across linguistic and cultural borders. Neoliberalism does not promote only English—neoliberalism thrives in multilingualism. However, in neoliberalism English has particular significance due to its status as a global language. Neoliberal projects of self-development imply that the value of human capital is universal, and that it will be valued anywhere in the market. This is obviously not the case, though; for instance, inability to communicate with others through language will prevent one from having the value of her human capital recognized in the global market. As a language that is perceived to be a global lingua franca, then, English is a powerful basis for justifying the claim of human capital’s universal exchange value, sustaining the neoliberal belief that anyone can achieve success by developing and honing oneself as a brand and a bundle of skills. For this reason, English language skills become an important “base” and a crucial index of an ideal neoliberal worker. Thus,
in Korea, despite the country’s predominant monolingualism in Korean, English is often seen as a crucial skill for everyone, leading university students to invest time and effort in securing good scores in standardized tests such as TOEIC and developing conversational English skills (Abelmann, Park, and Kim 2009).

Youth, likewise, becomes a highly important category in neoliberalism because it is seen as an ideal window for the development of human capital inherent in the body of the youth. The mind and body of youth is seen as particularly malleable, allowing for a maximum realization of the person’s hidden potential. Not properly managing and guiding the period of youth, then, leads to possible waste of that hidden potential, and is thus seen as irresponsible and immoral. When it comes to acquisition of linguistic competence, youth becomes a particularly valuable time frame. The general belief that children acquire languages much more effectively than adults makes investment in the English language learning of youth a particularly crucial issue. Given the importance of English as an index of ideal neoliberal personhood, it is not surprising to see the trends of early English education (영어조기교육) highly dominant in Korean society; it is a way for parents to ensure their children stay ahead in competition with others, allowing the children to break away from the cursed body of the non-native speaker and to become fluent and proficient English speakers through the exploitation of the precious window of youth.

Primary English education, then, where all three elements of education, English, and youth converge, is of extremely high importance in neoliberalism; it is a crucial site for the development and management of human capital, a coveted area that must be subject to control according to the interest of capital. We can see this, for instance, in national policies that try to lower the starting age for English language education which are tied with ideas of boosting national competitiveness (Jung and Norton 2002, Price 2014). Such policies, which target primary-age students as wasted human capital that needs to be cultivated through early exposure to English, clearly demonstrate how primary English education is being used as a site where the ideology of neoliberalism is reproduced and reinforced.

But because of this reason, primary English education can also be an important locus for destabilizing the power of neoliberalism. That is, precisely because of the significance it occupies in projects of neoliberalism, primary English education can also be a site for contesting the order of neoliberalism and bringing about positive change—including the recovery of a more communal and equitable society where humanity is valued for itself rather than its exchange value. Therefore, it would be important for researchers and practitioners in primary English education to consider ways through which the ideology of neoliberalism and its valorization of human capital can be contested.

■ Desire and primary English education

The notion of desire can be a useful point of intervention for primary English education to destabilize the dominance of neoliberalism. Motha and Lin (2013) theorize desire as underlying all forms of language learning. When choosing to learn English, for instance, we do so because we desire the ability to speak the language, the identities that it represents, the opportunities it brings, the power that it implies, and so on. Desire is our perception of a lacking that drives us to pursue the thing that we lack, realized in terms of subjectivity—that is, in terms of affect, emotion, anxiety, hope, frustration, longing, etc. But desire is not simply an internal, psychological perception that exists primarily in the individual’s mind; it is socially, historically, and politically constituted—that is, it is formed in interaction with others, within specific historical contexts, and shaped by particular relations of power. In
this sense, desire in language learning differs from more psychologically based notions such as motivation.

In Korea’s so-called “English fever” (영어열풍), for instance, the heated pursuit of English is not simply a reflection of Koreans’ incompetence in English that can be objectively measured in some way. It is a result of a desire for English that has been inculcated among Koreans throughout Korea’s modern history; for instance, in the way English has been promoted as a sign of power, how white native speakers are upheld as authoritative speakers, and how Koreans are constantly portrayed as illegitimate, incompetent speakers of English (Park 2009). This does not mean that all Koreans blindly and uncritically crave for English; it means that even when we are critical of the inequalities and problems associated with English, we are also socially inculcated to feel and think about English as a language of power, opportunity, and legitimacy, for instance through feelings junuk (준욱), or a debilitating sense of anxiety that overwhelms a Korean person in front of a native speaker (Park 2012).

This is particularly so under neoliberalism. Neoliberalism intensifies this desire for English; as management of human capital becomes a matter of utmost importance and a matter of moral personhood, people are even more compelled to pursue English, as acquisition of English is valorized as indexing a responsible neoliberal subject. In the context of primary English education, middle-class parents’ fear of being unable to pass on their class privilege to the next generation constitutes their desire for English, for instance, leading to the heated investment in English language learning that drive the Korean English fever.

Focusing on the notion of desire can therefore provide us with a way of problematizing how neoliberalism subsumes primary English education. For instance, we might trace how desires of English that condition primary English education in Korea are socially constituted, and then use that knowledge to find a way to rechannel them, for our awareness of the socially constituted nature of desire would allow us to question it and seek alternatives. In the following, I would like to illustrate this point by focusing on the case of jogi yuhak (조기유학), or early study abroad, as a process through which subjectivities of primary age English language learners are shaped.

**Jogi yuhak and the forging of desire**

The particular case that I wish to look at is jogi yuhak students in Singapore. Singapore has become one of the popular sites for early study abroad since the early 2000s, due to its status as an English speaking country and its proximity to Korea compared to Western English speaking countries such as the US. While students of all age range come to study in Singapore, primary school students form a major group of Korean students. A common strategy they take is to study in Singaporean schools for 1-2 years and then return to Korea, so that they can use the English language competence they acquired in Singapore for entrance into prestigious secondary schools back in Korea (Park and Bae 2009, Bae 2014).

In primary-school-age jogi yuhak, it is often presumed that study abroad is mostly driven by the desire of the parents who wish to provide their children with the best resources for competition in school, and the children generally lack any desire for English, due to their younger age and their dependency on their parents. However, this is not necessarily the case, as at least some children display a strong desire for English that aligns them with the ideal neoliberal personhood.

The case I will talk about is Jiyeong, who was a 10-year-old girl attending a Singaporean government school when she was interviewed by Bae Sohee in 2007. She was in 4th grade, and had been studying in Singapore for
about a year. Like many jogi yuhak children, her parents’ desire was a big motivating factor that led her to studying abroad. For instance, Jiyeong’s father, who worked for a major corporation in Korea, felt stressed because, despite having studied English for a long time at school, he still had difficulty communicating in English with foreigners he met for work, and hoped that Jiyeong would be spared from such stress. Similarly, Jiyeong’s mother, in her interview, constantly compared Jiyeong with her cousins, who all had experience of studying abroad and used the experience to enter prestigious high schools in Korea, and expected that Jiyeong should follow a similar path. Such sense of anxiety in relation to competent others, then, was one clear manifestation of the parents’ desire of English for their daughter.

But the interview with Jiyeong showed that a sense of desire was an important way through which she came to relate to English as well. Jiyeong was enthusiastic about language learning; she said she wishes to learn to speak 8 languages, such as Chinese, French, Spanish, German, in addition to English. What fed Jiyeong’s desire was a sense of “envy” (부러움) towards those whom she saw as competent users and successful learners of English. For instance, when asked about since when did she first have the dream of learning 8 languages, she said:

Before I came here, I thought just learning English was sufficient. When I came here, I saw (other students) read many books as well, and I was envious of that. I was so envious of that.’

That is, through jogi yuhak, she came to recognize that English language learning is not just about gaining linguistic knowledge but eventually being able to engage in a wide range of cultural activities (such as access to literary works in English); and for this reason, English is merely a first step towards a world of cultural attainment. But what is important for us is how Jiyeong frames this realization in terms of an affective alignment, as she emphasizes her envious reaction to others who could engage with the world of English freely. That is, Jiyeong does not just recognize the cultural value of English, but takes on a subjective position defined in terms of desire and affect.

This sense of envy was also articulated when the researcher asked her how much further she wishes to develop her English language skills. Prompted by her mother, she spoke of one of her cousins, who wrote a diary in English and published it as a book, and presented her as her ideal model, again stating that she was “envious” of her.

Bae: If you were to study English more, how much would you hope to develop it?
Mother: You said you want to write in English.
Jiyeong: Because my cousin wrote her diary in English and published it.
Bae: In Korea?
Mother: Yes, she published a book in English.
Jiyeong: I’m envious of my cousins because they all study well.

In this case, the achievements of her cousin (both in terms of language, academic achievement, and material success as indexed by publishing a book) are presented as desirable and enviable, and the cousin is set up as an

* All examples are translated from Korean.
ideal image of the self. This is significant because Jiyeong’s statements do not simply posit a desirable subject—a high-achieving, self-developing, and self-activating self with cultural richness. They also position Jiyeong as a desiring subject. That is, the experience of jogi yuhak inculcates in her not only the linguistic competence that allows her to follow in the footsteps of her cousin as a role model, but also a subjectivity that invokes in her the right affective, moral, and embodied alignment towards youth. Again, for her, learning English is not just mastering another school subject or securing another technical requirement for a job; it is an index of an attitude that aims to continuously enrich oneself by delving into an ever-growing repertoire of cultural activities that expand her horizons; in this way, the time-space of youth and jogi yuhak becomes a time-space for self-development driven by the desiring subject.

For this reason, the time-space of youth and jogi yuhak is always found wanting; the time and space provided through jogi yuhak is never enough, as there is always more there to desire. When asked whether she ever considered giving up her study abroad to return to Korea, Jiyeong said:

I never thought of going back. (But I thought) if I had one more year I could master Chinese … Not that I want to stay longer, it’s just that if I were to stay longer, I feel I could do better.

Jiyeong was in fact a high achieving student, who obsessively studied to get good grades and ranking in the competition-oriented Singaporean national education system; she would study until late at night and plough through workbook after workbook in preparation for exams. What she achieved in this way, both in terms of academics and language, was indeed remarkable, so it was not the case that she had reason to regret not working harder or that she needed to stay longer. Nonetheless, she viewed her jogi yuhak experience as something that cannot be fully satisfactory; there has to be an eternal, lingering sense of aswium (어리움), a feeling that there should be more—more to achieve, more to grow, with just a little bit more of effort. There is thus no room for being proud and satisfied here, for the sense of desire is what defines her subject position.

In short, we can say that the experience of early English education and early study abroad, both of which are neoliberal projects that focus on the development of human capital of young children, has inculcated in Jiyeong a desire for English that is characteristic of an ideal neoliberal subject. Jiyeong sees English as desirable, something that she must achieve through endless effort and hard work, carefully managing the time and opportunities that have been given to her. Becoming a competent speaker of English is not just a skill that she needs to acquire for her future education, but an object of envy, which makes the speaker desirable and respectable in the eyes of others. That is, by following through the program of early English education, Jiyeong comes to internalize the ideal subjectivity that is promoted by neoliberalism. Though we would certainly expect different children to align differently to this desire, Jiyeong’s case clearly shows how neoliberal projects of primary English education in Korea is more than just about language learning; it targets young children as human capital, aiming to maximize their value by disposing them as responsible subjects who would willingly develop their underlying potential as a neoliberal subject.
Towards a non-coercive channeling of desire

What kind of intervention might a more critical primary English education make in this case, then? Motha and Lin (2013), based on Gayatri Spivak’s work, argues that English language teaching should be a site where the language learner’s (and teacher’s) desire is reshaped and transformed in non-coercive ways. English can be pursued for maintaining and reproducing one’s classed interest, without regards to the consequences of social inequality that such individualized pursuits imply. But English may be also desired as a means of self-discovery, as a tool for building intercultural understanding and solidarity, and so on. Therefore, the English classroom should be conceptualized as a space for helping students reflexively understand their own desires and building communal relations with others through language, instead for the inculcation of skills that can be translated into material benefits later on.

In what ways can we channel the desire of primary students like Jiyeong, so that their investment in English language learning does not just become a resource for competition in the educational market, but a way of critical reflection and building of communal ties that can undo the inequalities of neoliberalism? There is no easy answer to this. But one thing that is certain is that the English classroom should be a space for such non-coercive channeling. Motha and Lin (2013) identify the following questions as possible prompts through which reflection about desire can be introduced in the English language classroom: What images do you associate with English and with English speakers? What fiction or movie representations of English or English speakers have been influential in your life? Could you tell a story of a moment that made you want to learn English? While such questions do not confront the issues of neoliberalism in any direct way, they nonetheless address the question of desire, inviting students to look back upon the way they see English and how they relate to English through their affect, emotions, and lived experiences. And because neoliberalism works not only through government and corporate policy but through the minute grains of how we position ourselves as subjects in everyday life, such reflections are not irrelevant as means of distancing ourselves from the dominant ideology of neoliberalism.

Practitioners in primary English education, however, do need to have a strong awareness of the problems of neoliberalism and actively seek to channel the desire of students in a more communal and equitable direction. The challenge here might be that dreams of self-development that neoliberalism celebrates and the ideals of a more critical perspective on English language learning often closely overlap. For instance, in Jiyeong’s case, even though her desire to master English and many other languages feeds into the structure of competition that is represented by her parents’ effort to reproduce their classed position through Jiyeong’s jogi yuhak, multilingualism and willingness to communicate across multiple cultures is certainly a valuable basis for building solidarity on a global level, a possible resource for contesting the world-wide reach of neoliberalism. There is no easy way of teasing such desires apart; and attempting to unambiguously labeling desires as “good” or “bad” ones is certainly not a viable approach in a non-coercive classroom. However, openly and honestly addressing questions such as the ones Motha and Lin suggest can be non-threatening activities that open up a space for both the teacher and students to become aware of the underlying desires that shape the way we relate to English. Even though the space opened up would be small, it can provide a starting point for primary English education to remove itself from the dominant order of neoliberalism, shifting the direction of English language learning into a more productive and equitable one.
References


English Education in Public Elementary Schools in Japan  
- The past, Present and Future -  

Makoto Hotta  
The elementary school attached to the faculty of education and human sciences  
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(Yamanashi Daigaku Fuzoku Elementary School)  

Abstract  

The purposes of this presentation are to review English education in Japanese public elementary schools and to try to show future trends on English education in Japan. The speaker will tell the audience the history and the future of English education in the elementary schools: the past, present, and future. In the presentation, there are three main topics: the beginning of English education in Japanese public elementary schools, the present situation, and the future trends.  

Introduction  

First of all, on behalf of the Japan Association of English Teaching in Elementary schools (JES), let me express my gratitude for the privilege of holding a presentation at the conference of the Korean Association of primary English education. I am very glad to be here.  

Today, I will present to you on English education in Japanese public elementary schools. Improving the students’ ability to correspond to globalization is an urgent need at all schools in Japan, as it is in Korea. Especially, it is very important to enrich the method of English education in elementary schools, junior high schools, and high schools. In fact, English education in public elementary schools has attracted a great deal of people’s attention in Japan. The history of English education in public elementary schools in Japan is not so long; only about 12 years.  

There are three main parts in my presentation. The first is to review English education in Japanese public elementary schools. In this section, I will tell you the history of English education in Japanese elementary schools. The second is to show you the present situation. I will present you a couple of videos of lessons. The third is to try to show future trends on English education in Japan.  

1. The Dawn of English Education in Japan  
(2002-2010)  

English education at all Japanese public elementary schools started officially in 2002. Before 2002, some private elementary schools had English lessons regularly (Erikawa, 2008; Imura, 2003); however, all the public elementary schools in Japan did not. The public elementary school children did not learn English at their schools. However, after the 1990s, the world began to change rapidly with the progress of information technology. It was demanded
that education must respond to globalization. The need of English education from early age was raised in this period.

Under such circumstances, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology in Japan, hereafter I would like to call it MEXT, proposed the need to introduce English education to public elementary schools in the early 1990s. About 50 schools were chosen as test schools to give pilot English education to collect data from 1992 to 1998.

After that, MEXT renewed its Course of Study in 2002 and created a new subject called “Integrated Study.” This was cross-curriculum learning. Each school was allowed to choose topics to teach according to the schools’ and students’ situation. MEXT showed some models of topics such as information technology, environmental conservation, and so on. English conversation for international understanding was one of the presented topics. This was the first time for Japanese elementary schools to introduce English education though it was not stand-alone English education, but as a part of “Integrated Study.”

MEXT (2001) said that the main purposes of the English activities were to improve children’s conversation skills in English, to cultivate their interests for different cultures, and to develop children’s ability to coexist with people in other countries. The content of the education for international understanding is composed of “English conversation”, “international exchange activities”, and “student research projects”. The children were exposed to English and familiarized with the culture and daily life of foreign countries in the lessons. Table 1 shows the aims and topics of English activities.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aims of English Activities</th>
<th>Examples of Topics in English Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Develop the ability to hear and understand basic-level English questions and to respond</td>
<td>Greetings, friends, family, food, cooking, vehicles, shopping, seasons, plants and animals, numbers, colors, school life, classroom items, jobs, sports, the human body, gestures, Japanese traditional events, world map, games from around the world, customs and life in other countries, television programs, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Develop the ability to imagine the meaning of English words and sentences</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Develop the ability to use basic-level English and talk about familiar and simple things</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Develop the ability to meet foreigners living in the community and interact with them</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MEXT (2001) demonstrated the English activities lesson plans. The following is one of them. Please keep in mind; we had no textbook in 2002 through 2008.

MEXT (2001) proposed the following lesson plan (pp. 210-212).
Topic: “What color do you like?”

(1) Aim: To let students become familiar with ways to express colors in English in order to interact with friends and teachers by using a picture-drawing activity and a game.

(2) Language Use: “What color is this?” , “What color do you like?”, “I like . ”
“white, black, pink, brown, green, blue, yellow, red, orange, gray, purple”

(3) Materials: color cards, colored pencils, water colors

(4) Instructors: Japanese Homeroom Teacher (JHT)
Assistant Language Teacher (ALT): native speaker of English
(In some cases, the instructor is a Japanese homeroom teacher only.)

(5) Unit Outline ( ○ indicate the profile lesson)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson</th>
<th>Contents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Enjoy a game using colors with the JHT and the ALT.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Mix paints to create colors and paint a picture, following the instructions of the ALT.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Draw pictures and ask friends’ favorite colors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Summary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(6) Lesson flow

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Greeting</td>
<td>The students are greeting each other. “Good morning” “How are you?” “I’m good.”</td>
<td>The teachers exchange greetings with the students. “Good morning” “How are you?” “I’m fine, thank you.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Draw pictures</td>
<td>The students listen to the ALT and draw pictures. The ALT tells the students to draw a picture as described by the ALT. “Let’s draw two red circles.” “Let’s draw one yellow star.” etc. The JHT</td>
<td>Encourage the students to pay attention to the ALT’s actions to understand the meaning of the words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Play a game “Color Basket”</td>
<td>The students enjoy the game using English. The JHT explains the activity in Japanese. (The ALT tells the students how to play the game in English)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
How to play “Color Basket”.

(1) The JHT has the students make a circle with their chairs.
(2) One of the teachers plays a role of “it” at the beginning of the game.
(3) The “it” stands at the center of the circle while the students take a seat.
(4) The students said to the “it”, “What color do you like?” The “it” answer his/ her favorite color. “I like .”
(5) The students who like the color which “it” said have to move to another chair right away. At the same time, the “it” moves to a vacant seat.
(6) The student who doesn’t have a seat will be the next “it”.

End of lesson
The students
say good-bye.
“Good-bye.”
“See you.”

That’s all for today.

Thus, MEXT (2001) insisted that primary elementary school English activities should focus on the listening and speaking of simple English words in the lessons. MEXT said, “At the elementary school level, simultaneously introducing English sounds, letters, grammar, and syntax, (all of which differ from those of Japanese) would be to demand too much of students, becoming a major cause for students to develop a dislike of English "(p. 126).

However, there was a question. Whether the children in Japanese elementary schools should not be given English sounds and letters simultaneously is still a matter of controversy. Is it difficult for children to learn English sounds and letters at the same time? There were two directly-opposed ideas. Some researchers approved of exposing children to alphabetical letters (orthographic information) of English words; the others did not. Both of them asserted their own opinions from different viewpoints. Pros and cons about this issue were summarized as follows.

On one hand, the opinion that elementary school students should be exposed to orthographic information of English words was supported from a viewpoint of children’s interest. Researchers who agree with exposing children to orthographic information maintained that orthographic information should be given in English activities at elementary schools because children are interested in printed words and are eager to read printed words and to write alphabet letters. Some of the researchers thought that knowledge of alphabet letters would help children to learn English after entering junior high schools (Ito, 2001; Tsuido, 1997). Tsuido (1997) stated that English sounds (phonology) and letters (orthography) were components of the core of language learning and also maintained that elementary school students who had learned phonology and orthography of English words would learn printed English words easily at junior high schools.

On the other hand, the idea that elementary school students should not be exposed to English letters (orthographic information) of English words was supported from a viewpoint of children’s cognitive burden. Researchers who disagreed with exposing children to orthographic information were afraid that children who were exposed to such information might dislike English. According to them, it was not easy for children to learn both phonological and orthographic information of English words at the same time because of the heavy cognitive burden that they must concurrently realize sounds and letters of English words. In fact, many public elementary schools did not give
printed English words. Nagase (1998) believed that only the sounds of English words should be taught in elementary schools. He explained that playing, singing, and talking in English were three base activities. He also believed that if the orthographic information of English words has to be given, teachers should make a great effort to make orthographic information easily understood by elementary school students. So far, the argument that orthographic information learning was a children’s cognitive burden had not been empirically examined in Japan. In Japan, MEXT has a strong power over education. Most teachers in elementary schools tended to focus on listening and speaking activities only.

However, it remains unclear whether it is difficult for elementary school students to learn the phonological information and the orthographic information of English words simultaneously in English vocabulary learning. Hence, the speaker attempted to clarify whether it really was a heavy cognitive burden for elementary school students to learn both English sounds and letters at the same time or not, based on the theory of attention and cognitive resources.

Schmidt (1995) stated that attention was indispensable to learning (Schmidt, 1990; see also Robinson, 1995). Attention is an essential component of memory and noticing, which will facilitate the acquisition of a second language (Robinson, 1995; Schmidt, 1990). Based on the attention model, the present study attempted to clarify how students’ English sounds and letters information processing in vocabulary learning operates.

There was a model of attentional resources: the multiple resources model, which was proposed by Wickens (1984, 1989).

![Multiple resources model](image)

*Figure 1. Multiple resources model. Adapted from “Attention and skilled performance.” by C. Wickens, 1989, in D. Holding (Ed.), Human Skills, p. 82. Copyright 1989 by John Wiley & Sons.*

Wickens (1989) proposed the attention model which had multiple pools of cognitive resource. Figure 1 gives this model. This model is grounded on the notion that the human information processing is made up of several different
pools of resource. Each resource pool plays a role to process particular kinds of information independently. For example, the listening task consumes an auditory-verbal-encoding attentional resource pool, whereas the reading task uses a visual-verbal-encoding attentional resource pool. Two tasks are well performed when they consume different attentional resource pools. For example, driving and speaking can be done simultaneously because both of them consume different pools of resource. These two tasks do not interfere with each other. The multiple resources model can explain why driving and speaking can be performed at the same time. In the case that the demands for processing two inputs are imposed on different pools of resource, dual task performance is executed successfully. In this study, the appropriateness of this model was investigated based on the result of the experiment.

The Experiment (Hotta, 2005)

1. Participants

Participants were selected from Grade 6 and Grade 3 students in a public elementary school. 78 students participated in the main experiment.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Participants in the Experiment</th>
<th>Grade 6</th>
<th>Grade 3</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Separate Instruction Group (SEP)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simultaneous Instruction Group (SIM)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Materials

Eight words: purse, tweezers, broom, ladder, giraffe, camel, chimney, and finger, were target words.

3. Procedure

Separate Instruction Group (SEP): Participants were given English letters of the 8 target English words in the experiment after learning the English sounds of the target words.

Simultaneous Instruction Group (SIM): Participants were given English sounds and letters of the 8 target English words in the experiment at the same time.

(see Table 3)
Table 3
Data Collection Scheme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SEP</th>
<th>SIM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of exposure times to sounds of the target English words</td>
<td>Number of exposure times to letters of the target English words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Day 1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Day 2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Day 3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Day 4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. The number of exposure times was the input times of sounds / letters of the target English words.

4. Result
Table 4, Table 5, and Figure 2 give the basic data concerning the target words. Table 4 shows Grade 6 students’ mean scores and standard deviations of the two listening tests and reading tests (pretest and posttest). Table 5 contains those of the Grade 3 students.

Table 4
Grade 6 Students’ Mean Scores and Standard Deviations (N = 44)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade 6</th>
<th>Listening Test</th>
<th>Reading Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>Posttest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEP</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIM</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Maximum score = 8.
This finding indicated that the 6th graders and 3rd graders of the SIM group comprehended the meanings of the printed target words. That is, they could pay attention to the English sounds and letters at the same time. In other words, they divided their cognitive resources between English sounds and letters even when they were given the sounds and the letters simultaneously. The finding demonstrated that it is not always a cognitive burden for the children to decode the phonological information and the orthographic information of the English words at the same time. In general, it cannot be concluded that elementary school students are unable to learn phonological and orthographic information of English words simultaneously. In this era, some researchers came to assert that the children should be given not only English sounds, but also English alphabet letters, or printed English words (Hatae, 2004; Matano, 2004; Yoshimura, 2003). In fact, Mr. Nakamura, the secretary-general of JES, has researched children’s improvement of English letter-sound correspondence knowledge for a long time.
2. The Present English Education in Japan (2010-2014)

MEXT revised the national school curriculum in 2008 and introduced “Foreign Language Activities” as a compulsory subject for 5th and 6th graders, with teaching centered on listening and speaking from 2010 on. Moreover, MEXT also published a “Teacher Training Handbook for Foreign Language Activities at Elementary Schools” in the same year (see Figure 3).

The children of Grades 5 and 6 were obliged to take the foreign language activities lesson once a week (35 hours a year). MEXT gave all the children of Grade 5th and 6th textbooks: “Eigo Note 1” (English Note 1) and “Eigo Note 2” (English Note 2) in 2009 (see Figure 4). Japanese teachers could make foreign language activities lessons based on the contents of the textbooks. In addition, MEXT insisted that Japanese homeroom teachers should speak English, as much as possible. Ms. Kasuya, the vice chairwoman of JES, demonstrated how to use and speak English in lessons. She claimed that teachers should use English in the negotiation of meanings. It is very important for teachers of foreign language activities. Her English use is good for the children.

Thus, MEXT emphasized that teachers should focus on listening and speaking activities even after the revision of 2008; however, MEXT also referred to the introduction of alphabet letters for the first time. MEXT (2008) said that it was important to introduce letters when the pupils are adequately familiarized with the sound of the foreign language. In Eigo Note, units were designed so that the children would be able to recognize the letters of the alphabet in Eigo Note 2. Furthermore, in 2012, MEXT published two new textbooks: “Hi, friends 1” and “Hi, friends 2” to replace Eigo Note 1 and Eigo Note 2. Now, all the elementary schools use the textbooks.

![Figure 3. Teacher Training Handbook for Foreign Language Activities at Elementary Schools published in 2008.](image1)

![Figure 4. Eigo Note 1 (English Note 1) and Eigo Note 2 (English Note 2) published in 2009.](image2)
Now, I will show you a couple of Foreign Language Activities in elementary schools
(Let’s watch Video 1 and Video 2. These are my lessons.)
◆ Video 1
This is a lesson where the children communicated with each other with regard to their favorite dishes. “What would you like?” “I would like spaghetti.”
◆ Video 2
This is an English lesson where the children were taught using only English. No Japanese was used. Teachers spoke only English through all of the lesson. “How many?”

3. The Future of English Education in Japan (2014- )

MEXT declared an “English education reform plan corresponding to globalization” in December of 2013 (see Figure 6).

The English education in Japan has been changed gradually day by day. The elementary school attached to Hokkaido University of Education is developing on English teaching plan of integrated listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities. Mr. Yorozuya, the vice chairman, oversees the research on the plan which contains listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities. In the future, a lot of practice and studies will make progress for English education in elementary schools. Mr. Ushiro, the current chairman of JES, asserts strongly that we, JES, should connect the theory with practice. Therefore, we will try to clarify how to teach English effectively.
Conclusion

Thus, in this presentation, we looked back on the history of Japanese primary English education from 2002 to 2014, and the near future.

The Central Council for Education at MEXT in Japan (1996) raised the following essential points in education with regard to globalization:

1. Development of an attitude which is respectful of other cultures
2. Development of the abilities necessary for living together with people from different cultures
3. Development of basic foreign language skills:

   The ability for self-expression and other communication skills for the purpose of expressing one’s own thoughts and intentions, while respecting the positions of others in global society.

I think that the most important attitude of people in a global society is to communicate with each other while respecting people from different countries.

In the end, our teachers try to achieve great, ideal, and noble goals through English activities.

References


Ito, K. (2001). Significance and purposes of elementary school English education. In Y. Nakayama (Ed.), For people which would like to know how to teach English to elementary school students. (pp. 11-19). Kyoto: Sekaishisousha. (In Japanese)


Concurrent Sessions

Session A: Globalization and Primary English Education
Session B: Teaching and Learning English as an International Language
Session C: Professional Development of Primary English Teachers
Session D: Pre-service Teacher Education
Session E: Reading Fluency
Session F: Literacy Education
Session G: Vocabulary Teaching and Learning
Session H: Curriculum and Textbook Development
Session I: Classroom Observation & Action Research
**Concurrent Session A: Globalization and Primary English Education**

[Room 302]

**Chair: Jaeyoung Lee**
(Anyang Kwanak Elementary School)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>PRESENTATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 13:00-13:30| **Jeong-ryeol Kim (Korea National University of Education)**
             | *Teaching English as an International Language: Components and Skills*       |
| 13:30-14:00| **SunYoung Chun (Kyungpook National University)**
             | *How Do Young Learners Perceive Native and Non-native English-Speaking     |
             |   Teachers?: A Study of Korean EFL Elementary School Students*              |
| 14:00-14:30| **In Lee (Jeonju National University of Education)**
             | *Comparative Analysis of Children's Narratives in English: Nonnative vs.    |
             |   Native/ESL vs. EFL Contrasts*                                             |
Teaching English as an International Language: Components and Skills

Jeong-ryeol Kim
(Korea National Univ. of Education)

I. Introduction

Learning English in macro-aquisition (Brutt-Griffler, 2002) like in Korea has several different implications from individual language acquisition. The acquisition processes result in a unique variety of English generally caused by the base language and the culture. The process generally occurs without much direct cultural contact with target language speakers and culture. The unique variety of English carries functions of language as both identity marker and tool of communication. As an identity marker people will be using English to make themselves stand out from other varieties of English speakers. For a tool of communication people will keep English from becoming a separate language and unusable in communication because it has deviated so far away to the point where it's not intelligible any more. These centrifugal and centripetal forces are always in working for any speech community. Emphasizing standard English in our English education is only recognizing the centripetal force in language community and creates a learning platform destined to fail for the following reasons: Without recognizing the diversity of Englishes our students are learning wrong attitude about English where their model English is superior variety than others. They start to look down the people using different variety of English other than Anglo-American English (AAE). They are learning linguistic imperialism which unfortunately aims the sharp end of the knife directing at themselves. Modeling AAE will put lots of learners into sacrifice to an accuracy deity based on teachers' imagination. Also, no matter how hard our learners will try, they simply cannot reach the level of native speakers who speak AAE in our fancy, because it's not existent in a unified form, only existent in many different varieties and because it's communicatively not necessary.

This paper will review these different views on linguistic differences and look into the reality of varieties of English in both components and skills. It will collect a dozen different varieties of English and survey the grammatical structures of these varieties to explore commonalities of these varieties and seek a possibility of descriptive common English core rather than prescriptive, imposing and imperialistic English as a given common core. The purpose of this paper is that teachers and students need to be informed of different varieties of English extant today. Awareness of the phenomenon of localization of English resulted by macro-acquisition can be achieved through dissemination of information, and success of English learning should be evaluated by whether or not our local variety English has been learned by students, rather than how close our students' English is to AAE.

II. Classifications of World Englishes
This model has advantages explaining how these varieties of English have derived and diversified diachronically as well as regionally. For example, English is divided into American and British English, and British English is the mother language of African, South and South East Asia, South Pacific and Carribien Englishes. In spite of these advantages, this model fails to mention the number of speakers and levels of usage such as EMT, ESL and EFL.

McArthur (1987) proposed a circle of world Englishes with spokes indicating the regionally emerging standard (Standardizing) Englishes with their related varieties of Englishes as follows:
This classification is similar to the Steven's classification in that it shows the related varieties of Englishes largely dependent on regional proximity derived from the implied world standard English as Aglo-American English. The proposed eight standardizing Englishes have their own positions on the wheel spreading into more concrete regional varieties.

Gorlach (1990) proposed the Circle Model of Englishes as follows:

![Figure 3. Gorlach's Classification](image)

Similar to McArthur's, Gorlach's circle model of English put international English in the middle of circle. He explains with 2 circles: one includes regional varieties and the other says the each varieties' quality. The further it spread, the more diversity we can meet.

Kachru (1992) also proposes a concentric circle model for the classification of English varieties where three concentric circles represent English as a native language (inner circle), English as a second language (outer circle)
and English as a foreign language (expanding circle). This model includes population for each circle and each variety of English which can be a good measurement for how many speakers of each English there are. However, the disadvantages are that there's no indication of how these varieties of English are related to each other, and it's easy to be mislead by the given figures since they are the entire population of each country who they don't use English as intended in this model.

![Figure 4. Kachru's Classification](image)

### III. Method

Varieties of English data were collected from both on-line and off-line sources including inner circle English variety such as Irish English and Welsh English, outer circle English variety such as Singaporean English, Papua New Guinean English, Filipino English, Nigerian English, Rwandan English, Malaysian English, Indian English, Pakistani English, Hawaiian Creole English, South African English, Sri Lankan English, and expanding circle varieties such as Japanese English, Chinese English, Korean English, Spanish English, Brazilian English, Italian English, Spanish speaking South American English. These variety of English are regionally distributed as in the following table:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Background Languages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Northeast Asia</td>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>Korean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>China</td>
<td>Mandarin Chinese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>Bahasa Melayu, Chinese dialects (Cantonese, Mandarin, Hokkien, Hakka, Hainan, Foochow), Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam, Panjabi, Thai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southeast Asia</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Tagalog, Cebuano, Ilokano, Hiligaynon, Waray-Waray, Bikol, Kapampangan, Pangasiana, Kirary-a, Maranao, Maguindanao, Tausaug</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>India, Pakistan</td>
<td>Assamese, Bengali, Bodo, Dogri, Gujarati, Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Konkani, Maithili, Malayalam, Manipuri, Marathi, Nepali, Oriya, Punjabi, Sanskrit, Santhali, Sindhi, Tamil, Telugu, Urdu, Sinhala</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>South African</td>
<td>English, Afrikaans, Zulu, Swati, Ndebele, Southern Sotho, Northern Sotho, Tsonga, Tswana, Venda, Xhosa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>French, Kinyarwanda, English, Swahili, English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South America</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>Portuguese, Spanish, Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spanish speaking S. America</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>Irish</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Wales</td>
<td>Welsh</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Italia</td>
<td>Italian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Pacific</td>
<td>Hawaii</td>
<td>Hawaiian, Polynesian Languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Papua New Guinea</td>
<td>Papuan, Tok Pidgin, Melanesian Languages, Hiri Motu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The collected data are analyzed and grouped according to the linguistic components of English: pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. The analyzed data are reanalyzed for commonalities among different varieties of English in each linguistic component of English. However, in this paper, it will be concerned only to the grammar of Engishes due to the limited space. For an analysis of grammar the data are looked into according to the following school grammar categories: noun/pronoun, tense/aspect, complementation, question/negation and modification.
How Do Young Learners Perceive Native and Non-native English-Speaking Teachers?: A Study of Korean EFL Elementary School Students

Sun Young Chun
(Kyungpook National University)

I. Introduction

With globalization and English becoming a lingua franca, it has become much more important to cultivate language learners’ communicative competence so that they can effectively communicate with both native and non-native speakers. Thus, with the goal of improving students’ English proficiency, the Korean Ministry of Education started to recruit a large number of native speakers to come to Korea to teach English (Kwon, 2000). There are, thus, increasing numbers of native English-speaking teachers from many English-speaking countries teaching English to students in Korea. These countries include the USA, the UK, and Canada. As more and more language learners have opportunities to learn English from native English-speaking teachers, a few important questions deserve special attention. How much do native English-speaking teachers know about Korean students? How much do they know what students expect from them or their classes? What qualifications of native English-speaking teachers are more favored by Korean students than those of non-native English speaking teachers and vice versa? There is an urgent need for the curriculum design to fully incorporate student feedback. Although some research has been conducted to understand how language learners perceive their foreign-born teachers, most of the studies on the issues of native and non-native English-speaking teachers have focused on college students, and not enough attention had been paid to younger learners’ beliefs on this issue. To fill this gap, this questionnaire study examined 271 Korean elementary school children’s beliefs about these two types of teachers. The overarching research question that guided the study was: What are the beliefs that Korean elementary school children have regarding native English-speaking teachers and Korean English teachers?

II. Literature Review

The definition of a native speaker and non-native speaker has been a matter of ongoing debate among researchers for decades although the terms have been extensively used in applied linguistics (e.g., Braine, 1999; Davies, 2003; Kachru, 1982, 1992; Medgyes, 1992, 1994; Widdowson, 1994). As early as 1933, Bloomfield defined ‘native speaker’ as “The first language a human being learns to speak is his native language; he is a native speaker of this language” (p. 43). This definition remained unchallenged until the past two decades when it became a much discussed topic among researchers. However, the multilingual era in which we live has led to the necessity of redefining the native speaker.

Along with the ongoing debate among researchers which terms should be used in defining native and non-native speakers, a much-discussed topic in the language teaching field is regarding teaching qualifications of native vis-a-vis
non-native English-speaking teachers. That is, which of these two types of teachers makes better English teachers. This issue has received attention from researchers, and some of them have attempted to understand the perceptions of both teachers and students regarding this topic. However, most previous studies that investigated students' perceptions were limited to college-level students. Little research has been conducted on the view of young language learners even though this population group has increased opportunities to study with native English-speaking teachers. One study that is worth discussing is that which was conducted by Butler (2007). Butler investigated Korean elementary school students’ attitudes toward teachers with American-accented English (a native speaker model) and Korean-accented English (a non-native speaker model). The students’ perceptions were examined regarding American-accented English teachers and Korean-accented English teachers in the areas of ability to use English, English teaching strategies, and general teaching strategies. The findings indicated that the Korean elementary students thought that teachers with American-accented English had better pronunciation and used English more confidently. The students also thought that teachers with American-accented English would emphasize more on fluency than on accuracy and would use more English and less Korean in class. Additionally, these young Korean learners showed a stronger preference to have native speaker model instructors as their English teachers.

III. Methodology

The participants of the study were 271 EFL elementary school children from two elementary schools located in a Southern metropolitan city in Korea. Of 271 participants, 53.9% were boys (n=146) and 46.1% were girls (46.1%). The participants consisted of 22.1% fourth graders, 32.8% fifth graders, and 45% sixth graders. About 38% of the participants had started learning English at between four and seven years of age. The rest of the students had started learning English at the age of 10. All of the children had studied with both native English-speaking teachers and Korean English Teachers.

A four section paper-pencil survey questionnaire was administered to the participants. In order to elicit a wide range of beliefs regarding native and non-native English-speaking teachers, the questionnaire went through a multiple stage process. It was created based on an initial open-ended questionnaire, informal interviews, and a review of related literature (e.g., Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2002; Medgyes, 1994). A final version of the questionnaire consisted of two components, a background questionnaire and a four-section questionnaire. The four-section questionnaire addressed the students' beliefs concerning the characteristics, specific areas of competence in English instruction, and the classroom performance of native and non-native English-speaking teachers.

For the data analysis, descriptive statistics were used to summarize the elementary students' responses to the questionnaire. For the further analysis, a Wilcoxon test, along with cross-tabulation, is being currently carried out in order to compare students’ responses to the paired questions regarding these two groups of teachers.

IV. Results and implications: Preliminary findings

The preliminary findings indicated that, contrary to the prevalent notion that "the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker" (Phillipson, 1992), the Korean EFL children did not overwhelmingly favor one type of teacher over another. Interestingly, the children had much more positive attitudes towards both groups of teachers, particularly
Korean English teachers, than did the university student participants or the teachers (both inservice and preservice) in some of the previous studies (e.g., Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Chun, 2014; Medgyes, 1994; Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999). The research findings of the current study will provide suggestions to help both native and non-native teachers of English better meet the needs and expectations of young language learners in EFL contexts. A better understanding of students’ belief systems and the strengths of both native and non-native teachers should lead to more effective language teaching. Furthermore, curriculum developers will be able to take the students’ perspectives into consideration (including those about differences in language proficiency, allocated roles in the language class, and teaching styles between NESTs and non-NESTs) when developing curriculum for preservice teachers, especially for native speakers who want to teach students in EFL contexts.

References

Samimy, K. K., & Brutt-Griffler, J. (1999). To be a native or non-native speaker: perceptions of “non-native” students in a graduate TESOL program. In G. Braine (Ed.), Non-native educators in English language teaching (pp.127-144). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
Comparative Analysis of Children’s Narratives in English: Nonnative vs. Native/ESL vs. EFL Contrasts

In Lee
(Jeonju National University of Education)

I. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to find out what characteristics Korean child learners of English show when they were asked to describe the same wordless picture book. Narratives by three Korean child learners of English at Grade 3 were compared with those by two English native speakers, one child at Grade 3 and one adult storytelling professional. The Korean informants are named KC1, KC2, and KC3, respectively, and the child native speaker of English is called EC1, for anonymity. The one adult storytelling professional is referred to as ASP.

II. Language informants and language sampling

Language sampling from KC1 was conducted four times in 2006: April 5, June 5, August 9, and October 18. A wordless picture book copyrighted by Giora Carmi (2003), A Circle of Friends, was used for collecting language samples.

KC1 is the researcher’s daughter and she was accompanied by him when he visited the University of Minnesota, USA as a visiting scholar for one year from February 1, 2006 to January 31, 2007. She began to receive formal English instruction in the USA at the age of eight years and six months (8;6). She started her school in the second semester of Grade 3. During the second semester of Grade 3, she took a one-hour English as a Learned Language (ELL) session four times a week (every afternoon except Wednesdays). From the beginning of Grade 4, however, she was allowed to take a one-hour ELL session twice a week (every Tuesday and Thursday).

One native English-speaking child, EC1, was one of KC1’s classmates. Language sampling from her was conducted three times in 2006: June 9, September 2, and December 16. Her data was collected at her house. The same wordless picture book was used for her language sampling.

Two Korean child learners of English at Grade 3 have performed a narrative task with the same wordless picture book during the second semester of the 2014 academic year. They are attending the same school in Jeonju, Korea. Language sampling from one girl, KC2 was conducted on September 11, October 16, and November 13. Language sampling from one boy, KC3, was conducted on September 15, October 13, and November 10. The researcher visited their school at a prearranged time after school and collected data in the classroom specially designed for English classes only.

An adult storytelling professional kindly allowed the researcher to record her storytelling of the same book for this study. She was working as a storyteller in the public libraries in Boise, Idaho, USA and her data was collected on January 26, 2014, five days before the researcher left Boise.
III. Data Analysis

To find out what characteristics Korean child learners of English show in a narrative task, the researcher raised the following two questions: (i) ‘Are there any differences between performing a narrative task in an ESL context and performing the task in an EFL context?’ and (ii) ‘What are the differences between a nonnative child learners’ narratives and an English native speaker’s narratives?’

Collected data were analyzed with respect to the following: the Analysis of Speech-units they used (AS-units); the number of Noun Phrases they used (NPs); the number of Verb Phrases they used (VPs); and the number of tokens they used (Tokens). To find out the answers to the first research question, language samples from KC1 were compared with those from KC2 and those from KC3. To find out the answers to the second research question, language samples from KC1, KC2, and KC3 were compared with those from EC1. Only the last sampling of each child’s performance was used for this comparison. The picture book consists of 16 scenes; thus, a language informant turns the page 15 times.

IV. Findings

ASP described Scene 1 as follows:

Roger leaned his elbows against the window. He poked his head through the curtains and stared out, at the summer day. The leaves were thick on the trees, but Roger was bored. He wondered what he could do on such a fine day. ‘Ah,’ he had an idea.

The comparison of the four language informants’ narratives of Scene 1 is shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tokens</th>
<th>EC1</th>
<th>KC1</th>
<th>KC2</th>
<th>KC3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS-units</td>
<td>once there was a lonely little boy [1]</td>
<td>one day the boy were just watching the sky; and he was really really bored [2]</td>
<td>he thinking [1]</td>
<td>the girl looking out the window of the tree [1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPs</td>
<td>there; a lonely little boy [2]</td>
<td>one day; the boy; the sky; he [4]</td>
<td>he [1]</td>
<td>the girl; the window; the tree [3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPs</td>
<td>was a lonely little boy [1]</td>
<td>were just watching the sky; was really really bored [2]</td>
<td>thinking [1]</td>
<td>looking out the window of the tree [1]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASP described Scene 2 as follows:

So he ran downstairs. ‘Mother, may I have a dollar?’ ‘Yes, but only a dollar. Where will you go?’ ‘I won’t be gone long. Don’t worry about me.’

The comparison of the four language informants’ narratives of Scene 2 is shown in Table 2.
Table 2. Comparison of Four Language Informants’ Narratives (Scene 2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EC1</th>
<th>KC1</th>
<th>KC2</th>
<th>KC3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS-units</td>
<td>so Yota asks his mother for some money; his mother gives him some money [2]</td>
<td>and he went to his mom; and ask for the money to have like uh food [2]</td>
<td>mom give money for the boy [1]</td>
<td>and girl ran out the chair for mom; the mom give the money [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPs</td>
<td>Yota; his mother(2); some money(2); him [4]</td>
<td>he; his mom; the money; food [4]</td>
<td>mom; money; the boy [3]</td>
<td>girl; the chair; mom; the mom; the money [5]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPs</td>
<td>asks his mother for some money; gives him some money [2]</td>
<td>went to his mom; ask for the money to have like uh food [2]</td>
<td>give money for the boy [1]</td>
<td>ran out the chair for mom; give the money [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>so; Yota; asks; his(2); mother(2); for; some(2); money(2); gives; him [10]</td>
<td>and(2); he; went; to(2); his; mom; ask; for; the; money; have; like; food [13]</td>
<td>mom; give; money; for; the; boy [6]</td>
<td>and; girl; ran; out; chair; for; mom(2); the(3); give; money [10]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASP described Scene 3 as follows:

Roger ran down the stairs of the apartment. A whole dollar, of his own very own! Then he ran out, right next door to the bakery. ‘Ah,’ he looked in the window. There were cakes and cookies, and pies. He could hardly decide what to buy. ‘But what can you get with a dollar?’ ‘Ah, a muffin! A cinnamon muffin still warm from the oven with plump fat raisins.’

The comparison of the four language informants’ narratives of Scene 3 is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Comparison of Four Language Informants’ Narratives (Scene 3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EC1</th>
<th>KC1</th>
<th>KC2</th>
<th>KC3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS-units</td>
<td>and he went downstairs; and go to the bakery [2]</td>
<td>and he run to outside to find a bakery; and he went to the bakery; and there was tons and tons and tons of bread [3]</td>
<td>the boy very happy; and run; he go bakery [3]</td>
<td>the girl is happy; and ran down of [over to?] the pancake house [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPs</td>
<td>he; the bakery [2]</td>
<td>he(2); outside; a bakery; the bakery; there; tons and tons and tons of bread [6]</td>
<td>the boy; he [2]</td>
<td>the girl; the pancake house [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPs</td>
<td>went downstairs; go to the bakery [2]</td>
<td>run to outside to find a bakery; went to the bakery; was tons and tons and tons of bread [3]</td>
<td>very happy; run; go bakery [3]</td>
<td>is happy; ran down of the pancake house [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>and(2); he; went; downstairs; go; to; the; bakery [8]</td>
<td>and(5); he(2); run; to(3); outside; find a bakery(2); went; the; there; was; tons(3); of; bread [15]</td>
<td>the; boy; very; happy; and; run; he; go; bakery [9]</td>
<td>the;(2); girl; is; happy; and; ran; down; of; pancake house [9]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASP described Scene 4 as follows:

He took three bites, and more as he walked back to the park. But there was someone there. On the bench, an old man with a scruffy beard, was sleeping. Around him were bags of his belongings, maybe clothes were inside. Roger didn't know, but this man did not have a home. He was certain. Roger thought, ‘This man must be hungry. How can I eat my muffin when this man is hungry, too? I know what I will do.’

The comparison of the four language informants’ narratives of Scene 4 is shown in Table 4.
Table 4. Comparison of Four Language Informants’ Narratives (Scene 4)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EC1</th>
<th>KC1</th>
<th>KC2</th>
<th>KC3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS-units</td>
<td>he gets a muffin [1]</td>
<td>he choose one muffin; and he tasted it; it’s kind of good; but he saw the man who was sleeping in the bench; and he looks really really hungry [5]</td>
<td>he buy some bread; and give poor man [2]</td>
<td>and girl back to the bench of man of pancake [1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPs</td>
<td>he; a muffin [2]</td>
<td>he(4); one muffin; it(2); the man; who; the bench [6]</td>
<td>he; some bread; poor man [3]</td>
<td>girl; the bench; man; pancake [4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPs</td>
<td>gets a muffin [1]</td>
<td>choose one muffin; tasted it; (it)’s kind of good; saw the man; was sleeping in the bench; looks really really hungry [6]</td>
<td>buy some bread; give poor man [2]</td>
<td>[0]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>he; gets; a; muffin [4]</td>
<td>he(4); choose; one; muffin; and(2); tasted; it; it’s; kind of; good; but; saw; the(2); man; who; was; sleeping; in; bench; looks; really(2); hungry [22]</td>
<td>he; buy; some; bread; and; give; poor; man [8]</td>
<td>and; girl; back; to; the; bench; of(2); man; pancake [9]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASP described Scene 5 as follows:

So Roger left his muffin, on the bench, where the man will surely find it.’ And he ran off before the man woke up.

The comparison of the four language informants’ narratives of Scene 5 is shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Comparison of Four Language Informants’ Narratives (Scene 5)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EC1</th>
<th>KC1</th>
<th>KC2</th>
<th>KC3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS-units</td>
<td>and leaves it on a bench next to an old man, I think [1]</td>
<td>and so he bite one; and give the muffin to the man [2]</td>
<td>he very surprised; and put some bread on the bench [2]</td>
<td>skipped the scene [0]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPs</td>
<td>it; a bench; an old man; I [4]</td>
<td>he; one; the muffin; the man [4]</td>
<td>he; some bread; the bench [3]</td>
<td>[0]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPs</td>
<td>leaves it on a bench next to an old man; I think [2]</td>
<td>bite one; give the muffin to the man [2]</td>
<td>put some bread on the bench [1]</td>
<td>[0]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>and; leaves; it; on; a; bench; next to; an; old; man; I; think [12]</td>
<td>and(2); so; he; bite; one; give; the(2); muffin; to; man [10]</td>
<td>he; very; surprised; and; put; some; bread; on; the; bench [10]</td>
<td>[0]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASP described Scene 6 as follows:

‘Something smells so good!’ It tickled the nose of the man, and it tickled him awake. ‘Is this cinnamon? Ah, a muffin? Someone has left me a cinnamon muffin, with raisins. I haven’t had raisins, for such a long time.’ He took a bite, and he chewed it slowly, and the taste of that cinnamon raisin muffin, filled him with joy.

The comparison of the four language informants’ narratives of Scene 6 is shown in Table 6.
### Table 6. Comparison of Four Language Informants’ Narratives (Scene 6)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EC1</th>
<th>KC1</th>
<th>KC2</th>
<th>KC3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>AS-units</strong></td>
<td>the man wakes up; and he finds the muffin; and is very happy [3]</td>
<td>and the man woke up; and he saw the muffin; he ate it; he tasted it; it was really really good; and actually he mention that; how can I give the prizes for the person; who gave me [8]</td>
<td>the poor man wake up; and see bread; he is very happy [3]</td>
<td>the man wake up; and took the pancake; and eating so funny [3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NPs</strong></td>
<td>the man; he; the muffin [3]</td>
<td>the man; he(3); the muffin; it(3); I; the prizes; the person; who; me [9]</td>
<td>the poor man; bread; he [3]</td>
<td>the man; the pancake [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>VPs</strong></td>
<td>wakes up; finds the muffin; is very happy [3]</td>
<td>woke up; saw the muffin; ate it; tasted it; was really really good; mention that; can give the prizes for the person; gave me [8]</td>
<td>wake up; see bread; is very happy [3]</td>
<td>wake up; took the pancake; eating so funny [3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tokens</strong></td>
<td>the(2); man; wakes up; and(2); he; finds; muffin; is; very; happy [10]</td>
<td>and(3); the(4); woke up; saw; muffin; he(3); it(3); was; really(2); good; actually; mention; that; how; can; I; give; prizes; for; person; who; gave; me [23]</td>
<td>the; poor; man; wake up; and; see; bread; he; is; very; happy [11]</td>
<td>the(2); man; wake up; and(2); took; pancake; eating; so; funny [9]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASP described Scene 7 as follows:

> He savored the bite of that muffin. A breeze blew through the trees and he looked up that. And there, on a branch, was a family of birds, a mother bird, and a father bird, and a baby. ‘They’ve been singing me to sleep. I will share with them.’ With the last bite of his muffin, the old man sprinkled crumbs on the bench, beside him.

The comparison of the four language informants’ narratives of Scene 7 is shown in Table 7.

### Table 7. Comparison of Four Language Informants’ Narratives (Scene 7)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EC1</th>
<th>KC1</th>
<th>KC2</th>
<th>KC3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>AS-units</strong></td>
<td>he sees some birds up on the tree; and put some muffin crumbs on the bench [2]</td>
<td>he looked up; and he saw the birds; so he put the crumbs in the bench [3]</td>
<td>he sees birds; and some bread on the bench [2]</td>
<td>the man looks of the tree and bird family; and brush a pancake to bench [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NPs</strong></td>
<td>he; some birds; the tree; some muffin crumbs; the bench [4]</td>
<td>he(3); the birds; the crumbs; the bench [4]</td>
<td>he; birds; some bread; the bench [4]</td>
<td>the man; the tree; bird house; a pancake; bench [5]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>VPs</strong></td>
<td>sees some birds up on the tree; put some muffin crumbs on the bench [2]</td>
<td>looked up; saw the birds; put the crumbs in the bench [3]</td>
<td>wake up; see bread; is very happy [3]</td>
<td>looks of the tree and bird house; and brush a pancake to bench [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tokens</strong></td>
<td>he; sees; some(2); birds; up; on; the(2); and; put; muffin crumbs; on; bench [12]</td>
<td>he(3); looked; up; and; saw; the(3); so; put; crumbs; in; bench [11]</td>
<td>he; sees; birds; and; some; bread; on; the; bench [9]</td>
<td>the(2); man; looks; of; tree; and(2); bird house; brush; a; pancake; to bench [12]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASP described Scene 8 as follows:

> He stood a little ways away so that the birds would not be frightened. And sure enough, perhaps it was
the smell of cinnamon, but the mother and father birds came down straight away and they picked up the crumbs in their beaks, and they carried them right back to the baby. And the baby opened his mouth and took in that muffin.

The comparison of the four language informants’ narratives of Scene 8 is shown in Table 8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EC1</th>
<th>KC1</th>
<th>KC2</th>
<th>KC3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS-units</td>
<td>the birds get the muffin crumb; and give them to the baby [2]</td>
<td>and so the birds come to the bench; get a crumb; give that thing to their baby [3]</td>
<td>birds pick up the bread; and feed the baby bird [2]</td>
<td>the father and mother bird came to the pancake; and give the little bird [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPs</td>
<td>the birds; the muffin crumb; them; the baby [4]</td>
<td>the birds; the bench; a crumb; that thing; their baby [5]</td>
<td>birds; the bread; the baby bird [3]</td>
<td>the father and mother bird; the pancake; the little bird [3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPs</td>
<td>get the muffin crumb; give them to the baby [2]</td>
<td>come to the bench; get a crumb; give that thing to their baby [3]</td>
<td>pick up the bread; feed the baby bird [2]</td>
<td>come to the pancake; give the little bird [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>the(3); birds; get; muffin crumb; and; give; them; to; baby [9]</td>
<td>and; so; the(2); birds; come; to(2); bench; get; a; crumb; give; that; thing; their; baby [15]</td>
<td>birds; pick up; the(2); bread; and; feed; baby bird [7]</td>
<td>the(3); father and mother bird; came; to; pancake; and; give; little bird [8]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASP described Scene 9 as follows:

Ah, it gave the baby so much energy. He was ready to fly. The baby flapped his wings, and fledged the nest. Flap, flap, flap, flap, flap, flap! ‘I can fly.’ The baby flew around.

The comparison of the four language informants’ narratives of Scene 9 is shown in Table 9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EC1</th>
<th>KC1</th>
<th>KC2</th>
<th>KC3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS-units</td>
<td>the baby flies up; draws down to the bench [2]</td>
<td>and the baby bird fly to the bench [1]</td>
<td>baby birds will go fly [1]</td>
<td>the little bird fly; and mom dad bird so horrify [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPs</td>
<td>the baby; the bench [2]</td>
<td>the baby bird; the bench; [2]</td>
<td>baby birds [1]</td>
<td>the little bird; mom dad bird [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPs</td>
<td>flies up; draws down to the bench [2]</td>
<td>fly to the bench [1]</td>
<td>will go fly [1]</td>
<td>fly; so horrify [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>the(2); baby; flies; up; draws; down; to; bench [8]</td>
<td>and; the(2); birds; baby bird; fly; to; bench [6]</td>
<td>baby birds; will; go; fly [4]</td>
<td>the; little bird; fly; and; mom dad bird; so; horrify [7]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASP described Scene 10 as follows:

He landed on the back of the park bench, and there was an old man. ‘Wait! I have something else.’ And the old man reached into his pocket, and he took out a seed. The baby was curious.

The comparison of the four language informants’ narratives of Scene 10 is shown in Table 10.
Table 10. Comparison of Four Language Informants’ Narratives (Scene 10)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EC1</th>
<th>KC1</th>
<th>KC2</th>
<th>KC3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS-units</td>
<td>and the man gives him a sunflower seed [1]</td>
<td>and the man give the bird a seed; actually that is sunflower seed [2]</td>
<td>the baby bird go poor man; the man is pick up the see [2]</td>
<td>the little bird flying; and took the bench of the man [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPs</td>
<td>the man; him; a sunflower seed [3]</td>
<td>the man; the bird; a seed; that; sunflower seed [5]</td>
<td>the baby birds; poor man; the man; the seed [4]</td>
<td>the little bird(2); the bench of the man; give the little bird [4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPs</td>
<td>gives him a sunflower seed [1]</td>
<td>give the bird a seed; is sunflower seed [2]</td>
<td>go poor man; is pick up the seed [2]</td>
<td>flying; took the bench of the man; give the little bird [3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>and; the; man; gives; him; a; sunflower seed [7]</td>
<td>and; the(2); man; give; bird; a; seed; actually; that; is; sunflower seed [11]</td>
<td>the(3); baby birds; go; poor; man(2); is; pick up; seed [8]</td>
<td>the(6); little bird(2); flying; and(2); took; bench; of; man(2); pocket; seed; give [11]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASP described Scene 11 as follows:

So he picked up that seed, in his beak. Flap, flap, flap, flap, flap, flap, flap! ‘Where would he go? Where would he take that seed?’

The comparison of the four language informants’ narratives of Scene 11 is shown in Table 11.

Table 11. Comparison of Four Language Informants’ Narratives (Scene 11)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EC1</th>
<th>KC1</th>
<th>KC2</th>
<th>KC3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS-units</td>
<td>the bird takes the sunflower seed; and carries it up to window box [2]</td>
<td>and the baby bird pick up; and the baby bird went the boy’s house window [2]</td>
<td>the birds take up the seed; and go boy’s house [2]</td>
<td>the little bird flying [1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPs</td>
<td>the bird; the sunflower seed; it; a window box [4]</td>
<td>the baby bird(2); the boy’s house window [2]</td>
<td>the birds; the seed; boy’s house [3]</td>
<td>the little bird [1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPs</td>
<td>take the sunflower seed; carries it up to a window box [2]</td>
<td>pick up; went the boy’s house window [2]</td>
<td>take up the seed; go boy’s house [2]</td>
<td>flying [1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>the(2); bird; takes; sunflower seed; and; carries; it; up; to; a; window box [11]</td>
<td>and(2); the(3); baby bird(2); pick up; went; boy’s; house window [7]</td>
<td>the(2); birds; take up; seed; and; go; boy’s house [8]</td>
<td>the; little bird; flying [3]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASP described Scene 12 as follows:

There was a window box. And in the box, there was soil, and the baby dropped that seed, right into that soft, soft dirt.

The comparison of the four language informants’ narratives of Scene 12 is shown in Table 12.
Table 12. Comparison of Four Language Informants’ Narratives (Scene 12)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EC1</th>
<th>KC1</th>
<th>KC2</th>
<th>KC3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS-units</td>
<td>and drops it [1]</td>
<td>at the window some apartment has like porch around there; and there's mud; and the bird put it in that place [3]</td>
<td>skipped the scene [0]</td>
<td>[0]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPs</td>
<td>it [1]</td>
<td>the window; some apartment; porch; there; there's mud; the bird; it; that place [9]</td>
<td>[0]</td>
<td>the window [1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPs</td>
<td>drops it [1]</td>
<td>has like porch around there; (there)'s mud; put it in that place [3]</td>
<td>[0]</td>
<td>[0]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>and; drops; it [3]</td>
<td>at; the(2); window; some; apartment; has; like; porch; around; there; and(2); there(3); mud; bird; put; it; in; that; place [19]</td>
<td>[0]</td>
<td>and; at; the; window [4]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASP described Scene 13 as follows:

The baby flew back home, to his nest with the mother bird and the father bird. But dark clouds began to roll and boil, in the sky.

The comparison of the four language informants’ narratives of Scene 13 is shown in Table 13.

Table 13. Comparison of Four Language Informants’ Narratives (Scene 13)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EC1</th>
<th>KC1</th>
<th>KC2</th>
<th>KC3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS-units</td>
<td>then the bird flies up to his nest; because the storm is coming [2]</td>
<td>and the baby flew to their home; and the baby talked to their family about the thrilling; at that time there was a thunderstorm [3]</td>
<td>[0]</td>
<td>and little bird flying at the bird's house [1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPs</td>
<td>the bird; his nest; the storm [3]</td>
<td>the boy(2); their home; their family; the thrilling; that time; there; a thunderstorm [7]</td>
<td>the birds and family; many flocks [2]</td>
<td>little bird; the bird's house [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPs</td>
<td>flies up to his nest; is coming [2]</td>
<td>flew to their home; talked to their family about the thrilling; there was a thunderstorm [3]</td>
<td>[0]</td>
<td>flying at the bird's house [1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>then; the(2); bird; flies; up; to; his; nest; because; storm; is; coming [12]</td>
<td>and(2); there(3); baby(2); flew; to(2); their (2); home; talked; family; about; thrilling; at; that; time; was; a; thunderstorm [18]</td>
<td>the; birds; and; family; many; flocks [6]</td>
<td>and; little bird; flying; at; the; bird's house [6]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASP described Scene 14 as follows:

The wind blew. A storm was coming in. Fat raindrops fell from the sky. They pelted the city.

The comparison of the four language informants’ narratives of Scene 14 is shown in Table 14.
Table 14. Comparison of Four Language Informants’ Narratives (Scene 14)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EC1</th>
<th>KC1</th>
<th>KC2</th>
<th>KC3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS-units</td>
<td>and it rains; and waters the flower [2]</td>
<td>so the rain come; some dirt get wet; get some mud [3]</td>
<td>suddenly it rains [1]</td>
<td>[0]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPs</td>
<td>it; the flower [2]</td>
<td>the rain; some dirt; some mud [3]</td>
<td>it('s) [1]</td>
<td>the raining; the city [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPs</td>
<td>rains; waters the flower [2]</td>
<td>come; get wet; get some mud [3]</td>
<td>(it)'s rainy [1]</td>
<td>[0]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>and(2); it; rains; waters; the; flower [6]</td>
<td>so; the; rain; come; some(2); dirt; get(2); wet; mud [9]</td>
<td>suddenly; it(‘s); (it)’s; rainy [4]</td>
<td>the(2); raining; to; city [4]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASP described Scene 15 as follows:

They watered the trees, and the fat raindrops landed on the soft soil of the window box. The seed drank in that rain, and a little sprout came out of that seed. And the sprout grew, and it grew, and it grew so tall, that it made a blossom at the very top. A large plant was growing, right out of the window box.

The comparison of the four language informants’ narratives of Scene 15 is shown in Table 15.

Table 15. Comparison of Four Language Informants’ Narratives (Scene 15)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EC1</th>
<th>KC1</th>
<th>KC2</th>
<th>KC3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS-units</td>
<td>the flower starts to grow and grow and grow; until it has a big sunflower [2]</td>
<td>and the seed want to grow like grow and grow and grow; finally at sunny time the sunflower opened the flower; the sunflower opened the leaves and; so the boy want to see the sky; sunny or not [4]</td>
<td>and grow, grow; and have a flower [2]</td>
<td>the seed growing, growing, growing at the big flower [1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPs</td>
<td>a flower [1]</td>
<td>the seed; sunny time; the sunflower(2); the flower; the leaves and; the boy; the sky [7]</td>
<td>a flower [1]</td>
<td>the seed; the big flower [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPs</td>
<td>starts to grow and grow and grow; has a big sunflower [2]</td>
<td>want to grow like grow and grow and grow; opened the flower; open the leaves and; want to see the sky; sunny or not [5]</td>
<td>grow, grow; have a big flower [2]</td>
<td>growing, growing, growing at the big flower [1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>the; flower; starts; to; grow(3); and(2); until; it; has; a; big; sunflower [12]</td>
<td>and(4); the(7); seed; want(2); to(2); grow(4); like; finally; at; sunny(2); time; sunflower(2); opened; flower; open; leaves; so; boy; see sky; or; not [22]</td>
<td>and(2); grow(2); have; a; flower [5]</td>
<td>the(2); seed; growing(3); at; big; flower [6]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASP described Scene 16 as follows:

Someone opened the curtain, spread the curtain apart, and opened the window. And there, in Roger’s window, in Roger’s window box, was a sunflower, opening its face to the sun.

The comparison of the four language informants’ narratives of Scene 16 is shown in Table 16.
Table 16. Comparison of Four Language Informants’ Narratives (Scene 16)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EC1</th>
<th>KC1</th>
<th>KC2</th>
<th>KC3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS-units</td>
<td>and makes the boy happy [1]</td>
<td>and he went to this window; he saw a sunflower; and every time he played with the sunflower; so he won't get bored [4]</td>
<td>it is flower [1]</td>
<td>[0]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPs</td>
<td>the boy [1]</td>
<td>he(4); this window; a sunflower; the sunflower [4]</td>
<td>it; sunflower [2]</td>
<td>girl(s); house window [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPs</td>
<td>makes the boy happy [1]</td>
<td>went to this window; saw a sunflower; played with the sunflower; won't get bored [4]</td>
<td>is sunflower [1]</td>
<td>(girl’s) house window [1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>and; makes; the; boy; happy [5]</td>
<td>and(2); he(4); went; to; this; window; saw; a; sunflower(2); every; time; played; with; so; won't; get; bored [17]</td>
<td>it; is; sunflower [3]</td>
<td>and; then; girl's; house; window [5]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Concurrent Session B: Teaching and Learning English as an International Language**  
[Room 303]

**Chair:** Kyung-Sun Hong  
(Jeju National University)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>PRESENTATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 13:00-13:30| Mark Preston (Jeonju Nat'l University of Education)  
*Digital Literacies: The Use of Social Networking Services to Prepare for and Aid in the Process of In-class Discussions, Debates and Projects* |
| 13:30-14:00| Jin-a Seo (Seoul Mullae Elementary School)  
*An Acoustic Analysis on the Rhythm Pattern of English of Korean Primary Students* |
| 14:00-14:30| Won Kim (Phachang Elementary School ) & Chang Yong Shim (Gyeongin Nat'l Univ. of Education)  
*Comparative Study of Regional Differences in Beliefs in English Learning, Learning Strategies, and Achievement: 6th Graders from Three Regions.* |
Digital Literacies: The Use of Social Networking Services to Prepare for and Aid in the Process of In-class Discussions, Debates and Projects

Mark Preston
(Jeonju National University of Education)

South Korean students spend a significant amount of their free time online, and digital literacies are playing a part in their social lives on an increasing scale. I investigated a redesign of my teaching with an English conversation class of second year university students. The redesign entailed creating an online link between the classroom and the students’ extra-curricular lives. Using the popular social networking service Facebook, I created an online space where my students were able to meet outside of class hours. Using a private group that I created on Facebook, the students joined the group and were given a range of tasks to complete using the group. In addition to the teacher administered tasks, the students were encouraged to use the group to communicate in English outside of the class. In the redesign I used the Facebook group for the students to prepare for in-class discussions and debates. The use of SNS with in-class projects was also explored. Using genre analysis and qualitative data analysis of transcripts of the in-class activities plus interviews and questionnaires, results showed a positive effect in the preparation and development of class activities, that can be adapted for use with primary to university level.

Key words: digital literacies, redesign, social networking service, discussion, debate, project

I. Introduction

With my redesign I aimed to find out if using a Facebook group would aid my students in preparing for in-class debates, as opposed to preparing only through face to face encounters offline. Furthermore I sought to find out if using a Facebook group would save time in debate preparation, and if the ability to have a record of debate statements of their own team and the opposing argument debate team would be beneficial in their debate preparation.

I used an experimental design with questionnaires and interviews to compare two classes of students that I teach in preparing for an in-class spoken debate, where one class used a Facebook group in the planning stage, and the other did not. I sought to find out if one class (hereafter referred to as class A) would be better prepared for the debate than the other (hereafter referred to as class B) by using an online medium instead of meeting face-to-face.

With regards to language, I examined the use of language in two sets of class debates (two debates before the redesign, and two more after the redesign) using genre analyses as part of a systemic functional linguistic analysis. I used an ethnographic approach to look closer at the learning before, during, and after the redesign by using quantitative and qualitative methods in questionnaires and follow up interviews before and after the redesign with the project informants. I also used the questionnaires and interviews to find out more about the informants’ sociocultural context, with regard to their digital literacies outside of class.
In using an experimental method by comparing two different classes, one using the redesign and the other not, I wanted to add an ethnographic aspect to the study in order to understand how the participants in class A (the experimental group using the redesign) felt about how well the preparation using the Facebook group had aided them in preparing and carrying out the debate. The use of qualitative interviews and my subsequent analysis allowed me to ‘discuss directly the issues under investigation and tap into participants’ perspectives and meanings [to help] avoid some potential problems with the experimental method’ (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p.18).

Furthermore I used the group to set challenges, which constituted a proportion of the assessment criteria for the class, thereby creating a distinction between the group being a solely social output, and a relaxed environment to encourage participation in the class cohort, where the group was a part of the assessed criteria.

The challenges that I created were designed to set the students a task, an online task, whereby they were required to: Research, in English (but I did not stipulate the research must be in English, just the output), upload a photo and video related to the set task, and then the following week, to make a presentation using the material uploaded to the Facebook group.

One example of a task set was to make an oral presentation the following week of at least one minute, about their role model. Each student then researched, uploaded two photographs to the group page, with a written comment attached to each, and a 30 second video clip, also with a written comment. The students were further required to check the group page at least once daily, and to view and comment on their classmates’ contributions. The following week, in class, students took it in turns to show their Facebook group entries on the screen for the students to see, and to use the photos and video as tools to aid in their oral presentations.

During the course of the redesign, another facet was added to the use of the Facebook group. I decided to include two pecha kucha presentations in the ongoing assessment of the class. Pecha Kucha means chit chat in Japanese. The presentation entails creating a twenty slide online presentation, ideally using PowerPoint software. The slides automatically move to the next one every twenty seconds. The presenter must explain the slide by talking for twenty seconds about the slide. The students were required to upload their pecha kucha presentation files to the Facebook group prior to the actual in-class presentation, in order to gather any feedback on their choice of slides, which they could then choose to include in their actual presentations, creating a peer feedback element.

II. The Redesign

1. Rationale

The rationale for my redesign arose from the problem that I saw in the planning capabilities of my students for debates. I wanted to find a way for the students to better plan, form their statements, and to help each other to form their own statements, without the need to meet offline. As I will explain in more detail in section 3, the classes that I used in the redesign were made up of students from a variety of different university departments. They often told me of the problems they had in meeting, due to their different class schedules. So I began to think of an alternative method. All of my students own smartphones and I wanted to explore the possibility of using a social networking application to better enable my students to collaborate in the planning process of the debate. A central tenet of Gregory’s (2001) research was derived from the sociocultural linguistic approach, where learning is seen as deriving from social contexts, ‘as the jointly constructed process of transforming socially formed
knowledge and skills into individual abilities’ (Hall, 2012, p.66). I wanted to find out if by using a social networking service (Facebook) as opposed to meeting offline, my students could more conveniently and more ably jointly construct knowledge formed and gained by helping each other to construct their debate statements.

As part of a class that I teach at a university in South Korea, the ability to debate is an integral part of the assessment. Each year that I teach the class, the students tell me that they have problems organizing enough time out of class in which they can meet their debate team mates to prepare for in class debates. My initial reasoning for the redesign was my observations throughout the past 2 years that my university students use SNS such as Facebook (a popular social networking application) to socialize with their friends. Sometimes they use it to plan face to face meetings, and at other times they use it to inform their friends of such things as how they are feeling, or they post photos of themselves.

2. Redesign Settings

I work in South Korea, in a teacher training college and my students are studying to become primary school teachers. They are aged between 19 and 21 years old, and they are second year students. Their L1 is Korean, and English is their L2. I have access to their academic records from the previous year, and from having taught them in classes already completed this semester my opinion is that they display a good level of proficiency of English.

I teach two classes which I chose to investigate for this project. Class A has sixteen students, and class B has 14 students. Both classes have a mix of male and female students with the ratio being approximately 2 female students to every 1 male student. That is the typical ratio at primary school teacher training colleges in South Korea. Originally both classes had 15 students, but one male student wanted to be with his friends in another class so I agreed to let him transfer classes. The classes are comprised of a mixture of departments.

I have been using Facebook with my students as an online out of class meeting place for the last couple of years, but this redesign is the first time that I have used it to prepare for a debate. Norton (2000) mentions how much the learner interacts with the target language outside of class will affect their learning. My students do not have much chance outside of class to interact in English, which is why I set up the Facebook group for them, to give them a social meeting place between classes. They can also interact with me through the group.

The debates follow an adapted version of the Lincoln-Douglas debate format. ‘In the [typical] Lincoln-Douglas debate format, one person confronts another person just as Abraham Lincoln and Stephen Douglas did during the race for the Illinois senate seat in 1858.

In my adapted version, two teams sit in rows facing each other. Opposing sides take turns to debate, with one student from each team. Student A from the agreeing team begins with an opening statement, then student B should make a rebuttal, followed by student A who defends their original statement and backs up their opinion. Student B should then make a second rebuttal statement, followed by student A who should defend that rebuttal and conclude that round of the debate.

3. Redesign Stages

The project followed the following stages:

Prior to the resign activities
• I obtained consent from the students by explaining the project and asking the students to sign the consent forms.
• I video recorded classes A and B during initial debates titled: ‘School subjects should use level based classes’.
• I asked both classes to complete a pre-redesign questionnaire about extracurricular digital literacies, thereby investigating the students ‘funds of knowledge’ (Hall, 2012, p.79).
• I conducted follow up interviews with four students from each class, one from class A(redesign) and one from class B (no redesign).

Redesign stage
• I directed class A to use the class Facebook group to prepare for the next debate titled ‘Mentally handicapped students integrated into mainstream class’ I created separate discussion threads on the Facebook page for both debate teams.
• Each team member was instructed to write their statement on their thread, and to comment on their team mates’ statements. Additionally, they were instructed to read the statements contained in the opposing team’s thread, but were not allowed to comment on them, as that would form part of the debate process in class.
• I video recorded both classes A and B during the next debate in order to draw comparisons between the content of the debates of class A (redesign) and class B (no redesign).
• I asked the members of class A to complete a post-redesign questionnaire about using Facebook to prepare for the debate.
• I conducted final interviews with the same four students from class A as previously.

4. Evaluation

1) Video data from debates

I recorded both classes A and B during a debate titled ‘School subjects should use level based classes’. I used this data as a comparison for the redesign stage debate.

The students had been given the previous week to prepare for homework. I instructed them to meet face to face in their free time in order to prepare. The whole debate lasted fifty minutes. This is a small scale research project, so I decided to only transcribe the first round of the debate between the captains of Team A (Agree) and Team B (Agree). I found that there were many hesitations during the debate.

The following is a part transcription of the opening stages of ‘opening stages’ and ‘rebuttal’ from class A:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key</th>
<th>S1/B1/T</th>
<th>Student 1/Student 2/Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speaker</td>
<td>Transcribed</td>
<td>Spoken text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pause of 1 second</td>
<td>Notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student A1</td>
<td>There were</td>
<td>level based classes in my</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>level based</td>
<td>high school. [3] If there’s a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>classes in my</td>
<td>high level and a low level,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>high school.</td>
<td>[2] then it’s good for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>teachers to teach students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Me</td>
<td>So team B,</td>
<td>can you rebut?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student B1</td>
<td>Well, teacher</td>
<td>[2] teacher umm is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[2] teacher umm</td>
<td>comfortable with level based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[2] teacher umm</td>
<td>have bad effect. First, it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

90
can, it can, encourage, it can encourage, private education.

Class B also had to be prompted:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key</th>
<th>S1/B1/T</th>
<th>Student 1/Student 2/Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[1]</td>
<td>Pause of 1 second</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaker</th>
<th>Transcribed spoken text</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student A1</td>
<td>There were level based classes in my high school. There’s a high level and a low level, then it’s good for teachers to teach students.</td>
<td>interruption to prompt students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Me</td>
<td>So team B, can you rebut?</td>
<td>Interruption by me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student B1</td>
<td>Well, teacher teacher umm is comfortable with level based classes, but it can have bad effect. First, it can, encourage, private education.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2) Questionnaire and Interview findings

After conducting interviews with all students, I interviewed 4 students from each class. Questions one to four expanded on the answers given in the questionnaires. Questions five and six showed me that the students have been using their smartphones more and more to study, and that other professors occasionally ask them to use their smartphones to study. However, the students said that they have never used Facebook to study before, as in this extract:

Me: If professors give assignments, do you use your smartphone?
Interviewee: Yes, the Internet.
Do you use SNS (Facebook) to study? How?
Interviewee: No.
Me: But do you use it to study non academic subjects?
Interviewee: Yes, basketball skills, and daily life knowledge.

3) After the Redesign - the Facebook group

The treatment group in the experimental redesign stage was instructed to use the Facebook group page to prepare for the debate. I tried to let the students work alone on the preparation, but I checked my email notifications every day to check if the students were participating. I had to intervene twice, as two students had posted on the opposing team’s thread, when I had instructed all students to read the other team’s statements, but not to comment, as commenting would have to wait for the debate.
4) Video analysis of second debates

I recorded both classes A and B during a debate titled ‘Mentally handicapped students integrated into mainstream class’.

The students had been given the previous week to prepare for homework. I instructed class A to prepare using the Facebook group, and class B to meet face to face in their free time in order to prepare. The whole debate lasted fifty minutes. I found that class A showed much more coherencies with less pauses in speech, and I did not have to interrupt the debate to prompt the students. However class B was much the same as in the previous debate. They still displayed hesitancies, and I still had to prompt. The students maintained the flow of the debate.

III. Conclusion

I conducted post treatment questionnaires and interviewed four students from class A about their questionnaires. These were the same students as interviewed in section 5.4. I asked about question number ten, and the responses from all four interviewees showed that they and their classmates found that using Facebook was more convenient for them as they did not have to schedule time to meet each other offline. They also elaborated that they found the actual debate much easier due to having seen the opposing team’s statements beforehand, so they were able to think about and prepare rebuttal statements before the debate, which led to a much less interrupted flow in the generic stages of the debate.

Two more interesting points arose. The first, several students had been concerned about privacy issues in using Facebook. Second, Kakao Talk is an extremely popular instant messaging smartphone application, and they wondered if I could include it in future tasks.

I will seek to address those two issues in the future. I will include a tutorial on how to set privacy settings on Facebook, so that only trusted friends can see certain information on a Facebook profile. Second, Kakao Talk has it’s merits in being almost instantaneous in sending messages, but it lacks Facebook’s abilities to have various threads on one page.

With regards to the addition of pecha kucha presentations and the uploading of the presentation files to the Facebook group, students commented that they found it useful to receive feedback on the choices of their slides in the preparation for the in class presentations.

References


Bio-data

Mark Preston received a BA (Hons) in Media Studies from the University of Sunderland, the United Kingdom, an MA in Education (Applied Linguistics) from the Open University, the United Kingdom, and is CELTA certified. He has taught English and English Education for over 14 years including 5 at the university level. Since 2007, he has been involved with teacher education programs as a program coordinator and teacher trainer. His professional interests include co-teaching, digital literacies and online learning. Currently, he works in the Department of English Education, Jeonju National University of Education.

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An Acoustic Analysis on the Rhythm Pattern of English of Korean Primary Students  

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I. Introduction

The rhythm pattern of English often gives difficulties to Korean primary students when learning suprasegmentals. The main reason for these difficulties is that Korean is a syllable-timed language which has repetitive syllables at regular intervals, whereas English is a stress-timed language which has repetitive stress at regular time intervals. Furthermore, the big differences between stressed syllables and unstressed syllables in English give difficulties to listening comprehension for Korean learners. Hence, giving proper emphasis to stressed syllables, weakening unstressed syllables and obscuring the vowels are among the most important factors for natural-sounding spoken English (Prator & Robinett, 1985).

Although Korean learners of English have difficulties with the rhythm pattern of English, many studies on suprasegmentals have placed emphasis not on the rhythm pattern but on stress and intonation (Choi, 2003; Yi, 2005). In addition, although there have been a few studies regarding the rhythm pattern of English, most of them have generally dealt with chants and songs (Jeong, 2001; Kim, 2002). Thus, the present study analyzes the rhythm pattern of English of Korean fourth graders by focusing on the differences of the rhythm pattern in (1) proficiency levels (high, middle, and low) and (2) parts of speech (articles, pronouns, prepositions, and auxiliary verbs).

II. Literature Review

Studies on the rhythm pattern of English of Korean learners have mainly compared the pronunciation of their subjects with that of native speakers. Park (1994), for example, found that college students were insensitive to sentence stress, whereupon they did not sufficiently recognize the isochronism of the English. Yom (2004) also found that English instructors and college students did not distinctly recognize the differences in stress between content words and function words, and that they did not amply recognize unstressed syllables, which resulted in a longer duration of function words. Rhee and Chang (2003) investigated the intonation and rhythm of English sentences of Korean fifth graders. The finding of this study showed that Korean students implemented, regardless of sentence types, half as much pitch fluctuation as that of American primary students, resulting in the weak realization of the rhythm pattern and intonation of English.

With the previous studies as a backdrop, many cases often studied adult learners and upper graders in primary schools, whereas few cases carried out research with lower graders. In addition, few studies have examined the rhythm pattern of English by parts of speech focusing on the duration of unstressed syllables. In consideration of the
importance of the initial learning stage, it is necessary to conduct more research with lower graders with a focus on the rhythm pattern of English.

### III. Methodology

#### 1. Participants

This study analyzed 18 fourth graders (nine boys and nine girls) at Seoul M Primary School. The subjects were grouped according to their scores on one speaking test and two reading tests. The high level group (6 subjects) had a strong command of all sentences found in the speaking test, and had excellent articulation, but had not had any experience studying abroad. The middle level group (6 subjects) was randomly selected from the top 70 percent of scores on the tests. The low level group (6 subjects) was randomly selected from the bottom 30 percent of scores.

As a comparative method, two native speaking students were selected. One of them was a fourth grade student. Born in the state of Ohio, she had lived in Korea for two years. She had limited understanding of Korean, and had difficulties communicating conversationally. The other student had been in Korea for a year, originally from Utah State. She was unable to communicate in Korean.

#### 2. Material

All participants read 12 sentences, which were classified into three categories. As can be seen in <Table 1>, the test sentences were modified by adding a variety of pronouns, auxiliary verbs, and articles. Categories 1, 2, and 3 had one basic sentence, "Dogs jump," "Boys like cars," and "Girls listen to music," respectively, and the other three sentences in each category were the variations of the basic sentence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Serial Number</th>
<th>Analyzed Sentences</th>
<th>Added Parts of Speech</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1-1</td>
<td>Dogs jump.</td>
<td>Basic sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>My dogs jump.</td>
<td>Pronoun 'my'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>Dogs can jump.</td>
<td>Auxiliary verb 'can'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-4</td>
<td>My dogs can jump.</td>
<td>Pronoun 'my,' Auxiliary verb 'can'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2-1</td>
<td>Boys like cars.</td>
<td>Basic sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-2</td>
<td>Boys like her cars.</td>
<td>Pronoun 'her'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-3</td>
<td>The boys like cars.</td>
<td>Article 'the'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-4</td>
<td>The boys like her cars.</td>
<td>Pronoun 'her,' Article 'the'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3-1</td>
<td>Girls listen to music.</td>
<td>Basic sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-2</td>
<td>The girls listen to music.</td>
<td>Article 'the'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-3</td>
<td>Girls will listen to music.</td>
<td>Auxiliary verb 'will'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>The girls will listen to music.</td>
<td>Article 'the,' Auxiliary verb 'will'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Praat version 5.3.77, a phonetic analysis program, was used to analyze the rhythm pattern of English of Korean primary students and native speaking students. Paul Boersma and David Weenink of the University of Amsterdam
developed Praat and have allowed free downloads (http://www.praat.org). This program has two parts, Praat Objects and Praat Picture. The former records, saves and edits audio, while the latter displays a visual representation via a spectrogram.

IV. Results and Discussion

1. Duration Value and Ratio by Level
   This study first measured the duration of the test sentences spoken by the two native English speaking subjects. The mean value was found and set as the standard, at 100 points. The duration values of the three levels (high, middle, low) of Korean students were then measured against this value in order to find the duration ratios.
   The shortest duration was found in the high level group; however, the high level subjects still had longer duration than that of native speaking students. This showed that even the high level students did not have a similar rhythm pattern to that of native speakers, while further indicating that rhythm pattern was progressively more difficult for the middle and the low level students. To summarize, the isochronism found in English could not be applied to any level. As can be seen in <Figure 1>, the duration ratios increased more in Category 1 sentences than in the other categories, despite the fact that Category 1 sentences had a fewer syllables. This indicated that the syllable-timed characteristic of Korean had a strong influence for the subjects. Contrary to this, the duration ratios increased least in Category 3 sentences, although they had more syllables than the other categories.

2. Duration Ratio by Parts of Speech
   1) Article *the*
   The article *the* showed the lowest duration ratio in native speaking students, and showed the highest ratio in the low level students. This demonstrated that native speaking students weakened the article *the* to almost inaudible levels; however, Korean students, especially those of the low level, had difficulties weakening the same article. In a simple comparison of the values, native speaking students had less than 130 msec for the article *the*, while Korean students had up to 490 msec. This indicated that native speaking students weakened this article and pronounced it as
/ə/, a neutral vowel, whereas Korean students tended to pronounce it in a stronger form.

2) Pronouns my and her

Regarding the duration ratio of the pronouns my and her to the sentence, native speaking students had the lowest ratio, and the high level students came second. This showed the same order as in the case of the article the, but the pronoun showed larger gaps between levels than the article. The low level students had a ratio roughly two times higher than that of native speaking students. A simple comparison of the values shows native speaking students having less than 200 msec, whereas Korean students had up to 630 msec - approximately three times higher. Meanwhile, varying levels of Korean students did not show meaningful differences. Low, middle, and high level students did not demonstrate significant differences in ratio. This indicated that Korean students had more difficulty weakening the pronouns than the article across all levels.

3) Auxiliary Verbs can and will

When examining duration ratios of the auxiliary verbs can and will, native speaking students demonstrated a lower ratio than Korean students; however, the high level students showed a somewhat lower ratio than native speaking students when saying will. The auxiliary verbs can and will also had different duration ratios to the sentence. Additionally, native speaking students also demonstrated a higher duration ratio for can; however, Korean students had a ratio two times higher when articulating can. Can was supposed to be weakened to /kən/. However, can was pronounced by the subjects as /kæn/, which was both longer and stronger than the pronouns my and her. It was supposed that students were instructed to enunciate each word when they were taught the auxiliary verb can, therefore they were more influenced by the syllable-time when they say can as opposed to other function words. Regarding will, the high level students linked the final syllable of will to the first syllable of the verb listen, while low the level students kept them separate.

4) Preposition to

When saying the preposition to in a sentence, native speaking students had a similar or somewhat lower ratio than Korean students. Native speaking students had the preposition to as the lowest duration ratio among function words. As for Korean students, the high level students had lower ratios than the low level students, but the difference was not significant. This could be attributed to the effects of the lesson two weeks prior to the experiment. The students were taught the expression "listen to music," and more time was spent learning this phrase because they had difficulty with it. As can be seen in <Figure 2>, regarding duration ratios of function words in a sentence, native speaking students had the highest ratio for the auxiliary verb, followed by the pronoun, article, and preposition; however, Korean students exhibited the duration ratios in order from the pronoun to the auxiliary verb, article, and preposition. The native speaking students and the Korean students had similar duration ratios for the preposition and the article, and had about 5% to 10% different ratios for the auxiliary verb and the pronoun.
V. Conclusion

The findings of this study demonstrated that the rhythm patterns of English were consistently challenging and difficult for Korean learners of all levels. Although the high level students demonstrated a notably smaller increase in duration ratios than their lower level counterparts, their duration values were still significantly longer than those of native speakers. That is, none of the three levels showed a similar English rhythm pattern to that of native speaking students. This demonstrated that Korean students were insensitive to sentence stress and that they did not sufficiently recognize the isochronism of English. With respect to the degree of weakness by parts of speech, Korean students had different results from native speaking students. Korean students had duration ratios in the following order, from highest to lowest: pronouns, auxiliary verbs, articles, and prepositions, whereas native speaking students' order was: auxiliary verbs, pronouns, articles, and prepositions. The preposition and article did not have analogous meanings in Korean, and provided an insignificant gap of duration ratios between Korean students and native speaking students. On the other hand, the pronoun and the auxiliary verb have meanings in Korean, and produced a significant gap of duration ratios caused by the negative transference. Yoo (2012) found that Korean adult learners of English had difficulties shortening unstressed syllables, and that they had a longer duration for the pronoun than the article and the preposition. This showed that not only primary school students but adult learners were influenced by the characteristics of their mother tongue.

The results of the present study provide many implications to the teachers of elementary school English. First, the rhythm pattern of Korean students was found to be very different from that of native speakers. It was also found that there were big differences depending on the Korean students' level of proficiency. These differences should be taken into account in the classroom situation. Second, pronouns and auxiliary verbs were more difficult to be weakly and rapidly pronounced than the other function words, which suggests that pronouns and auxiliary verbs have to be more carefully taught. Third, there were some similarities between native speakers and Korean students in terms of
the rhythm pattern, in that Korean students also showed a tendency to weaken the pronunciation of some function words. These similarities can be effectively used in the actual teaching of the rhythm of English.

This study examined the duration values of Korean lower grade primary school students by focusing on certain parts of speech. In the case of the article, the was always analyzed at the beginning of the sentence, and to was the only preposition. Also, not all auxiliary verbs were analyzed. Thus, further studies must be carried out to measure the duration of other parts of speech. The present study and further studies may provide effective methods for teaching the rhythm pattern of English to Korean primary students.

Bibliography


About the Author

Jin-a Seo is a teacher at Mullae Elementary School, Seoul, Korea and doing her doctoral studies at the Seoul National University of Education. Her research interests include issues related to the rhythm pattern of English of Korean primary students as well as the acquisition of English stress in the production of English texts.

Email: zizzina99@hanmail.net
Comparative Study of Regional Differences in Beliefs in English Learning, Learning Strategies, and Achievement: 6th Graders from Three Regions

Won Kim (Phajang Elementary Schol)
Chang-Yong Sim (Gyeongin National University of Education)

I. 들어가는 말


이런 주장을 따르면, 학습신념은 학습전략의 선택과 사용에 영향을 주고, 나아가 학업성취도까지 영향을 미친다고 할 수 있다. 즉, 학습자가 영어 학습에 긍정적인 신념을 가진다면 영어 학습전략 사용에 긍정적 영향을 주게 될 것이고, 결과적으로 학생들의 영어 학습에 도움이 될 수 있을 것이다.

한편 지역별 학력격차의 원인은 사회경제적 지위와 사회 자본의 차이가 주요 원인으로 지적되고 있다. 이러한 원인들 중에서도 가장 핵심적 요인으로 밝혀진 것은 학습자들의 내적원인, 즉 학습신념과 학습전략의 선택과 사용에 영향을 주는 정의적 요인들이다. 이에 본 연구는 도서지역, 중소도시, 대도시의 초등학생 학습성취도 평가의 결과에서도 드러나고 있다. 이 영주(2012)에 따르면 기초학력의 차이가 영어 성취도 18.2%, 중소도시 14.7%, 대도시 13.5% 순으로 지역별 격차가 큰 것으로 나타났다. 이러한 원인들 중에서도 학습신념의 차이가 학교의 사회경제적 지위와 사회 자본의 차이(박현진, 김영화, 2010)에 의한 것이다. 이에 본 연구는 도서지역, 중소도시, 대도시의 초등학생을 대상으로 영어 학습성취도와 영어 학습신념 사이에 상관관계가 있는지와 영어 학습성취도와 영어 학습신념 사이의 상관관계는 있는지 둘다 연구하였다.

II. 연구 방법 및 절차

* 본고는 초등영어교육 204에 출판 예정임.
본 연구를 위해 서해안의 도서지역에 위치한 초등학교 6학년 2개 반(27명)과, 경기도 중소도시 초등학교 6학년 1개 반(28명), 경기도 대도시 초등학교 6학년 2개 반(41명), 합계 96명을 대상으로 영어 학습신념도와 학습전략의 사용빈도 측정을 위한 설문조사 및 영어 학업성취도 평가를 실시하였다.

III. 연구결과 및 논의

1. 영어 학업성취도

2012년 국가수준 학업성취도평가 초등학교 6학년 영어 평가지를 사용하여 실시한 영어 학업성취도 평가 결과를 100점 만점으로 환산하여 분석한 결과, 모든 영역에서 평균 점수가 대도시 > 중소도시 > 도서지역 순으로 나타났다. 대도시 학생과 중소도시 학생의 경우, 영어의 수용적 기능에서는 통계적으로 유의미한 차이가 없으나, 영어의 사용 측면에서는 대도시 학생에 비해 취약한 것으로 나타났다. 도서지역의 학생은 영어의 4 기능 모두가 전 지역에 비해 취약한 것으로 나타났고, 특히 문자언어 사용능력이 취약한 것으로 나타났다.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>구분</th>
<th>도서지역</th>
<th>중소도시</th>
<th>대도시</th>
<th>합계</th>
<th>F값 (유의확률)</th>
<th>부그룹</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>사례수</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 동기 | 평균 | 표준편차 | | | A=B=C |
|------|------|----------|| | (0.000) |
| 듣기 | 55.138 | 28.930 | 81.740 | 18.266 | 90.072 | 11.826 | 77.817 | 24.460 | 26.184*** |
| 쓰기 | 42.798 | 32.130 | 77.381 | 24.657 | 86.721 | 12.722 | 71.644 | 29.458 | 30.583*** |
| 읽기 | 25.717 | 34.453 | 63.626 | 36.574 | 86.754 | 21.849 | 62.842 | 39.303 | 32.778*** |
| 총점 | 43.941 | 26.897 | 76.157 | 21.438 | 88.161 | 12.067 | 72.223 | 27.045 | 40.728*** |

A: 도서지역 B: 중소도시 C: 대도시

2. 영어 학습신념

지역별 학생들의 영어 학습신념의 차이에 대한 분석 결과, 대도시 학생의 평균이 가장 높게 나타났고, 중소도시 학생의 각 항목별 평균은 ‘영어학습의 본질’을 제외한 나머지 하위항목에서 도서지역 학생들의 평균보다 높게 나타났다. 그러나 ‘영어 학습의 용이함’에서 도서지역과 중소도시 학생 간에, ‘영어 학습의 본질’에서 중소도시와 대도시 학생 간에 통계적으로 유의미한 차이를 보였다.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>구분</th>
<th>도서지역</th>
<th>중소도시</th>
<th>대도시</th>
<th>전체</th>
<th>F값 (유의확률)</th>
<th>부그룹</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>사례수</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>영어 학습의 용이함</td>
<td>평균</td>
<td>2.713</td>
<td>3.027</td>
<td>3.238</td>
<td>3.029</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>표준편차</td>
<td>0.726</td>
<td>0.497</td>
<td>0.527</td>
<td>0.615</td>
<td></td>
<td>A=B=C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** p<0.001

101
각 지역별 학업성취도 결과에 따른 집단별 학습신념 차이를 분석한 결과에서는 종소도시의 상하 집단 학생들이 ‘영어 학습의 용이함’을 제외한 모든 항목에서는 통계적 유의미한 차이가 없었다. 이는 영어 학습신념 차이가 학업성취도의 차이에서 기인하지 않고 지역적 차이에서 기인함을 보여준다.

<표 3> 지역별·집단별 영어 학습신념 분석

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>지역</th>
<th>영어 학습의 용이함</th>
<th>영어 학습의 적합한 소질</th>
<th>영어 학습의 본질</th>
<th>영어 학습 및 의사전달</th>
<th>영어 학습의 동기와 기대</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>도서지역</td>
<td>3.188</td>
<td>3.063</td>
<td>2.539</td>
<td>4.063</td>
<td>4.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>중소도시</td>
<td>3.050</td>
<td>2.761</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>3.617</td>
<td>3.576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>대도시</td>
<td>3.300</td>
<td>3.089</td>
<td>3.500</td>
<td>3.617</td>
<td>3.576</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

종합하면, 지역에 관계없이 모든 학생들은 영어의 중요성을 인식하고 있으나, 영어를 공부하기 어려운 과목으로 인식하고 있었고 이러한 인식은 대도시보다 중소도시에서, 중소도시보다 도서지역에서 큰 것으로 나타났다.

* p<0.05  ** p<0.01
대도시 학생은 모든 전략 항목에서 긍정적인 응답을 하였지만, 도서지역 학생들의 경우에는 모든 항목에서 부정적인 응답을 하였고, 중소도시 학생들의 경우도 ‘상위인지 전략’을 제외한 모든 항목에서 부정적인 응답을 하여, 학습전략과 관련한 지역별 격차가 매우 큰 것으로 나타났다.

그러나 각 지역별로 성취도 결과에 따른 집단별 학습전략의 차이를 분석한 결과에서는 도서지역의 상하 집단 학생이 ‘상위인지 전략’에서만 통계적으로 유의미한 차이를 보였을 뿐, 그 외의 항목에서는 통계적 유의미한 차이가 없었다. 이는 영어 학습전략 사용빈도의 차이가 학업성취도의 차이라기보다는 지역적 환경의 차이에서 기인하는 것으로 나타났다.

3. 영어 학습전략 분석

지역별로 학생들의 영어 학습전략을 분석한 결과, 각 전략의 평균은 대도시 > 중소도시 > 도서지역 순으로 높게 나타났다.

![표 4] 지역별 영어 학습전략 분석

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>구분</th>
<th>도서지역</th>
<th>중소도시</th>
<th>대도시</th>
<th>전체</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>사례수</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>기기전략</td>
<td>평균</td>
<td>2.728</td>
<td>2.861</td>
<td>3.244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>표준편차</td>
<td>0.903</td>
<td>0.674</td>
<td>0.456</td>
<td>0.701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>인지전략</td>
<td>평균</td>
<td>2.656</td>
<td>2.798</td>
<td>3.294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>표준편차</td>
<td>0.871</td>
<td>0.665</td>
<td>0.425</td>
<td>0.701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>보상전략</td>
<td>평균</td>
<td>2.636</td>
<td>2.655</td>
<td>3.252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>표준편차</td>
<td>0.907</td>
<td>0.595</td>
<td>0.548</td>
<td>0.737</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>상위인지전략</td>
<td>평균</td>
<td>2.658</td>
<td>3.004</td>
<td>3.515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>표준편차</td>
<td>0.873</td>
<td>0.670</td>
<td>0.475</td>
<td>0.750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>정직적 전략</td>
<td>평균</td>
<td>2.504</td>
<td>2.593</td>
<td>3.054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>표준편차</td>
<td>0.737</td>
<td>0.652</td>
<td>0.506</td>
<td>0.664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>사회적 전략</td>
<td>평균</td>
<td>2.593</td>
<td>2.661</td>
<td>3.089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>표준편차</td>
<td>0.796</td>
<td>0.642</td>
<td>0.457</td>
<td>0.657</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A: 도서지역  B: 중소도시  C: 대도시  * p<0.05  ** p<0.01  *** p<0.001

또한 도서지역 학생들은 열심히 하면 누구나 타 영어를 할 수 있다고 생각하고 있으면서도 자신들은 앞으로도 영어를 할 수 있다고 믿고 있는 것으로 나타나, 도서지역 학습자들의 학습성취도가 매우 낮았다. 또한 영어 학습성버치가 학업성취도의 차이라기보다는 지역적 환경의 차이에서 기인하는 것으로 나타났다.

![표 5] 지역별 집단별 영어 학습전략 분석

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>도서지역</th>
<th>성</th>
<th>중</th>
<th>학</th>
<th>전체</th>
<th>F-값</th>
<th>부그룹</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>기기전략</td>
<td>평균</td>
<td>3.389</td>
<td>3.333</td>
<td>2.462</td>
<td>2.728</td>
<td>3.287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>표준편차</td>
<td>0.449</td>
<td>0.521</td>
<td>0.919</td>
<td>0.903</td>
<td>(0.055)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>인지전략</td>
<td>평균</td>
<td>3.304</td>
<td>3.071</td>
<td>2.432</td>
<td>2.656</td>
<td>2.424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>표준편차</td>
<td>0.371</td>
<td>0.117</td>
<td>0.942</td>
<td>0.871</td>
<td>(0.110)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>보상전략</td>
<td>평균</td>
<td>3.083</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>2.465</td>
<td>2.636</td>
<td>1.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>표준편차</td>
<td>0.441</td>
<td>0.758</td>
<td>0.977</td>
<td>0.907</td>
<td>(0.530)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>상위인지전략</td>
<td>평균</td>
<td>3.667</td>
<td>3.167</td>
<td>2.339</td>
<td>2.658</td>
<td>6.602**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

상>하
V. 결론

본 연구는 도서지역과 중소도시, 대도시의 초등학교 6학년생들의 영어 학습신념과 영어 학습전략, 그리고 영어 학업성취도의 상관관계를 살펴보고자 하였다. 연구 결과, 지역 간 영어 학습신념과 영어 학습전략의 사 용빈도에서 통계적으로 유의미한 차이를 보였다. 영어 학습신념과 관련해 학생들은 대부분 모든 요소에 대해 긍정적인 신념을 가지고 있었지만 도서지역 학생들의 경우 영어를 어렵다고 생각하는 경향이 강했다. 영어 학습전략 사용과 관련해서는 대도시가 가장 높고, 도서지역이 가장 낮았으며, 이러한 지역적 차이가 통계적으로 매우 유의미한 것으로 나타났다. 특히, 대도시 지역 학생들의 학습전략 사용 빈도는 중소도시나 도서지역 학생의 학습전략 사용빈도와 큰 차이를 보이며 높게 나타났다. 특히 각 지역별로 성취도 결과에 따른 집단별 학습신념의 차이와 학습전략의 차이를 분석한 결과, '영어 학습의 용이함'과 '상위인지 전략'을 제외한 모든 항목에서 통계적 유의미한 차이가 없었다. 이는 영어 학습신념과 학습전략 사용빈도의 지역 간 격차가 학업성취도의 차이에서 기인하지 않고 지역 환경의 차이에서 기인할 것으로 보았다.

학생들의 영어 학습신념과 영어 학습전략 사용빈도는 통계적으로 유의미한 상관관계가 있었다. 특히 '영어 학습의 용이함'과 '영어 학습 및 의사전달', '영어 학습의 동기와 기대'는 영어 학습전략의 모든 하위요소들과
높은 상관관계를 나타냈으며, 가장 높은 상관관계는 '영어 학습의 용이함'과 '상위인지 전략'의 조합에서 나타났다. 학생들의 영어 학습신념과 영역별 성취도와 학생들의 영어 학습전략 사용 반도와 영역별 성취도는 모두 정적 상관관계를 나타냈다. 즉, 각 요소들의 점수가 높을수록 각 영역별 성취도 점수도 높게 나타났다. 특히, '영어 학습의 용이함'과 '인지 전략', '상위인지 전략'이 모든 영역의 성취도와 높은 상관관계를 보였으며, '상위인지 전략'은 학생들의 영어 학습성취도를 예측할 수 있는 결정적인 요인으로 나타났다.

이와 같은 연구 결과를 고려할 때 다음과의 제언을 할 수 있다. 영어 학습에 대한 높은 신념을 갖고 영어 학습전략을 적극적으로 사용하는 학생들은 명확한 영어 학습목표를 가지는 경향을 보였다. 영어 학습의 명확한 목표는 영어에 대한 긍정적 신념을 갖게 하는 기본요소가 되며 학습전략의 적극적 사용에까지 영향을 미친다고 할 수 있다. 따라서 영어의 흥미가 있고 성취도가 낮은 학생들에게는 영어학습의 명확한 목표를 갖도록 하는 노력이 무엇보다 우선시 되어야 할 것이다. 또한 본 연구에서 드러난 지역적 격차를 유발하는 요인을 확인하고 이에 대한 원인 분석을 위한 보다 광범위한 절적 연구가 진행되어야 할 것이다. 마지막으로 학습신념과 학습전략의 사용에 있어서 통계적으로 유의미한 지역 간 격차가 나타났다는 점은 이러한 환경의 지역차를 극복할 수 있도록 농어촌 지역이나 도서지역 학교에 대한 행·제정적 지원이 필요함을 보여준다.

**Selected Bibliography**

이효승. (1996). 한국 중·고등학생의 농어촌 영어학습의 영향. 영어교육, 51(2), 3-34.


## Concurrent Session C: Professional Development of Primary English Teachers
[Room 304]

Chair: Dong-hwan Lee  
(Gyeongin National University of Education)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>PRESENTATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 15:00-15:30   | Kyungja Ahn (Seoul National University of Education)  
*EFL Teacher Identities: A Narrative Inquiry into Primary English Teachers' Autobiographic Essays*                                                                                                    |
| 15:30-16:00   | Yun Sook Yoo (Anyang Gwanak Elementary School)  
*An Analysis of Perceptions toward Effective Scaffolding Ways of Teacher Talk in TEE among Elementary School Teachers and Learners*                                                                              |
| 16:00-16:30   | Hyunhee Cho (Daegu National University of Education)  
*Dialogic Space in I-R-E Discourse: Teacher Talk in Storytelling in Elementary English Lessons*                                                                                                      |
EFL Teacher Identities: A Narrative Inquiry into Primary English Teachers’
Autobiographic Essays

Kyungja Ahn
(Seoul National University of Education)

I. Introduction

Second language (L2) teacher identities have gained attention in the past few decades in the field of L2 teacher education. L2 teacher identities are teachers’ understandings of whom they perceive themselves as in relation to others, related to their positioning in the context they are engaged in. Teacher identities are considered important as they influence student learning as well as teachers’ efficacy, motivation, commitment, and satisfaction with their profession (Day, Stobart, Sammons & Kington, 2006).

One way to look at teacher identities is to analyze teachers’ narratives such as autobiographies. Using narratives has been recognized as a primary way of understanding what teachers know, feel, and do and how they develop in the sociohistorical contexts in which their learning to teach and their teaching are situated. Thus, narrative inquiry conducted in the field of teacher education has allowed for the investigation of teachers’ knowledge (Clandinin, 1986; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Elbaz, 1983) and their voices and identities in the contexts of their teacher learning and teaching (Britzman, 1991).

It was found that previous studies on L2 teacher identities in Korea have examined (1) the meta-analyses of English teacher identities, (2) native-speaking English teacher (NEST) identities, (3) the identities of non-native-speaking English teachers (NNESTs) co-teaching with NESTs, (4) the identities of NNESTs including pre- and in-service teachers, and (5) teacher identity development through teacher research and teacher community activities (Ahn, 2014). Most studies have examined teachers working in colleges and secondary schools. The studies related to primary English teacher identities (which have topics similar to the present study) were conducted within the contexts of co-teaching (Hong, 2013) and participating in action research (Lee, 2010). However, few studies have been carried out on primary English teachers as they participate in teacher education programs.

Therefore, by analyzing primary English teachers’ autobiographic essays, this study investigates English teachers’ various identities as they took part in a teacher education program. As the English teachers’ autobiographies are a type of narrative, they are expected to reveal their various identities within their teaching and teacher learning contexts and their growth as teachers.

II. Methodology

The participants were 22 in-service primary English teachers (21 female and 1 male) enrolled in a graduate course. On average, they had 6.5 years of teaching experience (range of 1-21 years) and 3 years of English teaching experience (range of 0-20 years). All were master’s students (9 in the 2nd semester, 12 in the 4th semester) except
one doctoral candidate (4th semester). The course aimed to improve the participants’ understanding about theories and previous research on L2 teacher education, as well as to enhance their abilities to conduct their own research in that field. The main data were the participants’ autobiographical essays which the participants submitted as a course assignment. The assignment was given to collect the participants’ background information including their experiences participating in English teacher education programs, learning English, teaching, and researching English language teaching (ELT). The length of the essays was two pages on average, with a range of 1-5 pages. The data were analyzed inductively through content analysis.

III. Findings

The findings show that the participants displayed several identities including English learners, English teachers, teacher learners, teacher educators, and teacher researchers. Among these identities, English learners emerged most frequently, followed by English teachers and teacher learners. Teacher researchers and teacher educators appeared least frequently.

**English learner identity:** The participants reported their English learning experiences at the pre-primary, primary, secondary, and tertiary levels. Their English education took place within the public educational system and/or in the private sectors. As in-service English teachers, they took part in professional development opportunities to improve their English skills. They have specifically focused on enhancing their oral proficiency which they reported has helped them teach English (in English) more confidently. Most of them were interested in learning English, while some felt stressed and anxious as English learners.

**English teacher identity:** Many of the participants have taught English as English specialists (teachers assigned to teach English only) instead of homeroom teachers (teachers in charge of a class teaching various subjects). Some teachers had not had a chance to teach English due to their school contexts. Whether they were English specialists had a strong impact on the formation of English teacher identities. Many of the participants felt satisfied with teaching English, while others felt burdened. In particular, they had concerns about teaching learners at diverse English levels and with low motivation for learning English. The participants also have been finding more efficient methods of co-teaching with NESTs. They reported that their instructional methods incorporated various activities which they expected to stimulate their students’ English learning. They displayed their roles as facilitators and motivators of student learning as well as materials and activity developers.

**Teacher learner identity:** The participants revealed the identities of learners of ELT, aiming for professional development as English teachers. Most of the teachers had gone through English teacher education programs focusing on improving English instructional skills. As graduate students majoring in English education, they also wanted to learn about theories and studies relevant to their English classrooms. Some of the teachers stated that they developed their teaching as they co-taught with NESTs. Others had had consultations with ELT experts about their classes. The participants reported they have gained more confidence in teaching as they developed their teaching skills.

**Teacher researcher identity:** As graduate students, the participants were interested in conducting research. However, the amount of time that they have been a part of the graduate school influenced their teacher researcher identities. The doctoral participant stated that her research history included a lesson report and a thesis as a master’s student as well as papers completed in her doctoral coursework. Master’s students who were further along in their graduate
programs (in their 4th semester) described their experiences in conducting research, such as that for their classroom-based studies and master’s theses. However, novice master students showed an initial stage of teacher researcher identity. They expressed nervousness that they had limited knowledge about academic research, had very ambiguous research topics, and needed to know how to develop their interests from classroom teaching into academic research.

**Teacher educator identity:** Two participants displayed their teacher educator identities as they were instructors of microteaching for pre-service teachers who were preparing for the second round of the Teacher Employment Test. From her description of working as an ELT consultant for the local ministry of education, it was evident that the doctoral participant had also taken on a teacher educator identity. Other participants took on teacher educator roles as they cooperated with NESTs.

**IV. Discussion and Conclusion**

The findings of the study imply the following: (1) Primary English teacher identities are multiple, changing, and in conflict; they include the roles of not only teachers but also of learners and researchers. (2) English teachers’ identities are interconnected. (a) English learner and English teacher identities were linked as some teachers were teaching English as they had been taught. (b) English learner and teacher learner identities are connected specifically in teacher education programs. These two identities both influenced their English teacher identities as their learning of English and teaching contributed to increasing their confidence in teaching English in their classrooms. (c) Teacher learner and teacher educator identities were also apparent as the participants learned from NESTs and taught NESTs how to teach more appropriately and effectively. (d) English teacher, teacher learner, and teacher researcher identities were interconnected. For instance, when some participants had issues in ELT in their classrooms, they learned ways to improve their teaching and carried out research on developing instructional models and applying them to their lessons. (3) Cognitive and affective dissonance played an important role in creating English teacher identities. As the participants revealed their identities, they continuously evaluated their language and instructional skills and felt anxious, frustrated, motivated, confident, and satisfied. (4) The graduate course on teacher education helped to develop, display, and interconnect diverse teacher identities by externalizing the participants’ ideas through narratives as well as by participating in reading and discussing journal articles and book chapters and conducting their own research.

Additionally, the results indicate that critical awareness of primary English teacher identity issues is needed for teachers in teacher education programs. The findings also suggest that teacher education programs should provide teachers with opportunities to disclose their multiple selves and voices, which leads to increasing the teachers’ professional development. Furthermore, teacher education programs need to help English teachers build appropriate and constructive teacher identities.

The study analyzed in-service primary English teachers’ autobiographical essays as main data. In-depth interviews and discussions in the teacher education course could have been gathered and analyzed to triangulate the primary data. Also, the current study showed diverse identities of English teachers. Future studies could focus on the relationships between teacher identities and teacher factors such as English teaching experiences, teacher education experiences, and teacher expertise. Furthermore, the study reviewed the types of identities of all the participating
English teachers. More in-depth research on individual English teachers’ identities needs to be conducted.

The current study and the suggested future research may contribute to raising awareness of the importance of English teacher identities in teacher education and student learning. Also, the studies may provide valuable resources for the development of more solid teacher education programs and policies.

References

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TEE수업에서 효과적인 교사언어 스케일딩 방법에 대한 초등 교사와 학생의 인식 비교 분석

(An Analysis of Perceptions toward Effective Scaffolding Ways of Teacher Talk in TEE among Elementary School Teachers and Learners)

Yun Sook Yoo
(Anyankwanak Elementary School)

Ⅰ. 서 론

우리나라에서는 2000년 교과부에서 EFL 상황에서 영어를 접할 기회가 많지 않은 학생들에게 목표어(Target Language)인 영어로 진행하는 수업을 통하여 학생들에게 영어의 입력을 최대한으로 제공함으로써 영어 습득을 촉진하고자 하는 취지로 영어수업을 영어로 진행(Teaching English in English, TEE)한다고 발표하였다. 이후 교과부는 TEE 교사 인증제, 영어교사 국외연수 및 다양한 심화 연수 프로그램 실시하고 있으며 우수 영어교사에게 인센티브를 주는 등 영어로 진행하는 영어 수업을 확대를 위한 노력을 꾸준히 실시해 왔다.

TEE 수업의 목적이 학생에게 영어의 노출 기회를 늘려 결과적으로 의사소통 능력을 키울 수 있도록 교사가 영어를 얼마나 많이 사용하느냐에 대한 '영어의 양(quantity of English)'만큼 교사가 얼마나 효과적인 영어를 사용하느냐에 대한 '영어의 질(quality of English)'도 중요하다. 따라서 본 연구는 효과적인 TEE 수업의 수행을 위해 교사가 교실의 역할에 대해 초등 교사뿐만 아니라 학생들의 인식을 살펴보고 이를 비교 분석함으로써 향후 교사들이 현장에서 TEE 수업을 구안할 때 기초가 될 수 있는 효과적인 적용 방안을 모색하고자 한다. 이에 따른 연구문제는 다음과 같다.

첫째, TEE 수업에서 교사의 음성언어적 스케일딩 방법에 대한 교사와 학생의 인식은 어떠한가?
둘째, TEE 수업에서 교사의 음성언어 외적 스케일딩 방법에 대한 교사와 학생의 인식은 어떠한가?

Ⅱ. 이론적 배경


앞에서 언급한 내용들을 종합해 볼 때, 수업을 진행시키고, 학습자들에게 필요한 정보를 제공하며, 학습자

1. 말하는 속도가 느리다.
2. 언어 사이사이 휴지(pause)를 더 자주 길게 한다.
3. 복잡한 용어를 과장해서 발음하기도 한다.
4. 구체적인 지시 대상과 기본적인 어휘를 사용한다.
5. 의문문보다는 명사문을 더 많이 사용한다.
6. 의미를 위해 자주 확인한다.
7. 학생들이 대답할 부분을 일부 제시해 준다.

III. 연구 방법

1. 연구 참여자

본 연구에서는 각각 107명의 초등교사와 학생들 대상을 대상으로 설문지를 실시하였다. 설문에 참여한 교사 중에서 근무 지역, 근무 경력, 영어지도 경력, TEE 교사인증서 유무 등을 고려하여 선정한 교사 10명은 대상으로 심층 인터뷰를 실시하였으며, 학생의 경우 영어 수준을 고려하여 설문에 참여한 20명을 대상으로 심층 인터뷰를 실시하였다.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>구분</th>
<th>N</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>합계</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>100</td>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>100</td>
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<th>구분</th>
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<tr>
<td>합계</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>100</td>
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다. 교사의 영어지도 정책, TEE 관련 영어수준 경험 유무, TEE 교사 인증서 유무에 따라 교차분석을 실시하였으나, 학생은 영어수준에 따라 교차분석을 실시하였는데 수준별 차이를 비교하기 위해 보통수준을 제외한 기초수준과 우수수준을 대조적으로 비교 분석하였다. 교사와 학생의 변인에 따른 평균 차이를 살펴보기 위하여 t-test와 일원변량분석(One Way Anova)을 실시하였으며 분석 결과 유의수준 p<0.05에서 유의한 경우에는 단관(Duncan)으로 사후 검정을 실시하였다. 수집된 설문조사 결과를 기술통계 분석방법으로 분석·처리하였다.

인티뷰는 반구조화된 인터뷰(semi-structured interview)형식으로 연구 문제 중심의 개방형 질문(open-ended questions)을 통하여 심층 인터뷰가 이루어질 수 있도록 하였다. 교사 인터뷰는 일일이 개별 인터뷰로 학생 인터뷰는 수업을 녹화한 후 녹화된 수업 장면을 보면서 학생들의 교사 언어 이해에 대해 질문을 하는 자극적면담(Stimulated-recall interview)을 통한 심층 인터뷰로 이루어졌다.

### IV. 연구 결과 및 논의

1. 교사 언어의 응성언어적 스케폴딩 방법

1) 교사 설문 및 인터뷰 결과

설문조사 결과 응성언어적 스케폴딩 방법에 대한 교사들의 응답 평균이 4.30*으로 나타났다. 평균이 4.0을 상회하는 것을 볼 때 교사들은 제시된 문항의 스케폴딩 방법들이 학생들에게 이해 가능한 입력을 제공하는데 대체로 효과적이며 인식하고 있음을 알 수 있다. <표3>에서 볼 수 있듯이 상위 범주에서는 ‘반복적인 영어 사용(4.48), ‘부가적 영어 입력 제공(4.29), ‘쉬운 영어의 사용(4.18)’의 순으로 응답하여 교사들은 ‘영어의 반복적인 사용’이 이해 가능한 영어 입력에 가장 효과적인 것으로 인식하였다. 이는 ‘영어의 반복적인 사용’에 대한 하위 범주가 ‘핵심 단어나 문장의 의도적 반복’, ‘자주 쓰는 표현의 일상화’로 나누어졌다. 교사들은 학교의 의사소통을 강조하는 영어교육과정에 반복하여 편안한 문법의 접근성을 가진 학습의 자연스러운 흐름 속에서 표현의 반복적 사용을 통해 학생들이 영어를 습득할 수 있도록 노력하고 있음을 간접적으로 보여주고 있다.

![표3](옥성언어적 스케폴딩 방법에 대한 교사 설문 결과)

| 입력 관리 | 그림 관리 | 문법 이해 | 그림 관리 | 대화 | 전개 | 등급 | 평균 | 원치
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>쉬운 단어/단어들 사용(4.48)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>(3.30)</td>
<td>(1.20)</td>
<td>(1.70)</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>238</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atak으로 말한다.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>(1.80)</td>
<td>(1.50)</td>
<td>(1.40)</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>920</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. 쉽고 쉬운 단어를 사용하여 말한다.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>(2.30)</td>
<td>(2.80)</td>
<td>(2.90)</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>556</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>부가적 영어 입력 제공(4.29)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>(7.90)</td>
<td>(4.50)</td>
<td>(3.70)</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>796</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 쉬운 단어/단어들을 사용하여 말한다.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>(1.80)</td>
<td>(4.50)</td>
<td>(1.50)</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>383</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 쉬운 단어들 사용하여 말한다.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>(2.50)</td>
<td>(2.20)</td>
<td>(1.50)</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>796</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. 쉬운 단어들 사용하여 말한다.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>(1.80)</td>
<td>(2.80)</td>
<td>(1.50)</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>383</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. 쉬운 단어들 사용하여 말한다.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>(2.50)</td>
<td>(2.20)</td>
<td>(1.50)</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>383</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. 쉬운 단어들 사용하여 말한다.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>(2.50)</td>
<td>(2.20)</td>
<td>(1.50)</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>383</td>
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<tr>
<td>평균</td>
<td>4.30</td>
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</table>

하위 범주에서는 ‘쉬운 단어/단어로 높은 단어의 사용(4.63), ‘핵심 단어나 문장의 의도적 반복(4.50)’, ‘예

* 응성언어적 스케폴딩 방법의 전체 문항에 대한 평균치를 나타냄
2) 학생 설문 및 인터뷰 결과

음성언어적 스크롤령 방법에 대한 학생 응답의 전체 평균은 3.34로 나타났다. <표 4>를 살펴보면, 상위 범주에 대한 학생들의 설문조사 결과 ‘반복적인 영어 사용(3.62)’, ‘부가적 영어 입력 제공(3.33)’, ‘쉬운 영어의 사용(3.06)’ 순으로 나타나 학생들이 가장 효과적인 방법이라고 인식하였다. 제시한 7가지의 음성언어적 스크롤령 하위 범주들은 ‘자주 쓰는 표현의 일상화(3.64)’, ‘핵심 단어나 문장의 의도적 반복(3.59)’, ‘예를 들어 설명하기(3.47)’, ‘쉬운 단어/빈도수 높은 단어 사용(3.20)’, ‘사전활동으로 질문을 통한 배경지식의 활성화(3.18)’, ‘-topic 단순한 문장 사용(3.11)’ 그리고 단순한 문장 사용(3.11)’의 순으로 결과가 나타났다.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>설문조사 결과</th>
<th>그리고 나타난 비중</th>
<th>그리고 나타난 비중</th>
<th>그리고 나타난 비중</th>
<th>그리고 나타난 비중</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>주목 영어의 사용(3.62)</td>
<td>5(1.9%)</td>
<td>22(3.9%)</td>
<td>35(3.9%)</td>
<td>34(3.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. 쉬운 단어/빈도수 높은 단어 사용을</td>
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<td>22(3.9%)</td>
<td>35(3.9%)</td>
<td>34(3.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 쉬운 습관으로 말한다.</td>
<td>2(1.9%)</td>
<td>22(3.9%)</td>
<td>35(3.9%)</td>
<td>34(3.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 쉬운 단어/빈도수 높은 단어 사용을</td>
<td>1(1.9%)</td>
<td>22(3.9%)</td>
<td>35(3.9%)</td>
<td>34(3.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 쉬운 단어/빈도수 높은 단어 사용을</td>
<td>1(1.9%)</td>
<td>22(3.9%)</td>
<td>35(3.9%)</td>
<td>34(3.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. 쉬운 단어/빈도수 높은 단어 사용을</td>
<td>1(1.9%)</td>
<td>22(3.9%)</td>
<td>35(3.9%)</td>
<td>34(3.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. 쉬운 단어/빈도수 높은 단어 사용을</td>
<td>1(1.9%)</td>
<td>22(3.9%)</td>
<td>35(3.9%)</td>
<td>34(3.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. 쉬운 단어/빈도수 높은 단어 사용을</td>
<td>1(1.9%)</td>
<td>22(3.9%)</td>
<td>35(3.9%)</td>
<td>34(3.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. 쉬운 단어/빈도수 높은 단어 사용을</td>
<td>1(1.9%)</td>
<td>22(3.9%)</td>
<td>35(3.9%)</td>
<td>34(3.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. 쉬운 단어/빈도수 높은 단어 사용을</td>
<td>1(1.9%)</td>
<td>22(3.9%)</td>
<td>35(3.9%)</td>
<td>34(3.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. 쉬운 단어/빈도수 높은 단어 사용을</td>
<td>1(1.9%)</td>
<td>22(3.9%)</td>
<td>35(3.9%)</td>
<td>34(3.4%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

평균이 가장 높게 나타난 ‘자주 쓰는 표현의 일상화’, ‘핵심 단어나 문장의 의도적 반복’은 학생의 수준별 변인에 따른 통계 분석 결과 유의한 차이가 나타나지 않았다. 따라서 학생들은 영어수준에 관계없이 교사가 수업 시간에 영어를 반복적으로 사용하여 그 표현에 자주 노출 되면 영어의 이해에 도움이 된다고 인식하고 있음을 알 수 있으며 이러한 결과는 TEE 수업에서 반복을 통한 영어 입력의 중요성을 시사해 준다고 할 수 있다.

인터넷 결과 학생 S8은 교사가 자주 사용하는 교실영어(classroom English)는 귀에 익숙해져 쉽게 이해할 수 있다고 하였으며, 학생 S19는 교사가 수업시간에 반복하는 표현의 중요성을 인지하고 그 표현을 중심으로
전체의 내용을 이해할 수 있었다고 하였다.

한편, 학생들은 교사가 느린 속도로 말하는 것이 영어를 이해하는데 가장 효과적이지 않은 방법으로 인식하였으며, 수준별, 학생 변인에 따른 통계적으로 유의하지 않았다. 그 밖에 학생 변인(영어 수준)에 따라 유의한 결과가 나타난 문항은 '쉬운 단어/빈도 수 높은 단어의 사용', '糌과 단순한 문장의 사용', '예를 들어 설명하는', '사전활동을 통한 배경지식의 활성화' 등 4문항으로 기초수준의 학생보다 우수수준의 학생들이 더 효과적인 방법이라고 인식하였다.

하위 범주에서 학생들이 가장 효과적인 방법으로 인식하고 있는 '사전 쓰는 표현의 일상화', '핵심 단어나 문장의 의도적인 반복'과 가장 효과적이지 않고 인식하고 있는 '느린 속도로 말하기'는 제외한 나머지 4개의 문항 모두가 학생의 수준별 변인에 따라 유의한 결과가 나타난 것을 볼 때 음성언어적 스케폴딩 방법은 대체로 영어수준이 낮은 학생보다 영어수준이 높은 학생들에게 효과적인 방법이라는 것을 유추할 수 있다.

2. 교사 언어의 음성언어적 외적 스케폴딩 방법

1) 교사 설문 및 인터뷰 결과

교사 설문조사 결과 음성언어 외적 스케폴딩 방법에 대한 응답 평균은 3.96으로 음성언어적 스케폴딩 방법의 평균 4.30에 비해 낮게 나타났다. <표 5>에서 상위 범주를 살펴보면, 응답 평균이 ‘문자언어의 제시’는 3.38, ‘사전활동의 사용’은 4.54로 효과성에 대한 응답 차이가 크게 나타났다. 즉, 교사들은 TEE 수업에서 학생들에게 응답되는 음성언어의 이해를 돕기 위해 사전적 자료를 통한 단서를 함께 제공하는 것이 매우 중요하다고 인식하였지만 문자언어의 제시하는 것은 효과적이지 않고 인식하였다. 개정교육과정을 통해 문자언어가 이전에 비해 더 많이 도입되기 전에는 교사들은 여전히 문자언어보다는 음성언어 중심의 맡은 학습을 진행하고 있음을 유추해 볼 수 있다.

<표 5> 음성언어 외적 스케폴딩 방법에 대한 교사 설문 결과

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>문자언어의 제시(M=3.38)</th>
<th>사전활동(M=4.54)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8. 교사용 CD 동영상을 제시한다.</td>
<td>7.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. 영어를 한 단어 만 제시한다.</td>
<td>4.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>사전활동의 사용(M=4.54)</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. 교사의 세세리 표현이나 조명을 사용한다.</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. 그림이나 사진 자료를 사용한다.</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 평균 | 3.35

음성언어 외적 스케폴딩 방법에 대한 설문조사 결과를 하위 범주를 통해 자세히 살펴보면, '그림이나 사진 자료의 사용(4.59)', '행동이나 포장 등의 제스처 사용(4.49)', '사전활동과 한국어 제시(3.54)', '교사용 CD 동영상 설정의 자막 제시(3.21)'의 순으로 나타나 교사들은 그림이나 사진 자료를 사용하는 것이 매우 효과적이라고 인식하지만 교사용 CD 동영상에서 자막을 제시하는 것은 비교적 효과적이지 않다고 인식하였다. 특히, '교사용 CD 동영상의 자막 제시'는 교사 언어 입력 방법에 대한 전체 문항 중에서 가장 평균이 낮게 나타났다.

2) 학생 설문 및 인터뷰 결과

음성언어 외적 스케폴딩 방법에 대한 학생들의 설문조사 결과는 3.72로 음성언어적 스케폴딩 반법(3.34)에 비해 높게 나타났다. 이는 TEE 수업에서 학생들이 교사의 영어 입력을 이해하기 위해서는 음성언어적 스케폴딩뿐만 아니라 문자나 그림, 제스처 등의 음성언어 외적 스케폴딩의 사용이 필요하다는 사실을 시사한다.

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‘제스처의 사용(3.75)’은 학생변인에 따라 동계결과가 유의하였는데 영어 우수수준 학생들에 비해 기초수준의 학생들이 행동이나 표정 등의 제스처가 교사의 영어 이해에 더 효과적이라고 인식하였다. 인터뷰 결과 기초수준의 학생 S15는 교사의 제스처를 통해 영어를 이해할 수 있었다고 말하며 TEE 수업에서 교사의 제스처 사용에 대한 중요성을 강조했다.

‘문자언어의 제시’범주에서는 ‘판서를 통한 문자 언어 제시(3.63)’가 ‘교사용 CD 동영상 제시(3.43)’에 비해 학생들의 응답 평균이 높았다. 이 두 문항은 모두 학생변인에 따라 유의한 차이를 보여 영어 우수수준의 학생들이 기초수준의 학생보다 더 효과적이라고 인식했다. 학생 인터뷰 결과 우수수준의 학생 S19는 교사가 절반에 판서한 내용을 보면서 응성언어로만 들었을 때의 불확실한 부분을 확인할 수 있어서 영어의 이해도 도움이 되었고, 또 언제든 학습활동에도 참고할 수 있어서 좋았다고 응답하였다. 반면, 영어 문자를 잘 모르는 기초수준의 학생 S8는 판서를 통한 문자 제시가 거의 도움이 되지 않았다고 응답하였다.

학생 설문조사 결과와 인터뷰 내용을 통해 영어 우수수준의 학생들은 문자언어에 대한 인지도가 높기 때문에 기초수준의 학생들의 비해 절반의 판서나 CD동영상의 자막이 상대적으로 효과적이라고 응답했고 유추할 수 있다. 따라서 교사는 TEE 수업에서 학생의 수준을 고려한 문자언어의 제시가 필요하며, 문자언어를 제시할 때는 학생 수준이 낮은 학생들을 위해 응성언어적 스크립팅 방법이나 시각자료를 함께 사용함으로써 학생들의 이해도를 도울 수 있도록 해야겠다.

V. 결론 및 제언

본 연구는 설문조사와 인터뷰를 통해 TEE 수업에 대한 초등교사와 학생의 인식을 비교·분석하여 교사들이 현장에서 효과적인 TEE 수업을 구현할 때 기초가 될 적용 방안을 모색하고자 했다. TEE 수업에서 이해가 가능한 교사 언어 입력 방법에 대한 초등교사와 학생의 설문조사와 인터뷰 분석 결과 얻은 결과는 다음과 같다.

첫째, TEE 수업에서 교사 언어의 스크립팅 방법의 상위 범주에서 교사와 학생은 모두 시각자료의 활용과 영어의 반복적인 사용 방법이 효과적이라고 인식하였다. 이는 시각자료를 통한 영어의 반복적 사용이 TEE 수업에서 효과를 높이기 위해 중요한 스크립팅 방법임을 시사해 주고 있다. 하위 범주로 가장 효과적인 방법은
교사는 ‘쉬운 단어/빈도수 높은 단어의 사용’을, 학생은 ‘그림이나 사진의 사용’이라고 응답하여 교사는 음성언어적 스크폴딩 방법을, 학생은 음성언어적 스크폴딩 방법을 선호하는 것으로 나타났다. 교사와 학생은 느린 속도로 말하는 것은 이해를 돕기 위해 효과적이지 않다고 하였다. 따라서 교사는 단순히 느린 속도로 말하는 것이 아니라 내용의 난이도에 따라 속도를 조절하고, 적절한 휴지(pause)를 사용하여 학생들이 인지 과정을 자극함으로 이해를 도울 수 있도록 해야 한다.

한편, 음성언어적 입력의 이해를 돕기 위해 교사용 CD의 자막이나 판서 등을 통한 문자언어 제시 방법에 대해 교사들은 별로 효과적이지 않다고 응답한 반면 학생들은 효과적인 방법이라고 응답하였으며 영어 수준에 따른 학생빈도 간 유의한 결과를 나타냈다. 따라서 TEE 수업에서 이해 가능한 입력을 위해서는 학생의 수준을 고려한 음성언어적 스크폴딩 방법과 함께 음성언어적 스크폴딩 방법의 사용이 필요하다.

본 연구의 결과를 토대로 다음과 같은 제언을 하고자 한다. 첫째, 언제, 어떤 방법으로 TEE를 해야 효과적이며, 이를 위해 TEE 수업의 목적에 대한translate 여부를 고려한 효과적인 입력 방법을 사용해야 한다.

둘째, 학생의 수준 차이를 고려한 TEE 수업 방법에 대한 모색이 필요하다. TEE 수업이 모든 학생에게 유익한 수업이 되지 않는 까닭은 바로 학생들의 수준 차이에 있다. 학생의 수준에 따라 교사 언어의 이해에 대한 차이가 매우 커서 영어수준이 낮은 학생들에게는 내용이 너무 쉽게 느껴지고 수업이 자칫 지루해질 수 있는 반면, 영어수준이 낮은 학생들에게 TEE 수업은 이해의 사각지대로 학습효과가 전혀 나타나지 않을 수 있다. 수준별 반 구성은 국가적 차원에서 논의되어야 할 방안이 되겠지만 학교 현장에서 교사들이 적절 적용할 수 있는 다양한 방법을 모색하여 영어 수준이 낮은 학생이나 낮은 학생 모두에게 효과적인 TEE 수업이 될 수 있도록 해야 한다.

참고 문헌


Dialogic Space in I-R-E Discourse: 
Teacher Talk in Storytelling in Elementary English Lessons

Hyunhee Cho
(Daegu National University of Education)

I. Introduction

Storytelling has gained interest in elementary English classrooms in recent years. There is an abundant body of literature that supports the benefits of storytelling lessons for children’s language and literacy development (Elly, 1989; Isbell, Sobol, Lindour & Lowrance, 2004; Strickland & Morrow, 1988, 1989; Sulzby & Teale, 1991; Wright, 1995). Many studies conducted in Korean school contexts also attest to the positive effect of storytelling lessons (Chung & Kim, 2012; Kim, 2004; Kim, 2012; Lee & Hong, 2005).

Elementary English education is firmly focused on developing children’s aural language skills. However, the communicatively oriented curriculum tends to narrow down to traditional practice and drill-focused lessons partly due to the washback effect of the high stake testing and constraints of the physical circumstances of the classroom. English tends to be taught as separate pieces of knowledge that has to be learned and memorized, offering learners little opportunities to connect their life and selves to what they are learning.

With the awareness of the benefits of storytelling in language learning and as an attempt to offer an implication for the current elementary English teaching, this study investigates into teacher talk in storytelling lessons. By analyzing the characteristics of teacher talk in storytelling lessons, this study aims at discovering the qualities of teacher talk that may open doors to dialogic learning of English.

II. Theoretical Background and Literature

CLT, originated by Hymes (1972), brought a turning point in the paradigm of language teaching and learning by including social and cultural dimension to it (Jacobs & Farrell, 2003). The basic idea of CLT is to provide a learning opportunity where the teacher and students cooperate in learning through communicating with each other. More as an underlying approach than a prescriptive teaching methodology, CLT has been embodied in different forms all over the world, often with contradictions between the idea and the practice (Hiep, 2007; Nunan, 1987). In Korean elementary English education, it is established as a central teaching approach, but its application in the real classrooms is limited (Choi, 2000; Chung, 1998; Lee, 1999).

Vygotsky’s notion of language development offers insight into the process of language teaching and learning.
According to him, language is a sign system that mediates between children and their world (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986). Thus, children learn language along with making meaning of the world around them. In this light, language learning should occur in a way that children can connect themselves to the world. Vygotsky’s notion of language is articulated in Bakhtin(1981)’s dialogism.

There is a large body of literature about classroom interaction (Jung & Ko, 2010; Kim, 2010; Kim, 2013; Park, 2005; Park & Lim, 2009). Most of the studies employ analysis frameworks grounded on the function of speech in the movements of the lesson. The frameworks offer a solid tool with which to analyze interactions, but they tend to separate each speech or turn, overlooking the dynamics or the flow of interaction.

Teacher talk takes a central part in classroom because it is the teacher who plans and manages the lesson. Studies that illustrate the dominance of teacher-led classrooms(Cazden 1988; Mehan, 1979; Walsh, 2006) attests to the essential role of the teacher talk. Studies reported within Korea also illustrate that teachers’ directions and display questions far outnumber reference questions in English classrooms(Jung & Ko, 2010; Kwon, 2006; Park, 2005). Acknowledging the negative aspect of teacher-controlled classrooms, however, those classrooms need to be investigated from an alternative perspective in order to discover the constructive qualities and find ways to employ them more consciously in everyday teaching.

III. Research Method: Data Source and Analysis

The data source of the study is videotaped storytelling lessons in elementary English classrooms posted on the Edunet run by Korea Education and Research Information Service. Out of the lessons posted since 2010, 87 lessons that have “storytelling” either in the title or in the part of the lesson were selected initially. The selection then narrowed down to 3 lessons that were judged as showing more varied and more dialogic interactions than the rest. In order to make the elements of the lessons comparable, 2 native-speaker teacher and Korean teacher’s team teaching lessons were finally chosen. One lesson used “Go Away Big Green Monster” and the other lesson used “The Story of Little Mole Who Knew It was None of His Business” as a storytelling text(Hearafter “Lesson G” and “Lesson S” respectively). Both story texts were adapted to fit the language learning objective of the lesson as well as the students’ level of English ability.

The data was transcribed and analyzed to identify the types of teacher utterances. In this study, utterance refers to the meaningful unit in a speech turn. Relevant literature about classroom interaction(Fanselow, 1977; Flanders, 1970; Park, 2005; Seedhouse, 1994) was referred to prior to the analysis. The analysis itself was largely an inductive process: 8 types of utterances emerged from the data, with subcategories for each. The analyzed data was compared across the lessons to gain a better understanding of the dynamics of the lesson.

IV. Findings and Discussion: I-R-E with a variation

Very different teacher talk patterns emerged from the analysis of the two lessons. In Lesson G, the number of KT’s utterances is about 2.5 times larger than the NT’s(71.0% and 29.0% respectively): In Lesson S, the NT speaks over 1.7 times more than the KT(63.2% and 36.8 respectively). It is accounted for by the fact that much of the NT’s utterances in Lesson S consists of telling the story, which takes nearly 25% of NT’s talk.
In Lesson G, direction and question - forms of initiation in the classroom discourse - take up the largest part of the KT and the NT utterances combined, showing 42.0% of the total utterances (Table 1). Lesson G shows the typical I-R-E structure, for evaluation of the student response comprises the next largest number (13.7%). Lesson S shows a variation, for storytelling comprises more than a third of the KT and the NT utterances combined (37.9%). However, direction and question are used second most frequently in the lesson (26.4%). Overall, this I-R-E oriented teacher discourse in the two lessons indicates that they are initiated, framed, and controlled by the teacher. The use of repetition as in Lesson G (11.5%) than in Lesson S (2.2%) also corresponds to the fact that Lesson G appears to be more strongly led and controlled by the teacher (Seedhouse, 2004).

Table 1. Utterances of the KT and NT combined in the two lessons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Utterance categories</th>
<th>Lesson G</th>
<th>Lesson S</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>KT*</td>
<td>NT**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direction</td>
<td>24(18.3)</td>
<td>8(6.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>17(13.0)</td>
<td>6(4.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>12(9.1)</td>
<td>6(4.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confirmation</td>
<td>4(3.1)</td>
<td>1(0.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description/Explain</td>
<td>10(7.6)</td>
<td>1(0.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Storytelling</td>
<td>11(8.4)</td>
<td>7(5.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>11(8.4)</td>
<td>4(3.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response</td>
<td>4(3.1)</td>
<td>5(3.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>93(71.0)</td>
<td>38(29.0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Korean Teacher
**Native-speaker-of-English teacher

Lesson S reveals a few variation of the teacher-initiated lesson structure not only because of the large part that storytelling plays in the lesson. Examining the abstracted numbers along with the context of the transcribed interactions in the lesson, I interpret that the teachers’ more frequent use of response in Lesson S than in Lesson G (13.8% and 6.9% respectively) explains how Lesson S differs from Lesson G: In Lesson S, the teachers respond to students’ talk a lot more often. Both teachers’ response to student talk comprises three-fourths of total responses in Lesson S, while it covers little more than half in Lesson G.

Along with the higher rate of response, Lesson S shows more teacher description and explanation than Lesson G (12.6% and 8.4% respectively). It has to do with the large portion of storytelling utterances in the lesson, as teachers add description and explanation as they tell the story. The analysis of the types of questions also signifies that Lesson S has more questions about story content than about the words in the text: 10 out of 11 questions are about story in Lesson S, whereas 9 out of 23 questions are about story and other “authentic” questions and 14 questions are about word (Table 2).

Table 2. Teacher questions in the lessons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>U t t e r a n c e</th>
<th>Subcategories</th>
<th>Lesson G</th>
<th>Lesson S</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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The comparison of the two lessons uncovers the qualities of teacher talk that may go unnoticed otherwise. Both the Lesson G and Lesson S are initiated and led by the teacher because they show high proportion of teacher initiation, characterized by directions and questions. However, Looking at the content of the talk as well as the lesson context reveals different qualities within the same teacher-led lesson structure.

V. Conclusion and Implication

This study investigated into teacher talk as a central element in the classroom. I-R-E discourse is universal in classrooms and understood to represent a traditional classroom that does not encourage student’s dialogic engagement in learning. However, a close examination of the lessons revealed that the apparent I-R-E lessons involve many components that can be used to engage children in dialogic learning of language and literacy. The findings of this study apparently contradict the existing research of classroom discourse(Kim, 2010; Kim, 2013; Park, 2005), but the disparity may come from the fact that the lessons in this study evolves from storytelling. That is, storytelling may serve as a tool with which the teachers connect the language teaching objective to the story text, when they plan and use teacher talk consciously. The teachers’ questions about the content of the story and responses to the students’ talk may help trigger and encourage students’ dialogic engagement in the story, with the teacher, and finally in learning English language and literacy.
**Concurrent Session D: Pre-service Teacher Education**

[Room 305]

**Chair:** Sangbong Lim  
(Chinju National University of Education)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>PRESENTATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15:00-15:30</td>
<td>Petra Glithero (Gongju National University of Education)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Reappraising &quot;Apprenticeship of Observation&quot;: Belief Development within Pre-Service Teachers</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15:30-16:00</td>
<td>Maria Oh (Jeonju National University of Education)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Why Can't J Focus on Classroom English Practice?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16:00-16:30</td>
<td>Sun Lee (Gongju National University of Education)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Error analysis of classroom English in primary pre-service teachers' scripts for their English micro-teaching.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reappraising “Apprenticeship of Observation”: Belief Development within Pre-service Teachers

Petra Glithero
(Gongju National University of Education)

A major ongoing concern in pedagogical discussions about teacher education is the concept of beliefs and the influence these beliefs have on the intake of pedagogical theories by teachers (Mattheoudakis 2007). One possible definition comes from Borg (2001: 186), who describes teaching belief as “a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative, [...] accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behavior”. Although beliefs in this regard are an “individual psychological concept” (von Wright, 1997: 259) they can never be isolated because meaning is continuously negotiated with the social environment.

In the context of teacher education, beliefs carry similar connotations. Teacher beliefs are frequently taken to refer to pedagogical beliefs about teaching, learning, the learners and the role of the teacher (Calderhead, 1996). Pre-service teachers enter teacher education with an already established set of beliefs and expectations about their future role based on their years of experience at the receiving end of education as students. Lortie (1975) described this phenomena as an ‘apprenticeship of observation’.

The notion of ‘apprenticeship of observation’ challenges the validity of teacher education programs, because it affects the “reception of teacher training in unpredictable and idiosyncratic ways” (Borg, 2005: 1). A study done in Hong Kong (Pennington and Richards, 1997), found that communicative language teaching methods taught during a teacher education course were rejected in favor of a more traditional teaching approach based on rote learning and examination preparation. The ‘filter’, based on years of observation of transmission teaching culture, was too strong to allow new methods through.

Beliefs are an important factor to consider in the discussion on teacher education because pre-existing beliefs influence whether new information is accepted or rejected during teacher training (Busch, 2010). These beliefs can expose the ways in which pre-service teachers intend to conduct themselves as teachers and how they define their future role as teachers. Therefore, a teacher education course is more likely to impact on how teachers teach if it impacts on their beliefs, too (Borg, 2011).

Horwitz (1999) postulates on the importance of cultural influence on the formation of language learners’ beliefs. This
raises the question on how teaching, informed by a different set of cultural beliefs, is received by students. This is particularly true in the South Korean education context, where native English speaking teachers commonly rely on communicative activities (Schenck, et al., 2013), in contrast to a local education culture, still influenced by one-directional lectures and the grammar-translation tradition (Nunan, 2003).

The literature suggests various factors as the possible agents for belief change. Liu and Fisher (2006) have identified reflection, mentoring and tutoring, and curriculum as the most prominent factors influencing belief change. According to Tatoo (1998:66) teacher education necessitates learning opportunities “that encourage reflection, dialogue, critical thinking, knowledge ownership, and understanding in context and within learning communities”.

Despite the government changes to the curriculum, English teachers teach in normative ways that are historically entrenched in the Korean context (Li, 1998). Kim (2005, in Johnson 2006) also concluded that teachers enact the curriculum in very traditional, non-communicative ways. Nunan (2003) postulates this to be due to most teachers lacking the methodological skills to implement the changes. The participants in this study began their schooling in the mid- to late 90s, therefore it can be concluded that their “apprenticeship of observation” period was similar to education practices described by Kim (2005) and Li (1998). This creates a strong mismatch between how the pre-service teachers have learned in the past and what they are expected to absorb in the teacher education program.

The research presented here was conducted over one semester at a university of education with second year students: twenty-seven English majors in the treatment group and twenty-four art majors in the control group. Both groups were simultaneously enrolled on an English Teaching Theory course taught by a Korean Professor and a Sophomore English Practice course (SEP). In the control group, the author taught the SEP course, while the treatment group studied with another native speaking instructor. Additionally, the treatment group had an English Conversation course taught by the author, in which the conversation topics cover a variety of topics ranging from teaching methodology to the role of the teacher and co-teaching with native English teachers. All the topics are introduced through experiential learning, and the purpose of each activity is explicitly linked to learning and teaching theory.

Three instruments were used to collect data: a modified Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) for quantitative data (Horwitz, 1988); an open-ended interview and learning journals for qualitative data. The qualitative interview was included so as to obtain detailed contextualized information on complex belief changes. The use of interviews was based mainly on two factors. First, the purely quantitative multiple-choice questionnaire can only gauge group beliefs and the possible changes in those. Second, interviews allow for clarification of the reasons for the answers given.

In line with current developments in teacher education, reflective practice was deemed an essential part of the course (Loughran, 2002). The benefits of reflective practice were explained to the participants in the treatment group at the beginning of the semester, and they were shown various examples of learning journals and given guiding questions. The treatment group participants were asked to write seven separate learning journals as a reaction to seven lessons throughout the semester. These included comments on their reactions to the lessons, analyzing the role of the teacher.
during the activities, and the appropriateness of these teaching methods within the elementary school setting.

Generally, the pre-semester beliefs of the combined cohort appeared to be in line with other studies that investigate pre-service teachers’ beliefs (Horwitz, 1988). In particular, the trainee teachers’ beliefs in this research connected to learning and communication strategies were not in accordance with current theories of language learning. This can be a cause for concern, not only because these beliefs may impede the pre-service teachers’ learning, but also how they choose to conduct their classes in the future.

For example, large number in each group, from seventy percent in the treatment group to seventy-five percent in the control group, believe that grammar errors are a natural and inevitable part of language acquisition and a majority of them feel, somewhat contradictory, that errors should be corrected as soon as they are made. Fortunately, some support can be found for learning styles essential for participation in communicative activities (two thirds agree that it is suitable to guess an unknown word).

The majority of the belief changes occurring at the group level followed the same pattern for both the treatment and the control groups (twenty-five out of thirty-eight statements). Apart from six statements, the belief change as judged according to mean score was stronger (i.e. a higher mean score value) in the treatment group. The pre-semester survey revealed beliefs in resistance to the principles of communicative language teaching. Providentially, the beliefs changed in all categories more in favor of practices associated with CLT. Noticeably, the treatment group belief that errors should be corrected immediately dropped from pre-semester agreement of seventy percent to post-semester twenty-two percent. Additionally, the treatment group pre-service teachers became more accepting of group work and only one tenth believed post-course that they would copy friends’ mistakes.

The most significant finding emerging from this study is the change agent. Both the treatment and the control group studied a teaching theory course and were taught by the same native speaking instructor using communicative teaching methods, but these did not emerge as variables. Thus, the additional exploration of teaching methods through practice and critical reflection emerged as a variable in producing a more significant belief development in the treatment group. This was also emphasized in the post-semester interviews, succinctly expressed by Ji-yeon (name changed) “I don’t remember theory. Just memorize like school. I know it for the exam. But no meaning really. But when we do, I remember. Watching you teach and then we analyze why, help me to do it when I teach”. This and other similar opinions suggest the importance of experiential learning and the teaching method as a belief change agent. Ji-yeon’s comment alludes to the concept of ‘apprenticeship of observation’, and puts forward a strong argument that these pre-service teachers may replicate the teaching methods utilized during their training course.

An understanding of learner beliefs, regardless of their nature, can help teachers to comprehend how learners approach the tasks they are expected to perform in the language class. By analyzing these beliefs at the beginning of the semester, teachers can help to foster more effective learning strategies (Horwitz 1988). For example, the current study revealed beliefs in resistance to teaching approaches generally associated with communicative language
teaching. Special care was taken to explain the purpose of class activities pre-service teachers were asked to engage in. The teacher trainers must be aware of their students’ expectations and beliefs and be ready to illustrate to them how their beliefs differ from those of the program.

Reflection should be encouraged on teacher training programs. Learning about language pedagogy and second language acquisition theories, and then regurgitating these in a test is very different from actually analyzing those same theories in relation to personal experience and beliefs. The interview revealed that when trainee teachers were engaged in discussions about teaching theories after experiencing that exact teaching style, they internalized the theory. The group discussions allowed the theory to be organized into learners’ existing beliefs systems, thus encouraging deeper learning and internalizing of these theories. Reflection should be continually supported so this effect can be extended to all participants.

Finally, the importance of teaching methods utilized on teacher training courses cannot be ignored. Although the period of apprenticeship of observation has made deep impressions on the trainee teachers throughout their education, it would appear this period is not fixed and extends to university. Future courses should carefully consider which teaching methods are used on training courses.

Trainee teachers must be made aware that they possess preconceived notions about language learning and teaching, and that these beliefs may be incongruent with current theories of teaching. I argue that as long as pre-service teacher education does not facilitate this, along with amending the teaching methods used, pre-service teachers will enter the profession with parallel understandings of pedagogy; one for theory in the form of memorized concepts, and the other based on experience informing their habits and classroom actions. The concept of ‘apprenticeship of observation’ needs to be brought back to the forefront of teacher education – not as a concept to be criticized for its limiting nature in the form of preconceived ideas – but as a tool to encourage development in the pre-service teachers’ beliefs about language learning and teaching. Belief construction, as this research has demonstrated, is, after all, a matter of learning through experience, not through the memorization of theories.

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**Borg, M.** (2001). Teachers' beliefs. *ELT journal, 55*(2), 186-188


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Why Can't J Focus on Classroom English Practice?

Maria Oh
(Jeonju National University of Education)

I. Introduction

This study aims to report how one Korean pre-service primary school teacher could not pay much attention to classroom English practice although her instructor tried to help her classroom English practice for one full year at a college class. She was a third-year pre-service teacher and selected for this study of classroom English practice, because her classroom English skills did not seem to be improved much while she was advised about ways to practice classroom English. Based on the data from individual interviews, two preliminary findings emerged: (1) Although she was an avid learner of English and she practiced English in many ways, she did not pay much attention to classroom English practice mostly because she believed that classroom English was not different from general English; (2) She believed also that real English education was practically possible only at extra curricular English classes and she paid little attention to classroom-English-based primary English teaching at public schools. Only after she was able to realize what she believed in, she was able to practice classroom English more and improve her classroom English skills. It should be noted that the data analysis is not finalized yet at the time when this presentation is performed, so the study results should be updated at later stages of the study.

II. Research Question

Why can't J focus on classroom English practice?

III. Methodology

1. One pre-service primary English teacher at a teacher's college

In summer 2013, one third-year pre-service primary English teacher was approached to conduct this study at a teacher's college. She was a primary-school-English-education major. She was invited because she was very active at English Teaching Methodology class taught by the researcher in spring 2013. She accepted the invitation and took part in the study and shared her ideas, beliefs and experience about English learning.

2. Data Collection and Analysis

The data were collected in 2013. The data were analyzed according to qualitative research analysis traditions.
**Biodata:** Maria Oh has been teaching English for about 30 years mostly at colleges. Her current research interests are how to integrate learner autonomy theory into English classes with Korean learners and how to integrate technology into English teaching/learning. She is also interested in primary English teacher education.

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**Office Phone:** 063-281-7196  
**Fax:** 063-281-7059  
**Email:** mariaoh@jnue.kr
Error Analysis of Classroom English in Primary Pre-service Teachers’ Scripts for Their English Micro-teaching.

Sun Lee
(Gongju National University of Education)

I. Introduction

In EFL situation like Korea, most of the input in a classroom comes from English teachers and their classroom English takes the large portion of the input to students. In order to increase communicative language use in English in the classroom, the Korea Ministry of Education (MOE) implemented a policy to teach English in English (TEE). To provide students good quality English input, teachers’ classroom English should be free from errors. However, most elementary school teachers have not received enough training for TEE and there is clearly room for improvement in their classroom English. As I. Kim (2007) pointed out, there have been numerous studies on in-service teachers' classroom English (e.g. J. Lee, 1999; S. Lee, 2005), whereas only a few studies have investigated pre-service teachers' classroom English (e.g. I. Kim, 2007, Moon, 2010). According to Kim, rather than analyzing in-service teachers' classroom English errors and trying to correct them through teacher training programs, it would be more efficient to prevent or reduce error production during their pre-service teacher training period.

Therefore this study aims to investigate pre-service elementary school teachers’ classroom English errors by analyzing their scripts for English micro-teaching and to suggest effective ways to improve their classroom English. For the study, small size learner corpus was built and the computer concordance program, MonoConc Pro 2.2, was used for the analysis. With the help of MonoConc Pro, the errors could be analyzed within the context.

II. Methodology

1. Data for the study

Twenty scripts for TEE class were analyzed for the study. Each script was written by a group of 3 or 4 students who are pre-service teachers at a national university of education in Chungcheong province. The students wrote scripts for their English micro-teaching. The following is an example of the data. As can be seen in the example, in order to easily identify teaching stage and the students’ group, an alphabet was assigned to each group and a number was assigned to each teacher talk in the script. For example, ‘C’ was assigned to one of the students' groups and a number was assigned to each line of the teacher talk in the script. Students' expected responses are removed for the analysis.

(Example) T(C22): Great. Then where she go then?
S: She went to Muryeong Royal Tomb.
### T(C23): Good! what else did she do?

### T(C24): All students read this very well! This time, look at this picture and I’ll read it twice. Listen carefully. What did you see? (pause) What did you see? What did I say more loudly?

2. Analysis tool for the study

Two coders analyzed the scripts and assigned codes according to the revised error coding categories based on Kim's (2007) study which modified categories of Coder (1981) and Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Error Types</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical Omission (GO)</td>
<td>This is ___ team activity. ('a' omission)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical Addition (GA)</td>
<td>Let’s listen to (the) dialog 2. ('the' addition)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical Selection (GS)</td>
<td>Are you understand? (Are--&gt;Do)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical Selection (LS)</td>
<td>Let’s see the two video clips. (see--&gt; watch)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical Order (GOR)</td>
<td>Guess what is the thing. (--&gt;Guess what the thing is.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pragmatic Order (P)</td>
<td>How about it? (for What do you think?)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After error coding, 20 scripts were compiled into a text file and served as a computer learner corpus for the study. With the help of the computer concordance program, MonoConc Pro 2.2, the analysis was conducted. The learner corpus of the present study consisted of 22197 words (123298 characters, 3864 lines, 95 pages). The total number of teacher’s talk units was 1346.

### III. Findings

1. Overall error types

Out of 1346 teacher’s talk units, 1489 error codes were found. The most frequent error type was grammatical selection error, followed by grammatical omission and lexical selection errors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Error Types</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical Selection (GS)</td>
<td>439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical Omission (GO)</td>
<td>425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical Selection (LS)</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical Addition (GA)</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical Order (GOR)</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pragmatic Error (P)</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,489</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in <Table 2>, pre-service teachers made the most number of errors in the grammar selection category, specially, subject-verb agreements with numbers, gender (3rd person), and tense. Also they tend to omit articles, such as 'a' or 'the', and they made wrong choice of words when they wrote scripts for their TEE class.

2. Error types in each teaching stage
The <Table 3> summarizes the error types observed in each teaching stage. In almost every teaching stage, error types are observed in the following order of frequency: GS > GO > LS > GA > GOR > P. However, in the stage of game explanation, more lexical selection errors and pragmatic errors were observed.

3. Subcategories of Error Types

In order to investigate subcategories of error types, KWIC (Key Word in Context) concordance files are analyzed in detail. The following tables summarize the results of the analysis.

3.1. Grammatical Selection Errors (GS)

Grammatical selection (GS) errors are most frequently occurred errors of the present study.

<Table 4> Subcategories of GS Errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subcategories</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject-Verb disagreements (numbers)</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present tense disagreement</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past tense disagreement</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Articles</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future tense disagreement</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrong choice of Aux verbs</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gerund, participle</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most frequent errors were occurred in the subcategory of subject-verb agreement with numbers (e.g. We saw three pig 84 occasions) followed by present tense disagreement (e.g. If student B have the same card, 71 occasions). Pre-service teachers also made errors in the subcategories of past tense disagreement (35 occasions), articles (32 occasions), future tense disagreement (30 occasions), wrong choice of aux verbs (16 occasions) and gerund and participle problems (10 occasions).

3.2. Grammatical Omission Errors (GO)

As observed in the previous studies (Kim, 2007; Lee, 1999), pre-service teachers in this study also omitted articles,
'a' and 'the' most frequently. Table 5 summarizes the subcategories of grammatical omission errors. As can be seen in the table 5, out of 425 GO errors, 284 errors can be explained by omitting 'the' (211 occasions) or 'a/an (73 occasions). Mastering how to use articles is the most difficult part for Korean English learners since their native language does not have article systems (Park, 1996).

<Table 5> Subcategories of GO errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Omission</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a, an</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3. Lexical Selection Errors (LS)

The third most frequent error type is lexical selection errors (22.6%). Since there are various occasions in which this type of error could occur, it is not easy to categorize the subcategories of LS errors. So most frequently misused words, 'tell, speak, say,' will be briefly discussed here.

Figure 1 shows the concordances lines where the words 'tell' or 'speak' are used instead of the word 'say' in the sentences. In Korean, all these three words can be translated into the same word, however, each of them has a different lexical rule to follow. In the case of 'tell,' it needs an indirect subject to whom the speaker delivers information. So in <Figure 1> below, instead of using 'tell,' the word 'say' should be used. (e.g. “tell the three sentences” "you can tell, ‘Wow. How fast you are!’"). In the case of 'speak,' it is more related to a human ability to speak a language. So when in doubts, it will be safer to use the word 'say' than to use 'talk,' 'speak,' or 'tell' in English class. This kind of lexical selection problem could be provided through learner corpus and students themselves can discover these differences by combing through concordance lines.

<Figure 1> Examples of improper uses of 'tell' and 'speak'

```
... roup members come to the front and tell(say) (LS) (the GO) three sentences together. S...
... the members come to the front and speak(say) (LS, GS) the English word or sentence first...
... roup members come to the front and tell(say) (LS) (the GO) three sentences together. S...
... the members come to the front and speak(say) (LS, GS) the English word or sentence first...

... you know that (the) GO mouse, let's speak(say) (LS) it all together. Repeat after me. (It...
... you know that (the) GO mouse, let's speak(say) (LS) it all together. Repeat after me. (It...

... put the (motion) let's speak(say) (LS) it all together. Repeat after me. Ho...
... put the (motion) let's speak(say) (LS) it all together. Repeat after me. Ho...

... (to) -H20: You can speak (say) (LS) all these sentences. Listen and repeat...
... (to) -H20: You can speak (say) (LS) all these sentences. Listen and repeat...

... tell the player tell the (GO) three sentences. S...
... tell the player tell the (GO) three sentences. S...

... Speed is very important. You can speak(say) (LS) the answer before I give you all questions...
... say "What time is it?". The player tell(say) (LS) it's __ o'clock, it's time for...
... say "What time is it?". The player tell(say) (LS) it's __ o'clock, it's time for...

... motion/actions (LS, GS). When you speak(say) (LS) 'Sunny', move like this, ~...
... motion/actions (LS, GS). When you speak(say) (LS) 'Sunny', move like this, ~...
```

Another set of frequently misused words are 'look at, watch and see.' Figure 2 shows the concordances lines where the words 'see' or 'look' are used in the sentence where the word 'watch' should be used instead.
Most English learners as well as pre-service teachers have similar lexical selection errors. When new words are taught, they should be taught in context. Also, new classroom English expressions should be taught in context and learner corpus can be served as a useful tool for pre-service teachers for that purpose.

3.4 Grammatical Addition

As in 3.2, here again articles are source of problem. Many pre-service teachers in this study added articles, 'a' and 'the' the most frequently where they are unnecessary. Table 6 summarizes the subcategories of grammatical addition errors. As can be seen in the Table 6, out of 152 GA errors in total, 65 errors can be explained by adding 'the' (34 occasions) or 'a/an (31 occasions). Figure 3 shows the concordances lines where the article 'the' is used when it is not necessary in the sentences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Addition of</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a, an</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.5 Grammatical Order Errors (GOR)

In total, 82 grammatical order (GOR) errors were found and Figure 4 shows some concordance lines of GOR errors.
As can be seen in the above examples, most GOR errors are related to questions. Pre-service teachers didn't make proper inversion of subject and verb when they make questions or indirect questions. In this study, scripts for TEE class was observed and only 82 cases of GOR errors observed. However, if actual TEE classes are transcribed and analyzed, the number of GOR errors will be increased.

3.6 Pragmatic Error (P)

Most errors shown in 3.1 through 3.5 are local errors which do not have much influence on delivering meaning, however, pragmatic errors are global errors which can have more influence on delivering meaning (Ferris, 2002). Figure 5 shows some examples of pragmatic errors of the study. Some pre-service teachers used "You are a good job" for "You've done a very good job." Also, in some cases, "How about it" was used for "What do you think?"

![<Figure 5> Examples of Pragmatic Errors](image)

4. Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to investigate pre-service elementary school teachers' classroom English errors by analyzing their 20 scripts for English micro-teaching and to suggest effective ways to improve their classroom English. With the help of the computer concordance program, Monoconc Pro 2.2, the analysis was conducted. The results of the study are as follows. Pre-service teachers made grammatical selection errors most frequently, followed by grammatical omission errors, lexical selection errors, grammatical addition errors, grammatical order errors and pragmatic errors. With the help of MonoConc Pro, the errors could be analyzed within the context. In order to prevent typical errors of pre-service teachers, classroom learner corpus should be built and used for teaching them classroom English.

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5-32.
Concurrent Session E: Reading Fluency
[Room 306]

Chair: Yoon Lee
(Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>PRESENTATION</th>
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| 15:00-15:30| **Soo-jin Choi** (Seoul Soosong Elementary School)  
*The Effects of Phonemic Awareness Instruction with Repeated Reading on Elementary School Student's English Reading Fluency* |
| 15:30-16:00| **Jin Kyung Park** (Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)  
*Effects of Indirect Syllable Splitting Task through Shared Storybook Reading on Preschooler's Phonological Awareness* |
| 16:00-16:30| **Jennifer M. Yi** (Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)  
*Comparison of the Effects of Timed Repeated Oral Reading on Partner and Independent Groups on Reading Fluency of Young Korean EFL Learners* |
The Effects of Phonemic Awareness Instruction with Repeated Reading on Elementary School Students' English Reading Fluency

Soo-Jin Choi
(Major in English Education for Young Learners
The Graduate School of Education
Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)

Reading fluency was selected as one of the essential elements in early reading instruction (NICHD, 2000). Reading fluency refers to the ability to read orally or silently with appropriate levels of word recognition, accuracy, phrasing, expression, and good comprehension of the text (Johnston, 2006). In the stages of reading development, fluency should be developed on the basis of an automaticity of word recognition in order to be a fluent reader (Chall, 1983). If readers have the ability to decode words easily through the practice of reading, they will have more capacity for understanding the message (Laberge & Samuels, 1974). Repeated reading is one of the most effective ways to improve word recognition, fluency and comprehension regardless of students' grades (NICHD, 2000). On the other hand, Cummin (2003) emphasized phonemic awareness as predictors of decoding, that means word recognition. Phonemic awareness refers to the ability to focus on and manipulate phonemes in spoken words (NICHD, 2000). Readers can improve not only phonemic awareness, but also decoding skills through phonemic awareness instruction. Readers need to develop phonemic awareness for reading fluency because it helps them to understand the way of transferring oral language to written language. Furthermore, phoneme blending and phoneme segmentation tasks are essential for decoding skills (Phillips & Torgeson, 2006). Therefore, phonemic awareness should be instructed with repeated reading to help with the automaticity of word recognition which is the basis of reading fluency.

The purpose of this study is to verify the effects of phonemic awareness instruction with repeated reading on elementary school students' English reading fluency. The following research questions were addressed.

1. What is the effect of phonemic awareness instruction with repeated reading on students' English reading accuracy, rate and prosody?
2. What is the effect of phonemic awareness instruction with repeated reading on students' English reading comprehension?

For this study, 108 students in the 5th grade at S Elementary School in Seoul were sampled. The reason 5th graders were chosen for this study was that the national English curriculum required them to have the ability to read aloud simple passages with appropriate expression and understand the messages of them. All students were given a pre-test to assess their reading accuracy, rate, prosody and comprehension. They were divided into two groups; group 1 being the experimental group and group 2, the control group. There were no significant differences among the two groups in any of the measure; accuracy, rate, prosody and comprehension-in the preliminary test.

The main study was administered from the beginning of December 2013 through July 2014. The experiment was
implemented twenty times during a ten week period for fifteen minutes each. Each session was conducted in regular English class. Reading material was chosen by considering the communicative functions from the textbook, vocabulary and difficulty. Based on these three criteria, 7 leveled books on the site ‘Reading A to Z’ were selected as the reading materials. The passages were non-fiction and consisted of 55 to 65 words. All the participants already knew 80 to 90 percent of the words in the reading materials. Each material was used through 3 sessions to give participants enough opportunities for repeated reading and to implement phonemic awareness instruction.

The experimental group consisted of students who received phonemic awareness instruction which included phonemic blending tasks and phonemic segmentation tasks after repeated reading during three class periods(Blevins, 2006). On the other hand, the control group consisted of students who got general vocabulary instruction though the activities such as bingo or board game after repeated reading with the same material. For repeated reading, three assisted reading methods were conducted which were echo choral reading, cumulative choral reading and paired reading(Rasinski, 2010). In echo choral reading, participants read the text after the teacher watching the monitor and then read after the teacher, pointing at the text in their notebooks. In cumulative choral reading, a group starts to read the first sentence and then the next group joins reading from the next sentence. At the end of reading, every group should read the text together. In paired reading, the better reader reads aloud pointing at the words in their notebooks two times. After finishing, the partner marks 1 to 3 points according to their performance. Then they change roles. Thus, participants read the passage aloud six times in a session. For phonemic awareness instruction, phoneme blending and phoneme segmentation tasks were chosen which are the most effective in improving reading fluency(Lewkowicz, 1980). In the first period, after deciding on a main phoneme from a word in the text, three more words were collected which contained the same phoneme as the first sound. Those four words were used for phoneme blending tasks(onset and rime). In the second period, all four words for phoneme blending(phoneme and phoneme) were selected from the text. In the third period, after choosing a word among the eight words that they already learned, three more words which have the main phoneme as the first, middle or last sound were added.

After the experiment was conducted, a post-test was carried out in the same way as the pre-test to assess their levels for reading accuracy, rate, prosody, and comprehension skills. While participants were reading aloud, their reading was recorded individually to measure accuracy, rate and prosody during one minute. Reading accuracy was quantified using the number of words read correctly divided by the total number of words read. Each mispronunciation, substitution, omission or word helped by a rater was considered an error. It was expressed as a percentage. Reading rate was measured by counting the number of words participants read in a minute(WPM), regardless of errors. For scoring prosody, the Multidimensional Fluency Scoring Rubric was used(Lee, 2014). The total prosody score for each rating ranged from 4 to 12, which are expression and volume, phrasing, smoothness and pace. In this study, the inter-rater reliability was .885. The comprehension test was paper-based. Participants were asked to choose the answer to ten questions on paper after reading a story. The test was scored from 1 to 10. All of the analysis was performed using Kim, Kyeong-Seong's i-STATistics 1.0. Differences were considered significant at the .05 level. A t-test was utilized to make a statistical analysis of the collected data. The result of the study is arranged in accordance with accuracy, rate, prosody and comprehension. The result of the t-test with measures on accuracy are presented in Table 1.

* http:// www.readinga-z.com
Table 1. Comparisons of Reading Accuracy between Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>The highest score</th>
<th>The lowest score</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
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<tbody>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>89.76</td>
<td>11.46</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>72.22</td>
<td>-1.689</td>
<td>.094</td>
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<tr>
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<td>54</td>
<td>92.62</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>79.17</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>96.43</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>87.06</td>
<td>3.148</td>
<td>.002**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>94.19</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>99.42</td>
<td>81.71</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean score comparisons of the post-test showed that the PARR (Phonemic awareness instruction with repeated reading) group participants scored significantly higher on accuracy (M= 96.43, SD=3.52) than the RR (M=94.19, SD=3.88) group. The result of the t-test with measures on rate are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Comparisons of Reading Rate between Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>75.26</td>
<td>27.70</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>0.165</td>
<td>.869</td>
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<td>54</td>
<td>74.35</td>
<td>29.41</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>22</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>104.09</td>
<td>27.81</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0.900</td>
<td>.370</td>
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<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>98.80</td>
<td>33.13</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>32</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was no significant difference in mean score for accuracy between the PARR (M=104.09, SD=27.81) group and the RR (M=98.80, SD=33.13) group. The result the of t-test with measures on prosody are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Comparisons of Reading Prosody between Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
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<th>The lowest score</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>5.46</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-1.245</td>
<td>.216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>5.88</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>post-test</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>10.94</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>2.049</td>
<td>.043*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>10.07</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5.5</td>
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<td></td>
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</table>

* p<.05
The mean score comparisons of the post-test showed that PARR group participants scored significantly higher on prosody (M=10.94, SD=2.10) than the RR (M=10.7, SD=2.31) group. The result of the t-test with measures on comprehension are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Comparisons of Reading Comprehension between Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>The highest score</th>
<th>The lowest score</th>
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<tr>
<td>pre</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>7.30</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.206</td>
<td>.838</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>7.24</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>8.41</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.399</td>
<td>.018*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>7.70</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean score comparisons of the post-test showed that the PARR group participants scored significantly higher on comprehension (M=8.41, SD=1.35) than the RR (M=7.70, SD=1.68) group. The findings of the study were as follows.

First, phonemic awareness instruction with repeated reading allowed the students to make significant progress on reading accuracy, rate, and prosody. Both groups showed significant progress on reading accuracy, rate and prosody. However, the experimental group performed better on reading accuracy and prosody compared to the control group in this criteria. Because phonemic awareness instruction helps the students to build a graphophonic foundation for oral fluency, there was a significant difference on reading accuracy and prosody between the two groups (Fuchs, Fuchs, & Compton, 2004). On the other hand, there was no significant difference between the two groups on measures of reading rate (Pinnell et al., 1995). Second, phonemic awareness instruction with repeated reading allowed the students to make significant progress on reading comprehension (Ashby et al., 2013). Both groups showed progress on reading comprehension skills. However, the experimental group performed better than the repeated reading group on reading comprehension with significant difference. The improved word recognition skills increased the students' cognitive capacity for reading comprehension rather than focusing on decoding the text. In conclusion, phonemic awareness instruction helps students to achieve significant improvement on reading fluency in terms of accuracy, prosody and comprehension when it is conducted with repeated reading.

Given the findings of the study, some suggestions should be made. They are as follows. First, the definition, teaching methodology and evaluation of reading fluency needs to be investigated. Second, to improve early readers' fluency, effective and adaptable repeated reading programs should be developed and introduced to researchers and reading teachers. Third, reading materials considering phonemic awareness instruction need to be developed. Finally, phonemic awareness instruction training programs for teachers need to be created to help students who are struggling with reading fluency.
REFERENCE


Effects of Indirect Syllable Splitting Task through Shared Storybook Reading on Preschooler's Phonological Awareness

Jin Kyung Park

(Department of TESOL, Graduate School
Hankuk University of Foreign studies)

1. Introduction & Literature Review

Phonological awareness is highly related to later success in reading and spelling (Adams, 1990; Ehri et al., 2001). And especially, there is a strong relationship between children’s phonological skills and their successful reading (Bryant & Bradley, 1985; Wagner & Torgeson, 1987). The better readers are at detecting phonemes, the faster and more successful will be their progress with reading (Lundberg et al., 1980; Stanovich, Cunningham, & Crammer, 1984; Tunmer & Nesdale, 1985). In other words, to learn to read English, learners need to be aware of phonemes and they need to acquire the knowledge base of English phonemes. If the EFL learners get the knowledge base of the English phonemes, their aural discrimination of sounds can take place effortlessly, easily, and quickly. So, phonemic awareness is critical and vital for learning to read English.

Adams (1990) suggested six phonemic awareness tests or activities including nursery rhymes. Among those activities for phonemic awareness, three activities such as segmentation, manipulation, and blending tasks are considered too difficult to do for preschoolers. In the Liberman’s experiment with the tapping task for segmentation phonemes, none of the four-year-olds were tested successfully (Liberman, Shankweiler, Fischer, & Carter, 1974).

Goswami and Bryant (1990) argued that during the preschool and early school years, children progress from awareness of syllables to awareness of onsets and rimes, and finally to phonemic awareness. Liberman and her colleagues (Liberman, Shankweiler, Fischer, & Carter, 1974) and Leong and Haines (1978) studied young children’s ability to analyze words into syllables and then phonemes. Syllable is believed to be consisted of the onset (initial consonant or consonant cluster of the syllable) and the rime (the vowel and consonants that come after it) (Halle & Vergnaud, 1980). Syllable-splitting tasks are easier than segmentation or manipulation tasks because it requires only the insight that the initial sound can be separated from the whole word. The original version of syllable splitting task requires children to detach and say the first phoneme of a word, and reverse version of the syllable splitting-task demands children say the left part of the initial phonemes (Adams, 1990). However, this is also not easy for young preschoolers, so the present study was designed to utilize indirect syllable splitting task as a treatment considering the age of young preschooler. The way of indirect syllable splitting task is letting a child listen to the initial phonemes instead of making the child do the task by himself.

The purpose of this study was to find out the effectiveness of indirect syllable splitting task through shared storybook reading on the Korean preschooler’s initial phoneme discrimination ability. The research question of this study was:

Does the indirect syllable splitting task through shared storybook reading have the positive effect on the words'
initial phoneme discrimination ability of the young preschooler?

The reason why shared storybook reading was used for this study is shared storybook reading or reading aloud books to young preschoolers are good resources to make children get used to phonological awareness. And also, it is a familial activity which occurs often between parents and children (De Temple & Snow, 1996; Goodist, Raitan, & Perlmutter, 1988). According to Yopp (1992), reading aloud, using predictable books and the like are invaluable reading experiences to children. Reading aloud books to preschoolers make them draw attention to sounds of words. The present study regarded reading storybooks to young preschoolers as one feasible way to improve their phonological awareness.

2. Method

Participant

This is a case study and one 39 month-old boy participated in this research. He has had 20 minutes English class three times a week in his day care center and he has been taught some English children's songs and a few primary words in that class. At home, he has been reading English storybooks with his mother since he was 9 months old. So, he was accustomed to reading English storybooks and could understand simple questions such as "Where is the monkey?" and "How many animals are here?" and was able to respond correctly by pointing a correct picture and saying the number in English. However, he didn't know alphabet letters as well as Hangul.

Measures

To find out an ability to discriminate initial phonemes of the words, the modified version of phonological awareness test by Aram and Levin (2002) was used. Aram and Levin's initial phoneme test includes 20 monosyllabic word pairs (e.g., gad-gur) and children were asked to answer whether the initial phonemes of the two words are same or different (Korat, Klein, and Segal-Drori, 2007). In this research, however, the number of questions are revised into 6 in order to prevent a young participant getting bored and answering the questions arbitrary. Instead, the researcher let the child took two tests as one set because only six questions are not enough to analyze the results. So, each set of tests was composed of 12 questions. And also, the researcher used minimal pairs to test discrimination of phonemes. The word pairs were composed of two types that are exactly same words or having same rime but different onsets (e.g., cup-pup). Minimal pairs are usually used to teach learners to discriminate similar sounds or to test whether the sounds are accurately discriminated (Birch, 2006). Test questions were composed of short vowel word pairs, long vowel word pairs, and multisyllabic word pairs. The table 1 shows the components of each test.

| Table 1. The contents of initial phoneme discrimination tests and its numbers |
|-------------------------------|--------|---|
| **TEST**                      | **Contents**                      | **Numbers** |
| Pre-test                      | Short vowel word pair (CVC, CVCC) | 8            |
| (pre-test 1 & 2)              | Long vowel word pair (CVCV, CVVV) | 3            |
|                               | Multisyllabic word pair           | 1            |
| Test 1                        | Short vowel word pair (CVC, CVCC, CCVCC) | 5 |
| (test 1-1 & 1-2)              | Long vowel word pair (CVCV, CVVV, CVVCC) | 5 |
Table 2. Examples of indirect syllable splitting task through shared storybook reading.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Example 1</th>
<th>Example 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M: (Points at the illustration) A red /h/ /b/ bird</td>
<td>M: (Points at the illustration) /h/ /h/ helicopter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M: (Points at the illustration) A yellow /d/ /d/ duck</td>
<td>M: (Points at the illustration) /tr/ /tr/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C: Duck</td>
<td>C: Train</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M: (Points at the illustration) A purple /c/ /c/ cat</td>
<td>M: Okay.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M: (Points at the illustration) A white /d/ /d/ dog</td>
<td>M: (Points at the illustration) /tr/ /tr/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Materials

As materials, two storybooks were used first. The titles of the two books are Brown Bear, Brown Bear, What do you see? by Bill Martin, Jr. and The Journey Home from Grandpa's by Jemima Lumley. These two books have the pages which have all the main words from the story at the end of the pages. They are predictable books and contain main words about animals, colors, and transportation. Instead of having changeable flow of stories, those books have same structure of sentences and just changed the words into them. So, it was easy to let Eric (the participant) exposed to the indirect syllable splitting task naturally.

But as time goes on, Eric was getting bored reading the same two storybooks. He didn't want to read the same books anymore at the end of the first session (5 days of reading). So, the researcher let Eric choose himself the books which he wanted to read during the second and third sessions. He chose 19 storybooks by himself.

The storybooks which used in this research were all republished by JY Books company. They provide books with audio CDs. However, Eric did not listen to the CDs during the research to control intervening variables.

Procedure

To begin with, Eric took two pretests. Before he took the test, the researcher showed him how to do it by modeling by using two sample questions. The instruction was: "If you listen to the words which start same initial sounds like cup-cup, stay still. If you are heard different initial sound words like mat-cat, clap your hands." Pretest 1 was conducted in the daytime and pretest 2 was carried out at night. Eric was asked to respond six questions in each test and the researcher did not give any feedback during the test to prohibit Eric learning from it.

After the two pretests, Eric had a total of 15 days of shared storybook reading times with the researcher from 10 to 20 minutes a day for three weeks. This period was divided into three sessions and each session included five days of treatment. And after each session, Eric took two tests in the same way as pretests.

During the first session, Eric read two storybooks that the researcher chose for this research. As a treatment, the researcher first read the storybook once to him from the first page to the end. When the reading was finished, the researcher let him listen to the initial phonemes of target words twice and then the whole words (e.g., /c/ - /c/ - cat) as the indirect syllable splitting task. The table 2 shows the examples of indirect splitting task.
M: (Points at the illustration) A black /sh/ /sh/
C: Sheep
M: Sheep. Okay.
M: (Points at the illustration) A gold /f/ /f/
C: Fish
M: (Points at the illustration) /d/ /d/
C: Digger
M: Digger!

M= mom, C= Eric

The target words that the researcher chose were with regard to colors, animals, transportations and were related to main theme of the story that are appropriate for preschoolers. After reading the first book, the researcher read the second book to him in the same way as the first storybook. Eric took Test 1-1 the next day, and he took test 1-2 the following day.

During the second session, Eric read 9 storybooks with the researcher and then took two tests (Test 2-1 and 2-2). During the third session, Eric read 10 storybooks with the researcher and then took two final tests (Test 3-1 and 3-2). The storybooks were different according to the sessions, but the way of treatment was same. During the second and the third sessions, the researcher tried to keep the way of reading the storybooks like she did in the first session, but the proportion of the exposure to the indirect syllable splitting task was necessarily reduced since the books were changed. The books for the second and third sessions don't have the pages that having the main words at the end and some books are more focused on the story flow than the various primary words. It was hard to do indirect syllable splitting task when the researcher read the long storybooks especially because the researcher naturally paid more attention to make Eric understand the stories instead of letting him listen to the target initial phonemes.

In summary, Eric read 21 storybooks for three weeks and took 8 tests in total including two pretests. All the activities were videotaped including shared storybook readings as well as the tests. The videotaped data were transcribed to analyze the results.

3. Results and discussion

The results of the initial phoneme discrimination tests are shown in the figure 1 below.

**Figure 1. The results of the initial phoneme discrimination tests**

| Percentage of correct answers | 0.416 | 0.75 | 0.75 | 0.833 |
In the figure 1, Eric's overall test results were improved when simply comparing the results of the pre-test and the post-test. But on closer inspection, Eric had difficulty in discrimination of initial phoneme /l/ and the discrimination of initial phonemes of long vowel and multisyllabic word pairs. He constantly did not distinguish well the phoneme /l/ notably, and it was interesting that phoneme /l/ is not existed in phonemes of Korean.

In the pre-test, Eric could discriminate initial phonemes correctly only when the word pairs are consisted of short vowel sounds. And also, Eric could not answer well in case of the multisyllabic word pairs (e.g., monkey-donkey). In the all tests, Eric could not answer well about the long vowel sound word pairs. In case of the questions are different multisyllabic word pairs, Eric got wrong in the test even though the questions are composed of exactly same words or he knew the meaning of the word. On the other hand, consonant blends pairs are relatively quite easily discriminated by Eric. He could distinguish well the differences of the initial phonemes such as /br/ and /cr/. This result implicated that only three weeks treatment has not the significant positive effect on the young preschooler's discrimination ability of words' initial phonemes. Phonological awareness is not quickly attained within the short period of exposures, and discriminating the phonemes of words is much difficult especially when the phonemes are not existed in the native language (e.g., /l/). In addition, discrimination of initial phoneme of long vowel sounds words and multisyllabic words is much more difficult than short vowel sound words. Even though Eric could distinguish the phonemes in the short vowel word pairs, he could not discriminate the same phonemes in the multisyllabic word pairs.

There are some limitations in this research. First, phoneme discrimination test itself is difficult for young preschooler and the question numbers are small to analyze fully about awareness of initial phonemes. Second, the examples that the researcher gave Eric to explain how to do the test by modeling may affect the test results. When the examples were ban-van in the pretest 2, Eric might be confused whether they have same initial phonemes or not.

However, though there are some limitations, some invaluable findings were found through observations. First, Eric could have natural chances to listen to the discrete English phonemes while reading storybooks. It would be helpful to make child understand that there are onset and rime in one word. Second, Eric could have opportunity to speak English words when the researcher had a pause after saying the initial phoneme of the word. He started to spontaneously say the words in English after listening the onsets when after he accustomed reading the storybooks. Moreover, Eric was more engaged in reading storybooks when the indirect syllable splitting task was used. Indirect syllable splitting task was used as a cue helping Eric speaking in English instead of using direct asking "What's this in English?". Third, Eric seems to learn the way of pronouncing the initial phoneme of the words even though the researcher didn't explain or teach him. Especially, Eric couldn’t pronounce /l/ at all when this research was started, but he showed that he started to be able to pronounce the /l/ sound at the end of this research though he is not perfectly detect the phoneme /l/ in the tests.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, though there are some opinions that preschoolers are too young to learn phonological awareness (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997; Elkind, 1987; Olfman, 2003), there is no critical evidence that we need to postpone phonological awareness instruction until children reach kindergarten age (Phillips et al., 2008). Phonological
Awareness can be developed from the preschool period (Lonigan, Burgess, & Anthony, 2000; Ehri & Roberts, 2006; Lonigan, 2006; Phillips, Clancy-Menchetti, & Lonigan, 2008).

And for young preschoolers, interest and enjoyment are the most important things. It goes without saying that boredom reduces the efficacy even though some books are suitable for teaching or learning phonological awareness. Parents and teachers should pay attention to their children's interest when they read books to them.

Reference


Comparison of the Effects of Timed Repeated Oral Reading of Partner
and Independent Groups on Reading Fluency of Young Korean EFL Learners*

Jennifer M. Yi
(Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)

Introduction

In second language (L2) and foreign language (FL) contexts, reading fluency development has often been ignored (Grabe, 2009). L2 and FL classrooms have rather heavily focused their attention on helping students improve their reading comprehension, which has caused these L2 learners to become slow and inefficient readers. In the same vein, there is a general understanding that reading fluency can be developed as overall language proficiency develops. Thus, reading fluency training instruction was offered typically to L2 learners in the later stages of their development, or to university level or older learners.

However more recently, educators and researchers have begun recognizing the importance of reading fluency instruction. They believe that it is critical for L2 learners to develop reading fluency to become fluent readers from the early stages (Cohen, 2011) of language development. Especially in FL contexts, as young L2 learners begin developing their literacy skills, they need to also master decoding skills. Without an ability to process words or text automatically and accurately or skillfully at lower levels, L2 learners’ comprehension degrades because their attention does not go beyond word-by-word meaning due to cognitive overload. Thus, learners will not reach the high level of reading comprehension necessary to develop their literacy skills. Therefore, L2 learners must develop fluency skills right from the beginning. In this way, they can recognize words quickly and read fast, and at the same time, understand the reading materials that they engage in (Johns & Berglund, 2006).

L2 reading fluency can be developed through repetitive practice. For example, previous L2 studies have claimed repeated (oral or silent) reading practices to be essential (Samuels, 1979). Repeated reading practices involve a student reading a specific passage multiple times to a teacher, a peer or by oneself to increase their recognition of sight words and phrases, which eventually affects their reading fluency and comprehension (Blum, Koskinen, Tenant, Parker, Straub, & Curry, 1995). Such practice is known to be effective in both L2 and FL contexts, especially for young children (O’Shea, Sindelar, & O’Shea, 1985), in bridging the decoding and reading comprehension skills needed to become fluent L2 readers.

* This presentation is a reanalysis of the Master’s thesis written by Lee Min Jung which compared timed repeated partner and individual reading on the development of young EFL learners’ reading fluency and their reading perspectives. The study was conducted under the guidance of the presenter. This work was sponsored by Hankuk University of Foreign Studies research foundation in 2014.
For meaningful reading fluency practices, L2 studies have investigated the effects of the repeated reading method in a variety of formats, such as computer-assisted repeated reading (Thaler et al., 2004), repeated oral reading (Martinez & Roser, 1985); timed repeated reading (Chang & Millett, 2013; Chun, 2010; Park, 2010) and paired or partner repeated reading (Goldsmit-Conley & Barbour, 2011; Yurick et al., 2006). However, the studies on repeated reading have focused on examining the effect on reading comprehension only. (Chang & Millett, 2013), indicating a close connection between reading speed and comprehension. Yet, there are few studies on the effects of timed repeated oral reading for beginning EFL readers, particular young learners. More specifically, there is a lack of studies comparing the effects of timed repeated oral reading of partner and independent groups on the reading fluency of young EFL learners. Working with a partner in partner reading, where partners can keep records as they read along silently with their partner, provide a chance for peer- and self-correcting errors, which can enhance the reading fluency skills of L2 learners more than when they work independently. Therefore, the main objective of the present study was to investigate the effects of timed repeated oral reading of partner and independent groups on young EFL learners’ reading fluency, and also to compare improvements made by these two groups in reading rates, reading comprehension and reading accuracy.

Research Methods

Participants: A total of 40 sixth-grade students participated in the present study. All students attended G public elementary school, located in Seoul, Korea. These students were asked to volunteer in the after-school English program. The program offered two 30-minute English lessons per week, designed to help them improve mainly their reading skills. The 40 students were randomly assigned to two groups of timed repeated oral reading: partner reading (PR) or independent reading (IR). They were all similar in several aspects, such as age (all thirteen years old), proportion of boys and girls, L1 background (Korean), and English learning experience.

The PR and the IR groups were found to be comparable according to the results of independent sample t-tests using their pretest scores. That is, the results found no significant difference between these two groups for reading speed (t=-0.08, df=38, p=0.94, at p > 0.01), reading comprehension (t=-0.35, df=38, p=0.73, at p > 0.01) and reading accuracy (t=-0.93, df=38, p=0.36, at p > 0.01).

Materials: The present study adopted a total of 23 passages from Reading Juice for Kids: Level 3 & 4 (Macketal., 2008). Three texts were used for the practice session and the pretest and posttest (one for each session, and the remaining 20 texts were assigned as reading tasks throughout 10 English lessons. All texts shared similar topics and had a relatively equal word count (ranging from 142 to 165, an average of 152 words) and a similar reading level. These reading materials were chosen specifically for their readability and appropriateness for beginners of elementary school students.

Pretest and posttest: In order to examine the improvements the partner and independent groups made on reading rate, accuracy and comprehension, and also to compare the improvements these two groups made after receiving the reading intervention, all 40 students were given the tests before and after the experiment in the same manner. Both tests followed the same procedure and incorporated the same text. In examining their reading rates, the participants
were asked to read a text aloud twice and record their reading times in seconds on the form, which were later converted into words per minute (wpm). An online stopwatch was displayed in front of the class and all students followed the teachers’ instructions. Students’ oral reading tasks were audio-recorded, and their reading accuracy was measured by marking down their phonological reading mistakes. Upon completing the reading task, they were then given five comprehension-check (three multiple-choice and two gap-filling) questions.

**Data Collection Procedure:** During the 7-week period, the after-school sessions took place twice a week for a total of 12 sessions. In the first week, participants were given a short practice session on timed repeated oral reading. After the practice session, they were given a pretest, requiring them to do a timed repeated oral reading and answer comprehension-check questions. The pretest session was audio-recorded. The participants were then randomly divided into two timed repeated oral reading groups: partner reading (PR) and independent reading (IR).

The actual study was administered during five weeks. In each 30-minute class, both PR and IR groups received the same reading instruction for pre-reading and post-reading activities, but the during-reading activities involved participants engaging in timed repeated oral reading activities either with a partner or independently. Students in the PR group first read the text twice. Their partner recorded each reading time – how long it took them to complete the reading of the text – and also marked down pronunciation mistakes as they read along silently. The students then answered the comprehension-check questions. After the task was completed, roles were switched using a different text. Individuals in the IR group, on the other hand, conducted the task all by themselves: they kept their own reading time, checked their own mistakes, and completed the comprehension-check questions. In the seventh week, posttests were administered using the same procedure from the pretest sessions.

**Data Analysis:** Students’ reading speed was converted from reading time in seconds to wpm using a formula presented by Park (2010). Descriptive statistics, paired t-tests and independent sample t-tests were used to measure the three areas related to reading fluency: speed, comprehension and accuracy. The p-value was set to 0.01 considering the small sample size. Cohen’s d tests were also administered to measure the effect size.

**Findings and Discussion**

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of timed repeated oral reading on reading rates, reading comprehension and reading accuracy of both the partner reading (PR) and independent reading (IR) groups. The study also compared the improvements made by the PR versus IR groups in their reading fluency skills through the intervention. Overall, the L2 learners in both groups improved their reading fluency skills after receiving timed repeated oral reading practices, but the groups were not comparable.

First, the study found that students in the PR group significantly improved their reading fluency skills after they engaged in timed repeated oral reading of 20 passages repeatedly. For example, the results from paired t-tests for the PR group revealed a statistically significant increase in their reading rates by 23 wpm (19%) and reading comprehension level by 0.85 points (28%), with an accompanying decrease in reading mistakes by 3.65 times in
frequency (52%). The students in the PR group read the L2 texts faster and more accurately, and at the same time, understood the texts much better through the timed repeated oral reading practices. That is, these students made significant improvements on their reading rates, reading comprehension and reading accuracy after receiving the reading intervention.

The IR group also improved their reading fluency skills after timed repeated oral reading practices were given. For example, according to the results from paired t-tests, the group significantly increased by 15 wpm (12%) on their reading rates with an accompanying decrease in reading mistakes by 2.35 times (31%). However, even though the group increased their reading comprehension level by 0.35 points (11%), the results were not statistically significant. That is, the students in the IR group significantly improved their reading rates and reading accuracy after receiving the reading intervention, but made only a marginal improvement in their reading comprehension. In other words, these students read the L2 texts faster and more accurately, but at a similar level of understanding.

When these two groups were compared, the independent sample t-tests results indicated that the PR and IR groups were not comparable in terms of their gains in reading fluency skills after receiving the timed repeated oral reading treatment. The initial reading rates, reading comprehension and reading accuracy scores of these two groups were comparable or at the same level, and after receiving the treatment, both PR and IR groups improved their reading fluency skills. That is, there was a significant effect of the treatment on reading fluency of both the PR and IR groups, with the exception that the IR group also improved their reading comprehension. However, when the two groups were compared on their improvements, the results did not show any significant differences. In other words, it was difficult to tell which group improved more from the reading intervention in these three areas of reading fluency. Although the two groups were not comparable, the PR group, indeed, had a slightly higher facilitative effect of timed repeated oral reading on enhancing L2 learners’ reading rates (by 8.3 wpm or 7%), reading comprehension (by 0.5 point or 7%) and reading accuracy (by 1.3 times in frequency or 21%), as compared to that of the IR group.

Overall, the study confirmed the effectiveness of timed repeated oral reading activities for both PR and IR groups in enhancing these young EFL learners’ reading rates, reading comprehension and reading accuracy, except for those in the IR group with no significant improvement on their reading comprehension. However, there was no difference between groups in terms of improvement in reading fluency skills after receiving the reading intervention. The results of this study are in line with previous studies on reading rates (Chang & Millet, 2013; Chun, 2010, Park, 2010; Yurick et al., 2006). Previous findings also insist that timed repeated reading activity facilitate improving EFL learners’ reading comprehension (Chang & Millett, 2013; Goldsmith-Conley & Barbour, 2011; Park, 2010, Yurick et al., 2006). In the same vein, Gorsuch & Taguchi (2010) imply that this practice helps EFL students read more quickly and efficiently. Furthermore, the present study may not have shown dramatic increases or decrease in their reading progress because both groups engaged in fluency enhancement activities with only five comprehension-check questions per reading. Different results on the effects of L2 learners reading comprehension may appear with an increase in the total number of questions given to participants. Previous findings insist that timed repeated reading activities facilitate improvements in EFL learners’ reading comprehension (Goldsmith-Conley & Barbour, 2011; Park,
2010, Yurick et al., 2006). The short period of practice in the present study might also have caused the limited comparison between the two groups.

The present study has revealed the importance of focusing on helping young L2 learners in FL classroom develop their reading fluency through various reading interventions such as timed repeated oral reading. Furthermore, such activities through independent or cooperative learning with a partner can also facilitate reading fluency skills and encourage them to become fluent and successful L2 readers.

References


Bio Data:

Jennifer M. Yi has a Philosophy of Doctor Degree in Foreign Language Education (English) from the University of Pittsburgh. She is a full-time instructor in the Graduate School of Education, Hankuk University of Foreign Studies. Her research interests are in English as a foreign language teaching and learning, bilingualism, and second language acquisition.
Concurrent Session F: Literacy Education
[Room 302]

Chair: Kyungsuk Chang
(Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation)

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<th>TIME</th>
<th>PRESENTATION</th>
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<tr>
<td>15:00-15:30</td>
<td>Youn-Hye Youn (Seoul Sangdo Elementary School) &amp; Hae-ri Kim (Seoul Nat'l Univ. of Education)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Effects of Dramatic Play Based on Picture Storybooks on Elementary English Learning</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>15:30-16:00</td>
<td>Kyoungah Han (Bakwoon Elementary School)</td>
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<td></td>
<td><em>Leveled Reading Program</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>16:00-16:30</td>
<td>Hyunjoo Kim (Gyeonggi Gunpo Elementary School)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Developing Oral Production Skills for Korean Primary EFL Learners through Retelling Stories</em></td>
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</table>
Effects of Dramatic Play Based on Picture Storybooks

on Elementary English Learning

Youn-Hye Youn (Seoul Sang-do Elementary School)
Hae-Ri Kim (Seoul National University of Education)

I. Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate the implementation of teaching elementary English based on dramatic play using English picture storybooks in an EFL setting, and to explore the development of learners' English-speaking proficiency and the influence on the learners' creativity development. To do this, learners read picture storybooks related to their lives and performed dramatic play with their group members. In order to attain the objective, the following research questions are proposed:

1) How do learners develop their English-speaking proficiency from dramatic play using picture storybooks?
2) How does dramatic play using picture storybooks influence learners' creativity development?

II. Theoretical Background

1. English Education Based on Dramatic Play

Dramatic play is the expressional play composed of the main topics and affairs from learners’ daily life. According to Welsch(2008), the book-related pretend play is that preschoolers could be encouraged to play with familiar stories through rich experiences with literature and opportunities to play with related props. By deriving from the pretend play, this study helps to the learners have the opportunities to make dramas based on picture storybooks with related props.

English educational values of dramatic play are as follows: first, dramatic play that makes situations in reality is able to improve learners’ authentic communication ability. Second, learners are able to develop their listening, speaking, reading, and writing comprehension through dramatic play. Third, dramatic play gives English learning motivation to learners and improves their interest and confidence.

2. Picture Storybook in Elementary English Education

Picture storybooks have the great educational value for elementary English learners. The learners can get chance to offer meaningful language abundantly through picture storybooks(Pugh, 1989). Furthermore, the learners absorbed spontaneously in picture storybooks can learn contents and language all at once(Vardell, Hadaway, & Young, 2006).
Picture storybooks provide various examples of language usage and skills in the context for learners, so that they will be able to improve their ability of English usage. The meanings of the educational value of the picture storybooks are: First, learners can be provided with meaningful language data through the text and improve their language skills, coincidently. Second, the picture storybooks make learners’ interest be better and self-motivation to learn English. Third, learners promote both creativity and imagination as the picture storybooks (Kim, 1999). Fourth, the picture storybooks make deepen learners’ understanding of other cultures.

English lessons using the picture storybooks have various activities. According to Kim (2013), teaching-learning activities using the picture storybooks are multiply subdivided into storytelling, literature discussion, QAR (Question-Answer Relation), story structure, writing journals, performing arts, and so on. These activities are utilized in many studies and have the educational effects.

3. Developing Creativity Education in Elementary English Learning

Educational elements of creativity that is submitted by Mun et al. (2011) need to realize the creative education in the field of English learning. These consist of three elements. First, cognitive elements: divergent thinking, critical thinking, problem-solving capability, etc. Second, dispositional elements: diversity, originality, autonomy, and so on. Third, motivative elements: curiosity, interest, and so on. These elements are enough to be made in English learning.

### III. Method

1. Participants

The experiments were conducted in the 4th grade group organized 12 students at S Elementary School in Seoul. The learners participated in these experiments voluntarily for their English learning. The experiments took place over an 12 weeks period, beginning the third week of June and ending the first week of December 2013.

2. Materials

In these experiments, the researcher used 6 English picture storybooks. These English picture storybooks were selected according to relevance of learners' life and language abilities (Vardell, Hadaway, & Young, 2006).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Writer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>King Bugaboo</td>
<td>Hye-ok Lee / Min-jung Kim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>David Goes to School</td>
<td>David Shannon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Silly Sally</td>
<td>Audrey Wood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Susan Laughs</td>
<td>Jeanne Willis/Tony Ross</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>My Mum</td>
<td>Anthony Browne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Titch</td>
<td>Pet Huchins</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Procedure

In this section, how to proceed the dramatic play lessons has described. There are two stages, each stage is subdivided by three activities.

### Table 2. Framework of the Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Time (min)</th>
<th>What learners did</th>
<th>Learning strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Pre-reading</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>- To guess the content</td>
<td>- Question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- To learn key word</td>
<td>- Brain storming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>During reading</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>- To read the content text</td>
<td>- Reading aloud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Paired-reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-reading</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>- To enhance their vocabulary</td>
<td>- Drawing four-frame cartoons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- To write other ending</td>
<td>- Mind-map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dramatic</td>
<td>Opening sense</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>- Warm-up</td>
<td>- Salad game</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Mirror game</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Making Drama</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>- To play the drama</td>
<td>- Using the dramatic conventions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Making dramatic play to use props</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ending</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>- To share their thought</td>
<td>- Writing journal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3. Sample Lesson Plan Using Susan Laughs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Time (mins.)</th>
<th>Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-reading</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>- To find works of their power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- To share works of a student’s power with other classmates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- To learn key word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During reading</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>- To listen the content / To read aloud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- To guess the ending</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Paired-reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-reading</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>- To draw Susan revealing her expression and acting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- To talk that students were Susan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opening sense</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>- To review last lesson (re-reading)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- To share works of students’ power if they were Susan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- To write a letter to Susan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Hot seating*: A student to become Susan sits on the hot seat, other students read their letter. And then the student answer the letter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making Drama</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>- To become Susan that the students use various props and change them (Props: wig, stick, cap, blackboard, chocks, colorpencils, desks, chairs, papers, books, pencil cases, and so on)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ending</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>- To share their thoughts about Susan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Data Collection and Analysis

Data were collected from various sources including questionnaires, transcripts from classroom activities, worksheets, teacher's field notes, interviews and learners' comments. Collected data were analyzed in a qualitative manner.

IV. Results

1. Improving Oral Language Proficiency

By reading storybooks and doing dramatic play, learners in the study could improve oral language proficiency. In this process, learners first understood a broad experience of communication through reading English picture storybooks. The first finding is that learners used to utilize the sentences in the picture storybooks but extend the key words in dramatic play. They changed the expressions which was unfamiliar or difficult for them to the easy expressions. The learners understood the contents of the picture storybooks completely. With this in mind, they communicated with each other making the new dialogue which was connected their life.

Second, based on the understanding of the story, they could produce English-speaking proficiency with the dramatic play. They could expand their English-speaking proficiency beyond the text; global themes, expansion and extension of story content, integration of real pretend and props changed.

2. Developing Creativity in Elementary English Education

The learners grew language learners with creativity. First of all, they improved in creativity: originality, diversity and problem-solving capability. In addition, the learners encouraged interests and confidence in English by the dramatic play. So that, Dramatic play based on picture storybooks had positive effect on the learners' communication skills.

V. Implication

Based on the result of this study, there are some positive implications. First, dramatic play based on picture storybooks can be used as chance to communicate. Second, dramatic play based on picture storybooks offer authentic communication situations to learners. Third, through group working of the dramatic play, learners can make up for their weak points and cooperate for common goals.

Despite the positive outcome, this study has limitations to overcome. First, this study has several limitations that generalize all elementary English education as this study was composed of 12 students in an after school program.

* Students were allowed speaking in Korean for depth of discussion.
Second, this study is for English-speaking proficiency students from dramatic play using picture storybooks. So, the
teacher cannot help each student’s English-writing proficiency.

This study concluded with the following suggestions. First, further research should be carried out on dramatic play
based on picture storybooks concerning the elementary English curriculum. Second, by devising various writing
activities for follow-up activities of dramatic play based on picture storybooks, students can develop their
English-writing proficiency as well as English-speaking proficiency. Third, for follow-up studies, It is provided that
appropriate children literature texts and method of dramatic play which have various levels and contents for dramatic
play.

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Leveled Reading Program

Kyoung-ah Han
(Baekwoon Elementary School, Uiwang City, Gyeonggido)

I. Introduction

‘When I was a tutor at Virginia Elementary school in USA (2006) the first thing that my tutee mentioned to me was that her reading level was 1.5. There was no official library but a room which was filled with books. All the books were in different baskets and the baskets labeled with numbers.

I learned that the numbers were for different reading levels. My tutee explained to me that she was supposed to read books from her reading level basket. It was somewhat a shock to me to see a room that was filled with so many books and baskets. After that experience, I was strongly inspired to study more about the leveled reading program in depth. I did research regarding the leveled reading program for several years. I would like to share the”leveled reading program” that I converted to the Korean elementary school program. Fundamentally it was based on the guided reading program.

II. Leveled Reading Program

After I came back to Korea, I started to search for leveled reading programs such as a guided reading program and AR program (Accelerated Reading Program). At last, my “leveled reading program” got shape in 2011. The program consists of several aspects .e.g. reading levels, placement tests, teaching reading strategy and reading maintenance. I introduced this reading program to the grade 6th students in 2011-2012. At the beginning of the first semester, 28 students were identified as low level speakers of English through a placement test. Most of them didn’t know how to read and worst of all they didn’t even know the alphabet. As a result, they improved a lot in their English by the ‘leveled reading program”.

I. Placement test

All students took a placement test. At the beginning of March (2012), depending on what the scores were, students were placed to one of the levels 1-5. The placement test was based on their previous grade of English. The test consisted of basic phonics, matching the word to the picture, reading comprehension and writing essay - particularly designed for the high level students. Consequently, I made a definition of the reading levels as follows.
### 2. Mentor-Mentee System

**How I managed the Mentor-Mentee System in each group.** As a result of their English test scores, 5 or 6 students were selected as English readers of each group. They played the role as mentors in the groups and 5 or 6 students of lower levels were placed in each group as mentees. In other words, there are one mentor, one mentee and 2-4 average level students in a group. I requested the mentors in the groups to help the mentees in difficulties while participating in class activities. In addition, I managed to create a class environment to encourage the mentees to ask a mentor for help.

Mentees made greater effort to participate in the class activities since a mentor was in charge of a group instead of the teacher. I tried to design my English lessons to give as much opportunities as possible to help a mentee. Through this system, a mentee was eager to ask the other students whenever they face learning difficulties.

### 3. Leveled Reading Program

**How I managed ‘leveled English reading program’.** All students are placed on a level according to their scores of a placement test. They were provided with a list of books for each level. I tried to select books that would motivate students to read. I searched for books at the public library and the school library in order for students to have easy access. In order to study English, I think it’s very important for students to read English books. Students were supposed to bring their English books to class and read the book for five minutes at the beginning of the class. At first, there were many students who didn't like to read English books. However, as time went by, students got more exposure to English books and were more comfortable by reading them. The “leveled reading program” had a great impact on the improvement of the students’ reading abilities. Additionally, it contributed to a better understanding of English vocabulary and sentence construction. Students could participate in reading marathons spontaneously since they had a vivid and actual goal which was moving to a higher level.
4. After School Class for Low Level Students

Underachiever after school teaching program. Underachieved students were selected based on English scores of a level test early March (2012). As a result, 23 students were identified as underachievers, including seven (7) students that did not know even the alphabet. I analyzed the English learning skills of individuals and considered a customized teaching plan for each student. All English teachers in the school, i.e., three (3) Korean teachers and one (1) native speaker taught 23 students twice a week after school.

The most difficult part was to motivate students to participate in a class continuously, because they had no interest to learn English. In order to solve the problem, we discussed the learning capability of each student and the necessity of a customized teaching program rather than private education with parents telephonically and required their co-operation. I conducted a customized underachiever after school program in co-operation with teachers, students and parents.

Students attended the tailored after-school program twice a week. They learned basic English vocabulary and grammar. Students read six (6) English books per week according to their different English levels. It was a self-directed program and I concentrated on the individual in the learning process. Students voluntarily complete daily tasks. Surprisingly, the “leveled reading program” resulted into underachiever students to be able to naturally acquire numerous vocabulary and they also could understand the contents of the books much better, once the number of books has gone beyond a hundred (100) per student.

III. Closing

It was a difficult time for both the students and me at the beginning of the ‘Leveled Reading Program’. However,
I can assure every one of you that this program works well on the Elementary school level. I realized that the students’ English improved considerably. Due to this result they were willing to read more English books and participate ‘after school class’ spontaneously. If we can tailor the “Leveled Reading Program” skillfully, this program will play an essential role in the improvement of students’ English.

<토픽 주제>

1. How can we motivate the students’ to read English books spontaneously?
2. How can we determine the students’ English level?
Developing Oral Production Skills for Korean Primary EFL Learners through Retelling Stories

Hyun-Joo Kim
(Gyeonggi Gunpo Elementary School lena04@daum.net)

I. INTRODUCTION

The purposes of this study were to explore the process of implementing retelling based on storybooks in a Korean primary EFL setting, and to investigate the development of children’s speaking skills and aspects of their English speaking. The participants were instructed to read and retell stories. The following research questions were proposed:
1) How do children develop their English text understanding and speaking skills through retelling? 2) What are the notable aspects of children’s English speaking based on retelling storybooks?

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

1. Stories in EFL learning
   1) Stories as a language resource
      There are a number of benefits to using stories in primary English learning. First, stories are one of the good language resources in EFL setting. Therefore, teachers should support their children who are beginners of English learning to read good stories which are rich in language experience(Kim, 2011). Second, stories are motivating and fun. Children develop positive attitudes towards the foreign language through stories. Stories exercise the imagination and are useful tools in linking the fantasy and imagination with the child’s real world(Ellis & Brewster, 1991). Third, stories help children learn language easily and in more meaningful ways(Wright, 2008).

   2) Using stories for language development
      Teachers use various activities to improve children’s speaking skills in elementary English class such as game, chant and song. Nevertheless, there are many children who are shy and uncomfortable in speaking English. In fact, in EFL setting, they don’t have enough opportunities to speak English, and they are also afraid of making mistakes when they speak. Therefore, teachers give children a safe and supportive environment to practice speaking English in their classroom. Meanwhile, researchers in elementary school in Korea have found that stories are useful materials to build speaking fluency. Children’s oral language developed successfully through the activity-based storytelling program(Kim & Jung, 2011).

2. Retelling in language learning
   1) Retelling as a Post-reading Activity.
After children read the story, teacher should check their comprehension and make them expand their language learning through providing various responding activities(Kim, 2011). Retelling consists of reading to a story and then orally reconstructing the key elements. Researchers have found that retelling is an instructional strategy that helps children to improve oral language complexity, story comprehension, and understanding of story structure(Morrow, 1985).

2) Applying to retell the story for language development
Retelling is flexible. Therefore, it can be done in a different ways: with a partner, in a small group, as a round robin activity, as an interactive activity with the teacher, into a tape recorder or video camera(Shaw, 2005). Retelling offers children a opportunity to practice listening and speaking in front of the class. Retelling also showed what they have and have not understood after reading. Therefore teachers can use retelling as a measure of checking children’s comprehension.

Ⅲ. METHOD

1. Research Period

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Period</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planning and Preparation</td>
<td>- Studying theoretical background</td>
<td>2012. 03 - 2012. 04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Planning the experiment</td>
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<td>- Pilot study</td>
<td>2012. 05 - 2012. 08</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Complementary measurements taken to the lesson program</td>
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<tr>
<td>Implementation &amp; Collecting Data</td>
<td>- Classroom experiment</td>
<td>2012. 09 - 2012. 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Collecting data from various sources</td>
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<tr>
<td>Data Analysis</td>
<td>- Analyzing data</td>
<td>2013. 01 - 2013. 06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Participants
The participants of this study were 10 primary school children from G elementary school. The researcher opened an after-school English class. There were 6 fifth graders and 4 sixth graders who wanted to take that class. According to the survey done before the experiment, most of them wanted to improve their speaking and writing skills among the four skills of English. They also answered that they were interested in developing speaking skills to communicate with others in English.
3. Materials
In this experiment, the researcher used six English storybooks that were easy to find five key elements to retell the story: setting, characters, problem, resolution and conclusion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Contents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>King Bidgood’s in the Bathtub</td>
<td>Audrey Wood</td>
<td>It is the story that the king refuses to leave his bathtub and rule the kingdom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>Penguin</td>
<td>Polly Dunbar</td>
<td>It is the story of an outgoing boy who is given a reticent penguin as a present.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-7</td>
<td>Don’t Do That!</td>
<td>Tony Ross</td>
<td>It is the story of a girl whose finger gets stuck in her nose.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7-9</td>
<td>Farmer Duck</td>
<td>Martin Waddell</td>
<td>It is the story of a poor duck that is overworked by a lazy farmer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-11</td>
<td>The Stray Dog</td>
<td>Marc Simont</td>
<td>It is the story of a family who finds a stray dog.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-13</td>
<td>Piggybook</td>
<td>Anthony Brown</td>
<td>It is the story of a mom, domestic drudge to her husband and two sons.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

4. Procedure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>What students did</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Before Reading</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>· To check vocabulary · To build background information · To make prediction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During Reading</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>· To read the storybook · Reading aloud, choral reading · To learn vocabularies and sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 ~ 4 (Retelling)</td>
<td></td>
<td>· To identify five key elements of the story · Teacher modeling of retellings · To practice retelling · Group retellings, paired retellings, individual retellings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After Reading</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>· To evaluate students retelling · Self assessment, teacher assessment · To share the responses</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

< table 2 > Selected texts

< table 3 > Lesson Model
5. Data Collection & Analysis

The data were collected from various resources including transcripts from classroom activities, worksheets, retelling checklists, children’s responses to retelling, questionnaires, teacher field notes and interviews; all of which were observed through qualitative analysis. The quantitative method was also used to analyze speaking fluency tests.

IV. RESULTS

The followings are the results of this study: the first finding is that the children showed the deeper understanding of a text by analyzing the structure of the text and then developed English speaking skills through retelling. The teacher used various questions to assist children in identifying the five key elements that make up a story: setting, characters, problem, resolution and conclusion. Children created a holistic story map to focus on both the overall story structure and individual story elements.

Additionally, the children at the early stage in this class were helped to realize that retelling was not the memorizing of a text, but the transforming of a text into their own words. The teacher modeled the retelling of a text and gave opportunities for practice. The teacher also used retelling props such as aprons, triaramas and a variety of other items to help children remember the various elements of the story. As a result, the children developed text understanding and speaking skills by voluntarily participating in retelling.

The second finding is that the children showed various aspects of English speaking when they retold the story. First, they could restate the ideas or events of the story in their own words. They changed words and created new sentences to express the ideas of the story. They also followed some basic rules of summarizing when they retold the story. In other words, they reduced the length of a passage through deleting repeated ideas, deleting unimportant details and assembling lists into a general statement.

Additionally, they showed different aspects of retelling according to the characteristics of the storybook: pattern, genre, theme and page. Through the pattern of the storybook, they had a difficulty in reconstructing the key elements, though they understood the meaning of the text easily. With one realistic storybook, they could make connections between their lives and the text. On the other hand, another realistic storybook overwhelmed the children with difficult themes and lots of pages; children were bored with reading and complained of difficulties in retelling the story.

References

Shaw, D. (2005). Retelling strategies to improve comprehension: Effective hands - on strategies for fiction and

Appendix

<Story Map>

이야기의 구조 파악하기( The Stray Dog )

• 이 책을 읽고 이야기의 배경, 인물, 사건, 결과, 주제를 기록하세요.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>시작</th>
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</tbody>
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결말:
Concurrent Session G: Vocabulary Teaching and Learning  
[Room 303]

Chair: Sangdo Woo  
(Gongju National University of Education)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>PRESENTATION</th>
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<tr>
<td>15:00-15:30</td>
<td>Hye Sun Lim (Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Analyzing Young Learners Textbook according to Vocabulary Difficulty</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15:30-16:00</td>
<td>Chang-Young Kang (Woongyang Elementary School)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Enhancing English Vocabulary Ability of 5th Graders through Keeping a Vocabulary Journal (K)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16:00-16:30</td>
<td>Yeoim Lee (Incheon Geumgok Elementary School)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>The Effect of Collaborative Play on Vocabulary Development of English in the Primary Schools</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Analyzing Young Learners Textbook
According to Vocabulary Difficulty

Hye Sun Lim
(Major in English Education for Young Learners
The Graduates School of Education
Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)

To use a language, the most important thing to consider is vocabulary. Wilkins(1972) said without grammar it is possible to communicate but without vocabulary communication is not available. Vocabulary is the core in learning a language. Therefore, in language learning, a successful language acquisition can mean learning an exact vocabulary(Carmeron, 2001). Moreover, vocabulary is the main thing to be required from the second language learners (Schmitt, 2010).

English is a popular language all over the world. English education is being issued to the countries using English as a foreign language(EFL). Korea is one of the countries where English education is being issued, and now English is almost a main subject to learn and teach. Even though the Ministry of Education has designated to start English education from grade three in elementary, there are many private schools offering English education for the first graders and even for preschoolers. Various kinds of methods and materials are being developed by lots of publishing companies. However, the coursebooks, especially the textbooks for young learners, are published without any basis of educational curriculum. Coursebooks are being copied from foreign countries and the contents are not appropriate to the age and level of the young learners(Noh, 1998). These facts cause the learners to feel the burden of learning a second language. Zimmerman(2009) said while the learners learn a second language, they feel the burden in vocabulary difficulty and complication. Therefore, vocabulary difficulty should be processed consequently and to have effective language learning the input should be a little higher than the level of the learner(Krashen, 1981).

Considering these conditions, the purpose of this study is to analyze vocabulary difficulty and find the appropriateness of the coursebooks for young learners. Moreover, the study will compare the coursebooks for analysis of continuity of each level. Therefore, the study will help distinguish the approval of today’s materials. The elements that affect vocabulary difficulty are the number of vocabulary, frequency, word length, sight words, abstract words and concrete words, and word variation. In addition, vocabulary with graph-phonemic relationship is one of the elements that can be used to find the level of difficulty of a coursebook for the early readers.

In order to analyze the level of difficulty of vocabulary in young learners’ English coursebook, the research presents five questions. First, is the number of vocabulary, frequency, word length, and sight words composed appropriately in young learners’ coursebook? Second, is the frequency of abstract words and concrete words well-organized in young learners’ coursebook? Third, is word variation which is inflection, derivation, and compound word composed appropriately in young learners’ coursebook? Fourth, how isthe vocabulary presented according to graph-phonemic relationship? Lastly, how is the continuity between the levels of each coursebook?

Observation of the factors that affect the difficulty will analyze four kinds of young learners’ coursebooks namely
Nobuyoung and Little Genius which are published in Korea. The other two textbooks are Fingerprints and Balloons which are published in foreign countries. The difficulty of each level of the coursebooks mentioned will be investigated. Nobuyoung has a total of forty books and it is composed of four steps which are Pre Step, Step 1, Step 2, and Step 3. Little Genius has three levels which are Circle Level, Star Level, and Heart Level. Each level has 2 special books, so it is composed of a total of 36 books. Fingerprints and Balloons which are published in foreign countries are both composed of level one, two, and three which has a total of three books.

In order to conduct the research lextutor program was used as a research tool. Lextutor is a corpus-based word analysis tool which has a range of resources for both teaching and learning vocabulary and grammar. The number of the vocabulary and the rate of frequency were analyzed by the function of Vocabprofile and Frequency in lextutor. The Spelling function was used for analyzing the word length. Moreover, the function of Familizer was used to find the word variations and was classified into inflective, derivative, and compound word manually. To find sight words, the function of Text lex-compare compared the contents with Dolch(1936) sight words. Concrete and abstract words were analyzed manually. Lastly, vocabulary with graph-phonemic relationship was analyzed using the list of twelve levels based on Chall(1996), Blevins(1999), Bear, Inernizzi, Templeton, and Johnsten(1996).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word form</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CVC (short vowel)</td>
<td>fan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>same ending consonant</td>
<td>bell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCVe, CVCe, CVe</td>
<td>he, apple, hope, pie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVC (Long vowel)</td>
<td>saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCV, CVVC, CVVCC (ai, ay, ea, ee, oa, ow/oo, ou, ow, oi, oy)</td>
<td>wait, food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blend consonant with short vowel (bl, br, cl, cr, dr, fl, fr, gr, gl, pl, pr, st, sl, smt, tr)</td>
<td>sr, sled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Digraphs consonant with short vowel (ch, sh, th, wh, ph, gh, ng)</td>
<td>chunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Digraphs consonant end with -e CCVCe</td>
<td>shine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blend consonant with long vowel</td>
<td>dream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Digraphs consonant with long vowel</td>
<td>blade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silent form</td>
<td>night, knife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irregular verb</td>
<td>chewing, shouted, wishes chapping tries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polysyllabic word</td>
<td>monkey</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After the research, the four kinds of coursebooks were compared according to each level in order to find the continuity among the levels. The consistently increase in the difficulty between each level will affect the continuity. The result of the findings was as the following:

First, the number of the vocabulary is an important element to define the difficulty of the text(Fry, 1963). Too
A much amount of vocabulary can give learners burden. On the other hand less vocabulary gives less motivation. Also the frequency of vocabulary is as important as the number of vocabulary. Vocabulary should appear repeatedly because words cannot be learned just in one glance. Therefore vocabulary should be repeated around 5-16 times and the coursebooks should be mainly composed of high frequency vocabularies (Tomlinson, 1998; Nation, 1990). All the coursebooks increased the number of vocabulary as the level goes higher. The result of the coursebooks published in Korea, Nobuyoung, was 20% in Pre Step, Step 1, Step 3 and 18% in Step 2. In Little Genius the token-type ratio was 14% in Circle and Star Level and 13% in Heart Level. This means the number of type increased as the number of vocabulary increased. However, the number of vocabulary in Nobuyoung did not increase consequently and in Little Genius around 700 words were added in every level. Therefore there was no continuity between each level. The result showed the same in coursebooks published in foreign countries. Fingerprints’ token-type ratio was 6%, 8%, 9% and in Balloons the result was 13%, 16%, 15% by levels. The difficulty of each level in both coursebook was similar. However around 2000 words in Fingerprints and around 900 words in Balloons were added in certain level. In this case the levels did not have connectivity and the coursebooks might give burden to the young learners. Based on the result of the frequency, all of the coursebooks were composed of vocabulary repeated less than ten times. Most of the vocabulary appeared once or twice. This might cause difficulty for the learners. In the case of word length, short-syllable words help the learners to learn and understand faster (Mc Ginnies, Comer, Lacey, 1952). The coursebooks published in Korea and foreign countries contain high rates of one or two-syllable words and have low rate of over three-syllable words. Therefore, the four coursebooks have considered the difficulty in the case of word length. In addition, the rate of the word length did not increase as the level went higher and it did not show any continuity. Sight words are a list of frequently used words which are basic words for young learners to read (Dolch, 1936). Young learners are not familiar with graph-phonemic relationship, so vocabularies such as sight words should be frequently exposed (Lee, 2010). For the coursebooks published in Korea, the rate of sight words increased as the level goes higher. Specifically Nobuyoung consistently increased the rate of sight words and it showed continuity between each level. In addition the first two levels contain less than 50% of sight words. It means there are more graph-phonemic relationship words than sight words. On the other hand, in Little Genius, the first two levels contain around 54% of sight words but in the last level the rate of sight words increased to 66.82%. The difficulty increased in the last level, and it will give burden to the young learners.

For the coursebooks published in foreign countries, the rate of sight words increased as the level get higher but it did not increase consequently in each level. The sight words in Fingerprints showed a big gap between each level. In the case of Balloon, the rate of sight words suddenly increased in a certain level. So the coursebooks published in foreign countries has no continuity between each level.

Secondly, concrete and abstract words are two of the elements that affect the level of difficulty of vocabulary. Concrete words are words that can be perceived by the five senses. An abstract word has no specific visual image. Young learners are in concrete operational stage, so they need more time to understand abstract words (Piaget, 1995; Schwanevflugel & Alkin, 1994). Therefore, coursebooks with more abstract words show high level of difficulty. According to the result of the test conducted to Nobuyoung, as the level of the coursebook went higher the rate of concrete words decreased while abstract words increased. However, Little Genius contains more abstract words than concrete words. All levels contain more than 50% abstract words, specifically in the Circle Level, 66.1% abstract words appeared. In this way Nobuyoung considered the difficulty. So it will be easier to use for the learners but
Little Genius might be difficult. The increase of abstract words was not consequent. Therefore the continuity between each level was not considered. In both coursebooks published in foreign countries, the rate of abstract words increased in every level. However each level of both coursebooks did not show a big gap between the rate of concrete words and abstract words and this might cause difficulty for the learners.

Third, word variation is divided into inflected, derived, and compound word(Carmeron, 2001). Krashen(1981) and Zimmerman(2009) said young learners do not have a prior knowledge of word variation. So, word variation is counted individually. The result of word variation in coursebooks both for those that are published in Korea and in foreign countries are organized with low rate of word variation. However word variation did not constantly increase and there was no continuity between each level. In addition inflective words such as jumped, eats, and washes have the highest rate in the coursebooks. Inflective words are the easiest among the kinds of word variation. Therefore all the coursebooks considered the difficulty and the high rate of inflected words gives positive effect to the learners. Moreover, from four coursebooks, there were no continuity from each level.

Fourth, English is not a transparent language. The spelling and sound of a word do not correspond. So young learners must understand graph-phonemic relationship(Brich, 2002, Carmen, 2001). The result is analyzed according to the list of twelve levels based on the research of Chall(1996), Blevins(1999), Bear, Inemizzi, Templeton, and Johnsten(1996). All the coursebooks are mainly composed of polysyllabic words and irregular verbs were the second highest. So the coursebooks show difficulty for young learners. However the coursebook published in foreign countries show a positive effect. Fingerprints shows low rate in irregular verbs and Balloons mostly organized the vocabulary in low-leveled word forms.

In the final analysis, four coursebooks were graded into 5points, 3points, and 1point to analyze the difficulty according to the result.

| Chart 2. Overall Analysis Result of Vocabulary Difficulty |
|-----------------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Element                                        | Nobuyoung   | Little Genius  | Fingerprints   | Balloons   |
| Number of vocabulary                          | X (1)       | Δ (3)          | O (5)          | Δ (3)       |
| Frequency                                      | X (1)       | X (1)          | X (1)          | X (1)       |
| Word length                                    | O (5)       | O (5)          | Δ (3)          | Δ (3)       |
| Sight word                                     | X (1)       | O (5)          | Δ (3)          | Δ (3)       |
| Concrete and abstract word                     | Δ (3)       | X (1)          | Δ (3)          | O (5)       |
| Word variation                                 | O (5)       | O (5)          | O (5)          | O (5)       |
| graph-phonemic relationship                   | X (1)       | X (1)          | Δ (3)          | Δ (3)       |
| Total                                          | 17          | 21             | 25             | 25          |

The coursebooks published in Korea, Nobuyoung, got 17points while Little Genius got 21points. The coursebooks published in foreign countries, Fingerprints and Balloons, both had 25points. Comparing the coursebooks published in Korea and foreign countries, both the coursebooks published in foreign countries have more than 20 points while the
coursebooks published in Korea got nearly or less than 20 points. In conclusion, the coursebooks published in foreign countries are well-organized with regards to the difficulty of vocabulary.

On the basis of this research, there are several proposals for future research and analysis of textbooks for young learners.

First, textbooks for young learners should be developed based on the difficulty of vocabulary. Many elements are considered to develop young learners' English textbooks, but the difficulty of vocabulary is one of the elements to be clarified. Secondly, word difficulty should increase in each level, so that the connectivity among words is obvious. The level of word difficulty changes in accordance with the level of the textbook which brings out the effectiveness of language acquisition. Thirdly, a learning method should be presented according to word difficulty of textbooks. Fourthly, the criteria of analyzing young learners’ textbooks should include word difficulty, the availability of English education, and the developmental level of the learners.

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영어 어휘 일지 쓰기를 통한 어휘력 향상 방안
- 초등학교 5학년 학습자를 중심으로 -

Enhancing English Vocabulary Ability of 5th Graders through Keeping a Vocabulary Journal

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I. 서론


따라서 본 연구는 자율적 영어 어휘 학습을 실현할 수 있는 한 방법으로 '어휘 일지 쓰기 기법'을 적용해보고자 한다. 초등학교 5학년 학습자에게 영어 어휘 일지를 쓰게 한 후 어휘력 향상의 정도를 조사하고자 한다. 어휘 일지 쓰기를 할 때 원칙적으로는 아동의 자율성을 허락할 것이지만 모든 아동의 활동 참여와 교육과정에 제시되는 어휘의 학습을 돕기 위하여 연구자의 통제가 어느 정도는 필요할 것으로 여겨진다. 또한 학습자인 영어 어휘 학습에 대한 인식 및 흥미에 변화가 있는지도 살펴볼 것이다. 이 목적을 달성하기 위하여 제2장에서는 어휘 일지의 개념과 학습에 관한 이론적 고찰을 하였으며, 제3장에서는 연구 문제, 연구 대상, 방법 등에 관한 기술할 것이다. 제4장에서는 실험의 결과를 제시하고 논의하며, 마지막 장에서는 앞장의 결과를 근거로 연구의 결론을 이끌어내고 교육적 제언을 하고자 한다.

II. 어휘 학습에서의 자율성

1. 자율적 어휘 학습의 개념과 원리

자율적 혹은 자기 주도적 학습(self-directed learning)의 개념은, Hedge(2001)에 따르면, 1970년대 말부터 다뤄져가기 시작하였고 80년대에는 관련된 수많은 용어들이 만들어질 정도로 활발하게 연구되었다고 한다. 그는 교사들이 제시한 자기 주도적 학습에 대한 정의에 기초하여 자기 주도적 학습자를 다음과 같이 설명하였다. 자기 주도적 학습자는 자신이 무엇을 필요로 하는지를 알고, 목적을 성취하기 위하여 교사와 함께 생산
적으로 학습하고, 교실 안에서 뿐만 아니라 교실 밖에서도 학습을 하며, 독립적으로 자료를 사용하는 방법을 안다. 또한 능동적으로 사고하며, 학습 향상을 위해 학습 전략을 조절한다. 시간을 적절하게 관리하고 분배할 줄 알고, 교사가 자신의 언어 학습을 전적으로 책임질 것으로 기대하지 않는다.

Nation(2001)은 자기 주도적 학습이라고 해서 반드시 학습자 혼자 학습하는 것을 의미하지는 않으며, 교사가 수업을 이끄는 교실 환경에서도 자기 주도적 학습자가 될 수 있다고 하였다. 그는 자기 주도적 어휘 학습자가 되기 위해서는 무엇보다도 학습을 조절하고 책임지려는 태도가 필요하다고 하였다. 그러나 자발적 학습태도는 발전시키기 가장 어려운 것 중의 하나이며 동시에 가장 중요한 것이라고 한다. 대부분의 어휘 학습자들 역시 무엇을 해야 하는지 알지 않으며, 자신들이 하고 있는 것이 효과적이지 않음을 알고 있음에도 불구하고 필요로 하는 변화를 만들기 위해서다. 그리고 다시 자기 주도적 어휘 학습자는 자신이 현재 어떤 접근법을 사용하고 있는지를 자각하고, 접근법의 효과를 성찰해보고, 다른 접근법을 고려해 볼 필요가 있다고 한다. 모든 자율적 학습은 상위인지적 자각(metacognitive awareness)을 포함하고 자율성의 발달에서 성장(reflection)은 매우 중요한 요소가 된다.

Nation(2001)은 자율적인 어휘 학습자에게 필요한 어휘 학습 원리를 제안하였다. 첫째, 학습자는 학습할 어휘가 무엇인지, 그것에 대해 무엇을 학습할지, 어떻게 학습할지, 어떻게 사용할 것인지, 잘 학습하고 사용되었는지를 어떻게 알 수 있을지에 대해 알아야 한다. 둘째, 학습자는 자신의 어휘 양을 지속적으로 증가시키고 동시에 이미 알고 있는 어휘의 의미는 확장시킬 줄 알아야 한다. 셋째, 학습자는 단어의 변화를 알아야 하고 어떤 어휘를 먼저 학습할지를 결정해야 한다. 넷째, 단어를 잊는 것이 무엇인지를 말하는지를 알아야 하고 특정 단어에 대한 정보를 찾아낼 수 있어야 한다. 다섯째, 어휘 사용의 이론에 있는 일반화할 수 있는 언어 체계 즉, 척차, 발음, 어휘 생성 규칙, 언어 등을 잘 알아야 한다. 여섯째, 직접적이고 탐색적학습을 통해 학습결과를 가장 효과적으로 사용할 수 있는 방법을 알아야 한다. 일곱째, 어휘 학습은 의미중심 입력(meaning-focused input), 언어중심 학습(language-focused learning), 의미중심 산출(meaning-focused output), 유창성 발달(fluency development)의 네 가지 부분에 걸쳐 일어나야 한다. 여덟째, 어휘 학습에서 자신의 진보를 자각하고 기뻐해야 한다.

2. 일지 쓰기 기법

학습 일지(study journal)는 학습하고 있는 것을 기록하는 것으로서, 기록의 장점으로는 첫째, 배운 것을 조직하고 비판적으로 평가하게 해주어 자율적 학습에 보다 적극적으로 기여하게 해준다. 둘째, 학습하고 있는 단원의 내용과 학습 결과를 마주하고 새기게 함으로써 학습에서 큰 그림에 초점을 두게 해준다. 셋째, 배우고자 하고 자신의 진보를 되돌아보게 하고 도움이 필요한 곳이 무엇인지 알게 해준다. 넷째, 시험을 위한 보다 효과적인 복습을 용이하게 해준다. 다섯째, 자신의 학습이 더 많은 통제력을 갖게 해준다. 여섯째, 학습하고 있는 단원의 주제와 패턴을 알게 해준다. 마지막으로 당사자도 학습하고 있는 것, 왜 학습하는지에 대하여 보다 창조적으로 생각하도록 도와준다(출처: learningcentre.curtin.edu.au/skills/study_journal.cfm).

도가 긍정적으로 바뀌어 수업에 적극적으로 참여하게 되었고, 수학에 대한 흥미도 향상되었다고 한다. 여러 가지 학습일자가 효과가 있듯이, 어휘일지 쓰기도 어휘 학습에 도움이 될 것으로 생각된다. 어휘 일지에 기록하는 단어는 자신에게 중요하거나 흥미 있는 단어가 될 것이고, 어휘임지는 학습하고 싶은 새로운 단어를 능동적으로 연습하고 기억하는데 도움을 줄 것이다. 인터넷에 소개된 한 어휘일지의 모형에 포함되는 내용은 학습할 단어, 품사와 문법적 정보, 의미, 출력 문장이나 구절, 자신이 연습한 문장 등이다. 의미를 기록할 때에는 관련된 한 두 개만 기록하고, 연습할 문장은 출력 문장과 유사한 맥락이나 패턴을 가진 것이어야 한다(출처: www.learnwithlloyd.com). 그러나 학습자가 어동일 경우에 의미를 글로 적는 것 대신 그림을 그리게 할 수도 있을 것이다. 또한 학습하는 단어를 보면 떠오르는 다른 단어를 기록하게 할 수도 있을 것이다. 이러한 다양한 정보를 기록하고, 정리하는 과정에서 새로운 단어를 효과적으로 습득하게 될 것이다.

Ⅲ. 연구방법

1. 연구 문제

1) 영어 어휘 일지 쓰기가 학습자의 어휘력 향상에 어떠한 영향을 줄 것인가?
2) 영어 어휘 일지 쓰기가 개별 학습자의 어휘 능력에 어떠한 영향을 줄 것인가?
3) 영어 어휘 일지 쓰기가 어휘 학습에 대한 학습자의 인식과 태도에 어떠한 영향을 줄 것인가?

2. 연구대상

본 연구에 참여한 학습자는 연구자가 담임으로 근무하는 경상남도 거창군 일환면에 소재하는 W 초등학교 5학년 1개반 7명으로 구성되며, 지리적, 경제적 여건상 사교육의 혜택을 전혀 받지 못했고 오로지 학교 수업에만 의존하여 영어를 학습해온 결과 영어 능력이 아주 낮은 수준에 머무르고 있다.

3. 실험 기간 및 절차

본 연구의 실험 수업은 2013년 5월에서 7월까지 실시되었으며, 연구대상 선정에서 개별 학습자 연담까지 약 20주가 소요되었다.

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| 개별 학습자 면담 | 10월 말 - 11월 말 | 녹음기록 }
4. 검사 도구

1) 사전, 사후 검사

학습자의 어휘력을 알아보고 어휘 일기 쓰기의 효과를 확인하기 위한 사전 검사지는 본 연구자가 제작하였으며, 40문항으로 구성된다. 이 중 20문항은 초등학교 3-4학년에서 학습하였을 것으로 간주되는 어휘에 기초하였으며, 나머지 문항은 5학년 교과서에 새롭게 제시되는 어휘에 기초하고 있다. 사후 검사는 실험 처치 후 학습자의 어휘력 향상을 알아보기 위하여 사전 검사와 동일한 검사를 사용하여 시행하였다.

2) 중간 검사

영어 어휘 일기 쓰기를 통한 학습자의 어휘력 발달 및 변화를 자세하게 추적하기 위하여 실험 처치 중간에 3회의 중간 검사를 실시하였다. 평가에 사용된 어휘들은 학습자의 어휘 일기에 있는 어휘들로서 학급 전체 어휘인 Our Words와 자기주도적 학습 어휘인 My Words에서 각각 50%씩 채택하였다. 평가 방법은 연구자가 영어 단어를 임의 주면 학습자는 철자와 우리말 뜻을 적는 방식이나 우리말을 임의 주변 영어 철자를 적는 받아쓰기 형태로 진행되었다.

3) 설문 조사

학습자의 영어 어휘 학습에 대한 인식과 태도의 변화를 알아보기 위하여 실험 처치 전, 후에 설문 조사를 실시하였다. 설문지는 영어 어휘 학습에 대한 학습자의 흥미와 태도를 묻는 8개 문항으로 이루어져 있다. 질문에 대한 응답은 ‘매우 그렇다’는 5점에서 ‘매우 그렇지 않다’는 1점에 이르는 5점 척도로 이루어져 있다.

4) 개별 면담

개별 학습자의 영어 학습과 어휘 일기 쓰기 학습법에 관한 인식, 생각, 느낌 등을 알아보기 위하여 면담을 실시하였다. 면담은 실험 수업이 끝난 후 2주째에 연구자와 개별 학습자 간에 일대일로 편안하고 자유로운 분위기 속에서 이루어졌다.

5. 실험 처치

1) 수업 준비

(1) 어휘 일기

학습한 영어 어휘를 기록할 수 있는 어휘 학습지를 연구자가 고안하였다. 이 학습지는 크게 학습자 스스로 알고 싶은 단어를 기록하는 My Words와 학급 전체가 학습하는 단어를 나타내는 Our Words로 구성되었다. 단순히 영어 단어를 적고 우리말로 뜻을 적는 단계에서 그치지 않기 위하여, 그럼으로 표현해보기, 연상되는 다른 단어나 표현 적어보기, 동의어나 반의어 적어보기, 문장 만들어보기 등의 활동을 추가하여 목표 단어의 의미와 활용 능력을 확장하고자 하였다.
영어 어휘 일지 실험

Let's Study English Words!

☆ My Words
말고 싶은 우리말
영어 단어 (그림)
비슷한 말, 반대말
연상되는 단어, 표현

☆ Our Words
말고 싶은 우리말
영어 단어 (그림)
문장을 만들어 봅시다.
비슷한 말, 반대말
연상되는 단어, 표현

(2) 보조 자료 준비 및 활용 방법 지도
학급 내에 설치되어 있는 학습용 컴퓨터 2대, 교사용 컴퓨터 1대를 활용하게 학습자들이 알고 싶은 영어 단어를 탐색하는데 도움을 줄 수 있도록 하였다. 아동 학습자를 위한 삼화가 첨가된 영한사전 3권과 한영사전 2권을 별도로 비치하여 자유롭고 학습이 일어나게 하였다.

2) 수업의 실제
어휘 일지 쓰기를 한 실험 수업은 5월 3주차에 시작하여 7월 4주까지 10주에 걸쳐 주당 3회 실시되었다. 수업은 아침 활동 시간에 시행되었고 매 수업은 대략 20분 정도 소요되었다. 매 수업 시 My words 2개, Our words 2개 총 4개의 단어를 학습하여 주당 12개의 영어 단어를 학습하였다. 거의 동일한 방식으로 3회의 어휘 일지 쓰기 수업을 하고난 후 학습자 간에 서로의 일지를 자유롭게 돌려보는 시간을 가졌다.

6. 자료 분석 방법
실험의 결과 분석은 참여 학습자의 수가 적은 관계로 통계적으로 유의미한 변화를 분석하는 것이 불가능하였다. 따라서 사전, 사후 간의 평균 점수, 표준편차, 백분율의 변화에 의존하여 성취도를 분석하였다. 실험 중간에 실시한 3회의 중간 검사 및 사전 사후 설문 조사도 평균과 백분율의 변화를 분석하였다.

IV. 결과 및 논의

1. 전치적 어휘 성취도

전치적 어휘 성취도 (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>사전</th>
<th>사후</th>
<th>변화량</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>평균점수</td>
<td>표준편차</td>
<td>평균점수</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.28 (48.52)</td>
<td>9.87</td>
<td>42.43 (88.40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

사전, 사후 검사와 중간 검사를 치르는 동안 평균점수가 상당히 향상되었고, 표준편차는 매우 감소한 것으로 보아 전치 학습자들의 어휘력이 매우 향상되었을 뿐만 아니라 상호 간의 성취도 격차도 줄어들었음을 의미한
다.

2. 개별 학습자의 어휘 성취도

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>학습자별 전체 어휘 성취도 (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>학생</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

위 표에 제시된 학습자별 어휘 성취도를 살펴보면 모든 학습자의 성취도가 향상되었음을 알 수 있다. 특히 사전 검사에서 낮은 성취도를 보였던 학습자들의 어휘력이 많이 향상되었음을 알 수 있다.

학습자 어휘의 실험

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>학생</th>
<th>학습한 어휘(My Words)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>afraid, and, answer, back, ask, beautiful, big, breakfast, chimney, climb, clothes, conversation, dance, date, dinner, fast, find, free, give, happy, land, long, lose, luck, lunch, money, scientist, serious, snow, salt, short, slow, small, speak, subway, wallet, weather (37)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>am, at, American, ball, but, clothes, cold, date, die, doctor, fight, fire, fool, heaven, hole, kill, king, knife, light, life, live, lose, money, nell, out, pm, rose, sad, sea, smell, soldier, space, start, stop, they, time, tomorrow, turtle, yesterday, win, wing, zoo (42)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

위 표에 의하면 교육과정 내의 어휘가 교육과정 외의 어휘에 비해 수적으로 많으나 교육과정 외의 어휘 학습에 대한 학습자의 관심도 상당히 높다고 할 수 있다.

3. 어휘 학습에 대한 인식과 태도

1) 설문조사 결과
영어 어휘 학습에 대한 학습자의 인식

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>내용</th>
<th>사전</th>
<th>사후</th>
<th>변화량</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) 영어 공부하는 것이 재미있다.</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) 영어 수업시간에 하는 단어 힘에 영어학력에 도움이 된다고 생각한다.</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) 영어시간 여의의 교과 시간이나 여름에 또또는 사물이나 현상을 영어답어로 표현하고 싶은 것이 있다.</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) 영어 단어를 많이 하는 것과 영어 실력은 관계가 있다.</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) 영어 단어를 많이 알고 싶다.</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) 매주 영어 문장이나 대화를 보거나 들을 때 자신이 애는 단어가 있으면 이해하는데 도움이 된다.</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) 나는 영어 사전을 자주 사용한다.</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>1.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8) 내가 알고 있는 영어단어로 단어공부를 하면 영어실력에 도움이 된다.</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

설문조사 결과 영어 단어에 대한 학습 열의가 증가하였으며, 학습한 영어를 바탕으로 읽기, 듣기 능력도 향상되었다고 여겨진다. 또한 학습자 주도 어휘를 통한 학습이 영어학력에 도움을 주는 것으로 나타났다.

2) 면담 결과
여의 일치 쓰기에 대한 학습자의 생각이나 느낌을 개별면담을 통해 알아본 결과 많은 학습자들이 영어 일치 쓰기를 통해 어휘력이 향상하였다고 답하였다. 또한 지속적으로 영어 영어 일지를 쓰면서 학습자의 학습 능력이 향상하였다고 하였으며 특히 자율적으로 영어 쓰기를 할 수 있게 되었다고 하였다. 그리고 어휘력뿐만 아니라 말하기, 쓰기 등의 다른 영어 능력에도 긍정적인 영향을 주었다고 답하는 등 영어 일치 쓰기에 대한 효과를 나타내었다.

Ⅴ. 결론
초등학교 영어 어휘 일치 쓰기를 통한 5학년 학습자의 어휘력 향상에 대해 알아보기 위하여 관련 문헌 연구와 실험 연구를 실시하였다. 그에 따른 본 연구의 실험 결과를 요약하면 다음과 같다.

첫째, 영어 영어 일치 쓰기 활동은 학습자의 어휘력을 상당히 향상시켰다. 둘째, 학습자들은 자기 주도적으로 학습을 통한 영어 일기를 쓰면서 학습자의 학습 능력이 향상하였다고 하였으며 특히 자율적으로 영어 쓰기를 할 수 있게 되었다고 하였다. 그리고 어휘력뿐만 아니라 말하기, 쓰기 등의 다른 영어 능력에도 긍정적인 영향을 주었다고 답하는 등 영어 일치 쓰기에 대한 효과를 나타내었다.

본 연구의 실험을 진행하고 결과를 해석하는 과정과 관련하여 제한점이 있음을 밝혀둔다. 첫째, 7명의 학습자는 동계적으로 객관적인 결과를 도출하기에 충분하지 못하였다. 둘째, 학습자들의 개인차를 고려하고 학급 전체적으로 학습을 진행하기 위해 학급 어휘를 제시함으로써 완전한 자기주도적 어휘 학습이 이루어지지 못하였다. 그럼에도 불구하고 본 연구는 학습자가 학습한 영어의 객관적 평가 및 특성 분석, 설문 조사, 개별
면담을 통해 어휘 일기 쓰기의 효과에 대해 상세적으로 알아보고자 하였다. 본 연구는 학습자의 자기 주도적 학습을 권장함으로써 영어 어휘력 향상뿐만 아니라 영어 학습에 대한 인식과 태도에도 긍정적인 변화를 주었는 점에서 후속 연구를 위한 유용한 자료가 될 수 있을 것이다.

참고문헌


The Effect of Collaborative Play on Vocabulary Development of English in the Primary Schools

Yeoim Lee
(Geum Gok Elementary School)

I. Introduction

1. Why cooperative plays in ELT?
   Plays can be effective for enhancing students’ English language skills and their interests of the English language. Even if the students do not have much knowledge of the target language, they can understand the gist of what the play is about, and do what they are expected to do during the plays.
   The reasons why cooperative plays need to be used in primary ELT are as follows:
   First, cooperative play involves the division of efforts among the students in order to reach a common goal. In other words, cooperative play is concerned with solving a problem by working together to achieve a target attainment.
   Second, in competitive plays there are ‘winners’ and ‘losers’, on the other hand in cooperative play, everybody wins.
   Third, as Putnam, Markovchick, and Johnson (1996) point out, the effect of cooperative learning on attitudes are evidenced by increases in self-esteem, social acceptance, and teacher ratings of students with disabilities
   Therefore, making the best use of cooperative plays might be helpful in developing students’ linguistic skills and their character development.

2. The purpose of the study
   This study aims to develop an English instruction model using collaborative play and investigate its effects on elementary school students’ English vocabulary development and their character development. In each English lesson, teachers usually use many plays in order to develop students’ language skills and their interests of the English language. However, what the researcher believes is that using competitive plays might demotivate the students’ interests and has negative effects on their English language learning.
   Thus, this study applied some types of cooperative plays to English lessons and examined their effects on students’ English vocabulary learning and their character development.

II. Method

1. Research Questions
   The research questions reflecting the aims of this study are as follows.
   1) What is the effect of the application of cooperative plays on fifth grade students’ vocabulary skills?
2) What is the effect of the application of cooperative plays on fifth grade students’ character development?
3) What is the impact of the application of cooperative plays on the attitudes of fifth grade students’ towards learning English?

2. Participants
Thirty three 5th grade students took part in the study. Their demographic information is as follows

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>the number of students</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Participation</th>
<th>English level</th>
<th>Interest</th>
<th>Attitudes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Boy</td>
<td>Girl</td>
<td>Active</td>
<td>Passive</td>
<td>Advanced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Data transcription and analysis procedure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Procedures</th>
<th>Materials</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>2014.11.10.~11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interview and recording</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Word recognition test</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction using</td>
<td>Instruction through cooperative plays</td>
<td>2014.11.17.~12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cooperative plays</td>
<td>Observation</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interview and recording</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recording and Transcription</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>2014.12.20.~12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interview and recording</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Word recognition test</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. The types of cooperative plays
This study used seven kinds of collaborative plays. All of the plays were selected and adapted taking into account the students’ English level and their interests. Also, the researcher set out a number of common rules which are necessarily applied when the students implement the plays.

Rules for collaborative play

- First, there is no enemy in the class. (The classes compete against each other rather than individual students).
- Second, the students need to complete an activity or play within a certain time. If they finish within that time, they receive price points.
- Third, everyone in the class needs to participate as the points that the students earn are added to the class’ overall points.
• Fourth, when students blame each other or fight, they have to go back to the first round of the play.
• Fifth, the class that has the highest score will receive double points. However, the students do not know if their class earned the most points until the next lesson in order to prevent competition and disappointment.

(1) Students’ story order play

The teacher wrote a story related to the target lesson, which the native teacher proofread. After this, the teacher created a Powerpoint presentation using the story and included pictures of each student in the class. When the teacher read the story to the class, the students listened carefully and repeated after the teacher. After that, all of the students received a picture of their face. In limited time, they had to make same order of teacher’s original story. They needed to arrange the pictures in the same order as the original story within a certain time limit. When they finished on time, they could have prize points according to the number of students. The teacher counted their finishing time and compared each classes’ record. The class that had the shortest record received double prize points.

(2) Picture word card play

When the teacher said the key words, students drew the specified picture on sticky papers. After drawing, students put the papers on the word wall. In limited time they had to make picture card banks with same meaning’s words.
As the number of perfect word bank, they could have prize points. The teacher counted their finishing time and compared each classes’ record. The class that had the shortest record got double prize points.

(3) ‘Sorry?’ play

The Students formed a big circle, and the teacher gave one soft stick to the first and second student. The first student turned clockwise and asked the key question to the next student. The second student turned counter-clockwise and asked the key question to the next student. In the ‘Q &A’ time, student who answer the question said ‘Sorry?’ with facial expression of misunderstanding at the first time. On a second time, they did correct ‘Q&A’ conversation and passed the soft stick. When one student had two sticks, the play finished. When they finished on time, they could have prize points according to number of students. On that time, the teacher counted their finishing time and compared each classes’ record. The class that had the shortest record got double prize points.

(4) Time bomb play

Students made a big circle, and the teacher gave a stopwatch to the first student. The first student turned clockwise and asked the key question to the next student. They did a correct ‘Q&A’ conversation and passed the stopwatch. When the first student had a stopwatch again, and when the stopwatch went around the whole circle, the play finished. When they finished on time, they could have prize points according to the number of students. The teacher counted their finishing time and compared each classes’ record. The class that had the shortest record got
double prize points.

(5) Choosing a letter play

Teacher made Power point slides with the key words and expressions and linked it on all of the letters of the alphabet. The class formed two groups, and when the students from each group choose a letter, the key words and expressions from the lesson flashed on the screen. The students needed to read the expression or answer the question in order to receive points for their team. Every question had different prize points, and when the students didn’t concentrate, the teacher gave them penalty points. If a team received more than three penalty points, the teacher added the points from the team with the lowest score to the class’ total points. If the penalty points for each team were less than three, the higher team’s points became actual prize points for classes.

(6) Word bank play

When the teacher showed the key words on PowerPoint slides, students wrote words on sticky papers (one word on one paper). After copying the words on the paper, students stuck each of their papers on a big white board and made key sentences. In limited time, they had to make as many sentences as they could. The class received one prize point for each correct sentence. When the time was up, the teacher counted the prize points and compared each classes’ record. The class that had more the most points got double prize points.
When the teacher showed the key sentences on PowerPoint slides, the students drew pictures related to the sentences and wrote the key sentences on sticky papers. The key words were written repeatedly on the extra space of sticky papers. After making it, students came to the teacher and read aloud the key sentences they made. When they said the sentence correctly, they crumpled the paper and threw it in the basket. Once all the students threw their papers in the basket, the teacher and students counted the number of goals together. Every goal became actual prize points for the class.

III. Expected results

Cooperative plays might have a strong correlation with students' English development and their character development. Also, they motivate the students to learn English and improve their vocabulary skills. In addition, during the lessons with cooperative play, students can build self-concept and peer relationships. This research can be a model of cooperative play-based English language teaching.

References

Concurrent Session H: Curriculum and Textbook Development
[Room 304]

Chair: Jung Cheol Kim
(Gaerim Elementary School)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>PRESENTATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15:00-15:30</td>
<td>Young-A Lee (Cheongju National University of Education)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Future Directions for the National Elementary English Curriculum: Voices from Teachers</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15:30-16:00</td>
<td>EunKyeong Jung(PyeongChon Elementary School)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>ESL Teaching and Implication to English Education in Korea</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16:00-16:30</td>
<td>Ji Young Kim (Center for creative Intellectual Education)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Perspectives on Teaching and Learning English</em></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Future Directions for the National English Curriculum: Voices from Teachers

Young-A Lee
(Cheongju National University of Education)

I. Introduction

The government has recently announced a plan for revising the national English curriculum to better prepare students for the future. It is expected that the new curriculum will be released to the public in the second half of 2015. In this regard, there has been increased concern that frequent changes in the curriculum may not allow school teachers to experience ownership of curriculum, thus leading to decreased teacher receptivity to the changes. Some have also pointed out that since the current English curriculum has not been fully implemented, it may be premature to revise it based on a systematic analysis of its adequacy. We should be reminded that quality English education is accomplished through teachers and students, and teachers play a pivotal role in effecting curriculum changes. It is thus important that the revision of the curriculum should be based on an analysis of the needs of students and teachers. Further, teachers should be provided with ample opportunities to participate in the process of curriculum development as well.

As a preliminary step in investigating the needs of teachers for curriculum innovations, this study attempted to examine elementary English teachers’ perceptions about the national English curriculum.

II. Method

This study conducted a questionnaire survey in order to investigate elementary school teachers’ perceptions about the adequacy of the current English curriculum as well as their perspectives on future directions for curriculum development. The survey questionnaire was mailed to 120 elementary schools in 17 different regions through stratified random sampling, and a total of 108 English teachers participated in the survey.

The survey consisted of a total of 41 questions, many of which had multiple levels of response. The purpose of the survey questions was to find answers to the following broad questions:

1) What perceptions do elementary English teachers hold about the adequacy of the current English curriculum?
2) How do they perceive six generalizations about future changes in society and their impact on English education? How do they perceive the importance of key competencies in order for students to be better prepared for the future?
3) What directions do they think are desirable to be taken for the future curriculum?

As for data analysis, descriptive statistics were used to describe responses to survey items. Chi-square statistics were also used to investigate differences between teachers’ perceptions by regions and years of teaching experiences.
III. Results and Implications

The results obtained from the survey data and their implications can be summarized as follows.

First, developing students’ communicative abilities as the primary goal of the current English curriculum should continue to be emphasized. Most teachers perceived that globalization will have more impact on education than before, and that more emphasis needs to be placed on English as a global language. They also recognized students’ abilities to communicate effectively in English as the most important key competency required for the future.

Second, more attention needs to be paid to improving students’ reading and writing skills in elementary English education. Although more than 50% of the teachers perceived the quantity and difficulty of reading and writing to be appropriate, about 20 to 30 % of the teachers reported that more reading and writing should be incorporated into the curriculum (see Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades / Content Areas</th>
<th>Perceived Level of Quantity</th>
<th>Perceived Level of Difficulty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Appropriate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening Grades 3-4</td>
<td>12 (11.1)</td>
<td>86 (79.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking Grades 3-4</td>
<td>12 (11.1)</td>
<td>82 (75.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Grades 3-4</td>
<td>8 (7.4)</td>
<td>64 (59.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking Grades 3-4</td>
<td>13 (12.0)</td>
<td>54 (50.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening Grades 5-6</td>
<td>13 (12.0)</td>
<td>75 (69.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking Grades 5-6</td>
<td>10 (9.3)</td>
<td>76 (70.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Grades 5-6</td>
<td>10 (9.3)</td>
<td>59 (54.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking Grades 5-6</td>
<td>12 (11.1)</td>
<td>53 (49.1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Third, it is necessary that the content and performance standards of the curriculum should be described in a more intelligible way in order for teachers to teach the curriculum not the textbooks. The survey results indicated that the lack of clarity in content standards may not allow teachers to have a clear understanding of what to teach. The teachers also reported that organization of contents in the curriculum does not include enough information about how to select and organize learning contents.

Fourth, “teaching/learning methods” and “evaluations” of the curriculum should serve as a guide by which teachers are able to plan instruction and evaluation. Despite the increased volume of those sections, more than 30 % of the teachers did not perceive those sections to be helpful for their practices.
ESL Teaching and Implication to English Education in Korea

Eun Kyeong Jung
(Pyeongchon Elementary School)

1. Introduction

Learning English is one of the great interests to most Koreans. The situation is not that different for the students and parents, who are LEP (limited English proficiency) in the English speaking countries.

Who is placed in the ESL class, how are students taught, and what qualification is needed for exiting the ESL class? Research about these questions can be utilized in Korea as the good reference. Thus, in this report, the way to teach ESL students in the U.S. is introduced and some available ideas to English education in Korea are suggested in the base of the observation in ESL classes and some comments from the professors and teachers via Q&A.

2. Target of putting in the ESL classroom

a. Is the target only limited to the students who have moved to the U.S. from outside of the country?

This statement is always true. Students who were born in the U.S., however, their home language is not English, they can be the target of ESL class. The procedures of entering the ESL class are processed as below.

ESL teachers put an emphasis on Home Language Survey <Picture 2>. Because, the ESL teachers can predict students' learning competency based on that information. According to the theory, students who can read and write L1 fluently, they have higher possibility to succeed in L2. Even though a student cannot speak, read, or write, he/she would be predicted to be a successful learner with no big problem.
b. ESL Screening Test (LAB-R test)

(1) Who takes LAB-R?

Newly enrolled student who is determined to be possibly limited English proficient (LEP) must take the Revised Language Assessment Battery (LAB-R) for purposes of identification, determination of English proficiency level and placement in English as a second language and English language arts classes.

(2) How often is the LAB-R test taken?

This test will be used exclusively for initial identification and placement purposes, and will be administered one time only to each student who is possibly LEP.

c. ESL Pull-out Test (NYSESAT: test name is different from states)

The New York State English as a Second Language Achievement Test (NYSESAT) is designed to annual access the English proficiency of all English language learners enrolled in Grades K-12 in New York State schools. The test gives the State and schools important information about the English language development of English language learners, and is part of the State's compliance with federal laws that mandate the annual accessing and tracking of English proficiency of English language learners.
Based on the results of the test, students' English language proficiency level is classified as beginning, intermediate, advanced, or proficient. It is administered to students in the spring of every year. (retrieved from http://www.p12.nysed.gov/assessment/nyseslat/parentsguide/pgeng.pdf) Students will be remained in the ESL class if they did not get enough score even in one part (speaking, listening, reading, or writing) from the test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exit Procedures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. ESL teacher administer the following exit assessments:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Kindergarten ACCESS - MODEL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Grade 1 ACCESS - MODEL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Grades 2-12 ACCESS - MODEL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• ACCESS test results (administered during mid-winter)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ESL and classroom teachers review state assessment testing results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ESL teacher (and classroom teacher for Grades K-5) complete student evaluation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. If appropriate, ELL Program exit letter is sent home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. ESL teacher monitors former LEP students’ progress for two years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Monitor data is recorded with ELL student data at the superintendent’s office.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(retrieved from http://www.norwood.k12.ma.us/curriculum/ESL-Entrance-and-Exit-Procedures.cfm)

d. What to teach?

There are two types of English, according to Cummins; BICS and CALP. In the ESL context, learning academic language is strongly emphasized.

(1) BICS

Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) describes social, conversational language used for oral communication. Also described as social language, this type of communication offers many cues to the listener and is context-embedded language. Usually it takes about two years for students from different linguistic backgrounds to comprehend context-embedded social language readily. English language learners can comprehend social language by:

observing speakers’ non-verbal behavior (gestures, facial expressions and eye actions); observing others’ reactions; using voice cues such as phrasing, intonations, and stress; observing pictures, concrete objects, and other contextual cues which are present; and asking for statements to be repeated, and/or clarified.

(2) CALP

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) is the context-reduced language of the academic classroom. It takes five to seven years for English language learners to become proficient in the language of the classroom because:

non-verbal clues are absent; there is less face-to-face interaction; academic language is often abstract; literacy demands are high (narrative and expository text and textbooks are written beyond the language proficiency of the students); and

Cultural/linguistic knowledge is often needed to comprehend fully.
(retrieved from http://www.educ.ualberta.ca/staff/olenka.Bilash/best%20of%20bilash/bics%20calp.html)
(3) Why academic language?

Students need to be able to understand the teacher's explanations, discuss what is being learned, read for different purposes, and write about their learning. For doing these, academic language is used. The importance of academic language increases from the time children enter school through their progression to higher grades.

Academic vocabulary knowledge is directly related to content knowledge in class. Stahl and Fairbanks (1986) found that vocabulary instruction directly improves comprehension. Therefore, it is crucial for students to have a deep understanding of the content vocabulary in order to understand the concepts that are being taught.

3. Support for Struggling Students

There are various ways to get support for the students who struggle. If parents and teachers know the way to get support, students have lots of possibilities to improve. I found that all staff try to solve any problems that students have in their school life. Here are some example of supporting programs for struggling students.

a. Reading Recovery

Reading Recovery is a school-based, short-term intervention designed for children aged five or six, who are the lowest achieving in literacy after their first year of school. These children are often not able to read the simplest of books or write their own name before the intervention. The intervention involves intensive one-to-one lessons for 30 minutes a day with a trained literacy teacher, for between 12 and 20 weeks. (retrieved from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Reading_Recovery)

b. Group Reading

Guided reading is small-group reading instruction designed to provide differentiated teaching that supports students in developing reading proficiency. The small group model allows children to be taught in a way that is intended to be more focused on their specific needs, accelerating their progress (retrieved from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Guided_reading).

This is provided by a reading specialist, two to three times a week.

c. IST

Instructional Support Team provides support with students who are judged to have difficulty in accommodating school life; students with learning disabilities, underachievement, and other problems. Psychologist, guidance counselor, reading specialist, speech therapist, social worker, ESL teacher, and homeroom teacher of the student participate in the team. They share students' problem and have discussion to find the effective solution of the students. The homeroom teacher adapts derived method from the meeting. The IST have the following meeting after four weeks, and they check students' change and discuss additional help.

4. Content of ESL Learning

a. CCSS: Common Core State Standard
CCSS is like national curriculum of Korea in the U.S. CCSS emerged in National Governors Association, 2009. The NGA (National governor association) collaborated with the Council of Chief State School Officers and released CCSI in 2010. The hope is to create a more modern and competitive education model for the US focusing on curricula in English Language Arts and Mathematics. So far, 45 states adopted CCSS among 50 states. Each participating state is now responsible for designing and implementing specific curriculum around CCS.

b. Criticism to CCSS

Critics say the standards were developed without any input from local school committees, teachers and superintendents. There was a staggering lack of early childhood experts and classroom teachers, but the responsibility for setting state standards lies at the state level, not the local one.

Another common criticism is that the standards are unrealistic for younger students because they call for abstract reasoning skills that are developmentally inappropriate for children in kindergarten through third grade. The group said that the standards would stifle initiative, curiosity and imagination and hamper the growth of essential sensory and motor skills best developed through play and hands-on learning.

Critics say this standardization will lead to a national curriculum that will take away teachers’ freedom. Other critics say teachers will wind up teaching to the Common Core test, due to the link teacher evaluations to student performance.

c. SIOP model

The Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) Model is a research-based and validated instructional model that has proven effective in addressing the academic needs of English learners throughout the United States. The SIOP Model consist of eight interrelated components: lesson preparation, building background, comprehensible input, strategies, interaction, practice/application, lesson delivery, and review/assessment. Research shows that when teachers fully implement the SIOP Model, English learners’ academic performance improves (www.cal.org/siop/).

5. Conclusion

English education in Korea is much different from ESL teaching situation in English speaking countries. Thus, it is difficult to directly bring teaching methods or teaching system into Korea. However, there are still some aspects that we can adapt to English education field in Korea, such as sufficient support for the struggling students and SIOP model for the efficient teachers.

References


Thrower, I. M., (2009), What is SIOP?
Perspectives on Teaching and Learning English

Ji Young Kim

(Center for Creative Intellectual Education)

This presentation aims to introduce some perspectives of current teaching and learning language in diverse context, focusing on English language and teachers of English.

Drawing on the sociocultural perspective on teacher education, there are major factors in language teaching and learning in terms of teacher professionalism as a ground and communicative language teaching of English, alongside the understanding of the diversity of English.

First, teacher professionalism will be discussed in terms of how we define the meaning of professional, depending on the context which is situated. A comparative analysis of the document from America and Europe, suggests to frame the meaning of teacher professionalism in a changing world of the 21st century.

Second, existing dominant approach of Communicative language teaching in language education will be investigated in terms of its features in order to implement and foster successful language education for all in Korean context.

Finally, those features of Communicative language teaching will guide the understanding of what is going on around English education in Korea context with some hidden aspects of English language where there is strong pressure and social expectations of the ESL education, regardless of the EFL context in reality.

Understanding teacher professionalism from the sociocultural perspective

A sociocultural perspective as an epistemological stance considers human beings, social activities, and social contexts. Although the applications of the meaning differ across academic fields, in general, human learning is defined as “a dynamic social activity that is situated in physical and social contexts, and is distributed across persons, tools, and activities” from a sociocultural perspective (as cited in Johnson, 2009, p.1). Johnson (2009) argues that a sociocultural perspective views teachers as learners of teaching and attempts to understand the cognitive and social process of their learning to know what teachers know and do and how they make sense of their practice in the social context that they are involved.

Compared to the previous approach to teaching, understanding teachers as a human being, teaching as a social activity, and school and classroom as a social context are crucial to explain who teachers are. Teachers are to be competent and further professional which refers to be a person of the practice with competences of knowledge, skills, and conducts in a particular field (Leung, 2002). A key to understand what teachers should have or be might on the identification of teachers’ social identity as professional.

General domains of knowledge that teachers are expected to have, which is called, knowledge-base, have been argued by researchers (Allan, 2010; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Shulman, 1986, 1987). In the recent conference reports by the Council of Europe Standing Conference of Ministers of Education (2010), Allan presents three areas of teacher competences that we want teachers to have from a sociocultural perspective: “to understand, to be, and to do.”
The conceptualization of teachers’ competence that people and society expect is:

1) knowledge and understanding of political, legal, and structural context of sociocultural diversity,
2) communication and relationships with open mindedness and respect in the school community, and
3) management and teaching, including selecting and modifying teaching methods for the learning needs of pupils.

This view reflects that teachers’ role is not to transmit knowledge within their classroom, but to communicate and collaborate with people, community, and society to build common beliefs and cultures, and ultimately realize democracy. Teachers are to be professionals or agents of change with appropriate expertise that people and society expect.

In the context of America, Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005) also conceptualize a knowledge-base of teaching profession from a sociocultural perspective, considering three main areas of knowledge for teachers:

1) Knowledge of learners and their development in social contexts,
2) knowledge of subject matter and curriculum goals, and
3) knowledge of teaching.

This framework suggests teachers are to know how teaching and learning are situated in the social context beyond knowledge of content and teaching skills in this changing world. Today’s teachers are to be prepared to work with students with a broad range of knowledge, skills, and ability to reflect on practice (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005).

Shulman (1986, 1987) asserts that teachers’ understanding of what is to be learned and how it is to be taught should be discussed with the consideration of the complex situations they meet and suggests the categories of the knowledge base for the understanding of effective teaching: content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, and, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of educational contexts, and knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds.

![Figure 1. A framework for understanding teaching and learning (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005, p.11)](image-url)
Language teachers or all teachers are to be prepared to work with diverse students with knowledge of how learning and language development are situated in social contexts involved with the understanding of ultimate goals of curriculum and content. Teachers are also to have competences to meet complex demands in teaching and learning in a society so that serve all students to have equal opportunity to success in education and their later life.

**Communicative Language Teaching**

Many countries in East Asia such as China, Japan, and Korea have introduced English as a subject at elementary school level and promoted Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)-based curricular reforms with the goal of developing students’ communicative competence (Butler, 2005; Mikio, 2008). In Korea, since the nationwide efforts toward the globalization in economics and politics in the 1990's, English language competence has been considered a key to education for the global competitiveness as well as individuals’ economic and academic success (Jo, 2008; Kang, 2008; Li, 1998; Mikio, 2008; Nuan, 2003).

A central challenge for the local offices of education and schools under the CLT-based national curriculum has been to find effective ways to prepare teachers and their instruction to enhance students’ communicative competence. However, some conceptual and practical ambiguity exists in reality regarding understanding theories, concepts, and methods (Harmer, 2003; Wyatt, 2009).

Based on the understanding of theoretical conceptions of CLT by related literature, the meaning of CLT will be addressed, considering expectations for meeting the goals of the development of students’ communicative competence.

**Theoretical Conceptions of CLT**

The nature of CLT has been understood as an approach rather than a method which has variations in the interpretation, depending on the theories of language and learning and its designs and procedures in the implementation (Brown, 1994; Howatt, 1984; Richards & Rogers, 2001). Although the conceptions of CLT are varied by different researchers in different contexts, CLT is based on three foundational ideas;

1) language as communication, 2) communicative competence as a learning goal, and 3) learner-centeredness.

**Language as communication**

CLT is distinguished from the previous methods such as audio-lingual or grammar-translation methods in terms of the view on language. CLT is based on the functional approach to language learning (Halliday, 1997) and the theory of communicative competence (Hymes, 1971). It focuses on teaching and learning the way of “use language” for communication rather than “usage of language” in the structure of language (Eills, 2003). Howatt (1984) supports the approach to language and communication by distinguishing between weak and strong version of CLT to emphasize the communicative purpose in language teaching and learning (Eills, 2003). The weak version of CLT as an early approach assumes that “communicative competence can be identified and language can be taught systematically.” (Eills, 2003, p.28) On the contrary, the strong version of CLT focuses on learning through exploring the language system in terms of how it is used in communication rather than acquiring separate grammar rules, notions and functions of language properties (Howatt, 1984). This fundamental idea of language as communication enable to direct teaching and learning in CLT differently from the traditional ways which more focuses on the development of communicative competence through learner-centered communicative activities instead of acquiring knowledge and
skills of grammar, functions and notions of language properties.

**Communicative competence as a learning goal**

CLT has been addressed as methodology from various perspectives by researchers and theories of language learning but pursues the promotion of students’ communicative competence as a goal. It is important to identify the meaning of communicative competence in CLT because it directs goals of curriculum and instruction.

Savignon (1997) describes the nature of communicative competence as dynamic, context-specific, and relative, considering four components by Canale and Swain (1980); grammatical or linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. According to this approach, learners should learn grammatical rules as prerequisite to develop abilities and strategies to use the language in different social contexts and to organize ideas with coherence in discourse (Canale & Swain, 1980).

Bachman’s model for communicative language ability considers knowledge structure, strategic competence, psychophysiological mechanisms, context of situation, and language competence. For the language aspects of forms, meanings, and functions, language competence is consist of organizational competence (grammatical and textual competences), and pragmatic competence (illocutionary and sociolinguistic competences). The organization competence involves the language ability of rules and systems at sentence and discourse level, and the pragmatic competence means the ability of functional use of language for meaning with appropriateness in social contexts.

Brown (1994) proposed that CLT should include: 1) all components of communicative competence, 2) students’ engagement with pragmatic, authentic, and functional use of language for meaningful purposes, 3) complementary principles of fluency and accuracy, and 4) students’ productive and receptive language use (as cited in Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999).

**Learner-centeredness**

One of the features of CLT is the idea of learner-centeredness in teaching and learning. For the purpose for the development of communicative competence, activities and tasks are critical in the implementation of CLT for “learner centered as opposed to teacher centered curriculum and instruction” (Butler, 2005, p.424). According to Howatt (1984), the conceptions of CLT by researchers have been characterized as a promising approach that “stresses providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching.” As noted in this description, CLT can be featured by learner-centered interaction through practical activities for communicative purposes (Dangel & Guyton, 2004; Larsen-Freeman, 1991; Richards, 2006; Wyatt, 2009).

Nunan (2003) illustrates the five features of CLT for the understanding of students’ learning through communicative activities; 1) a focus on communication through interaction, 2) the use of authentic materials, 3) a focus on the learning process as well as the language itself, 4) a beliefs that learners’ own experiences, and 5) a linkage between learning in the classroom and real-life activities (as cited in Butler, 2005, p.424).

Richards (2005) also supports the significance of interactional activities of CLT by considering fluency as a key component of communicative language learning through experiences with tasks for the meaningful use of language and communicative strategies in appropriate ways in various contexts.
Teachers in the CLT Classroom

The Sociocultural theory of learning by Vygotsky (1978) provides the ground of understanding teachers’ role in the CLT classroom. According to the notion of zone of proximal development (ZPD), interactions with others enhance one’s learning to go beyond the actual development at current learning (Vygotsky, 1978). As learners experience challenging tasks with assistances, they are able to move forward toward independent learning without assistance by others. This idea guides meaningful ways of teaching in CLT classrooms. As Butler (2005) indicates, a teachers’ role in CLT is to identify students’ current learning abilities and the level of understanding whether they need assistances or not for the effectiveness of teaching. According to Breen and Candlin (1980) for the learner centered instruction and activities in CLT classrooms, teachers are expected “to facilitate the communication process between all participants, to act as an active participant in teaching and learning, and to contribute with appropriate knowledge and abilities based on experiences of learning and organizational capacities.” Richards and Rodgers (2001) also indicates CLT teachers’ roles as analyst, counselor, and manager over the whole process of CLT to identify learners’ abilities and learning styles and tailor the instruction to meet individuals’ needs with appropriate grouping and activities.

On the contrary to teacher-centered instruction, CLT assumes active participations among all participants, including teachers and students in communicative environments. In particular, the role of teachers is identified as essential for the successful implementation of CLT in EFL contexts (Liming, 2001; Choi, 2000).

Subjectivity of teachers’ inquiry

This presentation will be a great opportunity to integrate what I learn from theories with what I believe based on practical experiences as a teacher and researcher. Going through the experiences with the language education and the language teacher education as a learner, teacher, and researcher, I have been aware of the key role of teachers in education and the significance of their thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs.

First, the opportunities to take part in the empirical studies in local school settings here in Korea and the United States urged me to inquire what the teachers think, believe and take actions in specific ways. Regardless of mixed results of studies about the effectiveness of teaching approach and methods, teachers and students are always involved in language teaching and learning in various programs and strive to make it better.

The learning experiences of language, language education, and language teacher education throughout my doctoral study allow me to frame theoretical, practical, and methodological underpinnings of language acquisition, literacy development, teacher professionalism, and quality instruction.

As an interactionist, I believe human interactions in learning in our life are a foundational mechanism to make sense of people, materials, and contexts around us. From this view, making sense of teachers’ knowledge, beliefs, practices, and contexts that they work enable to understand how their personal practical experiences is constructed in the complex system.

Acknowledging my belief in the potential of teachers as professional in teaching and learning, the various experiences with the application of theories and practices support the legitimacy of the true meaning of teaching and learning language. In conclusion, I would like to leave three main inquiries for today.

Are you professional? Who are the highly qualified teachers? Are you competent and confident?
References


Language Journal, 83(4), 494-517.
### Concurrent Session I: Classroom Observation & Action Research

[Room 305]

**Chair:** Jungja Cho  
(Gwangyang Madong Elementary School)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>PRESENTATION</th>
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| 15:00-15:30| YoungSuk Kwon (Samil Elementary School)  
  Qualitative and Quantitative English Class Analysis Tool and an Applying Case |
| 15:30-16:00| Heungjar Lim (Buwon Elementary School)  
  Student-Centered Class for Elementary English Class (K) |
| 16:00-16:30| In-sook Yi (Seoul Keumsan Elementary School) & Hae-ri Kim (Seoul Nat'l Univ. of Education)  
  Action Research on Developing Creative English Writing Skills Using Fantasy Stories |
Qualitative and Quantitative English Class Analysis Tool and an Applying Case

Young-suk Kwon
(Samil Elementary School, Master teacher)

Ⅰ. Introduction

Recently, teaching analysis and consulting are emphasized in education. To perform a good consulting, we have to analyse the class well. So we need a good analysis tool. Effective teaching analysis tools have to analyze the merits and demerits of the class. To do this, each subject(e.g. English) needs its own teaching analysis tools. Sadly most tools are developed to apply to more than one subject.

The main purpose of English class is to improve ECC(English communicative competence). So English class analysis tool has to analyze whether the English class activities are properly assigned, whether English teaching is useful for improving ECC and whether students are participating the activities. But, it is hard to find an English teaching analysis tool which can perform these roles.

To solve this problem, quantitative and qualititative English teaching analysis tools are developed and introduced. The quantitative tool is QSA(The quantitative analysis of students participation and activities areas)”. The qualitative tool is QLA(the qualitative analysis of lesson plan and activities). To show the effectiveness of this tool, one case of quantitative analysis is presented.

These analysis tools are developed through applying to the open classes of Ansan English teacher’s research association.

Ⅱ. The base of the English teaching analysis development

1. Ideal English class

To develop a teaching analysis tool, one must assume an ideal educational model teaching. The ideal English class is one in which every student participates in the activities and every students can do well in listening, speaking, reading and writing.

2. Analyzed things

- the degree of students participation  
- the quality of each activities  
- the process of students English acquisition  
- the properness of the ratio of activities  
- the appropriateness of teaching plan

3. The limit of existing teaching analysis tools
- Most of them need excessive amount of time for analysis.
- Most of them analyze only the participating students.
- It is almost not possible to know whether English is acquired or not.
- They don’t analyze the properness of the design of lesson plan.

### III. QSA (The quantitative analysis of students participation and activities areas)

#### 1. Outline

QSA is a quantitative teaching analysis tool which analyze students participation and activities area in the English class. It divides the class activities into 8 big areas which are divided into 15(or 16) lower level areas. And this activities are analysed under the consideration of the period of the class and students language development level.

#### 2. Analysis form

Two forms are developed. Form (Ⅰ) is used when one analyst analyse the class. Form (Ⅱ) is used when several analyst analyse the class at the same time. Each analyst check only one student in form (Ⅱ).

**QSA (1)**

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<td>listen and do</td>
<td>vocabulary</td>
<td>sentence</td>
<td>speaking</td>
<td>speaking with a partner</td>
<td>listening to CD</td>
<td>listening to other students</td>
<td>listening to the teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>(4)</td>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>(6)</td>
<td>(7)</td>
<td>(8)</td>
<td>(9)</td>
<td>(10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recording (30seconds)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* recording time: every 30(or 60) seconds
## QSA (II)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>date</th>
<th>Unit (period)</th>
<th>grade</th>
<th>applied teaching model</th>
<th>theme (Independent factor, dependent factor)</th>
<th>place</th>
<th>teacher</th>
<th>students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>big category</th>
<th>communicative activities</th>
<th>quasi-communicative activities</th>
<th>presentation, understanding</th>
<th>speaking practice</th>
<th>listening practice</th>
<th>reading and writing practice</th>
<th>wrong expression</th>
<th>non-linguistic activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>small category</td>
<td>participation (1)</td>
<td>nonparticipation (2)</td>
<td>teacher whole class (2)</td>
<td>listen and do (3)</td>
<td>vocabulary (4)</td>
<td>sentence (5)</td>
<td>listen &amp; repeat, singing (6)</td>
<td>reading &amp; speaking (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recording (30 seconds)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

※ recording time: every 30(or 60) seconds

### 4. The benefits of QSA
- It’s possible to analyse students participation during the class
- It’s possible to analyse the properness of the activities area’s ratio
- It’s possible to find out where improvement is needed
5. Processing the result

### Processing table I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>students participation</th>
<th>communicative activities</th>
<th>quasi-communicative activities</th>
<th>presentation, understanding</th>
<th>speaking practice</th>
<th>listening practice</th>
<th>reading and writing practice</th>
<th>wrong expression</th>
<th>non-linguistic activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1/4</td>
<td>2/4</td>
<td>3/4</td>
<td>teacher-student, student-student (1)</td>
<td>teacher-whole class (2)</td>
<td>listen and do (3)</td>
<td>vocabulary (4)</td>
<td>sentence (5)</td>
<td>listening &amp; speaking (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1/4</td>
<td>2/4</td>
<td>3/4</td>
<td>teacher-student, student-student (1)</td>
<td>teacher-whole class (2)</td>
<td>listen and do (3)</td>
<td>vocabulary (4)</td>
<td>sentence (5)</td>
<td>listening &amp; speaking (6)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### <an analysis case >

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>students participation ratio (%)</th>
<th>first small category</th>
<th>problem small category</th>
<th>ppp ratio (%)</th>
<th>first big category</th>
<th>problem big category</th>
<th>ratio between practice area (%)</th>
<th>non-linguistic activity ratio (%)</th>
<th>the number of wrong expression</th>
<th>communicative and quasi-communicative ratio (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>6, 15</td>
<td>1, 4, 5, 10</td>
<td>speaking practice</td>
<td>presentation and understanding non-linguistic activity</td>
<td>50.7</td>
<td>41.2</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The period of the class and students level must be taken into consideration when you interpret the result. The presentation and practice ratio tend to be high in the first or second period of the class. It is also high when students ability is low. And the ratio of production tend to be high when students communicative ability is high.
IV. QLA (the qualitative analysis of lesson plan and activities)

Qualitative analysis is to describe the class in the base of the analyst’s professionalism. So description itself is analysis. And analyst’s professionalism is very important.

| QLA analyst: |
|---|---|
| date | Unit (period) |
| grade | applied teaching model |
| theme | place |
| (Independent factor, dependent factor) | |
| teacher | students |

1. analysis before the class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>area</th>
<th>analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>properness of lesson design (subject, students analysis, underlying theory, teaching model, lesson plan)</td>
<td>good point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subject fulfillment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>connection between goal and activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teaching lower level students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>curricula reconstruction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. analysis during the class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>step</th>
<th>analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>introduction</td>
<td>good point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>development</td>
<td>activity 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>activity 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>activity 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consolidation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subject fulfillment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
V. Conclusion

It is impossible to analyse all kinds of teaching with one analysis tool. And, it needs to consider the result of students evaluation to analyze better. Acknowledging these, QSA and QLA are suggested. QSA can analyze students participation during the class and the properness of the activities area’s ratio. So it’s possible to find out where improvement is needed. QLA can analyze the quality of each activities and the appropriateness of teaching plan. We can know the degree of students’ English acquisition by applying QSA and QLA. These two tools are compensable each other. So it’s useful to use them together.

Reference

초등영어수업을 위한 배움중심수업
(Students Centered Class for Elementary English Class)

Heungjar Lim
(Buwon Elementary School, Master teacher)

I. 시작하며

지식교육을 통한 창의력 신장
무엇을 어떻게 하는지 초등영어 배움중심수업인가? 영어듣기도 말하기도, 철자도 모르는 학생들에게 일그러지 창의적 사고력과 자기생각 만들기를 어떻게 영어 수업안에서 풀어내갈 것인가가 영어를 가르치는 모든 영어 교사들에게는 영원히 풀 수 없을 만큼의 닫는다. 또한 영어전담교사로서 영어를 가르침이 10년 이상을 흔들 넘은 지금도 이것만큼은 당연히 어려움으로 극복의 대상이기도 하다.

어쨌든 이번 본 교육청의 연수 청탁을 받아 한참을 망설였다. 무엇을 어떻게 풀어가야 할까?
초등영어교육과정의 기본과 배움중심관점표를 다시 한 번 정리하고서 수석교사로서 본인의 수업 속에서 배움중심수업을 어떻게 실행하고 있는지의 사례와 함께 그동안 6년간의 수석교사로서 컨설팅의 경험을 바탕으로 본 연구자가 생각하는 다양한 케이스의 수업을 배움중심수업과 관련하여 생각하고자 한다.

‘배움중심수업에 있어서 지식은 고정불변하는 것이 아닌 끊임없이 창조되는 과정이며, 지식의 권위에 도전하는 학습문화를 만드는 일이다. 또한 학생들이 어떤 내용을 배우고 읽히는가가 아닌 어떻게 지식을 탐구하는가에 중심을 두는 수업이다. 학생들이 학생-학생, 학생-교사의 협력으로 실험나 시행착오를 통해 지식을 탐구하면서 자기생각 만들기를 하는 과정이 진정한 배움이다’라는 명제를 중심으로 내가 실행하고 있는 발란스리딩(Balance Reading)과 프로젝트(Project) 학습법을 중심으로 이야기를 시작하고자 한다.

II. 배움중심수업을 위한 수업설계

1. Balance Reading을 위한 기초 이론연구

가. 읽기 과정의 이해
읽기 과정은 읽기의 주체인 독자와 대상인 텍스트와의 관계에 따라상향식(Bottom-up), 하향식(Top-down), 또는 상호작용식(Interactive)으로 본다. 이러한 읽기 과정과 관련한 학교의 신념 및 지도 방향을 제시할 수 있는 단어 인식, 정보 단서, 읽기 관점, 학습, 그리고 평가 측면에서 비교해 보면 다음과 같다.
(서울교대 김혜리 교수 글에서)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>단어 인식과 이해의 관계</th>
<th>상향식 과정 (Bottom-up)</th>
<th>하향식 과정 (Top-down)</th>
<th>상호작용식 과정 (Interactive)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>단어 인식과 이해의 관계</td>
<td>학습자가 단어를 인식하기 위해, 개별 단어를 인식해야 함.</td>
<td>학습자가 개별 단어를 식별하지 못하더라도 글을 이해할 수 있음.</td>
<td>학습자는 단어를 빠리, 정확하게 구분해 낼수록 이해할 수 있음.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>정보 단서의 사용</td>
<td>단어 및 철자-소리 단서만 이용해야 함.</td>
<td>의미 및 문법적 단서만 사용해야 함.</td>
<td>철자-소리 및 의미 단서를 동시에 진행하고, 받음.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>입기에 대한 관점을</td>
<td>임기는 일련의 단어 식별 기술을 숙달하고 통합하는 것이 필요함.</td>
<td>임고, 쓰고, 말하고, 듣는 의미 있고, 실제적인 활동을 통해서 임기를 배울 수 있음.</td>
<td>의미 있는 문맥에서 기능과 전략을 개발함으로써 임기를 배울.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>학습에서 강조하는 언어 단위</td>
<td>절자, 절자-소리의 관계 및 단어를 강조.</td>
<td>문장, 구, 글(전체 텍스트)을 강조.</td>
<td>절자, 절자-소리의 관계, 단어, 문장, 단락 및 글(전체 텍스트)을 강조.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>학습 강조점</td>
<td>개별 단어의 정확한 의미를 아는 것이 중요함.</td>
<td>의미를 위한 임기가 중요함.</td>
<td>정확한 단어의 의미의 문제에 기여하는 것으로 간주함.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>평가</td>
<td>개별 기능별로 평가 받을 필요가 있음.</td>
<td>독서를 통해서 구축된 지식의 종류에 대해서 평가가 이루어져야 함.</td>
<td>의미 있는 문맥에서 자신들의 수행을 토대로 평가.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

나. 스토리텔링과 파닉스를 활용한 문식성(literacy)지도

영어교육에 대한 사회적 관심을 고려할 때 알파벳 대소문자 인식을 4학년부터 시작하는 것은 학습자의 홍미와 호기심을 빼앗기며, 또한 6학년 학습자 중에는 기본인식(예를 들어 즉석 인식어휘 sight words) 조차도 어려워하거나 잊지 못하는 임기 부진 현상이 나타난다. 이에 개정 교육과정에서는 초등학생의 영어 문식성(literacy) 지도를 강조하고 있다. 또한 문식성과 연계하여 초등학생의 응용어휘와 문자언어의 균형잡힌 발달을 강조하고 있다. 또한 문식성과 연계하여 초등학생의 응용어휘와 문자언어의 균형잡힌 발달을 강조하고 있다. 또한 문식성과 연계하여 초등학생의 응용어휘와 문자언어의 균형잡힌 발달을 강조하고 있다. 또한 문식성과 연계하여 초등학생의 응용어휘와 문자언어의 균형잡힌 발달을 강조하고 있다.

문자언어의 균형 잡힌 발달을 강조하고 있다. 이러한 측면에서 스토리텔링은 초등학생의 영어 문식성 능력을 향상시키며, 학습자의 상상력을 자극하고, 교실에서 함께 이야기를 들으며 같이 벌고 슬퍼하는 사회적 경험을 공유함으로써 정서적 측면에서 긍정적인 역할을 한다. 또한 파닉스 접근법은 절자와 소리의 관계에 관련된 발음 학습, 읽기 그리고 쓰기 학습에 도움이 되는 영어 초보 학습자를 위한임기 지도법이다. 이에 문식성 지도와 임기 학습 부진 보정 교육에 활용할 수 있는 접근법이라고 할 수 있다.

2. 나의 교육과정 설계

가. Balance Reading을 위한 주요 학습 내용

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>단원</th>
<th>의사소통 기능</th>
<th>Balance Reading을 위한 주요 학습 내용</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Get</td>
<td>story book</td>
<td>Whole LG approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Get</td>
<td>Phonics</td>
<td>Be a actor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

교실 영어/ class rules 2
### 1. Hello!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ready</th>
<th>Do/ don’t do.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘Phonics Song’ 익히기</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>알파벳별 대표음가 익히기</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[æ],[æ],apple[b],[b],ball,[c],[c],cat[d],[d],dog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[e],[e],elephant[f],[f],fish[g],[g],gorilla[h],[h],hat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>igloo[dʒ],[dʒ],jacket[k],[k],kangaroo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[i],[i],lion[m],[m],monkey[n],[n],nose[a],[a],octopus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[p],[p],pig[q],[q],question[r],[r],ring[s],[s],sun[t],[t],tiger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[v],[v],umbrella[w],[w],watch[k],[k],zebra</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. 만나고 해여질 때 인사하기
   - Hello./Hi.
   - Bye.
   - My name is Homin.

2. 자기소개
   - I’m Bora./

3. 사실적 정보 묻기
   - What’s your name?

   - youtube clips

4. 표현하기
   - ‘me me ABC’

5. 대화
   - 동영상으로 주요 표현 따라 말하기
   - 손가락 짚기 놀이하기
   - 애니메이션 대화 1 보고 듣기
   - 애니메이션 대화 2 보며 말하기
   - 사진을 보고 대화 만들어 말하기
   - Hello! 쟁트하기・인사하기
   - 빵게 모자 소녀(Reed Hood) 이야기
   - 유튜브 동영상 상의 활용

### 2. What’s This?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ready</th>
<th>Do/ don’t do.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘Phonics Song’ 익히기</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>알파벳별 대표음가 익히기</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[æ],[æ],apple[b],[b],ball,[c],[c],cat[d],[d],dog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[e],[e],elephant[f],[f],fish[g],[g],gorilla[h],[h],hat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>igloo[dʒ],[dʒ],jacket[k],[k],kangaroo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[i],[i],lion[m],[m],monkey[n],[n],nose[a],[a],octopus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[p],[p],pig[q],[q],question[r],[r],ring[s],[s],sun[t],[t],tiger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[v],[v],umbrella[w],[w],watch[k],[k],zebra</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. 사실 확인하기
   - What’s this?

   - The farmer and Beet |

2. 맛사지 표현하기
   - Thank you.

3. 감사에 답하기
   - You’re welcome.

   - youtube clips

4. 대화
   - 동영상으로 주요 표현 따라 말하기
   - 카드 빼기 짚기 놀이하기
   - 애니메이션 대화 1 보고 듣기
   - 애니메이션 대화 2 보며 말하기
   - 사진을 보고 대화 만들어 말하기
   - ‘What’s This?’ 쟁트하기
   - 문건 알아맞히기 놀이하기
   - ‘길리버(Gulliver)’ 이야기 듣기
   - 뮤지컬 노래하기
   - 역할놀이 하기

   - <라임을 이용한 첫소리 익기·익히기>
   - -bed 소리 익히기
   - -bed, ked, hed, led, ted, fed, ed, red

   - Finding letters
### 3. Are You Happy?

1. 기쁨·슬픔 표현하기
   - I'm happy/sad.
2. 몸 상태 표현하기
   - I'm hungry/sick.
3. 사실 확인 문고 답하기
   - Are you happy/sad?
     - Yes, I am. / No, I'm not.

#### Lots of Feelings

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><img src="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dQw4w9WgXcQ" alt="YouTube Clips" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><img src="https://www.soundscramble.com" alt="Sound Scramble" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><img src="https://www.hiddenpictureworksheet.com" alt="Hidden Picture Worksheet" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- 애니메이션 대화 보고 듣기
- 동영상 주요 표현 따라 말하기
- 표정 자극으로 놀이하기
- 행복한 왕자(Happy Prince) 이야기
- 유치원 노래하기・역할놀이 하기
- 영화 속 표현 읽기 활동하기
- 친구 기본 조사하기 놀이하기
- 단원 학습 내용 정리하기
- 세계 여러 나라의 말 알아보기
- 표정 그림책 만들기

#### 감정카드 만들기 (21가지)

- 라임을 이용한 첫소리 음가 익히기
  - cat, fat, hat, mat, rat, sat, vat
- 소리의 음 가를 먼저 익히고 자음 클러스터에 의한 소리를 도입하여 자음 두개가 어울렸을 때 소리와 철자간의 관계를 인식하게 활동함

#### 단원별 파닉스 연간 수업 안내

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>단원</th>
<th>교재</th>
<th>교재 채트</th>
<th>제구성</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>‘n[n]’ 소리 익히기</td>
<td>[n], [n], [n], name [n], [n], [n], Nancy [n], [n], [n], nine name, Nancy, nine</td>
<td>-‘Phonics Song’ 익히기-알파벳별 대표음가 익히기 [æ],[æ],apple [b],[b],ball [c],[c],cat [d],[d],dog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>‘b[b]’ 소리 익히기</td>
<td>[b], [b], [b], book [b],[b], [b], banana [b], [b], bus</td>
<td>[g],[g],gorilla [h],[h],hat [i],[i], igloo [d],[d],jacket [k],[k],kangaroo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>번호</td>
<td>소리</td>
<td>음가</td>
<td>(교육과정참고)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>'s[s]'</td>
<td>[s], [s], [s], sick [s], [s], [s], sad [s], [s], [s], seven sick, sad, seven</td>
<td>알파벳 대표 음가 듣고 알파벳 찾기 (A<del>Z, a</del>z) 알파벳 대소문자를 알맞게 쓰기</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>'t[t]'</td>
<td>[t], [t], [t], ten [t], [t], [t], tennis [t], [t], [t], taxi ten, tennis, taxi</td>
<td>[라임을 이용한 첫소리 음가 익히기] □ ed 소리 익히기 -bed, ked, hed, ted, fed, red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>'y[j]'</td>
<td>[j], [j], [j], yellow [j], [j], [j], yo-yo [j], [j], [j], yes yellow, yo-yo, yes</td>
<td>[라임을 이용한 첫소리 음가 익히기] □ at 소리 익히기 -cat, fat, hat, mat, pat, rat, sat, vat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>'l[l]'</td>
<td>[l], [l], [l], look [l], [l], [l], lemon [l], [l], [l], lunch look, lemon, lunch</td>
<td>[라임을 이용한 첫소리 음가 익히기] □ ad 소리 익히기 -bad, dad, fad, had, lad, mad, pad, sad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>'d[d]'</td>
<td>[d], [d], [d], down [d], [d], [d], doll [d], [d], [d], dog down, doll, dog</td>
<td>[라임을 이용한 첫소리 음가 익히기] □ op 소리 익히기 -cop, top, hop, mop, pop, rop, stop, plop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>'c[k]'</td>
<td>[k], [k], [k], cat [k], [k], [k], color [k], [k], [k], cup cat, color, cup</td>
<td>[라임을 이용한 첫소리 음가 익히기] □ all 소리 익히기 -ball, call, hall, mall, tall, fall, wall, small</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>'r[r]'</td>
<td>[r], [r], [r], raining [r], [r], [r], ready [r], [r], [r], run raining, ready, run</td>
<td>[라임을 이용한 첫소리 음가 익히기] □ ay 소리 익히기 -bay, day, fay, hay, lay, may, pay, say, play, clay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>'m[m]'</td>
<td>[m], [m], [m], make [m], [m], [m], many make, many, melon</td>
<td>[라임을 이용한 첫소리 음가 익히기] □ ad-fade, □ at-mate, □ cap-tape mad-made, fade-fade, mate-mate, cat-cate, cap-cape, tape-tape 단모음이 장모음화하는 현상을 발견학습모형으로 조작체험 활동으로 제단계함</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>'h[h]'</td>
<td>[h], [h], [h], he [h], [h], [h], hat [h], [h], [h], handsome</td>
<td>[라임을 이용한 첫소리 음가 익히기] □ i 전모음의 장모음화 익히기 kit-kite, sit-site, dim-dime, tim-time</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
배움중심수업방향

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>영역</th>
<th>배움중심수업 방향</th>
<th>관점</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>배움 중심 수업 설계</td>
<td>◆ 배움중심수업은 수업 기법이나 기능을 의미하는 것이 아니라, 교육과정 재구성, 교육방법, 평가혁신 등 총체적인 교육활동 혁신이다.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
  • 창의지성역량(의사소통능력, 문화적소양능력, 자기주도 학습능력 등)이 신장되도록 교육과정을 재구성하고 수업을 설계하는가?
  • 듣기, 말하기, 읽기, 쓰기의 4기능이 연계된 의사소통과정에서 배움이 전개되도록 교육과정을 재구성하고 수업을 설계하는가?
  • 수업참여자(학생, 교사) 모두의 협력을 통해 지식이 형성, 창조되도록 설계되었는가?
  • 지식 창조의 과정을 경험하면서 생각을 키울 수 있는 평가가 계획되었는가?
| 배움 중심 수업 과정 | ◆ 배움중심수업의 본질은 지식이나 기능의 습득, 축적을 넘어 지식이 창조되는 수업이다. ◆ 학생들이 어떤 내용을 익히는가가 아닌 어떻게 지식을 탐구해가는가를 중심에 두는 수업이다. |  
  • 창의지성텍스트를 활용하여 흥미와 호기심이 지속적으로 일어나는 체험활동(스트리얼링, 노래, 캠프, 게임, 역할극 등)을 하는가?
  • 학습자의 수준보다 약간 높은 목표를 설정한 과제활동을 통해 학습자의 지적인 성장(자기생각만들기)이 일어나는가?
  • 병자를 포함한 다양한 텍스트를 통해 지식을 쌓음하고 그로 인해 도출된 비판적 사고력을 통해 영어텍스트(음성문자)로 표현하는가?
  • 발표 및 글쓰기 시 한 개의 정답을 요구하기 보다는 여러 개의 응답이 나올 수 있도록 함으로써 학습자의 확산적, 주체적, 창의적 사고력이 신장되는 활동은 하는가?
  • 수업 과정에서 경쟁이 아닌 협력적인 배움(자기생각 만들기)과 나눔(자고 다른 자기생각 나누기)이 일어나는가?
  • 수업은 기금의 영어로 진행하고 학습자의 수준을 고려하여 영어사용량과 수준, 속도 등을 적절히 조절하여, 학습자의 설문과 피드백을 교사가 곧바로 수정해주기보다는 스스로 개발할 수 있도록 피드백을 제공하는가?
  • 우리나라의 문화를 이해하고 다른 나라의 문화에 대한 개방적 태도 및 존중의식을 기르는 활동을 하는가?
  • 학생-학생, 학생-교사 간에 협력적인 상호작용으로 배움이 일어나는가?(신뢰, 수용, 격려, 개발, 도전)
3. 영어과 배움수업을 위한 다른 전문가들의 수업 설계

가. TBLT(Task-Based Language Teaching)를 통한 배움수업(덕장초 이옥실)
### 단계 1: Good morning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>단계 (Lesson)</th>
<th>자시 (Time)</th>
<th>학습주제 (Topic)</th>
<th>의사소통능력 (Communication)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Good morning</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>그룹 분배 수용하라.</td>
<td>Good morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>목표를 확인하라.</td>
<td>Good afternoon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>목표를 보는 downright.</td>
<td>Good evening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.</td>
<td>목표를 확인하라.</td>
<td>Good night</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 단계 2: This is my sister

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>단계 (Lesson)</th>
<th>자시 (Time)</th>
<th>학습주제 (Topic)</th>
<th>의사소통능력 (Communication)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. This is my sister</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>나의 여동생이 나타남.</td>
<td>This is my sister</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>여동생과 대화하라.</td>
<td>Nice to meet you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>목표를 확인하라.</td>
<td>Who is she (he)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.</td>
<td>목표를 확인하라.</td>
<td>She (he) is my ~.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 단계 3: It's time for lunch

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>단계 (Lesson)</th>
<th>자시 (Time)</th>
<th>학습주제 (Topic)</th>
<th>의사소통능력 (Communication)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. It's time for lunch</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>식사의 시작 시간을 확인하라.</td>
<td>What time is it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>식사의 시작 시간을 확인하라.</td>
<td>It's 7:10,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>식사의 시작 시간을 확인하라.</td>
<td>I'm hungry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.</td>
<td>식사의 시작 시간을 확인하라.</td>
<td>It's time for lunch.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 단계 4: Shake your head

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>단계 (Lesson)</th>
<th>자시 (Time)</th>
<th>학습주제 (Topic)</th>
<th>의사소통능력 (Communication)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. Shake your head</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>목표를 확인하라.</td>
<td>My arm hurts,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>목표를 확인하라.</td>
<td>That's too bad,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>목표를 확인하라.</td>
<td>Shake your head.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.</td>
<td>목표를 확인하라.</td>
<td>Raise your hand.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

나. Word-Bank 나눔활동을 통해 4Skills-Up 통한 배움수업 (성남구미초 김미애)
### Guiding of Next Lesson

### 청 리

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Warm-up</th>
<th>학습내용정리</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>단위주제에서 배운 학습자료를 활용하여 새롭게 확장된 연재와 재미있었던 활동 확인</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluation</th>
<th>평가</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>자신의 배움목표 달성 여부 확인</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Guiding of Next Lesson</th>
<th>차시예고</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>차시학습에 대한 기대 수 있도록 향상성을 유발할 수 있는 방법을 통해 차시 예고 및 배움목표 설정할 수 있도록 함</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Closing</th>
<th>잔인사</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>수업시간 배운 표현을 직접 생활에 활용할 수 있도록 해당 차시 EBS를 추천하여 자기주도적학습의 기회 제공함</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 제 4 Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4Skills UP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>지식비교 등</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>지식비교 등</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>지식비교 등</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 이 수업을 위한 재구성 및 통합 방법은?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&lt;Phonics&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>파닉스를 배울 수 있고, 앞동의 수준과 높 이에 적합한 단어 선</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&lt;운동장놀이&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>통합 교과 중 운동 장 놀이를 추출하여 그대로 적용하</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&lt;배움중심&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>자기 주도적으로 학습하고, 친구들과 서로 협력하여</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

물론, 2학년 창의적체험활동을 위한 영어 배움수업 (소양초 김지영)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>단원</th>
<th>Phonic G</th>
<th>일시</th>
<th>2013.6.13.(목)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>배움 주제</td>
<td>Phonic G 이해하기</td>
<td>장소</td>
<td>2-3교실 및 체육관</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 배움 목표
(개별별로 설정)
- **창의지성 텍스트 ★**
  - 인류의 지식 전통
  - 아동들의 흥미와 호기심을 끌 수 있는 창작 이야기
  - 문화적 소양: 놀이를 통한 타인 배려, 협동의 가치와 중요성 인식
  - 경향과 체험: 직접적인 의사소통, 경향과 체험을 통한 배움
  - 사회적 경향: 이야기를 매개로 직접 모둠의 나눔 성과 배움

- **배움소통 ♠**
  - 교사-학생 소통: 수업 대화를 통한 배움 활동 및 배움 방향제시
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  - 학습 전략: 창의적 배움: 창의적 생각과 모둠 활동을 통한 상호협력적 배움
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  - 다방면요소: 다양한 이야기 만들기와 운동장 놀이의 변형

### 배움학습 자료
- 교사 Phonic F song, mini English book F:G ①②, 게임 도구, Phonic G 플래시 카드
- 학생 mini English book F:G ①②, 필기 도구

### 이 수업을 위한 교수-학습 모형은?

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★ 슬래갑기놀이 (등가알기중심)
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창의적 이야기 만들기

배움 활동 2
★ Phonics 이용하 나만의 이야기 만
모둠 개인	나만의 이야기를


Ⅲ. 마치며

혼히들 배움수업을 장님이 코끼리를 만져보고 서로 서로 다른 말들을 다양하게 또 가지가지로 이라고, 저 렇다고 말들을 한다. 이사람 말도 맞고 저사람 말들도 두린 말들이 아니다.

우리들이 평소에 하는 영어수업에서 조금만 갈도를 다르게 의미있는 실생활에서의 소재와 학생들의 호기심 있는 주변활동의 커리들, 그리고 문화와 삶이 녹아있는 다양한 인문학적 텍스트들을 수업현장으로 가지고 온다. 텍스트 하나 하나에서 학생들로 하여금 생각을 하게 하고 그것들과 또 같은 친구들과, 다양한 상황들과 자료들과 상호 연관지어 또다른 텍스트를 만들어 낸다. 이러한 과정에서 학생들은 각자의 생각을 정리하고 비교하면서 나의 스타일의 생각을 만들어내고 또 추후에는 또 다른 암시와 추론등으로 자기생각을 일반화하면서 생각들을 넓혀 최종적으로 창의력의 경지에 도달할 것이다.

학생이 배운 것이 없다면 그것은 좋은 수업이라고 볼 수 없을 것이다. 학습자가 수업의 주제가 되고 교사가 그들 속에 잠재되어 있는 능력을 ‘목록’ 자극을 주어 끌어내내던 때, 수업은 하나의 예술로 승화될 수 있으리라.

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Action Research on Developing Creative English Writing Skills Using Fantasy Stories

In-Sook Lee (Seoul Keumsan Elementary School)
Hae-Ri Kim (Seoul National University of Education)

Introduction

Developing writing skills are important because we live in the era of globalization by using advanced written communication devices such as e-mail, text message, or SNS. According to the revised Korean national curriculum (Korea Ministry of Education, 2012), creativity has been emphasized as a virtue which the learners should possess. Therefore, this study aimed at developing creative writing skills through the instruction by using fantasy stories which would boost creative thinking during writing activities. To explore the process of implementing creative writing in a primary EFL setting, the study adopted the framework of action research in which a spiral or cycle of planning, action, monitoring and reflection were included (Ebbutt, 1985; Elliott, 1991; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1982; McKeran, 1991). To address the objective of the study, the following research questions were set up:

1. What possible solutions of the problems can be produced in an elementary school English writing lesson based on literary texts?
2. What aspects of students' writing can be identified during the practices based on fantasy literature?

Review of Literature

What is the creativity relevant to English skills? There are little clear answers to this question. These days, however, increasing numbers of studies (Kang, 2012; Kang & Choi, 2012; Kim, 2012; No, 2013) emphasized the necessities and possibilities of improving creativity through EFL writing classes. Unfortunately, creative writing skills in EFL situation are unlikely to be improved until great effort has been made. Considering difficulties in teaching and learning writing, process writing has great implications for us. Through process writing, students can learn how to write by writing (Stone, 1996).

When writing, individual differences can be also a problem. This problem can be solved by learning cooperatively. Cooperative learning is an instructional method in which students work together in small, heterogeneous groups to complete a problem, project, or other instructional goal, while teachers act as guides or facilitators. This method works to reinforce a student’s own learning as well as the learning of his or her fellow group members (Johnson & Johnson, 1975).

The genre of fantasy is rapidly growing genre among children and young adults. It’s filled with fantastic literary devices, therefore, it can encourage reading, imagination and creativity. Fantasy stories have educational advantages when they are brought into the English classroom. The reasons are that they can entertain the students (Stoodt &
Amspaugh, 2008), help them develop creativity (Swanton, 1984) and teach and advice them on values and morality issues (Britton, 1977).

METHOD

Participants

The participants were 25 elementary school 5th graders (12 males and 13 females). Their English skills ranged from lowest to medium levels according to TOSEL* scores. The first author who was the classroom teacher taught these students.

Framework

The method of the study is followed by self-reflective action research in which an iterative process of identifying a problem, planning an appropriate action, carrying out and observing the action, and reflecting on the outcome for better practice are included. As shown below, this study employed the framework of action research in which three cycles of planning, action, monitoring and reflection are included.

![Diagram of action research cycles](image)

Picture 1. Cycle of action research

Text Selection

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* TOSEL is an abbreviation of test of the skills in the English language developed by EBS (the Korean Education Broadcasting System). It is a standardized test of English language proficiency for non-native English learners and measures listening, reading, and writing skills.
Data collection and analysis

The researchers employed various techniques for collecting data such as participants’ writings, interviewing, participant observations, questionnaires. Data collected were analyzed qualitatively.

RESULTS

The result emerged in two categories. First category is related to implementing an action research in an EFL setting. The second category focuses on the aspects of students' writing based on fantasy stories.

1. Implementing an action research in an EFL setting

The researchers iteratively carried out the process of identifying a problem, planning an appropriate action, carrying out and observing the action, and reflecting on the outcome for better practice. This study employed the three cycles of action research.

The first cycle involved seeking the appropriate children's literary texts for provoking the students' interests and the connecting these to other writing activities. The research used three different genres, informational, fantasy, and realistic. The texts chosen were Tomorrow's Alphabet, Little Beauty, and Trashy Town, respectively.

In students' writing, the researchers found different aspects of writing among genres. When using the informational text, Tomorrow's Alphabet, students simply changed some words from the given patterns in the text. Despite the personal differences between their English levels, students wrote similar sentences and put other words within the pattern. Next, the researcher asked the students to answer the questions and write their own pieces based on the fantasy story, Little Beauty. When the researcher asked them what they can do for the sad gorilla in the story, students produced various answers based on their lives or the understanding of the text. After reading, the activity was connected to write a revised story by changing characters, events, and settings. Fantasy stories allowed students to become more flexible and creative in their thinking. When using the realistic story, Trashy Town, students also answered questions and wrote sentences based on their ideas. Unlike writings based on a fantasy story, students' writings based on a realistic story were limited within the boundary of their life.

After using three different genres, such as informational, realistic and fantasy stories, fantasy was selected as an appropriate genre to extend students’ imagination and develop their creativity. During the cycle, the researchers reflected students' low proficiency had caused several problems when they wrote. After a supplementary plan was established, cycle II was conducted.

The second cycle focused on solving problems caused by insufficient vocabularies and writing difficulties. To solve these problems, the researcher set plans for teaching strategies such as building vocabularies, guiding
cooperative learning, and stimulating creative thinking and these supportive roles helped to develop students’ writing.

Most of the participants were lacking of word knowledge, therefore, the researcher taught critical words to make them understand the text. One of the best ways to build vocabularies was using games. Games help and encourage many learners to sustain their interest. While writing, students worked both alone and in groups. Cooperative learning was an effective instructional approach to improve students’ writing skills because students could learn new words, ways to write, grammar, punctuation while cooperating in groups. These advantages fostered better writing when they wrote alone. The researcher also taught some creative thinking strategies such as mind mapping, brainstorming, and SCAMPER*.

In the third cycle, the researcher taught process writing which aimed to make students write correctly and to feel a sense of fulfillment. The creation of writing occurs in basically five stages: prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing.

Once students produce a rough draft, they read it again and share it with peers or a teacher to receive comments. Then they make modifications to their writings based on the feedback from their peers or a teacher. revising, or elaborating on the first draft, takes place at this point. Students corrected mechanical errors like spelling or punctuation at the editing stage. At the last stage, publishing, they shared their writing with peers. Pictures below shows gradual progress in Youngjun's writing.

![Picture 2. Youngjun's gradual progress in his writing](drafting, September, 27) ![Picture 2. Youngjun's gradual progress in his writing](revising, October, 1) ![Picture 2. Youngjun's gradual progress in his writing](publishing, October, 10)

Youngjun was a lower level student. He was interested in creative stories and writing tasks. However, his low proficiency frustrated him. His writing skills were gradually developed as learning and helping in groups, learning process writing, and taking immediate feedback in many of the stages of process writing.

Results from the implementation of the three cycles showed the aspects of the writing performance and attitudes towards writing. The whole process were beneficial in developing students’ creative writing skills and enhancing their sense of achievement.

2. Aspects of students’ writing based on fantasy stories

Various literacy experiences fostered students’ written communication and creative writing skills as well. Students expressed their ideas creatively by referring to several literacy constituents of fantasy stories. They also showed the

* SCAMPER is a mnemonic that stands for Substitute, Combine, Adapt, Modify, Put to another use, Eliminate, and Reverse.
potential for writing descriptive, personal, expository and narrative writing and poetry.

First, students created various kinds of writings based on the literacy constituents of fantasy stories. Fantasy stories were good model for writing creative stories. In other words, topics of students' writing went beyond the texts they read because students not only imitated the elements of the texts such as characters, setting, plots and events, but also applied their own creative imaginations. For example, after reading *Little Beauty*, Yongjun wrote about a man who could control anything though they didn't deal with that subject. Students also created new witches, named Kale and Morgana, after reading texts related to witches and settings were varied from the land to the universe. When they wrote creative fantasy stories, students were careful to structure probability because one of the characteristics of fantasy is the law of probability.

Second, students wrote sentences or paragraphs on the given tasks, several writing genres were found in their writings. All the texts which the classroom teacher read for students were included in the narrative writing genre. However, the researcher could find descriptive, personal, expository and narrative writing and poetry in students' writings. This result shows that reading fantasy stories could be connected to writing activities of other genres.

After reading *Where the Wild Things Are*, students created their own wild thing and described its features. After reading *Giggle, Giggle, Quack*, Minkyung predicted what would happen next to the end of the story and wrote the next story. Pictures below are descriptive and personal writing written by Minkyung.

![Picture 3. Minkyung's descriptive and personal writings](image)

Minkyung described the appearance of her wild thing. She tried to convey a particular image through the use of specific details. There was a short letter in the middle of the writing on the right side. In *Giggle, Giggle, Quack*, animals kept writing memos to the temporary owner. Minkyung developed a memo to a letter and inserted a letter in her writing.

Students also wrote expository and narrative writing and poetry. This study didn't focus on teaching writing genres so students' writings were not well-structured. However, their writing showed the possibility that fantasy stories could be connected to other genres.

**Implications and limitations**

The following implications were based on the results and conclusions drawn in this study. Firstly, fantasy
literature is a good teaching material because it can be connected to write various writing genres and it, also, stimulates students’ curiosity and interest. Secondly, elementary students, naturally, possess the ability to write creatively. Therefore, teachers should support them by providing quality materials and by varying teaching methods. Lastly, the results of this action research will also aid in providing tips for teachers who seek the ways for the literature-based writing instruction.

There were some limitations of the study, although these results showed positive effects on teaching primary English writing. There were also suggestions for further research. The first limitation concerned the texts used in the study. The researcher chose one text each among informational, realistic, and fantasy genres to find out their possibilities as a writing model. Many more children's literature genres and more texts remain. Further research would have found more aspects if the researcher have compared and applied more genres or texts. The second limitation was related to the mass class. The researcher as a non-native classroom teacher had difficulty to correct all the errors that students made. Further research would consider the possibility of cooperating with a native English teacher to teach writing processes.

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