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Novice English Teachers' Initial Career Motives and Demotivation in South Korea

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This study explores the initial career motives and demotivation of novice English teachers in Korea. A questionnaire survey was conducted with 63 novice English teachers to determine the factors influencing their initial career motives and demotivation. The results indicated that six factors influenced teacher motivation: *ideal L2 self, ideal L2 teacher self, job security, fear of having other careers, ought-to L2 self,* and *altruism*. Among them, ideal L2 self and ideal L2 teacher self were found to be the most influential motivation for novice teachers to become English teachers. In terms of demotivation, the imposition of too many administrative tasks on teachers, in addition to the activity of teaching English, and students' disinterested and indifferent attitudes in English classes were the most detrimental and demotivating factors for teachers. The results also suggested that novice English teachers' motivation was significantly different depending on their gender and school type. The results imply that it is important that educational authorities devote careful attention to pre-service teachers and provide opportunities for them to reflect upon their initial career motives as well as ensure equal rights for the teachers.

[Novice English teacher/Novice English teacher career motive/Novice English teacher demotivation]

I. INTRODUCTION

Teacher motivation is a very important issue in the field of education. Although there has

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been a lot of attention and research about student motivation (e.g., Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Flout, Elwood, & Hood, 2009; Sampson, 2016), teacher motivation has become an important issue recently as it is being newly regarded as important as student motivation and necessary to be further researched (Song & Kim, 2016).

Studies abroad indicate that the most influential motivation factor among foreign language teachers is intrinsic value (Kassabgy, Boraie, & Schmidt, 2001; Koran, 2015; Topkaya & Uztosun, 2012). When one considers intrinsic value as an important factor, that person does something due to the pleasure and psychological reward that stems from him/herself. Teachers' intrinsic value of teaching can be observed in South Korea (henceforth Korea) where teachers play a significant role in education and largely influence students. English teachers in Korea tend to value their intrinsic motivation most when they choose their careers (Kim & Y.-K. Kim, 2015a; Kim & Y. Kim, 2016). Kim and Y.-K. Kim (2015b), for example, conducted a research about pre-service English teachers' motivation. The result showed that pre-service teachers are motivated through ideal L2 self, which reflects their positive attitudes toward English and communication in English.

However, for the last few years, schools are going through fundamental changes. Teachers feel emotional exhaustion from various factors such as heavy workload, classroom management, and lower job satisfaction, resulting in drastic demotivation with the stress and burnout from their school (Bae & Uhm, 2016; E.-J. Kim, 2017; Klassen & Chiu, 2010). This phenomenon can cause teachers to perceive their teaching profession as a job for a living, which provides them with a suitable amount of money and free time without considering that they are carrying out an important educational mission in caring for the next generation. According to Han (2003), teachers do not perceive their job as a sacred profession. Rather, they view it as an expert profession.

What teachers value the most and the least when they choose to become a teacher should be taken into consideration since these factors will give a huge impact on teacher motivation and demotivation (Koran, 2015; Topkaya & Uztosun, 2012). Although there are some studies about Korean English teachers' initial career motives and demotivation (Kim & Y.-K. Kim, 2015a; Kim & Y. Kim, 2016), these studies focused on the initial career motives and demotivation of English teachers regardless of the service period and studies about novice Korean EFL teachers are still scarce. Furthermore, only a few studies exist internationally (Kumazawa, 2013; Kyriacou & Kunc, 2007). Given this, the current study aims to find out factors that affect novice Korean English teachers' initial career motives and distinguishing demotivating features when compared to experienced teachers. The research questions are as follows:

1. What are the factors of novice English teachers' initial career motives and demotivation?

2. What are the influences of individual difference on novice English teachers' initial career motives and demotivation?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. English Teachers' Initial Career Motives

There are a lot of research findings regarding motivation (e.g., Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Gardner, 2010; Kormos & Csizér, 2008), but teacher motivation needs to be further investigated and there are not much research about it to date. There are two areas of investigating initial career motives of English teacher: examining pre-service and in-service teachers' cases.

In case of pre-service teachers, Topkaya and Uztosun (2012) examined pre-service EFL teachers' career motivation in Turkey. They found that social utility values and intrinsic values were top two motivation factors. Items such as altruism contributing to society and giving a positive influence on the students which are our next generation were included in social utility values. Intrinsic values include intrinsic interest and longing to teach.

As an effort to take in-service teachers into account, Igawa (2009) investigated three countries (i.e., Japan, Cambodia, and the U.S.) to find out initial job motives of in-service teachers. The results were intriguing since national differences were identified among the participating countries. Japanese teachers emphasized their enthusiasm toward English as *"I liked English"*. Cambodian teachers chose social utility values and enthusiasm toward teaching and English. On the other hand, U.S. teachers showed such a different pattern as *"Other"*, which refers to *'interests in foreign cultures'*, and *'to live or travel abroad'*. Furthermore, Koran (2015) found out the underlying career choice structures of EFL teachers. A total number of 37 in-service English teachers in Iraq participated in the study. Results showed that intrinsic rewards and altruistic reasons were the most popular factors when they chose their career as a teacher. For example, teachers were motivated as they recognized that they could change students' lives and contribute to society with their job. Moreover, English teachers chose their careers as a teacher due to its positive social recognition and job security function.

In the similar vein, there are some studies conducted in Korea (e.g., Kim & Y.-K. Kim, 2015a; Kim & Y. Kim, 2016). Kim and Y.-K. Kim (2015a) studied Korean EFL teachers' initial career motives and demotivating factors by employing the survey questionnaire with 94 in-service teachers. Four factors emerged from the factor analysis in teachers' initial career motives. The first factor was global orientation and it was a distinguishing feature that was not found in Koran's (2015) study. English is a communication tool in the

globalized world and teachers wish to help students learn English and use it for their global communication. Furthermore, researchers found that global orientation can be only found in specific language teachers, especially English, because English is used worldwide as a tool of global communication among people from various countries. On the other hand, in teachers of different subjects, more prominent are other factors such as job security, altruism, and ought-to-self.

The study about initial career motives and demotivation was further investigated by Kim and Y. Kim (2016). They focused on individual differences. A total number of 153 in-service teachers participated in the study and five constructs were found in their initial career motives: expected intrinsic rewards, ideal L2 self, ideal L2 teacher self, pressure on career choice, and monetary rewards. Among them, expected intrinsic rewards that had items such as *'had a talent for English teaching'*, and *'enjoyable to teach English to students'* were found to be the most dominant reason for choosing their career. As for individual differences, there was significant difference in English teachers' initial career motives in terms of gender in two factors: ideal L2 self and pressure on career choice. Female teachers showed greater initial career motives in ideal L2 self which indicated their willingness to learn English to communicate in English with a positive attitude. Moreover, female teachers were found to have more pressure on career choice than male teachers.

2. Demotivation of English Teachers

Since teacher demotivation is one of the newly researched areas in L2 motivation, relatively recent studies focus on teachers' demotivation (Kim & Y.-K. Kim, 2015a; Kim & Y. Kim, 2016; Kumazawa, 2013; Sugino, 2010). Previously, Bennell (2004) and Kiziltepe (2008) found out demotivating factors for teachers in general. In Bennell's study, low motivation level of teachers in public schools came from a combination of many factors: low morale and job satisfaction, poor incentives, and inadequate teacher training. In Kiziltepe's study, the result indicated that student-related factors were very influential with regard to teacher demotivation among five categorized factors: students, structural and physical characteristics of classes, working conditions, financial problems due to the low salary, and lack of opportunities for the research owing to committee meetings and long teaching hours.

This demotivation research about English teachers was initiated from the studies above. Sugino (2010) conducted study with 97 English teachers in universities in Japan. The questionnaire consisted of four demotivating factors: students' attitudes, students' abilities and school facilities, working conditions, and relationships with colleagues. Among them, the most demotivating factor was related to students and especially, students' negative attitudes and behaviors were revealed as the most powerful demotivating issue. In addition,

insufficient administrative support and paperwork burden affected English teachers' demotivation.

Kumazawa's (2013) research also showed English teachers' demotivation. She adopted qualitative research in examining four novice Japanese EFL teachers and analyzed the difficulties they have in their careers with the possible selves. The result indicated that teachers were going through a lot of difficulties because of the gap between their expectations and the reality and therefore adequate solutions should be provided for novice teachers as following: Pre-service teachers should be notified of the likely gap between their expectations and the reality of schools. Novice teachers should be assigned to schools that have less problems. School administrators should reconstruct school environment for novice teachers and help them match their ideal selves with the reality. A friendly environment should be provided so that they can get used to their school lives as a teacher.

At a national level, some studies dealt with motivational factors that influenced pre- or in-service teachers' initial career choice, and few studies dealt with demotivation. In Korea, some studies (Kim & Y.-K. Kim, 2015a; Kim & Y. Kim, 2016) investigated English teachers' demotivation factors along with initial career motives in Korea. For example, Kim and Y.-K. Kim (2015a) identified three detrimental factors that affected Korean English teacher motivation: obstacles to communicative language teaching, inadequate administrative support, and lack of social recognition. Among them, obstacles to communicative language teaching was the most influential demotivating factor. This is important given the characteristics of English as a school subject. The goal of English teaching is to attain sufficient proficiency for global communication. Therefore, teachers endeavor to implement diverse teaching techniques and practices in their classroom. However, despite these efforts, the test-oriented education environment in Korea discourages teachers. English education in Korea has been focusing heavily on English for tests. Thus, students are not likely to form positive attitudes toward this practical type of class and are instead eager to focus mostly on preparing for English tests. In this situation, it would be difficult for teachers to feel the need of implementing various teaching techniques or improving themselves. As a consequence, this may result in helplessness and demotivation in teaching English.

Reflecting upon the aforementioned study, Kim and Y. Kim (2016) investigated both initial career motives and demotivation in Korea. Results indicated that the burden from school administration and learners' lethargic attitudes dominantly caused teachers' demotivation. Their study revealed individual learner difference among those demotivating factors, and it was found that participants having four to six years of teaching experience were likely to be demotivated. The result showed that teachers' affective aspects should be considered in teacher education and there should be careful attention to teachers with less than six years of teaching.

There are a few studies regarding novice English teachers' initial career motives or (de)motivation. In Kyriacou and Kunc's (2007) study, novice teachers in a training course for their postgraduate certificate in education were the participants. The researchers prepared a questionnaire survey about the expectations of teaching as a career. Researchers conducted two years of e-mail interviews with 28 selected teachers to observe any changes or differences in their motivation that they had gone through. Results indicated that the most positive factor was the pleasure generated by students' success while the most negative factor was excessive amount of workload.

Novice teachers have knowledge of English as a teaching subject, but most of them do not have real teaching experience in schools except for a month-long teaching practicum. They are easily affected by their environment and people around them (Zhang, 2013). That is why novice teachers' initial career motives and demotivation should be investigated apart from that of experienced teachers.

3. English Teachers' Individual Differences in Initial Career Motives and Demotivation

Previous studies in English teacher motives also investigated individual difference factors among English teachers. In Koran's (2015) study, Iranian people perceived that a teaching job is more recommended for women than for men. Therefore, in the Iranian context, parents expected their daughters to have education-related occupation. According to Kim and Y. Kim's (2016) study, similar phenomena are found in the Korean context because teachers in Korea have guaranteed maternity leave, and for this reason female teachers do not need to worry about their career break.

Kim and Y. Kim (2016) conducted a survey study to identify the individual differences among teachers and the result indicated that teachers' initial career motives showed significant differences depending on their gender, the location of the school, and school type. Specifically, female teachers exhibited higher levels in two factors of initial career motives than male teachers: ideal L2 self and pressure on career choice. Also, the mean score of teachers' ideal L2 self in schools located in rural areas was statistically significantly higher than the schools in the capital city. The findings of the study indicated that public school teachers had stronger initial career motives related to the pressure of career choice than private school teachers implying possible reason as the influence of competitive teacher certification examination environment for the public teachers. Their research also found significant differences in English teaching demotivation depending on the teachers' teaching experience.

In addition to the aforementioned studies, there was a study about English teachers' initial career motives focusing on gender differences in Korea (S. Kim, 2011). This

research investigated factors that construct in-service teachers' motivation and other individual factors that influence their motivation through survey. Kim found out that the gender exerted only a minimal impact on teacher motivation. However, she pointed out that her survey was limited to teachers who voluntarily participated in an optional teacher training program, and for this reason, such results showing no gender differences were somehow expected. Therefore, she suggested that there should be more research in normal school settings.

Even though these research deal with initial career motives and demotivation of English teachers, this study differs from other studies in that it focuses only on novice English teachers. It is also assumed that this research data have less distortion because the participants were not restricted to a certain type or group of teachers, but rather targeted at all English teachers who work in various types of secondary schools.

III. METHOD

1. Participants

In this study, novice teachers are teachers who are in their first year to their sixth year of teaching. It was important to consult definitions of the novice teachers in previous studies and to include appropriate years for the investigation of initial career motives and demotivation. In the previous study, Kang and Kim (2006) saw novice teachers to have less than five years of teaching experience. Adding to that, the study conducted by Kim and Y. Kim (2016) indicated that teachers experienced their demotivation in their fourth to sixth year of teaching. To take a closer look at both initial career motives and demotivating factors, novice teachers in this study are defined as teachers having less than seven years of teaching experience.

In order to investigate novice English teachers' initial career motives and demotivation they experience when teaching, a total number of 63 teachers in Korea participated in the survey: 39 middle school teachers (62%), 22 high school teachers (35%), and 2 teachers who each responded that they teach in an alternative school, and teach both in middle school and high school. The age of the participants ranged from 23 to 38. Seventy-six percent of the participants consists of female teachers. The average teaching experience was 2.5 years. There were 40 teachers (64%) on regular tenure-track and 23 teachers (36%) on contract including temporary, part-time, and English conversation instructors. In terms of qualifications, 21 of the participants (33.3%) were first-year teachers who just graduated from their university and 10 teachers (15.9%) were in their fifth or sixth year teaching

English. Fifteen of the participants (23.8%) were in graduate school or had a master's degree.

2. Data Collection

According to Cho and Kim (2018), the investigation of English language teacher motivation has increased domestically since 2011. For example, Song and Kim (2016) investigated two Korean English teachers' values, beliefs, and (de)motivation by adopting semi-structured interviews. Similarly, Lee and Kim (2016) studied two teachers' motivation qualitatively. To date, most teacher (de)motivation studies in Korea were conducted qualitatively and only few studies adopted quantitative methods. Therefore, given the need of quantitative research, this study investigates novice English teachers' initial career motives and demotivating factors through questionnaire survey.

This study used the online questionnaire survey method to investigate initial career motives and demotivation factors that novice English teachers have. The questionnaire items were constructed by referring to Kim and Y.-K. Kim's (2015a) previous research. The questionnaire underwent the step of modification through the pilot study. In the pilot study, two novice teachers were recruited and asked to write down the factors that motivated them to become an English teacher and the factors that demotivate them. The pilot study showed that all factors stated by the two participating teachers were already included in the existing survey questionnaire. Therefore, the researchers decided to use the items without major modification.

The questionnaire items are comprised of three sections, referring to Kim and Y.-K. Kim's (2015a) study. The first section asked about the reasons novice English teachers chose their job as an English teacher. There were 21 items, and an additional open-ended question to find out any additional reasons why the participants decided to become a teacher. The second section was about demotivating factors, and there were 10 items asking about the possible reasons or factors of teacher demotivation. After the second section, there was an open-ended question about other reasons of their demotivation. A five-point, Likert-type scale was used to measure each item ranging from disagree strongly (1) to agree strongly (5).

3. Data Analysis Method

Factor analysis (SPSS 20.0) was conducted for the items about both initial career choice motives and demotivating factors to find out the underlying constructs. Varimax rotation was used in order to perform principal component analysis. Internal consistency of each factor was examined by using Cronbach's alpha. To calculate the mean and standard

deviation that respective factors of initial job career choice motives and demotivation have, a series of descriptive analyses were conducted. Furthermore, an independent samples t-test was carried out to find out the influence of individual differences in novice English teachers' initial career motives and demotivating factors.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Initial Career Motives of Novice English Teachers

In Table 1, Factor 1 includes three items (α = .819), and they are labeled as 'Ideal L2 self'. Ideal L2 self indicates teachers' positive attitudes toward English especially in communication and their ideal self-images as English speakers. According to Dörnyei (2005, 2009), one can put more effort to achieve his/her goal by having a clear and ideal blueprint of the future. From this factor, it is assumed that participants were motivated to become a teacher by having a clear ideal self-image as an English speaker.

They were interested in foreign culture and people, which can be found in other studies as well. Igawa (2009) and Kim and Y.-K. Kim (2015a) studied ESL/EFL teachers' motivation and both research identified that teachers have an interest in foreign culture and communication with others. They thought that they could meet a lot of people by using English in a globalized world. Moreover, they considered communicating with other people as important and wanted to be recognized as competent and proficient English speakers. Therefore, the items in Factor 1 represent teachers' desire to perceive themselves as an ideal English competent speaker with high level of language proficiency.

Factor 2 is different from Factor 1 to some degree, in that items in this factor represent teachers' perception of themselves as an ideal English teacher: 'Ideal L2 teacher self' (α = .736). All items were related to teaching English. To be specific, teachers actively engaged themselves as English teacher and perceived teaching English as enjoyable and wonderful. They liked English and thought that it would be enjoyable to teach English to their students. In addition, this factor shows their thought that it is important to teach English in a globalized world. Furthermore, they thought they had talent in teaching English. In Kim and Y.-K. Kim's (2015a) study, one dominant factor, global orientation, explains both Factor 1 and Factor 2 in the present study. Global orientation reflects teachers' perception of English as a global language and ideal L2 teacher self. However, in Kim and Y. Kim's (2016) study, ideal L2 self and ideal L2 teacher self were identified as distinct factors, which is similar to the present study.

TABLE 1

Factors for Initial Career Motives of Novice English teachers

Factor No.	Factor	Item No.	Factor loading	Item
1	Ideal L2 self (α = .819)	14	.890	I have had lots of interest in foreign culture and people.
		06	.836	I thought it was wonderful to communicate in English.
		20	.745	I thought I could meet a lot of different people around the world through English.
	Eigenvalue			4.393
2	Ideal L2 teacher self (α = .736)	19	.822	I thought I had a talent for teaching English.
		13	.693	I thought it was wonderful to be able to teach English.
		01	.590	I liked English.
		07	.466	I thought it was important to teach English in a globalized world.
	Eigenvalue			3.184
3	Job security (α = .676)	04	.787	I thought I could be paid for appropriate level of income.
		09	.746	I thought teaching English could be a lifelong career with no sexual discrimination.
		17	.609	I thought I could support my family.
	Eigenvalue			1.460
4	Fear of having other careers (α = .816)	12	.924	I was afraid of choosing another career unrelated to my undergraduate major.
		18	.823	I thought it would be difficult to find another job other than as an English teacher.
	Eigenvalue			1.378
5	Ought-to L2 self (α = .785)	02	.907	My parents advised me that being an English teacher is a good job for both men and women.
		05	.813	My parents would have been disappointed if I hadn't chosen to become an English teacher.
	Eigenvalue			1.242
6	Altruism (α = .620)	10	.878	I wanted to contribute to our society.
		16	.545	I wanted to contribute to education in Korea.
	Eigenvalue			1.021

Nevertheless, difference exists between Kim and Y. Kim's (2016) study and this study. In the previous research, researchers considered that teachers show their positive images of teaching based on altruism at both classroom level and society level. Such altruistic reasons are found in Topkaya and Uztosun (2012) and Koran (2015) as well. These studies explained the factor which includes items such as helping learners' communication in English and contributing to society. Items in this study, however, rather reflect teachers' focus on their selves as an English teacher. Teachers tended to focus on their own feelings and thoughts in becoming a teacher. Such tendency of teachers' focusing on personal fulfillment and meaning has also been shown in Manuel and Hughes' (2006) research. Manuel and Hughes focused on whether their participants liked and enjoyed teaching, and

whether they had talent in teaching English. This indicates that novice teachers are inclined to think about themselves as an English teacher while teachers in previous research focused on altruism toward the society and students.

Factor 3 is about the 'Job security' (α = .676). This factor explains novice English teachers' extrinsic motivation. They wanted to become a teacher due to monetary rewards: they could be paid for appropriate level of income, and they could support their family. Furthermore, teachers chose the job because teacher is a lifelong career and there is no sexual discrimination. This factor shows that one of the motives of becoming a teacher is socioeconomic condition.

Factor 4 includes items related to teachers' fear of choosing jobs other than teaching (α = .816). Thus, this factor was labeled as 'Fear of having other careers'. When students enter university, they choose their major. If they want to become an English teacher, they are required to major in English education and go through the specialized curriculum designed for pre-service teachers. According to B.-C. Kim (2003), students choose English education as their major for various reasons. Some of them want to become a teacher while some simply choose their major considering their score gained from College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT). Also, some students attributed the reputation of the university to the reason of choosing College of Education where department of English education is located. This makes students give up on finding other careers, which motivates them to become teachers in the end.

Items 2 and 5 in Factor 5 are related to ought-to L2 self (α = .785). In many cases, parents engage in their children's education and help decide their future careers. Students might think that becoming an English teacher is beneficial for them because influential people such as parents and teachers strongly recommend the teaching job for a better quality of life. Therefore, it is assumed that parental recommendation, expectation and disappointment affect novice teachers' initial career choice. Since those two items reflect a less-internalized type of instrumental disposition, Factor 5 exhibits ought-to L2 teacher self. In Kim and Y. Kim's (2016) study, researchers integrated fear of having other careers and ought-to L2 self and label the items as pressure on career choice. In this study, however, they are considered separately because those two factors have different causes: the former comes from the social environment especially in college while the latter originates from the parental issues.

Factor 6 shows altruism that teachers have for the society (α = .620). In the survey, they answered that they wanted to contribute to the society and to education in Korea. There are some studies that chose altruism as a career motives in teaching (Bastick, 2000; Kim & Y.-K. Kim, 2015a). However, the eigenvalue indicates that the altruism is the least influential factor among six factors. The eigenvalue expresses the amount of information that a factor captures and if the factor has the largest eigenvalue, it means that the factor indicates the

most variance (DeVellis, 2012; Kim & Y.-K. Kim, 2016; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The result of Factor 6 goes with the result of Factors 1 and 2 that teachers now focus on the development of themselves more than contribution to the society when choosing their job. From the results about Factor 1, 2, and 6, we can conclude that those three factors reflect intrinsic motivation whereas Factors 3, 4, and 5 show extrinsic motivation with less internalization in oneself.

Table 2 indicates the mean and the standard deviation of the teachers' responses. The mean of ideal L2 self and ideal L2 teacher self are the highest, with 4.05 and 4.01 respectively while the mean score of altruism is 3.40, which is 0.59 lower than ideal L2 teacher self. The items with corrected item-total correlation under .200 among the 21 items were deleted. After this modification, the factors were analyzed again. Corrected item-total correlation indicates each item's point-biserial correlation, and Oller (1979) suggests that items whose corrected item-total correlation is under .25 should be deleted due to its low reliability. In order to minimize the item deletion for the factor analysis, the researchers first deleted three items, which had corrected item-total correlation under .200, and tested the reliability of the remaining items again. After performing the final analysis, the researchers found that all items indicated corrected item-total correlation over .25. Seven factors were extracted from the factor analysis on novice English teachers' initial career motives. The factors are as follows: ideal L2 self, ideal L2 teacher self, job security, fear of having other careers, ought-to L2 self, altruism, and others. However, the factor 'others' was deleted due to the low reliability (α = .559) which consisted of two items; *I expected the extra income*, and *I wanted to be recognized as being a good English speaker*.

TABLE 2

Descriptive Statistics for Initial Career Motives

	Min.	Max.	M	SD
Ideal L2 self	1.67	5.00	4.05	.73
Ideal L2 teacher self	2.25	5.00	4.01	.63
Altruism	1.50	5.00	3.40	.88
Job security	1.00	5.00	3.30	.83
Fear of having other careers	1.00	5.00	2.71	1.16
Ought-to L2 self	1.00	5.00	2.53	1.08

2. Demotivation of Novice English Teachers

Although novice English teachers have their initial career motives, they are sometimes demotivated by various factors. Table 3 reveals the factors that demotivate teachers. The most demotivating item is excessive administrative tasks imposed other than teaching

English. Teachers face an overwhelming amount of administrative tasks once they work as a teacher. However, this might not be what they expected. As Kumazawa (2013) explained, teachers are likely to feel discrepancy between what they expected and the reality, which leads to an increasing degree of demotivation. The difficulty with too much administrative work acted as demotivating factor in other studies as well (e.g., Kim, Kim, & Zhang, 2014; Kim & Y. Kim, 2016). Considering that their prime motivating factor is related to ideal L2 self and ideal L2 teacher self, the discrepancy between their initial job motives and demotivation can induce disappointment, which cannot be overcome.

In addition to the administrative work, teachers consider students' attitude in class as another demotivating factor. Teachers spend tremendous amount of time in school with their students, and if students' attitudes are lethargic and indifferent, teachers feel demotivated. Previous studies by Sugino (2010) and Kumazawa (2013) had similar results. They found out that learners' negative attitudes demotivated English teachers. In addition, teachers' little or lack of opportunities for autonomous and diverse ways of teaching was one of the strong demotivation factors found among novice English teachers.

TABLE 3

Demotivation of In-service English Teachers

	Item	M	SD
2	Too much administrative tasks imposed besides teaching English	4.10	.88
6	Students' bored and indifferent attitudes in English classes	4.08	.94
9	Lack of opportunities for an autonomous and diverse ways of teaching	3.73	1.05
8	A lot of students in one class for a teacher to handle	3.70	1.24
1	Lack of social recognition and respect for teachers	3.46	.91
3	Lack of confidence when teaching English	3.32	1.12
4	Lack of appropriate rewards for work done in school	3.30	1.10
5	No for little support or understanding in school regarding English Education	3.25	1.00
7	Uncooperative attitudes of co-workers such as principal or fellow English teachers	3.22	1.20
10	Excessive expectations or interference of parents	2.89	1.17

3. Individual Differences of Novice English Teachers in Initial Career Motives and Demotivation

When teacher participated in the survey questionnaire, they were asked to fill out their gender, age, service type, school type, and years of teaching experience. Based on the categorization of features above, an independent-samples t-test was conducted. The results show that there were significant individual differences regarding gender and school type among factors about novice English teachers' initial career motives.

Regarding gender, female teachers' initial career motives in job security and fear of having other careers were significantly higher than male teachers as presented in Table 4. This might be due to the perception that female college students have more difficulty in getting a job than their male counterparts (Chang et al., 2004). Therefore, female teachers have more fear of having other careers. Moreover, their career motives regarding job security is significantly higher than that of male teachers. This result can be explained by guaranteed maternity leave and parental leave. In Korea, female teachers are guaranteed with three years of parental leave for each child without any limits on the number of leaves while other employees in different occupations can only take one-year parental leave once for each (Ministry of Employment and Labor, 2018). Although the mean score of female teachers' initial career motives was higher in almost all factors, it was not significantly different among other factors. In the result of an independent-samples t-test regarding novice English teachers' demotivation, there was a significant difference between male and female teachers on demotivation regarding inappropriate rewards. Inappropriate rewards affected female teachers' demotivation more than male teachers in a statistically significant manner.

TABLE 4

Independent Samples T-test for Initial Career Motives between Male and Female

	Gender	N	M	SD	*T*	*Sig.*
Ideal L2 self	Male	15	4.02	.66	-.184	.855
	Female	48	4.06	.76		
Ideal L2 teacher self	Male	15	4.12	.55	.765	.447
	Female	48	3.97	.65		
Job security	Male	15	2.76	.81	-3.054**	.003
	Female	48	3.46	.77		
Fear of having other careers	Male	15	1.90	.83	-3.340**	.001
	Female	48	2.96	1.13		
Ought-to L2 self	Male	15	2.30	.75	-1.186	.243
	Female	48	2.60	1.16		
Altruism	Male	15	2.60	.97	-.904	.369
	Female	48	2.82	.79		

Note. ** $p < .01$

Participants' school type also exerted significantly different results in three factors in their initial career motives: job security, fear of having other careers, and ought-to L2 self. Public school English teachers' initial career motives were significantly higher than that of private school teachers (see Table 5). Similar results were found in the study of Kim and Y.

Kim (2016). Their study indicated that teachers working at public school had more strong pressure on career choice in their job selection compared to those working at private school.

The similar result of both studies reflects the unique environment that Korea bears in the process of becoming a teacher. The reason that public school teachers have more fear of having other careers and ought-to L2 teacher self is because they passed the national teacher certification examination. In Korea, teachers cannot work in public schools unless they pass the teacher certification examination. Public school teachers are likely to have strong pressure on their career choice because they perceived teaching as a secure job and went through a difficult and competitive process to pass teacher certification examination. (Kim & Y. Kim, 2016). Furthermore, in this study, job security was found to have a significant difference on the school type. In Korea, the board of directors in private school has the authority of hiring and firing of the teacher. In public school, however, teachers have the right to ask for the transfer when they cannot adapt to their environment in their school without worrying to lose their job. Therefore, public school teachers are likely to be motivated by job security than private school teachers as shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5

Independent Samples T-test for Initial Career Motives between Public and Private School

	School type	N	M	SD	*T*	*Sig.*
Ideal L2 self	Public	43	4.13	.71	1.257	.214
	Private	20	3.88	.77		
Ideal L2 teacher self	Public	43	4.02	.68	.282	.779
	Private	20	3.98	.52		
Job Security	Public	43	3.52	.72	3.485**	.001
	Private	20	2.80	.84		
Fear of having other careers	Public	43	2.91	1.17	2.073*	.042
	Private	20	2.28	1.03		
Ought-to L2 self	Public	43	2.74	1.11	2.371*	.021
	Private	20	2.08	.88		
Altruism	Public	43	2.85	.78	1.107	.273
	Private	20	2.60	.93		

Note. ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

V. SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

This study has conducted the survey questionnaire about novice English teachers' initial job motives and demotivation. The results suggest that there are six factors that construct

novice English teachers' initial career motives and their ideal L2 self and ideal L2 teacher self are dominant initial career motives. Even though the factor seems to reveal the same result as the previous study (Kim & Y. Kim, 2016), it is noticeable that the items related to altruism constructed different factor and were not reflected in ideal L2 teacher self. It implies that novice teachers focus on themselves rather than the society or the children when choosing a job. Besides, extrinsic motives such as job security, fear of having other careers, and ought-to L2 self affected novice teachers' career motives as well. The individual differences are shown regarding gender and school type. In demotivation, teachers were demotivated by factors such as administrative work, students' negative attitudes, and lack of autonomy in class. In individual difference, there was a school level difference and gender difference regarding the relationship with colleagues and inappropriate rewards, respectively.

Based on the findings in this study, some implications can be suggested. For pre-service teachers, providing opportunities for them to reflect upon their reasons they want to become a teacher is very important. Even though the results of this study indicated that novice English teachers' initial career motives are largely affected by ideal L2 self and ideal L2 teacher self, they were influenced by various demotivating factors as well. Therefore, educational authorities need to provide them opportunities to reflect upon the reasons and motives of becoming a teacher. In addition, both male and female teachers should be provided with equal opportunities in job application considering that female teachers are greatly affected by job security and fears of having other jobs compared to male teachers when choosing their careers. Careful attention should be made for novice English teachers as well. The result showed that teachers' initial career motives such as job security and fear of having other careers were significantly different depending on whether they work in public school or private school, which displays the unequal rights and welfare. Therefore, it is suggested to help teachers to be guaranteed with equal welfare system without an issue of the school type. For example, teachers should be guaranteed with their holidays such as maternity leave and parental leave regardless of their school type.

Despite these implications, this study has the following limitations. In the present study, English teachers with less than seven years of teaching are defined as novice teachers and the average teaching year of participants are shown to be 2.5 years. Since the teaching period from five to six years differ greatly from the average teaching year, there exists a probability that participants with longer years of teaching might have affected the result of the study. In addition, this study has only focused on the survey and it is difficult to capture diverse aspects of initial career motives and demotivation that novice English teachers have. Further research should include in-depth research about novice teachers' initial career motives and demotivation with shorter teaching experience. For example, case study about novice teachers' (de)motivation would be helpful to identify emerging themes in novice

teachers' initial career motives. In addition, regarding that this study could not consider motivation change that novice teachers go through, a longitudinal study will be beneficial to observe novice English teachers' dynamic motivation change depending on diverse experiences and teaching years. Furthermore, follow-up research should include factor analysis about demotivation considering that this research only provided descriptive statistics due to the limited number of questionnaires related to demotivation.

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Examples in: English
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Applicable Levels: Elementary, Secondary, College

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Using the Concept of Frame for EFL Reading Instruction

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This paper examines the possibility of using the cognitive concept of frame for English reading comprehension instruction. Frame has much potential to be applied to language education since the linguistic resources and the content knowledge of a reading text can be taught in a simplified manner. For the purpose of this study, framing material and activity were developed as a before-reading activity. The activity, 'framing', using the framing material was conducted for a semester against two groups, treatment group 1 and 2, of Korean university students. Compared with the treatment groups, a control group was involved in the study who were given traditional reading instruction. In order to see the effects of including the framing activity in English reading instruction on learners' reading comprehension ability, the three groups were tested at the beginning and end of the semester on their reading comprehension ability. The results of statistically analyzing the test results of the three groups show that the two treatment groups had improvement and the control group's performance declined in their reading comprehension tests. Based on the results, advantages of using the concept of frame in EFL reading instruction was discussed.

[English reading instruction/reading comprehension/frames, framing/before-reading activity]

I. INTRODUCTION

There have been huge efforts looking for the best way to teach English reading comprehension in classroom for decades, such as reading techniques of decoding skills, skimming and scanning, or bottom-up, top-down, and interactive model of reading to list a few (Brown, 2001; Carrell, Devine & Eskey, 1988; Grabe, 2009; Koda, 2005). Because reading comprehension is more than decoding the linguistic data and looking for the facts or main ideas in the text, English reading instruction should help learners effectively deal

with linguistic resources of words and grammatical aspects as well as culturally specific text structures, and information as content knowledge in the reading text. Reading in English for university level of students in EFL Korea is a pathway to world knowledge to learn cultural, societal, scientific, and many other sources of information beyond the scope of their experiences. This is especially true when they are freshmen who have just finished learning English for the purpose of university entrance exam preparation. For their improving English reading comprehension ability, reading instruction needs to be explicitly conducted towards the way of leading learners to better comprehend a reading text.

The concept of frame may present a key to this issue. Frame is concerned with meanings by connecting human experiences and linguistic expressions. In cognitive linguistics, meaning is perspectival, dynamic and flexible, encyclopedic, and non-autonomous (Geeraerts, 2006). For instance, the word 'land' is seen from the sky while 'ground' is from the sea, based on our experiences and perspectives (Fillmore, 1982; 1985). As seen in this instance, one frame may involve many words, and, likewise, a word may contain different meanings derived from more than one frame, so the number of frames of a word indicates the number of meanings. Associating our experiences with the language we use, frame is an organized system of knowledge that is shared between people (Radden, 2008). The system is constructed with conventional and cultural background, and knowledge of a word can also be different between language users. For example, the word 'wedding' brings us the frames of couples, rings, and honeymoon as shared knowledge, reminding people of different formal dresses, church or temple for the ceremony, and marriage between a man and a woman or between the same genders according to respective cultures. In short, people invoke the frames of a word, and words may evoke frames in the process of understanding the meaning of a word (Fillmore & Baker, 2010).

In this regard, frame is conceptually powerful enough to decide the meaning of words and phrases, and comprehension of a text. Due to its multilevel nature, the frame of a text authorizes us to select the sense of word meanings in order to interpret a text. Linguistic resources are structured into sentences that are arranged to make the whole meaning of a text, and a reading text is composed surrounding the frame of a text within a context following the convention of the language. That is, the frame influences how a text to be constructed under the culture of the language being used, and the frame is context dependent and is related with the goal of the communication (Fillmore, 1985). So, frame shows readers what is going on in a textual communication and indicates what refers to which meaning within the context of the ongoing communication. In addition, meanings of words and expressions in the text are to be taken beyond definitions provided by dictionaries from which approximates to the communicative language use (Fillmore, 1982; Lee, 2004). 'A mother' may indicate someone who gave birth to a child in genetic sense,

but she may be someone who raised a child according to the context of the text where the word ′mother′ is used (Lee, 2004). Therefore, interpretation and understanding a text should be based on the frame of the text. It will be useful especially for readers of different language from the language used in the text to understand the frame of the text in reading comprehension because the frame can provide us with the knowledge of the content, cultural differences, and the meaning of the linguistic resources at a time.

As it was unprecedented practice using the concept of frame for English reading comprehension, it is meaningful to take advantage of the concept of frame for English reading instruction. Although countless efforts have been devoted to improve learners' English reading comprehension with reading models of theories and practices, it was hardly seen to be agreed on the best and effective way to teach English reading comprehension. By adopting the frame of the reading text written on the basis of the convention of the target language, linguistic, cultural, and the content knowledge may simply be combined to be taught in classroom. Context and culture bound frame will allow the linguistic resources and the meaning of the text to be taught explicitly without losing the track of the general content flow of the text by avoiding overly focusing on local language and interpretation itself.

On this premises, this study explored the way to develop a teaching method of English reading instruction using the concept of frame and to see how effective it is to employ this method in classroom to improve learners′ English reading comprehension. In this regard, it was discussed how this instruction effectively deal with English reading resources of language and the content of the text. The implications of the instruction using the framing activity on both teachers and learners were also discussed. For this purpose, first, this study investigated the way to frame a reading text into a material and to practice a before-reading activity using the material. Second, in order to identify the effects of English reading instruction using the concept of frame, the learners′ reading comprehension ability was tested before and after the instructions. By doing these, this study may take the first step to looking for utilizing the concept of frame in reading instruction of language education.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

1. Frame and Reading Comprehension

Frame provides the way to comprehend a reading text. It is the gateway to understand how a text is formatted and its sequence is developed along the communicative purpose of the text. A letter, an article, an essay, or a recipe all take their forms and structures according to the goal of each text. The content of a text is sequenced surrounding the gist,

and the text is completed with details by putting main words or phrases to use. These elements are brought together under the frame of the text to form its meaning. Accordingly, understanding a text means having the frame knowledge of the text, which is the nature of communication. It corresponds to having the information of what happens in the event of the text (Fillmore 1982). This means that interpretation of a text occurs when a reader has the frame of the text and when the reader accepts the knowledge of the frame. By bringing in the frame, or the shared knowledge among people and conventions of the language the text is written in, a reader interprets a text with an expectation to envisage what is inside the text.

Also, frame lets us make inferences of a situation (Radden, 2008). The frame of a text is the knowledge encompassing the elements of how the text is organized, what the events are, what is expected in the event, and what the language means in the text. A funeral, a business meeting, and so on are structured with a beginning, an ending, participants and other components with related frames. The components of the ceremony are supposed to be in the scene as our experiences of an event are schematized and translated into linguistic expressions (Fillmore & Atkinson, 1992).

Therefore, a text is meaningless when a reader comes up with inconsistent frame-based knowledge from the text and the sentences of a text do not interact with the reader′s mental frame (Lee, 2004). Words of a text form into the scheme of an event in the text and constitute parts of a sentence that become a part of the text. For example, ′a present′ means a gift in a text about a Christmas story, and it schematizes a scene in which there are Christmas trees, carol songs, lights, and so on at the background. However, the word ′present′ means ′to give′ as a verb in a different context, which requires a presenter as an agent, an object and a target as a receiver both conceptually and grammatically. Differently from its usage as a noun which is used with an article in the context of celebration, the word ′present′ as a verb can be used in the context of a text accompanying argument structure. Thus, the frame of a text provides readers with background knowledge necessary to understand the meanings of words in the text, and the frame of the words also influence the text (Fillmore 1982). The change of the frame in reading is the change in comprehension of the reading. Though there have hardly been any studies that revealed the relation between the frame and reading comprehension, reading comprehension is closely connected with lexical semantics and a context is constructed by frames evoked by lexical items in a text in the process of understanding the text.

In light of this, frame has its great importance in language teaching. Especially the process of reading comprehension can be summarized as a series of interactions between the frame of a text and a reader′s mental frame. A language learner who reads a text in target language is required to understand the frames of the language of the text. Because frame is culture dependent, two different languages convey different frames respectively.

Accordingly, reading comprehension can be successful when it entails reader′s understanding of the cultural frames of the target language. The following displays the culturally specific characteristics of frame, which is a famously cited paragraph found on the internet (Fillmore & Baker, 2010):

A woman's dream breakfast

She's seated at a table in her garden with her gourmet coffee. Her son's picture is on the Wheaties box. Her daughter's picture is on the cover of 'Business Week'. Her lover's picture is on the cover of 'Playgirl'. And her husband's picture is on the back of the milk carton.

This is an exemplary paragraph that shows how important it is to have the frame knowledge in order to understand a text. It seems that the woman in the paragraph is simply enjoying her coffee time in peace without cultural background knowledge. However, this paragraph bears a great sense of humor if it is understood by a reader that a picture of a famous sportsman is on the Wheaties box, a young attractive man′s picture is on the cover of Playgirl, and a missing person′s picture is often on milk cartons. Unfortunately, the paragraph is literally interpreted in Park′s (2013) experiment of translation conducted against Korean university students who didn′t have the knowledge of the cultural frame.

As seen in this example, a text is structured and styles of the text are selected in accordance with the cultural conventions of a language. For example, a letter begins with a direct statement of the purpose of the writing in English. However, it begins by talking about the weather or asking about the recipient′s health in Korean culture. A recipe, as another example, is written with imperative sentences in English while first person plural subjects are used in a Hungarian recipe (Lee, 2004).

It is also important understanding the different frame knowledge of the two languages in translation. When a frame of a language is different from or lacking in another language, lexical items in translation need to be carefully selected (Park, 2013). One to one translation may not work for understanding words with diverse meanings, polysemy, as they have multiple frames. A particular word or expression is understood accurately from the perspective of the frame (Hong, 2016). The frames of words or expressions in a text that do not have corresponding frames in the reader′s mind need to be understood with other words in the same frame (Moon, 2004).

Taken altogether, the concept of frame will likely apply to foreign language education. Learning a foreign language must include learning the frames of the language considering the importance of how frames can influence understanding language. Acquiring new

frames, or new concepts of the target language is a part of language acquisition apart from learning the linguistic interpretation (Fillmore & Baker, 2010). In this regard, English reading can be meaningful for learners when it is learned through an understanding of the frames in the text (Oh, 2010). Without awareness of the frames of a language, reading a text may end up being no more than linguistic interpretation missing the real meaning inside the text such as humor, the writer′s intended meaning, or, even worse, misunderstanding. On the basis of the conceptual meaning and functions of frame outlined so far, it is clear that the concept of frame has great potential to be promoted in English reading comprehension.

2. Framing English Reading Text and Classroom Instruction

Based on the theoretical background of frame, a reading text can be framed through framing. The frame of a reading text consists of social, cultural, contextual, and linguistic dimensions. Using the concept of frame to develop framing material for classroom instruction can address the possible complexities of teaching associated with processing both linguistic and informational resources, such as vocabulary, semantic and syntactic knowledge, and background knowledge in detail. The procedure of framing is suggested by demonstrating how to frame English reading text before a class and then it is proposed how to apply the framing to classroom activity in the following.

Before class, first, an English reading text is to be framed. Framing begins by reading a text material to be taught carefully in order to determine the frame of the text. This is done by the teacher in order for her or him to guide the learners to the comprehension of the text later in the class. The frame allows the teacher to lead the students to the main stream of the text with the understanding of linguistic data, and then to the final comprehension stage. When the frame is decided, key words or expressions are selected from the text which will be included in the text summary. The details of a text can be arranged in a shortened summary putting the words and expressions that are connected with the fundamental frame of the text. Following the conceptual frame of the text, key words and expressions are to be included along the development of the content in the summary. This preparation stage can be seen in the example below (excerpted from Blass, Vargo & Wisniewska., 2016, pp. 27-29).

No time to sleep

In spite of the importance of sleep, many people are not getting enough. For example, Americans sleep one hour less per night on average than they did 20 to 30 years ago. "The dependency on caffeine and the whole Starbucks culture is certainly one proof that our society is sleepier than ever before," says William Dement, a sleep researcher at Stanford

University. Sleep is a biological need, much like food and water. If totally deprived of shut-eye, humans ultimately perish. Yet millions of people are increasingly skimping on their sleep.

Why has sleep deprivation become such a big problem? There are a couple of possible reasons*. Researchers say that today's sleep deprivation is partly due to modern expectations. These days, consumers expect information, entertainment, and food to be available round-the-clock. One of the results of this 24/7 culture is that consumers stay awake longer and later than they used to. Consequently, workers who provide us with goods and services can't stop working when the sun goes down, In addition, the fast-paced and competitive world of business often rewards employees for arriving at work early and staying late. As a result, many employees are willing to skip sleep in order to impress the boss.*

This is a part of a text titled *"Are you sleeping enough?*" from a textbook of an English reading class in a university as one of the subjects for general education. The main idea of this reading is that sleeping enough is crucial to our well-being. In this part of the text, it is said that Americans sleep one hour less than before despite the importance of sleep for biological needs due to modern expectations and a 24/7 culture, and this can be harmful to our health. The writer of this text is a fluent English speaker and the social and cultural frame of this text is based on American. From the viewpoint of the frame of the text, the cultural aspects of sleep less than before can possibly be introduced in the text using the word ′Starbucks′, a typical American culture of coffee caffeine that keeps people awake within the context. The expressions highlighted are the ones that surround the frame of the sleep-related phenomena in American society. Each of the expressions is connected to the frame, as sleep to ′shut-eye′, sleep less to ′deprivation′, ′skimping on′, ′stay awake′, and to ′skip sleep′, as the reason of sleep less to ′24/7 culture′, ′the fast-paced and competitive world of business′, and to ′impress the boss′, and finally as the effect of sleep less to ′perish′. Using these key words and phrases, the paragraphs above can be summed up like below following the main frame of the text.

"Are you sleeping enough?"

No time to sleep

-sleep = shut eye

-sleep less = sleep deprivation, skimping on their sleep, skip sleep, stay awake

-the reasons of sleep less: round-the-clock, 24/7 & Starbucks culture, fast-paced and competitive world of business, to impress the boss

-the effect of sleep less → to perish

This summary consists of the key points based on the frame of the text. Because the text is mainly about ‘the importance of sleeping enough’, the framing starts from paraphrased words of ‘sleep’ and ‘sleep less’ to indicate the trend of sleep in the American society and cultural phenomena that derives from the trend. In framing, the sign of equality, a colon, and an arrow are used as in the following. First, similar or paraphrased expressions to a word or phrase are connected by equality sign (=) as in “sleep = shut eye”. Second, after a colon (:) come explanatory phrases of the one before the colon, as in “the reason of sleep less: round-the-clock, etc.”. Lastly, an arrow (→) indicates the result or effect as in “the effect of sleep less → perish”. If two arrows are lying back to back (←→), the expressions before and after the two arrows present opposite meanings to each other. Verbs can be identified by putting ‘to’ before a verb as in ‘to perish’ at the end of the summary above.

According to the frame of this text, the two paragraphs are framed with the concept of the necessity of sleeping enough and the reason of sleep less in the American society. The highlighted vocabulary in the paragraphs is linked to the frame of sleep and the reasons and effects of sleep deprivation have been outlined in the summary. The excerpt of the whole text is contracted in a short summary from the perspective of the American socio-cultural trend. The vocabulary is all intertwined along with the frame.

In the class, the framed summary can be used for students to preview what the text is about. This summary may be used as it is at a before-reading stage because it can attract students’ attention by having them read and make inference of the meaning of the words in the material and the content of the reading. Using this material, the meanings of the words and phrases involved with sleep can be explained. In addition, these expressions are all understood from the American perspective as with the expression of ‘24/7 & Starbucks culture. The formal frames such as forms and structures of a text, content, and communicative styles of a text can also be described with the framing material. For the use of the framed material into classroom activity, more application can be made available. With this background, this study aims to explore the following questions:

1. What is the design of framing material like and is the procedure of practicing a before-reading activity using the material in English reading classroom?
2. What is the effect of practicing framing activities as an approach to English reading instruction on improving a student’s English reading abilities between the control and treatment group 1 and between treatment group 1 and 2?

III. METHODOLOGY

1. Participants

For the purpose of this study, reading instruction using the concept of frame was conducted against university level of students. Their information is in what follows. A total of sixty-nine university students participated in the study. They were all freshmen, except one junior student, at the same university in C province in Korea. All participants were taking the same liberal arts program of reading in English in three different classes during the 2016 fall semester. The three participant groups were recruited from two assigned groups of classes to the writer, treatment group 1 and 2, and one group, control group, to one teacher who willingly participated in this study. The control group was taught by the other teacher who employed a traditional reading comprehension method of a learning vocabulary list separate from a text, the grammar translation method, and scanning and skimming as a before-reading approach. Treatment groups 1 and 2 as the experiment groups were taught by the researcher who employed the frame approach developed in this study to teach reading comprehension in English. The two treatment groups were divided by the pre-test results. According to the results, the scores were higher in group 1 than in group 2 in reading comprehension pre-tests. The pre- and post-test results of the three groups were compared. Regarding changes in the participants′ pre- and post-test results, first, the control group were compared with treatment group 1. Then, group 1 was compared with treatment group 2. This is to see if the treatment had an impact on the groups of different reading comprehension ability.

The members of the control group were 20 students, 7 in biology education, 12 in physics education, and 1 in an undecided major. The members of treatment group 1 were 30 students, with 25 majoring in Korean education, 4 in education, and 1 in agricultural economy. The members of treatment group 2 were 19 students, and there were 13 majoring in applied biology, 2 in management, 2 in psychology, and 2 in food and nutrients. They were aged 19 to 21 years old, except 1 student who was 25 years old in treatment group 1. All of the participants were Korean learners of English who had learned English for more than 10 years in Korea. Individual level differences of English proficiency among the participants were not considered in this study because there were only five students who had English proficiency test scores, among whom two students in the first group had TOEIC scores of 740 and 820 in the control group, one student in treatment group 1 had a TOEIC score of 600, and two students in treatment group 2 had TOEIC scores of 670 and 790. Their information is summarized in the following table.

TABLE 1

Participants of Each Group

Groups	Number of students	Major (n)
Control	20 (12 Males & 8 Females)	Biology Education (7) Physics Education (12) Undecided Major (1)
Treatment 1	30 (12 Males & 18 Females)	Korean Education (25) Education (4) Agricultural Economy (1)
Treatment 2	19 (11 Males & 8 Females)	Applied Biology (13) Management (2) Psychology (2) Food and Nutrition (2)

In order to see the level differences of the reading comprehension ability, the test scores of the treatment group 1 and 2 were compared statistically using t-test in Table 2. The result showed that comparing the means between two treatment groups were significantly different (p = .001). Accordingly, comparing the post-test results of the two groups after the treatment could be involved in this study.

TABLE 2

Independent Samples *t*-Test for Pre-test Scores

Group	*M*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*Sig.*
Treatment 1	11	0.46	29	5.65*	0.001
Treatment 2	8.4	0.8	18		

P<0.05*

2. Instruments

Two kinds of instruments were used for reading instruction and for testing participants' reading comprehension ability respectively in this study. First, materials for the framing activities were developed. As frame-based material for reading instruction was never produced before, the material in the present study was developed only on the basis of the concept of frame. Following the concept of frame explained in 2.1 and framing a reading text as presented in 2.2, the materials were an integration of words and phrases of the context according to the frame of the text and were used for a before-reading activity before working on teaching reading comprehension of a text in a student textbook. In order to help learners focus on reading itself, the materials provided a platform for a quiz-type activity that contained blanks to be completed with words and phrases surrounding the frame of the passage. As a result, the material for framing activity involves key expressions

that represent the context of reading passage, numbered blanks, and marks of equality, colons, and arrows to indicate the same or similar meanings, explanatory phrases, and the effect or purpose each.

Second, all participant groups took the reading comprehension pretest in English at the beginning of the semester and post-test at the end of the semester in order to identify differences in the reading comprehension ability of each group. Both pre- and post-tests consisted of 27 multiple choice questions, excerpted from the reading comprehension test named part 7 in a TOEIC practice book. Test scores indicated the number of right answers to the questions. The averages of test results indicated the characteristics of each group to be compared with each other. The changes of the average scores in the pre- and post-test results in each group were interpreted as a reflection of the effects of the teaching methods, using a traditional approach in the control group and a frame approach in the treatment groups, on reading comprehension in English. Then, the differences of the averages of the pre- and post-test results were used to compare the differences of the effects of the teaching approaches employed in the control group and treatment groups 1 and 2.

3. Data Analysis

For effective comparison of the average reading comprehension test scores within each and between the groups, the statistical analysis, a split-plot analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted using SPSS 22 for Windows. The split-plot ANOVA was an analysis of variance that incorporated a repeated measure effect and a between-groups effect. This was useful to compare the averages within a group and between groups. The pre- and post-tests taken by all of the participants were scored by the writer, and the average scores of each test in each group were compared with each other. First, the average scores of pre- and post-tests in each group were compared in order to see changes. Second, changes in the averages were compared between the control group and treatment group 1 to see the differences in the participants' performances on the reading comprehension tests between those practicing the framing activity and the traditional method. Then, the changes in the mean scores were also compared between treatment groups 1 and 2 to see the differences in the participants' performances on the reading comprehension tests when practicing the framing activity between the groups of different levels. In short, a comparison of the average score differences within and between groups will be given.

4. Procedure

The procedure of collecting data and of reading instruction using the framing material for this study was in the following. First, participants' pre-test scores of reading

comprehension test were collected from the students of reading in English as liberal arts program. Second, reading instruction was given to the participants of the two treatment groups for 12 weeks during the semester. A total of eight units of the text book with 16 reading passages were covered. One theme of one chapter in the textbook contained two passages. Eight themes of the reading covered during the semester were framed and the information of the framing material is in the Table 3.

TABLE 3

Information of Framing Material Developed for English Reading Instruction

Chapter	Theme	Frame
1	Hidden Miracles	The Art of Time-Lapse photography
2	Sleep Matters	Sleep in American Society
3	Cyborg Tech	The development of Ergonomics
4	Happy Planet	Happiness from Statistical viewpoint
5	Career Paths	The importance of break time in one's career path
6	Text Generation	The Textual Language
7	Barrier and Bridges	Bridging the World Together
8	Personality Types	Acknowledging Different Personality Types

Table 3 shows the themes and frame of each chapter in the textbook. Themes were recognized as a title of each chapter of the reading and frame was decided by the writer. Frame of reading texts was decided after many times of reading the text intensively because it was inferenced considering the main idea and background knowledge of the text. This was most difficult but important part of preparing for the framing material in terms of the process to be made for the decision. Some related factors with the frame were, first, parts of the knowledge, such as natural science, engineering, humanities, and so on, second, cultural background of western, oriental, and so on, and social issues of feminism or stereotypes existing between people. Other elements of frame also included in considerations that mattered in comprehending the text. Key words and phrases were chosen from the text following the decision of the frame.

Meanwhile, the control group did not work on framing but on the grammar translation method and on vocabulary lists. According to the teacher, they worked on the vocabulary list before reading, and then reading class was given by reading and translating each line of a text from the beginning through to the end. During the class, students learned the meanings of vocabulary on the list given by the teacher, first, and assigned group of students for each unit of reading gave a presentation of reading and translating the text in

Korean. Then, finally, the teacher read and translated the reading passage in detail with explanation of grammar and structures. At the end of the semester, finally, participants' post-test scores of reading comprehension test were collected. After collecting the data, the pre- and post-test results were analyzed to examine the possibility of change in their reading comprehension ability in three groups.

IV. RESULTS

In this section, the results are presented in two parts. First, the classroom activity developed for use as classroom material and used as an approach to teaching English reading comprehension is provided. Second, the results of the statistical analysis with the data obtained by testing the learners' English reading comprehension at the beginning and end of the semester are displayed.

1. Framing Material and Activity for Teaching English Reading Instruction

As for the first research question of how to develop a pedagogic approach to English reading comprehension to practice in the classroom, class material for a before-reading activity has been developed. The classroom activity of framing an English reading text includes working on vocabulary, background knowledge, and the context of the text in order to help learners concentrate on reading before the class ends.

As an example, based on framing a text discussed in chapter 2.2, the full text of "*Are you sleeping enough?*" in Appendix A has been framed, and the cloze-test material for framing activity has been produced with blanks as demonstrated below. The rest of the nine other passages in the textbook were framed following this method.

"Are you sleeping enough?"

Are you sleeping enough?
Sleeping enough, 1) _____ eye ←→ sleep 2) _____, or restless night

No time to sleep
- sleep = shut eye
- sleep less = sleep 3) _____, skimping 4) ____ their sleep, 5) _____ sleep, stay 6) _____
- the reasons of sleep less: 7) _____ clock, 8) ____ & Starbucks culture, fast-paced and 9) _____world of business, to 10) _____

-the effect of sleep less → to 11) _____

Effects of sleep deprivation

- 12) _____ impact
- sleeping only five hours a night for a week = drunk, 13) _____, 14) _____

- poor 15) _____, poor 16) _____ at work
- dangerous effects: plane 17) _____, car accidents
- 18) _____ problems: serious consequences on performance and treatment on patients
- fatigue-related mistakes: 19) _____ of patients, patients' 20) _____

- one in five adults: to 21) _____ from daytime sleepiness
- daytime sleepiness: to 22) _____with their work
- sleep: 23) _____ to the well-being

In this material, the reading text is outlined surrounding the topic of the importance of sleeping enough. The frame of the text is the American trend of sleeping less and the reason and the effects of sleep deprivation are discussed. It is constructed with subheadings and paragraphs. Vocabularies are blanked out so the students will focus on reading the text carefully looking for the right words or phrases.

The first paragraph ″Are you sleeping enough?" has been condensed into two types of expressions, one of which is ′sleeping enough′, similar to ′shut eye′, in contrast to the other of which is ′sleep deprivation′, similar to ′restless night′. The words for the blanks 1) and 2) are important in that they contain the main frame at the core of this text.

The second paragraph ″No time to sleep" discusses the phenomena of sleep less, and the reason and the effect of it. ′Sleep′ is the same with ′shut eye′. ′Sleep less′ is the same with ′sleep deprivation′, ′skimping on their sleep′, ′skip sleep′, and ′stay awake′ for the blanks from 3) to 6). ′The reasons of sleep less′ are ′round-the-clock′, ′24/7 Starbucks culture′, ′fast-paced and competitive world of business′, ′to impress the boss′ for the blanks from 7) to 10). ′The effect of sleep less′ is ′to perish′ for the blank 11).

Under the subheading ″Effects of sleep deprivation", the paragraphs from the third to the five are about the effects or result of sleep deprivation. In the third, the effects are, first, ′detrimental impact′ for 12) and, second, ′sleeping only five hours a night for a week′ is the same with ′drunk′, ′intoxicated′, and ′fatigue′ for the blanks from 13) and 14). In the fourth paragraph, the effects of sleep deprivation are ′poor grade′ and ′poor performance at work′ in the blanks 15) and 16). The ′dangerous effects′ are ′plane crash′ and ′car accidents′ for 17). There are also effects of ′grave problems′ which means ′serious consequences on

performance and treatment on patients′ for 18), and of ′fatigue-related mistakes′ are ′injury of patients′ and ′patients′ death′ for the blanks for 19) and 20). For the last paragraph, ′one in five adults′ are ′suffer from the daytime sleepiness′ in 21) and ′daytime sleepiness′ results in ′interfere with their work′. In conclusion, ′sleep′ is ′crucial to the well-being′ for the blanks for 22) and 23).

In classroom, the instruction was provided as described in the 3.4 procedure against the two treatment groups during the semester. The framed material containing blanks was used as a before-reading activity for five minutes for reading instruction to introduce reading texts to students in every unit of the textbook and help them frame the text while reading in full. The two of the participant groups, treatment groups 1 and 2, worked on the framing activity within five minutes as a before-reading task. The framing activity began after introducing the title and the format of the text according to the subheadings. Then, each participant was given the material as a handout and assigned a task to fill in the blanks on the material by reading the text in the book quickly. At this time, everyone in the classroom should have been concentrating on the task to look for the appropriate words and phrases for each blank to be connected with neighboring phrases in the material from the reading text. After the given time for the task, the teacher began working on the task of how to find the clues to the blanks on the task material together with the students by reading the text fast with the explanation of the background knowledge of the content and linguistic resources. During the course of discussing the background knowledge of the content, semantic and syntactic information of the linguistic resources as well as the information of text organization were also given to the learners. They had to do rereading every time they work on a reading passage while performing the before-reading activity.

The American trend of sleep as the frame of the reading was briefly introduced with this activity sheet. When the summary was presented to learners with key vocabulary blanked out, it was very useful in class to have students introduced to the frame of the reading, and students were focused. When students received the summary, they had to read the text while concentrating to work on the task of filling in the blanks within the limited time.

The unknown or key vocabularies were focused on in the blanks. Their semantic and syntactic knowledge can be given by the teacher using collocations on the material or in the textbook. For example, ′to perish′ for the blank 11) of ′humans ultimately perish′ within the second paragraph of the full text in Appendix A may not be familiar to the learners. The meaning can be understood by paraphrasing it into ′humans will come to die of lack of sleep in the end′ semantically and by explaining its location as a verb syntactically. Likewise, the word ′detrimental′ in the blank 12) comes with ′impact′ to become a phrase ′detrimental impact′, which means ′harmful impact′ in other word as an adjective

used before a noun. Some words are easy to understand when used alone but they may require attention in understanding the meaning when they are collocated with others. Specifically, ′grave problems′ in 18) had to be explained to learners, and it made it easier for learners to understand when those words were explained within a context. During the framing activity, frame-based summary could be linked to the full reading text naturally.

2. Statistical Analysis of the Pre- and Post-Test

The investigation of the question was undertaken by employing a split-plot analysis of variance (ANOVA) to discover what effect practicing a frame-based approach in an English reading classroom has on improving the learners' English reading comprehension ability. The classroom material developed in 4.1 was used as a before-reading activity in the classroom in treatment groups 1 and 2 for a semester, and the learners' English reading comprehension ability was tested. The statistical results of the tests are reported in Table 4 and Table 5.

First, the descriptive statistics in Table 4 show the performance of each group in the pre- and post-tests. According to the results of the pretest, treatment group 1 had the highest scores, 11 right answers to the given 27 questions, the control group had scores in the middle, 9.5, and treatment group 2 had the lowest, 8.4. However, in the post-test, treatment group 1 had the highest number of questions correct, 11.7, treatment group 2 had scores in the middle, 11, and the control group scored 8. As a result, treatment group 2, the lowest scoring group on the pretest, increased the most regarding pre- and post-test average scores, while among the three participant groups, only the control group's scores decreased. Treatment group 1, the highest scoring group on the pretest, improved marginally, only 0.7 on the post-test.

TABLE 4

Descriptive Statistics of the Means of the Pre- and Post-test of Each Group

Group	Number of students	Mean		*SD*	
		Pretest	Post-test	Pretest	Post-test
Control	20	9.5	8	3.6	3.3
Treatment 1	30	11	11.7	3.9	3.6
Treatment 2	19	8.4	11	3.5	3.4

P<0.05*

The performances of all of the groups in the pre- and post-tests of English reading comprehension were analyzed using the split-plot ANOVA in order to effectively test whether the treatment groups improved more after the treatment than the control group.

The analysis results are shown in Table 5 below. One independent variant is a fixed factor, the group types (control, treatment 1, and treatment 2), and the other independent variable is the repeated measures variable (the time, pre and post resilience). The main effect of groups was significant, [F (2, 66) = 3.73, $p < 0.05$]. The main effect of time was not significant, [F (1, 66) = 1.24, $p > 0.05$]. The interaction of these two factors was very significant, [F (2, 66) = 9.18, $p < 0.05$]. This indicates that there were no significant differences between the groups at the baseline, and the averages of one test result did not change much over the time. However, the group difference was significant, and especially for the interaction between time and groups.

TABLE 5

Results of Split-Plot ANOVA for the Effects of Group and Time on Reading Comprehension Tests

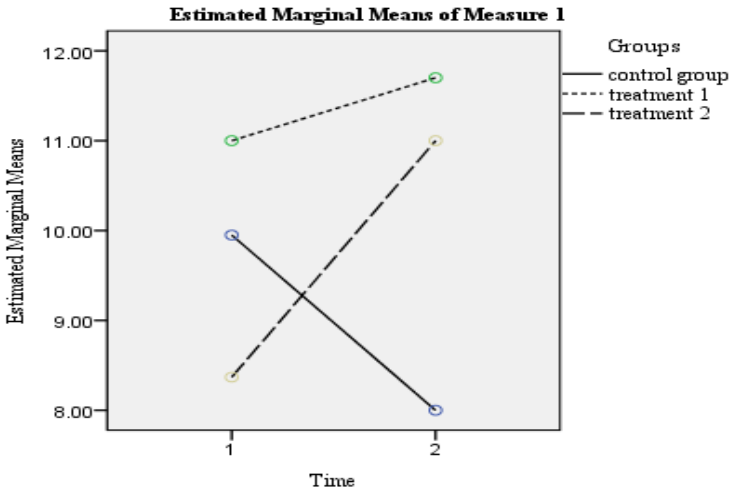
Source	*SS*	*df*	*Mean Square*	*F*	*p**	*Partial* η^2
Groups	149.48	2	74.74	3.73	0.03	0.10
Time	7.02	1	7.02	1.24	0.27	0.18
Time * Groups	103.74	2	51.9	9.18	0.00	0.22

P<0.05*

In order to make it easier to interpret the results of the analysis, a profile plot is shown in Figure 1 below. In Figure 1, the vertical axis of 'Estimated Marginal Means' indicates the test scores of each group. The horizontal axis of 'Time' indicates 'Time 1' for the pretest taken and 'Time 2' for the post-test taken. Lines for different groups indicate the time change of each group's test-taking performance at Time 1 and 2. The straight line shows that the control group moved down from Time 1 to Time 2, which means that they performed worse on their post-test than on their pretest. On the contrary, the lines for treatment group 1, the dotted line, and treatment group 2, the broken line, move upward, which means that two of the groups performed better on their post-tests of Time 2 than in their pretests of Time 1. Between the two treatment groups, group 2 rises sharply in the test of Time 2, much better than in Time 1. Even though treatment group 1 is at the highest points at Time 1 and Time 2, treatment group 2 shows the greatest change in their performances on the test over time among the three groups. This means that treatment group 2 shows the greatest improvements in performance compared with treatment group 1 and the control group, implying that the treatment worked best for treatment group 2. However, post-hoc test comparison with groups displayed some differences. The result between control group and treatment group 1 was significantly different ($p < 0.05$), while the results between treatment group 1 and 2 was not ($p = .179$). The findings indicated that practicing framing activity played a positive role against English readers with any level of reading comprehension ability.

FIGURE 1

Profile Plot



In sum, the findings of the present study showed that using frame as a basic concept for English reading comprehension can be applicable to develop classroom material and framing activity before English reading text. The English learners in this study performed better on their English reading comprehension test when they practiced the framing activity in learning reading comprehension in an English. From the split-plot analysis of variance, treatment groups 1 and 2 performed better on the post-test than the control group who performed worse on the post-test than on the pretest.

V. CONCLUSION

This study investigated the possibility of using the concept of cognitive frame to develop material for English reading instruction and how effective it is to practice the activity to improve English learners′ reading comprehension ability. For the investigation, first, framing material for a before-reading activity was developed. In the material, the content of the reading text was summarized with key words and phrases according to the frame of the reading, using the symbols of colons, arrows, and of equality. Next, before-reading activity, framing, was practiced against Korean university students of reading in English for a semester using the material. In order to see whether the learners′ English reading comprehension ability changes by taking the frame-based reading instruction, the participants′ reading comprehension ability was tested against 2 treatment groups and 1control group at the beginning, pretest, and at the end, post-test, of the experiment

semester. For the test, 27 questions from the TOEIC Part 7 Reading Comprehension Test were used.

According to the results, the newly developed before-reading activity is deemed to have positive effects on learners′ reading comprehension ability. In the pretest, treatment group 1 scored the highest, the control group scored in the middle, and treatment group 2 scored the lowest. In contrast, the post-test scores of each group were in the order of treatment group 1, treatment group 2, and the control group from high to low. Regarding the improvement rate, the treatment group 2 was much more than treatment group 1, as shown in Figure 1. However, although we cannot disapprove of the potential effect of the different levels of the participants' language ability, it can be concluded that the treatment was effective against English learners of reading comprehension despite the level of reading comprehension ability while grammar translation and vocabulary learning did not help improving English reading comprehension ability.

Not only on the results of the tests, but it seems useful to include the framing activity in the reading instruction based on the following reasons. First, through the framing activity, comprehensive knowledge of a text can be introduced before and during reading of a full text. The contextual, cultural, and social dimensions of frames of a reading text give readers a perspective of how to interpret a text. Second, structural format of a reading text can also be made known to the learners. The formal frame of a text in English guides readers to anticipate how the text is established and developed according to the type of the text. Third, as for vocabulary, the syntactic and semantic knowledge surrounding the keywords can be given. Key words that evoke the frame of a text signal the contextual and structural frames for English readers. The incorporation of formal, contextual, cultural and social factors of a text in addition to linguistic resources in English reading is already condensed into the concept of frame. It can be said that frame makes it possible to explain all of these components and the differences existing in different languages, which will in turn help enhance a reader′s language processing ability within the context.

Also, adopting the frame-based learning method in English reading has some benefits for both teacher and learners. For a teacher, the framing activity served as facilitator for reading instruction. Going through the before-reading activity, teacher could enjoy the economy of teaching vocabulary within its contextual, cultural, and social background, supported by the concept of frame. The highlighted vocabulary in the reading could be taught with its own structural and semantic knowledge. Such an approach is meaningful in that the vocabulary is taught within the context of the frame without separating them from the text. All information of linguistic resources and background knowledge entangled with the reading text could be presented together with the frame and the context of the reading text by undertaking the activity.

For learners as English readers, some positive aspects have been shown in their reading

behaviors while taking part in the framing activity as in the following. First, students′ speed reading was seen while they were trying to find the words and phrases for the blanks from the full text. Otherwise, it would be difficult to observe their reading a text that quickly according to the writer′s experiences of teaching. Second, it was noticeable that the learners were motivated to read. They worked hard doing the task of the before-reading activity even before they were told to do so whether or not they completed the tasks. Third, they were focused on reading activity itself while rereading and carefully making the meaning of the text. Fourth, there was no time to be wasted during the instruction as learners absorbed themselves into the action of reading in the process of making the meaning of a text doing the task for five minutes of before-reading activity, not allowing the learners to feel bored.

Through this study, learners of English reading were found potentially good readers if appropriately devised pedagogical method was used. Good readers are fluent readers who effectively recognize words and process both linguistic and informational knowledge of the content of the text they are reading (Grabe, 2010). If the aim of English reading instruction is to help English readers become fluent readers, which will be accomplished after a long period of time of reading English text, the instruction should involve the activity of rereading and repetition in classroom (Grabe, 2009; Nation, 2006). Pedagogical implications of fluent reading is that reading instruction should be conducted for the purpose of reading fluency by reading a text repeatedly through practices within time limit for helping learners to become good readers (Grabe, 2010). Reading fluency promotes accuracy, and accuracy is an indication of increasing fluency in language performance (Segalowitz, 2000). In doing so, word recognition, processing the information of a reading text, and reading speed will be bettered and, as a result, reading fluency will be boosted.

In conclusion, it seems appropriate using the concept of frame in English reading instruction designed in this study. Rather than relying on each of the linguistic or content knowledge factors at the cost of the others or apart from each other, it has shown that how explicit instruction of word and text reading under the concept of frame helps enhancing the efficiency of English reading instruction. Besides, giving the frame-based instruction of English reading made it possible to have learners reread a reading text in a fast manner, so teaching method to support reading fluency has been realized by using framing activity before reading the full text of reading. Under the notion of frame in a reading text, the issue of teaching linguistic resources, multidimensional facets of social, cultural, and contextual frame as well as learners′ actions of reading in English has turned out to be possibly filled into English reading instruction without separating from reading comprehension. This will be of help to take another step forward to communicative language teaching of reading comprehension for university level students, leading to meaningful language learning.

The present study provides valuable insights into frame as a resource for developing

teaching approaches to English reading comprehension. A text is a body of language with a frame, and the frame governs all the meanings and usage of any units of the linguistic resources in the text. This applies to every skill of language use, such as listening, writing, or speaking, which is structured and composed by frames. Therefore, understanding language use should be followed by understanding the frame and its interrelated linguistic and background knowledge, especially in language material in English. Accordingly, material developed using the concept of frame can be introduced for before- or after-reading activities, or review tests. Also, framing activities may work with any other types of text, such as reading texts for test preparation, learning academic text books, reading for fun, and so on. Moreover, the materials for framing activities can be included in a book of language learning to make it easy for teachers and learners to get easier access to a text, which would be favored by those involved in language education. Teachers may enjoy the five-minute activity and use it in classrooms. Learners can see themselves enjoy reading and improve their reading ability.

The limitations and recommendations for the follow-up studies are like this. There are some elements that can be variables to the results of this study. First, in addition to testing participants′ reading comprehension ability using shortened forms of English proficiency test in this study, participants could also be surveyed and interviewed concerning the effects of using the concept of frame into English reading instruction in the future. Second, teachers′ responses to conducting the frame-based reading activity can be a good source of information in supporting the instructions of the concept of the frame. Third, different types of texts could be investigated for their frames in future studies instead of placing limitations on the subject. Finally, which level of learners will benefit from framing activities needs to be examined under different conditions.

It still needs to be discussed further as to how simply and easily framing material can be produced. It depends on the instructor's understanding and inferencing capability making a decision on the frame of a reading text for now. Nevertheless, the results of this study are valuable, which can serve as a foundation for further studies on using the concept of cognitive frame in the field of language education in the future.

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APPENDIX A

The excerpt of a full reading text from a textbook, "Are you sleeping enough?"

Are you sleeping enough?

We've all had restless nights when we couldn't get to sleep-and have suffered the next day as a result. Sleep experts say the average adult requires seven to nine hours of sleep per night; in fact, anything less could harm our health.

No time to sleep

In spite of the importance of sleep, many people are not getting enough. For example, Americans sleep one hour less per night on average than they did 20 to 30 years ago. "The dependency on caffeine and the whole Starbucks culture is certainly one proof that our society is sleepier than ever before," says William Dement, a sleep researcher at Stanford University. Sleep is a biological need, much like food and water. If totally deprived of shut-eye, humans ultimately perish. Yet millions of people are increasingly skimping on their sleep.

Why has sleep deprivation become such a big problem? There are a couple of possible reasons. Researchers say that today's sleep deprivation is partly due to modern expectations. These days, consumers expect information, entertainment, and food to be available round-the-clock. One of the results of this 24/7 culture is that consumers stay awake longer and later than they used to. Consequently, workers who provide us with goods and services can't stop working when the sun goes down, In addition, the fast-paced and competitive world of business often rewards employees for arriving at work early and staying late. As a result, many employees are willing to skip sleep in order to impress the boss.

Effects of sleep deprivation

Sleep deprivation can have a significantly detrimental impact on our performance, however. According to Charles Czeisler of Harvard University, staying awake for 24 hours or sleeping only five hours a night for a week is like having a blood-alcohol level of 0.1 percent. That is well above the legal limit for safe driving in most countries. Most people probably wouldn't get drunk before going to work or taking an exam; but if they are sleeping an average of five hours a night, they may be working, studying, driving, and making decisions as though they are intoxicated.

Sleep deprivation can result in poor grades or poor performance at work. But in some cases, it can have more dangerous effects. In February 2009, a commuter plane crashed on the way from Newark, New Jersey, to Buffalo, New York, killing all 49 people on board and one person on the ground. An investigation determined that the crash was most likely a result of fatigue. The copilot, and probably the pilot, had slept very little the day before the crash. Not surprisingly, sleep deprivation is linked to car accidents, too. The U.S. Institute of Medicine reports that almost 20 percent of car accidents happen because drivers are sleepy.

Sleep deprivation can be a particularly grave problem in the medical profession. In 2007, Czeisler researched the habits of 2700 first-year medical residents. Most of these residents worked for extremely long periods, some working 30-hour-long shifts twice a week. Many admitted that fatigue had had severe consequences on their performance and treatment of patients. Twenty percent of residents acknowledged making fatigue-related mistakes that led to injury of a patient. Five percent confessed that lack of sleep caused them to make a mistake that resulted in a patient's death.

We all know that we need sleep, but sleep deprivation continues to be a widespread problem around the world. Studies show that one in five adults suffer from daytime sleepiness. Among those aged 18 to 34, 50 percent say that daytime sleepiness interferes with their daily work. To many, the ability to function without much sleep is something to brag about. However, sleep is crucial to our well-being and our performance. It may be time to wake up and change our perspective on sleep. (Blass, L., Vargo, M., & Winsniewska, I., pp. 27-29)

Examples in: English
Applicable Language: English
Applicable Levels: Elementary, secondary, tertiary

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Functions of Coordinators in Native English and Korean EFL Learner Corpora*

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This study attempts to investigate the usage patterns of coordinators used in Korean learner and native English(NE) written corpora. Traditionally, the phenomenon of using coordinate conjunctions like linking adverbials has been considered as misused ones in academic prose. However, sentence-initial coordinators are frequently found not only in L2 writing, but also in native written corpora. This study compares the distribution of *and, but, or* and *so* as focal examples across the corpora in terms of phrasal phrase/clause/sentence levels as well as local/ cohesive functions in contexts where they are used. With a morpho-syntactic analysis of cross-linguistic differences between the two languages in terms of conjunctives, this paper employs both quantitative and qualitative analyses. The result demonstrates that there are two types of coordinators; *and* and *or* mainly occur at a word/phrase level, while *but* and *so* quite often appear a sentence-initial position. Especially, *or* as a typical coordinators never occurs in a sentence-initial position, while *so* is the reversed case as an initiator of the following sentence. The overall function of coordinators is biased toward local use across all corpora. Interestingly, not a few inter-sentential coordinators are observed, especially in the use of *but* and *so*. Accordingly, coordinators need to be classified by two roles; as an initiator of the following sentence as well as an intra-clausal connector to link equal elements in a sentence-middle position. With an influence of L1-specific conjunction system as well as spoken register, this phenomenon refers to Korean EFL learners' tendency to share merely equivalent meanings between conjunctive adverbials and coordinators in L1. The findings of this study suggest Korean EFL learners need to be aware of the two texture functions of coordinators by being exposed to broader discourse to identify various discourse-pragmatic functions.

[*but/so/and/*or/coordinators/corpus/initiator/texture functions]

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I. INTRODUCTION

With the advent of the development of corpus linguistics, one of the most vivid studies in the field of writing would be the investigation of linking words. Especially, the matter of overuse and misuse of cohesive markers between learner and native speaker corpora have been paid attention to many researchers (Altenberg and Tapper, 1998; Chen, 2006; Lei, 2012). According to Halliday and Hasan's *Cohesion in English* (1976), texts in written or spoken English have texture and it is cohesion that contributes to such texture. To maintain textual coherence, appropriate use of cohesive devices like connectors or connective adverbials (hereafter, CA) plays an important role for effective communication. Since the influential book sparked off interest in English discourse, focusing on the importance of the effective use of connectives, many studies have investigated cohesive markers in discourse (Altenberg, 1984; Beaman, 1984; Blagoeva, 2001; Connor, 1984; Crewe, 1990; Granger & Tyson, 1996; Kim, 1995; Mackay, 2000; Norment, 1994; Reid, 1992; Tyerney & Mosenthal, 1983). Recently, an increasing number of such studies have been carried out by taking experimental and corpus-based approaches by comparing learner and native speaker corpora (Altenberg & Tapper, 1998; Granger, 1998; Granger et al., 2002; Kim & Rhee, 2014; Lee, 2004; Oh, 2009; Zihan, 2015). Universally, it has been reported that EFL/ESL learners tend to overuse, underuse and misuse a certain type of cohesive devices compared to native English speakers.

Recently, concerning the use of English discourse markers by Korean EFL learners, corpus-based studies have been widespread, focusing on the statistical comparison between corpora of the target items compared with the native English corpus. Most studies have tried to identify the distribution or overuse patterns by conducting token or type analysis, providing detailed quantitative information on the use of cohesive device. However, it is hard to find a study that demonstrates whether there is an asymmetrical acquisition pattern related to morpho-syntactic features and the textual functions of connectors. Although there are only a few studies on the function of connectors (Schleppegrell, 1996; Oh, 2009), they are restricted to *because* clause only. EFL learners' interlanguage grammar is in the middle of developing a richer description on various functions used differently for the same structure. Thus, special attention needs to be paid to illustrating how grammatical resources of English are functioned to maintain textual coherence by Korean EFL learners.

This study starts from a question about why some coordinating conjunctions such as *but* or *so* are used as CAs. Such sentence-initial coordinators are frequently observed not only in EFL/ESL learner corpora but also native speaker corpora. To explore how often coordinators are used in phrasal/ clausal/sentential levels, native and non-native speakers' written corpora are examined and compared. Employing both quantitative and

qualitative analyses, this study aims to see whether there is an asymmetrical development caused by L1 interference due to different grammatical properties between Korean and English. Especially, in terms of textual functions of sentence-initial coordinators, local and cohesive links related to their textual scope are analyzed and compared between learner corpora with different proficiency levels as well as with native corpus. Thus, this paper is expected to contribute to better understanding of how Korean EFL learners develop the texture functions of coordinators, perceiving the differences between coordinators and CAs as discourse markers with different morpho-syntactic properties between L1 and L2.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Morpho-syntactic Properties of Coordinators

Although studies on discourse markers have been dealt with quite extensively, the notion of discourse marker is still disputable and there is no agreed classification of it. Due to multiple functions of various discourse markers and a wide range of linguistic approaches to them, this study focuses on coordinators and some linking adverbials related to them semantically to compare how they function as discourse markers in L2 written corpora.

Basically, coordinators are used to build coordinate structures, both phrases and clauses, linking elements which have the same syntactic role. The main coordinators in English are just three; *and, but*, and *or*, each of which has a core meaning of addition, contrast, and alternative, respectively (Biber et al. 1999). In terms of morphological aspects, all coordinators in English are free morphemes which stand alone as a word, whereas Korean coordinators are conjunctional endings, as a kind of bound morphemes. For example, one of Korean coordinators, '*-ko*', is a conjunctive morpheme as a suffix, which is translated into '*and*' in English. On the other hand, one of Korean linking adverbials, '*kuyriko*', existing as a free morpheme, is also translated into '*and*' in English. Like this, there is a morphological difference between coordinators and CAs in Korean, but not in English.

The very morphological difference between the two languages is considered to cause Korean EFL learners to misuse or overuse English coordinators as CAs. That is, Korean learners are likely to mistake English coordinators existing as free morphemes for linking adverbials. Because their semantically equivalent meanings are similar, the morphological difference may work as a salient point to distinguish the two. In short, English coordinators seem to be perceived as CAs as well as coordinators due to the

morphological form existing as free morphemes, especially by Korean EFL learners at beginners.

Syntactically, coordinators function as inter-clausal conjunctions, linking elements which have the same structures and syntactic roles. Because they connect not only words and phrases but also clauses, they can be classified into two types; phrase-level and clause-level coordinators. Especially, their position is fixed at the clause boundary. Thus, they cannot occur between a subject and a verb at clause-level as in (1). Above all, one of the outstanding features of coordinators that distinguish from linking adverbials in English is that coordinators are mutually exclusive. That is, coordinators are in complementary distribution, whereas CAs may be preceded by coordinators as in (2). Additionally, a comma is used after CAs, but not used after coordinators.

(1) a. **They but* carved out a 5.7 per cent share of the overall vote.
b. *They, nevertheless,* carved out a 5.7 per cent share of the overall vote.
(2) a. **And but* they carved out a 5.7 per cent share of the overall vote.
b. *And nevertheless,* they carved out a 5.7 per cent share of the overall vote.
(Biber, Johnsson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999; p.80)

Such phenomena are closely related to the distinction between inter-clausal conjunctions and inter-sentential conjunctions. Coordinators are typically used at a clause initial position as inter-clausal conjunctions, while CAs are considered as inter-sentential conjunctions. That is why CAs can occur for the most part medially, including sentence-final position, although they can appear initially, too. On the other hand, coordinators are restricted to clause final position. However, clauses beginning with coordinators are sequentially fixed into the consecutive clause after the previous one. That is why coordinated clauses cannot be transposed into the preceding clause as in (4).

(3) a. *They carved out a 5.7 per cent share of the overall vote *but*.
b. They carved out a 5.7 per cent share of the overall vote, *nevertheless.*
(Biber, Johnsson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999; p.80)

(4) a. They are living in England, *or* they are spending a vacation there.
*b. *Or* they are spending a vacation there, they are living in England.
(Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985; p. 921)

Ambiguously, *so* is blurred in the borderline between coordinators and CAs. *So* is used like coordinators in that it is fixed at the clause boundary as in (4a) and (5a). At the same time, like adverbials, it easily combines with coordinators as in (2) and (5b). That

is, '*and so*' is not ungrammatical unlike '*And but*' as in (2a).

(5) a. At least, we still get promoted, *so* our season's not been completely lost.
(Biber, Johnsson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999; p.80)
b. This method proved very helpful, *and so* they decided to choose it.

In the discussion of distribution of the coordinators, *and* is considered to be by far the most common coordinator in all the registers, while *but* is most frequently in conversation and fiction, and least frequent in academic prose. Typically, *and* is used as a phrase-level connector in academic prose, but more used at a clause-level in spoken language (Biber et al., 1999; p. 81). According to Pyo's (2017) study, there are no significant differences between Korean EFL learners' and native English speakers' written corpora in terms of overall distribution of coordinators used in academic essays. Her study also shows that the most frequently used coordinator in all corpora is *and*. Interestingly, *and* and *or* which are used mostly in a word/phrase level rather than a clause level rarely occur in a sentence-initial position. In contrast, it is reported that *but* and *so* used in a clause level appear in a sentence-initial position more frequently. Based on this result, Pyo (2017) claims that Korean EFL learners recognize *and* and *or* as coordinators more easily, using them as phrase-level connectors more frequently, whereas it is not the case in the use of *but* and *so*. In her study, the learner corpus is limited to essays from university students in intermediate levels and compares to native speaker's one. Thus, Korean learners' tendency to confuse coordinators with CAs needs to be examined in more various proficiency levels of English.

Conventions of academic writing do not allow coordinators in a sentence-initial position. Instead, coordinators are supposed to be linked with the same syntactic structures, both phrases and clauses in a relationship of parallel configuration. However, some coordinators at a clause boundary may occur in a sentence-initial position as an inter-sentential conjunction. This phenomenon is quite common in informal or spoken discourse, but there is no coincidence among researchers and grammarians who discuss the functions of such coordinators. Concerning inter-sentential coordinators used as CAs, some studies have regarded them as disjuncts occurring in a colloquial mode in English. In fact, there has been little mention related to propositional meaning of coordinators. In academic writing, however, coordinators are more readily interpreted as discourse markers to determine the meaning relationships between the clauses that are connected (Martin, 1983a, Schiffrin, 1987, Schleppegrell, 1996). In this respect, the following section discusses the textual functions of coordinators to explore further whether such inter-sentential coordinators function as turn-initial coordinators or merely as a substitute expanded from clause-level coordinators.

2. Textual Functions of Coordinators

It is well-known that conjunctions are signals of clause relation. Thus, they are more readily interpreted as markers of meaning relationships in texts (Schleppegrell, 1996). Especially, in academic writing, they naturally play pragmatic roles and function as cohesive discourse markers, structuring discourse because conjunctions, by their semantic meaning, presuppose the presence of certain other elements in a text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

One of the ways of creating cohesion in English is by conjunction, which serves as a discourse marker to indicate that a clause in a new turn relates to a preceding one. Thus, conjunctions play an important role in the system of continuity, holding conjunctive relations between text segments realized by clause complexes (Halliday, 2014).

(6) Jane: We were all exactly the same.
Kate: ***But*** I don't know that we were friends.
Jane: *Oh*, I think you were friends: you were friendly enough.
(Halliday, 2014, p. 605)

In (6), the conjunction, *but* serves as a marker to present a relationship between the *but*-clause, *I don't know that we were friends* and the previous one. Here the conjunction, *but* is used as a cohesive marker to link continuity. Such cohesive conjunctions are called 'clue words' (Cohen & Murphy, 1984), a term used in natural language processing. This cohesive system of conjunction provides 'clues' to indicate lexico-semantic relations cohesively within text (Halliday, 2014).

Here the sentence-initial coordinators like *but* in (6) have been considered as misused connectors in written academic prose. However, a number of studies have suggested that it is a universal phenomenon that EFL/ESL learners overuse or misuse connectors in their English writing. For example, Green, Christopher, and Mei (2000) reported that Chinese learners of English tend to overuse connectors as topic-fronting devices in English academic writing. In their research, they found that Chinese writers of English have a tendency to show more marked use of connectors in a sentence-initial position. In Lee's (2004) study, Korean students' preference for sentence-initial positioning of CAs was also noted, which is regarded as a common phenomenon in L2 English. According to Granger and Tyson (1996), the overused or misused connectors in a sentence-initial position may be considered as a developmental phenomenon because it is witnessed in learner corpora with different L1 backgrounds.

Meanwhile, other studies have reported that the tendency of overusing or misusing connectors is a universally observed property in language acquisition, regardless of L1.

Gardezi and Nesi (2009) compared the use of connective ties in Pakistani and British students' writing and found British students tend to overuse adversative connectors only while Pakistani students overused and misused all the other types such as causal, addictive and temporal. In Bolton, Nelson, and Hung's (2003) study, British and Hong Kong EFL students' use of connective adverbials were compared with that of professional academic writers. Their result showed that both British and Hong Kong EFL students overused various connectors.

Next, concerning functions of conjunctions, Altenberg (1984) classifies textual functions into local and global links to account for the importance of understanding various discourse functions. Local links are typically restricted to adjacent clauses, whereas global links may "encompass large portion of a text, pick out a distant or vaguely specified referent in the preceding discourse… "(Oh, 2009, p. 447). The common results found in Schleppegrell's (1996) and Oh's (2009) studies show that ESL/EFL learners' use of the focal example, *because*, is severely biased towards local links in their writing without creating cohesive ties in the larger text. In addition, Oh (2009) reports that their recurrent use of independent *because* clause may come from their native language transfer as well as spoken registers. For other several researchers, cohesive markers are assumed to function as the global or local referent. The globally used linguistic device refers to the salient referent in the whole discourse and is assumed to have the form of a proposition (Keenan & Schieffelin, 1976, Johnes, 1977, van Dijk, 1985, Kim, 2003). On the other hand, the local cohesion is defined as the salient referent at a given moment.

In this sense, this study operationally defines 'local function' as a linking device to connect the two linguistic units restricted to the preceding ones in an on-going event. That is, it refers to a conjunctive link between two linguistic units within a sentence. On the other hand, the term, global function refers to a linkage between larger chunks of text such as paragraphs. That is, global coherence is required to encompass large portion of a text to maintain the global topic in the whole discourse. Additionally, the present study suggests one more function of connectors, 'cohesive function', to cover a more detailed one between the local and global one. The cohesive function in this study operationally refers to linguistic devices to connect the previous unit to the following one beyond the sentence level, marking text cohesion between ideas conveying in each sentence. As one of typical cohesive devices, linking adverbials themselves involve cohesion to connect ideas by elaborating further the previously mentioned point, repeating or refining the prior information, or reinforcing conclusions and arguments (Schleppegrell, 1996).

TABLE 1

Three Types of Textual Functions of Connectors

Types	Functions	Examples
Local	Local links to connect two linguistic units within a sentence	Recently, the minimum wage system has just started, **so** people need to know the values of … [KEFL 2 – 055]
Cohesive	Cohesive markers to link the prior unit to the adjacent one beyond the sentence for cohesion	Gambling has been found to be addictive. **Therefore,** many people will take up the lottery without being able to stop. [NE -006]
Global	Global links to larger chunks of text to keep coherence in the whole discourse	… I don't think we are robbed out of our satisfaction because of the technology **because** you are a doctor and because of the technology, you are able to help more patients. (Schleppegrell, 1996, p. 279)

According to Schleppegrell(1996), the conjunction *because*, in Table 1, is used to introduce an example, which violates the conventions of academic writing as a run-on sentence. Due to such inappropriate uses of an oral style and the fact that coordinators do not have a broad scope in linking the two linguistic units, the global function of connectors is excluded in this study.

Focusing on the local and cohesive functions, it is generally assumed that conjunctions play a role of signals of clause relations. However, at the same time, clause relations also clarify the meaning of conjunctions by examining the ideational content that the clauses convey (Schleppegrell, 1996). As discourse markers, coordinators have important interactive functions, forming the initiating move in a turn (Stenstrom, 1994). For example, *and* can be used to play a role of starting a new thought (Tannen, 1993) as a marker of continuation in interaction, not to speak of a coordination of idea units (Schiffrin, 1987). Thus, textual functions of conjunctions need to be figured out in the context in details. Also, both coordinating conjunctions and CAs serve as discourse markers to establish cohesive ties or links with preceding elements, L2 learners may be confused about the exact difference between them. Despite conventional difference between the two in academic writing, a linguistic attribute of the very inter-sentential coordinators needs to be identified based on the actual language usage, corpora.

III. METHODOLOGY

1. Research Questions

For the purpose of providing an account for the nature of inter-sentential coordinators in written academic prose by comparing Korean learner and native English corpora, the

following research questions are posed;

1. What is different about the usage patterns of English coordinators in academic prose between Korean EFL learner and native corpora?
2. Is the use of inter-sentential coordinators biased toward local function or cohesive one?

Based on the morpho-syntactic and functional properties of coordinators mentioned in chapter 2, this study explores the nature of coordinators used in a sentence-initial position by examining them in learner and native corpora. If the function refers to turn-initial coordinators, it may be an evidence to support the claim that coordinators are used as alternatives of CAs. However, if not, the inter-sentential coordinators are considered merely as extended use transferred from clause-level ones. The former refers to a misused case, and the latter corresponds to an overgeneralized one. The result of this study will be carefully interpreted considering different morpho-syntactic properties of coordinators between L1 and L2 and learners' awareness of textual functions across different proficiency levels.

2. Data

The data used for the current study was compiled as Korean EFL learner corpus (hereafter, KEFL) using 228 essays written by Korean university students in Seoul. In this university, all the students must enroll two three-credit English courses, English writing and English speaking, respectively because the two courses are mandatory. As determined by the placement, the students are supposed to choose a proper class according to their scores of the test. As a placement test, English essay writing and interview are conducted before each semester starts. Among the four levels, advanced, intermediate, low, and rudimentary, 114 essays in the intermediate level and in the advanced level, respectively to compile learner corpora. The essay data to construct learner corpora was collected from English writing-related classes, which the researcher taught from 2016 to 2017, for one and a half years. The learners' majors were considerably various because the courses are mandatory for all students. The majority were freshmen, but there were about 25 percent of sophomores, juniors and seniors including re-takers of the course. The compiled KEFL corpora consists 228 essays totaling 104,346 words, and 457.7 words per essay.

In this study, the overall proficiency level of the intermediate, based on the norm of MATE(Multimedia Assisted Test of English), corresponds roughly to intermediate to upper-intermediate levels and that of the advanced groups covers upper-intermediate to advanced levels. The current study focuses on intermediate to advanced learners of English for two reasons. First, in order to observe the use of various discourse markers, the data

must be obtained from the learners who are able to write English academic essays with several paragraphs. Second, in terms of language acquisition, the intermediate level is a stage where overgeneralization is observed most vigorously and starts to retreat gradually (Yang, 2005, 2016). Therefore, it is deemed appropriate to select the two levels because L2 learners in the levels, who start to write paragraph-level essays intensively, are expected to show dynamic features in the process of acquiring proper use of various connectors.

To compare with KEFL, the essays written by native speakers are used. The native English corpus (hereafter, NE) as a norm in analyzing the learner corpus was from the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS), which contains present-day American and British university students' academic essays. The data from the LOCNESS used in this study is composed of 114 essays randomly selected among a total of 347 ones. The overall description of each corpus is as follows;

TABLE 2
Description of the KEFL and NE Corpora

Corpora	Number of essays	Number of words	words per essay
KEFL 1	114	34,844	305.6
KEFL 2	114	69,502	609.7
NE	114	60,400	529.8

3. Procedures of Data Analysis

The current study focuses on usage pattern of coordinators and some linking adverbials which share similar semantic meanings to coordinators, such as *however, therefore,* and *furthermore.* The focal coordinators used in the study are *and, but, or* and *so.* As mentioned in the previous section, the main coordinators in English are *and, but* and *or* in terms of a syntactical aspect and *so* is in the borderline between coordinators and linking adverbials. Especially, *so* is regarded as the most frequently used connector in L2 learners' speaking and writing (Kang, 2004; Back 2012).

For quantitative analysis, the distribution and frequency of the coordinators are analyzed by AntConc 3.4.4w (Windows 2014 version). AntConc is one of the most prevalently used Corpus tools, where target words or phrases are presented in the manner of KWIC(Key Word in Context). Due to this, functions and usage of a target word can be figured out in context accurately. First, using KWIC of AntConc, the distribution and frequency of *and, but, or* and *so* are compared across the corpora in terms of phrasal, clausal and sentential levels. Additionally, some linking adverbials which have equivalent meanings to the coordinators are selected based on the frequency in the result of KWIC; *moreover, furthermore, in addition, also, however, thus, therefore, consequently*. Then according to

the semantic meanings, the distribution and frequency are calculated and compared with those of coordinators.

Next, qualitative analysis is added to investigate textual functions of connectors in contexts where they are used. Referring to Schleppergrell's (1996) study mentioned in the Chapter 2, the present study classifies the textual functions of connectors into local and cohesive ones other than global one. Operationally, the local function in this study refers to a conjunctive link restricted to the preceding linguistic units within a sentence. That is, local function is related to the information or meaning of the previous units only, not referring to overall content conveyed in the larger chunks of text than sentences. Next, cohesive function is operationally defined as a cohesive device to connect the previous linguistic units to the following ones beyond the sentence-level, marking textual cohesion. It is distinguished from global function, which refers to coherence to stick together to sustain the global topic in larger units such as paragraphs.

IV. RESEARCH RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Statistical Results

The frequency and distribution of coordinators analyzed across corpora between KEFL and NE and in terms of proficiency levels are presented in Table 3. As seen in Table 3, the most frequently used coordinator in all corpora is *and*, which is by far considered as the most common coordinator in all the registers (Biber et al, 1999).

TABLE 3

Overall Distribution of Coordinators across the Corpora

Corpora	and		or		but		so		Total (per essay)
	raw token	per essay	raw token	per essay	raw token	per essay	raw token	per essay	
KEFL 1	722	6.33	131	1.15	159	1.40	123	0.86	9.96
	1.86%		0.37%		0.41%		0.32%		2.92%
KEFL 2	1,849	16..22	320	2.81	224	1.97	159	1.39	22.39
	2.66%		0.46%		0.32%		0.23%		3.67%
NE	1,298	12.85	258	2.55	229	2.26	63	0.62	18.29
	2.41%		0.48%		0.43%		0.12%		3.43%

(% per the total number of words used in each corpus)

Unlike the researcher's expectation that Korean EFL learners would overuse coordinators, compared to native speakers, the overall distribution of English coordinators does not show big differences across the corpora. As shown in the table above, Korean learners at intermediate level (KEFL 1) use 305.6 words and 9.96 coordinators per essay while 609.7 words and 22.39 coordinators at advanced level (KEFL 2). In the NE group, 529.8 words and 18.29 coordinators per essay are observed. Although the total number of coordinators used in KEFL 1 apparently seems to show a tendency to underuse, the percentages of the total coordinators per essay do not seem to demonstrate much difference among the three groups. Considering the total words used in each essay, the average percentages of coordinators used in each group are between 2.97% and 3.67%. The results of multiple comparisons, by one-way ANOVA indicate that there is no significant difference between groups (p=.969 between KEFL1 and KEFL2, p=.986 between KEFL 1 and NE, p=.997 between KEFL2 and NE, p<.05).

Following *and*, *or* and *but* are frequently used, and it is *so* that is least frequently used in all groups. These findings seem to be consistent with those of previous studies (Milton & Tsang, 1993; Bolton, Nelson, & Hung, 2002; Yoon, 2006). In fact, when the total number of '*so*' was counted, the actual numbers of it in all groups were much more than those presented in the table above. However, resulting from scrutinizing *so* in each context, it is revealed that 57.43% of the total number of *so* in the NE group, and 35.57% and 42.01% in the KEFL groups are not used as a coordinator, but as an adverb modifying adjectives mostly. Actually, there are considerably many cases in which *so* uses as other functions, not as a coordinator, such as '*so* that ~ (may)', '*so* plausible', '*so*-called', 'and *so* on'. Because such cases are excluded by checking one by one in context, *so* is the least frequently used coordinator in this study. In fact, it may be asked whether this matter was considered in previous corpus-based studies concerning the frequency of connectors.

Of course, *so* used to express a causal relationship holds a considerably high rank of overall connectors used in academic writing. Thus, to figure out the overall distribution of connectors, frequencies of several CAs whose discourse functional meanings (hereafter, DFM) are similar to those of the focal coordinators need to be examined.

TABLE 4
Frequencies in Terms of Discourse Functional Meanings of Connectors

DFM	Connectors	KEFL 1		KEFL 2		NE	
Addition	moreover	5		61		1	
	furthermore	6	141 (19.5%)	18	433 (23.4%)	0	19 (1.5%)
	in addition	10		42		1	
	also	120		312		17	
	and	**722 (80.5%)**		**1849**	**(76.6%)**	**1298 (98.5%)**	

Contrast	however	109	(40.7%)	189	(45.8%)	129	(36%)
	but	**159**	**(59.3%)**	**224**	**(54.2%)**	**229**	**(64%)**
Result	therefore	56	88 (41.7%)	159	238 (60%)	49	72 (55%)
	thus	26		69		19	
	consequently	6		10		4	
	so	**123 (58.3%)**		**159 (40%)**		**63 (45%)**	

Note. DFM = Discourse functional meaning / raw number (% per DFM)

Table 4 presents in detail the identified types based on discourse functional meanings of each connector along with their frequencies in each corpus. Overall, since *and* is by far the most frequently used coordinator in all corpora, the percentages of the additive type of CAs are much lower compared to those of the other types of DFMs; 19.5%, 23.4% and 1.5% respectively. Interestingly, as far as the additive type of connectors is concerned, the NE group heavily depends on '*and*' (98.5%), while the KEFL groups show rather various usage patterns. Especially, *also* is frequently observed, followed by *and* in the KEFL groups.

On the other hand, in terms of contrast and result types, the difference between connectors and CAs is relatively less. Nevertheless, in the type of contrast, the coordinator, *but* is more frequently used than *however* in all groups, whereas in the type of result, the percentage of CAs is higher than that of *so* in the KEFL 2 and NE groups. Only in the KEFL 1 group, the percentage of *so* is higher than that of other CAs. The fact that percentage of using *so* to mark a result was high (58.3%) in the KEFL 1 group only can be interpreted that intermediate L2 learners tend to depend on *so* to express a result. However, it becomes clear that as their proficiency level develops, they start to try various CAs to mark a causal relationship such as *therefore, thus,* and *consequently* as seen in Table 4.

These findings may add a supportive and extended account to Pyo's (2017) study by providing developmental features in acquiring connectors. Firstly, the dependency of *so* at the intermediate level may be considered as overgeneralization when L2 learners build up a rule to mark a result in L2 grammar. That is, in the process of acquiring discourse markers to express signals of clause relations, they are regarded to undergo a kind of overgeneralization stage. Secondly, due to the morphological difference between L1 and L2, Korean L2 learners may be confused when they use coordinators and CAs in English. As mentioned in chapter 2, English coordinators and CAs are all free morphemes, but Korean coordinators are conjunctive morphemes as a kind of a bound morpheme, while Korean CAs are free morphemes. Such difference may cause Korean learners to mistake English coordinators for CAs until they reach a certain stage where they start to be aware of the linguistic properties because both serve as cohesive links with preceding elements.

As to the question whether coordinators are misused as CAs or as disjuncts, L2 learners' sensitivity to register needs to be considered by investigating the functions of coordinators in context to see whether they differ according to different proficiency levels. Especially, the functional property of inter-sentential coordinators is considered merely as extended use transferred to sentence level from clause level. To provide a more exquisite account for this, the actual use of coordinators needs to be probed in terms of phrase and clause level across corpora. The overall distribution of each coordinator used in the two levels is summarized in Table 5.

TABLE 5

Distribution of Coordinators Used in Word/Phrase and Clause Levels

Corpora	and		or		but		so	
	W/PL (%)	CL (%)	W/PL (%)	CL (%)	W/PL (%)	CL (%)	W/PL (%)	CL (%)
KEFL1	564 (78.1)	158 (21.9)	125 (95.4)	6 (4.6)	60 (37.7)	99 (62.3)	1 (0.08)	122 (99.92)
KEFL2	1576 (85.2)	273 (14.8)	315 (98.4)	5 (1.6)	103 (45.9)	121 (54.1)	0 (0)	97 (100)
NE	818 (63)	480 (37)	237 (93)	21 (7)	65 (28.4)	164 (71.6)	5 (8)	58 (92)

Note. W/PL=Word/Phrasal level, CL= Clausal level

Interestingly, the comparison of the distribution of coordinators used in word/phrase and clause levels provides evidence that there are two types of coordinators; phrase-level coordinators and clause-level ones. As clearly seen in table 5, *or* and *and* are remarkably used more in a word/phrase level, whereas *so* and *but* are predominantly used in a clause level across all corpora. Especially, in the learner corpora, the percentage of *so* used in a clause level take up 99.92% and 100% respectively. This finding is closely related to the possibility that L2 learners are more confused about the coordinators mostly used in a clause level such as *so* and *but* than phrase-level coordinators, *or* and *and*. That is, concerning the clause-level coordinators, *so* and *but*, it seems that L2 learners are much more likely to confuse them with CAs. In other words, Korean learners' tendency to confuse coordinators with CAs is closely related to the levels where coordinators are used. Phrase-level coordinators such as *and* and *or* are perceived at an earlier stage as genuine coordinators, while coordinators frequently used in a clause level such as *but* and *so* are likely to occur at a sentence-initial position more frequently, which makes L2 learners confused with CAs.

Additionally, the frequencies of coordinators used in a sentence-initial position like CAs are probed to provide further analysis of this matter.

TABLE 6
Frequencies of Sentence-initial Coordinators across the Corpora

Corpora	And	Or	But	So
KEFL 1	24 (3.32%)	0(0%)	21 (13.21%)	51(41.46%)
KEFL 2	28 (1.51%)	0(0%)	13 (5.8%)	47 (29.56%)
NE	5 (0.39%)	2(0.78%)	24(10.53%)	15(23.9%)

In accordance with the finding revealed in the distribution of the phrase- and clause-level coordinators, *or* is never used as a sentence-initial coordinator in the learner corpora and hardly in the native corpus either (0.78%). This finding presents that Korean EFL learners perceive '*or*' as a typical coordinator to connect the two phrases. That is why they never use '*or*' in a sentence-initial position like CAs. Next, the percentages of *and* used in a sentence-initial position are also considerably low in the all corpora (3.32%, 1.51%, 0.39% of the total numbers of *and*), which means that they are clearly regarded as phrase-level coordinators. On the other hand, the percentages of *so* and *but* used as an inter-sentential coordinator like CAs are relatively high. Especially, *so* used as an inter-sentential coordinator takes up 41.46% in the KEFL1 although the percentages are decreasing as English proficiency levels increase (29.56% in the KEFL2 and 23.9% in the NE). In case of *but*, about 10 to 13% of it is used as an inter-sentential coordinator in the intermediate level and the native group, but the percentage in KEFL2 drops by half, 5.8%. This finding shows that advanced learners seem to be more conscious and aware of the register more strictly when they start to learn academic writing intensively than ordinary native college students, at least, in terms of the use of *but* in formal writing.

2. Textual Functions of Coordinators

Typically, linking adverbials carry out cohesive function in a sentence-initial position because they present cohesive ties to the meaning of the previous sentence. On the other hand, coordinators are typically regarded to serve local function since they signal semantic relationships between the preceding and following clauses within a sentence. However, as for the inter-sentential coordinators used in a sentence-initial position, corpus-based studies with various data need to provide reasonable evidence to understand L2 learners' developmental sensitivity of register in acquiring appropriate connectors in academic

writing. In this respect, textual functions of coordinators were examined in each context where each coordinator is used.

As a result, the overall functions of coordinators are biased toward local use rather than cohesive one although there are clear differences depending on the types of coordinators. In the use of *so*, the gap between local and cohesive function is relatively little, especially in KEFL1 (17%), while the gaps in KEFL2 and NE are 40% and 52% respectively. This means that *so* seems to be used more as local function than as cohesive one as English proficiency level is higher, but 24~30% of *so* used in KEFL2 and NE groups still functions as cohesive link. Like this, the reason why the percentage of *so* used as an inter-sentential conjunction is the highest among other coordinators is closely related to the ambiguous syntactic status of *so* between a coordinator and a CAs. As mentioned in chapter 2, although coordinators cannot occur together as in **and but* due to a property of complementary distribution, *so* can occur with *and* together.

(7) Yet these people would get into a vicious circle where the only way to pay off gambling debts would be to win, ***and so*** the problem increases. (NE05-06)
(8) It is cheaper to shoot and bury that beef cattle than to raise those making a loss, ***and so*** it my soon become that many farmers who have a choice will stop rearing beef cattle. (NE09-03)

Interestingly, the use of '*and so*' as in (7) and (8) was found in NE corpus only (69 tokens), while not a single use occurred in KEFL corpora, which means that native speakers of English seem to perceive such an ambiguous attribute of *so* just like an adverb, not as a pure coordinator. Considering the tree diagram of '*and so*', it becomes clear that *so* in '*and so*' is identified as a CA like *then* in '*and then*' because *and* is positioned in CC(coordinating conjunction) and *so* in AdvP in a tree diagram. That is, native speakers of English are assumed to recognize such ambiguity between the two properties concerning *so*. However, unlike the other coordinators, Korean EFL learners show a strong propensity of using *so* in clause-level only and as an inter-sentential conjunction. It can be interpreted that Korean learners are in confusion on the syntactic status of *so*, leading to misuse or overgeneralization.

In terms of L2 learning mechanisms, the following scenario can be expected when Korean EFL learners acquire English coordinators. At first, they are assumed to perceive word/phrase-level coordinators such as *or* and *and* more clearly than clause-level ones. Gradually, as they come across clause-level coordinators such as *so*, they become to recognize a clause, which may lead to a confusion between a clause and a sentence because both consist of a subject and a verb. At this stage, when learners encounter CAs which are

similar in meanings to coordinators, they get to fall into confusion, not distinguishing between CAs and clause-level coordinators. That is, recognizing the distinction between a clause and a sentence may increase awareness of a distinction between CAs and clause-level coordinators because both are followed by a subject and a verb. Due to this reason, learners may fall into confusion in the process of acquiring properties of a clause-level coordinator, *so*.

Such confusion may be exacerbated by L1 transfer, as well. Morphologically, Korean coordinators are bound morphemes (ex. *-ko, -geeman; and, but*), whereas Korean CAs are free morphemes (ex. *Kuyriko* meaning 'addition', *Kuyruena* meaning 'adversative'). Due to such a morphological aspect, when Korean learners acquire English where both coordinators and CAs are all free morphemes, they are likely to confuse English coordinators as CAs, especially, in case of clause-level coordinators such as *so*. That is why *so* is often used in a sentence-initial position like CAs as in (10). The distinction between the two different functions of coordinators can be observed in the following examples;

(9) Very little freight is transposed by rail these days**, so** the railways have lost income due to this. (NE01-07)
(10) Because of this, the price of beef would have to decrease in order to attract more customers. **So,** as a result of the claim that beef containing contaminated offer may cause CJD in humans, farmers … (NE09-08)

Definitely, *so* in (9) is a coordinator functioning as local link within a sentence as an intra-clausal conjunction to link equal elements in a sentence-middle position. However, *so* in (10) as an inter-sentential conjunction fulfils a function leading to a conclusion about the point mentioned in the previous sentence, which is one of the cohesive functions Schleppergrell (1996) claimed. That is, *so* used in a sentence-initial position is an initiator of the following sentence as a cohesive marker to signify continuity, expressing a temporal result of the preceding sentence. Accordingly, *so* has two types of functions; a cohesive link as an inter-sentential conjunction is distinguished from a local link as an intra-clausal conjunction. The same principle may be applied to other coordinators such as *but*. In (11), ***but*** fulfils a local function as an inter-sentential conjunction, a typical coordinator, while ***But*** in (12) is used to mark adversative cohesion of the previous sentence as an initiator of the following sentence in a sentence-initial position.

(11) Sharing cars seems feasible, ***but*** is unpopular for various reasons. (NE01-01)
(12) Genetic manipulation has also been used to increase yields of crops this saving lives

in third world countries and reducing costs of raw food products. ***But*** this information can be used for the wrong purposes as such information has been used in the past …. (NE08-22)

However, there are considerably big gaps between the two functions in the use of the other coordinators; *and, but, or*. Especially, in case of *or* which is mainly used as a word/phrase-level coordinator, its textual function is 100% local in KEFL corpora, and 99% in NE corpus. This result means that because word/phrase-level coordinators are more likely for Korean learners to be recognized as a coordinators clearly, they seldom misuse the typical word/phrase-level coordinator, *or*, as an inter-sentential conjunction. Due to such clear awareness of *or* as a typical word-level coordinator, *or* is never found in a sentence-initial position in Korean learner corpora.

Additionally, another interesting point found in KEFL corpora is that Korean learners tend to use *or* in front of the second item as well as the third items when it connects three or more parts of a parallel structure as in (13) and (14). On the other hand, the use of *or* is limited to connect only two items in NE corpus, showing no case where *or* connects three or more parts. On the other hand, the use of *or* is limited to connect only two parts in NE corpus, showing no case where *or* connects three or more items.

(13) … because they need to interact with all kinds of people such as customers ***or*** business partners ***or*** supporters. (KEFL2 04-02)
(14) They are going to extreme measures, using laxatives, ***or*** vomiting, ***or*** using dieting pills. (KEFL2 01-07)

Considering the usage pattern of each coordinator across corpora mentioned above, L2 learners are required to develop their sensitivity to morpho-syntactic properties of coordinators between L1 and L2 at first. As their proficiency levels increase, they gradually become aware of more complex types of conjunctions and may confuse some coordinators with CAs, especially, in case of a clause-level coordinator such as *so*. However, even though L2 learners' awareness of textual functions is on the rise, some clause-level coordinators are still used like CAs functioning as a cohesive bond, which is also found in NE corpus. Taken together all the findings of the current study, two classifications of coordinators are suggested as in Table 7.

TABLE 7
Two Classifications of Coordinators

by levels	by positions	by linking	by functions
Word/phrase-level clause-level (some)	Intra-clausal conjunctions	Local link within a sentence	Connectors of parallel items
Clause-level (some)	Inter-sentential conjunctions	Cohesive link between sentences	Initiators of the following sentence

V. CONCLUSION

The present study is to explore L2 learners' linguistic behavior with focus on usage patterns and functions of coordinators as discourse markers in English academic prose. In the process of restructuring L2 grammar, developing L2 learners' sensitivity to functions of cohesive markers is an indispensable condition to acquire cohesive devices such as conjunctions. Taken together from the findings of the study across learner and native speaker corpora, the current study provides several pedagogical implications in terms of using English coordinators in academic prose.

Firstly, the question arises about a traditionally well-known prescriptive reaction against starting a sentence with coordinators in formal writing. Actually, this study shows not a few cases where *so* and *but* as clause-level coordinators often play a role of an initiator as a cohesive bond. Considering the similar frequency of coordinators used as initiators in NE corpus compared to those in KEFL corpora, it would be difficult to say that Korean learners tend to misuse coordinators in a sentence-initial position. Especially, in case of *so* used in a clause-level only, the portions used as an inter-sentential conjunction are quite high (41.5%, 29.6%, and 23.9%). Thus, there is a controversial issue of considering sentence-initial coordinators as misused ones. In academic prose, the prescriptive norm on utilizing coordinators as cohesive ties needs to be reconsidered.

Moreover, Korean learners seem to be more confused about clause-level coordinators (*so* and *but*) as CAs than word/phrase-level ones (*or* and *and*) because they may have a difficulty in distinguishing between clauses and sentences. Since both a clause and a sentence are made up of a subject and a verb, they are considered to be under a process of overgeneralization until they become to tell a clause from a sentence. That is, in the process of restructuring L2 grammar, it would be difficult for L2 learners to judge whether clause-level coordinators are coordinators or CAs, while word/phrase-level coordinators tend to be easily recognized as coordinators. Accordingly, until they fully acquire the appropriate knowledge on a clause and a sentence, there is a high possibility

that clause-level coordinators are misused as CAs.

Such confusion may be exacerbated by L1 transfer, as well. Morphologically, Korean coordinators are bound morphemes (ex. *-ko*, *-geeman*; *and*, *but*), whereas Korean CAs are free morphemes (ex. *Kuyriko* meaning 'addition', *Kuyruena* meaning 'adversative'). Due to such a morphological difference, when Korean learners acquire English where both coordinators and CAs are all free morphemes, they are likely to confuse English coordinators as CAs at first. However, looking at the result of the study which shows the textual function of a word-level coordinator, *or*, is all local, word-levels coordinators are more easily recognized for pure coordinators. Considering that Korean learners seldom use the word-level coordinator, *or*, in a sentence-initial position, it becomes clear that they seem to acquire local links earlier than cohesive links beyond a sentence level.

So far as coordinators are concerned, the current study will contribute to understanding the actual usage patterns in written academic prose, not only in native speaker's corpus, but also across different proficiency levels of L2 English corpora. In this respect, it should be noted that the present study could have useful suggestions for facilitating L2 learners' awareness on functions of coordinators as discourse markers as well as inform L2 teachers of some fundamental causes of what is called 'misuse' of coordinators, both in linguistic and in functional aspects. By providing L2 learners with sufficient opportunities to use negative evidence such as explicit feedback or correction (Pyo, 2015), they should build up sensitivity to functions of conjunctions including coordinators, as local, cohesive or global markers. The current study rests on the conviction that L2 learners need to be exposed to broader discourse to identify various discourse-pragmatic functions when they learn English academic writing.

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Examples in: English
Applicable Language: English
Applicable Level: Tertiary

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Features and Perception of EFL Students' Feedback on Their Peers' Writing

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The study aims at validating the effectiveness of peer feedback in an EFL writing context. Twenty-two college students participated in the study. On the basis of the analysis of scores and peer feedback of the participants' writing, and their responses to the questionnaire on the benefits and problems of the peer feedback activity, the following outcomes were obtained: 1) compared to the teacher's judgment on students' writings, they assigned significantly higher scores to their peers' writing; 2) their written comments on their peers' writing can be categorized into two features: micro-level comments and broad statements; and 3) they listed substantial benefits and drawbacks of the peer feedback activity. The pedagogical implication is that in order to foster the advantages of the peer feedback activity and overcome its drawbacks in EFL writing class, it is firstly required to help learners clearly understand the role of peer feedback in the revision stage, and then to devote efforts to organize a positive context to implement the activity effectively by establishing proper procedures of the activity and offering systematic practice in pre-training.

[peer feedback/writing instruction/written comments/qualitative study]

I. INTRODUCTION

Over the past few decades, constant efforts to find meaningful teaching and learning methods for L2 writing learners have paid off in introducing some key concepts of learner-

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centeredness, process-based learning, and task-based approach including learner autonomy. Especially, self-directed or autonomous learning has widely been acknowledged to allow learners to take active part in writing classes and, a step further, to take the initiative in achieving their goals. That is, autonomous learning leads students to be a responsible learner: a "good language learner" who is using language materials effectively, developing learning strategies actively, and organizing their time carefully (Hedge, 2000).

In accordance with learner autonomy, peer feedback has begun drawing attention as an alternative in L2 writing classes in order to provide feedback to L2 writers who have been used to receiving feedback only from their teachers. Despite a great number of studies on peer feedback to verify its effectiveness in L2 writing, there has not been any solid consensus among researchers on whether it plays a positive or negative role in ESL/EFL learners' writing performance. For instance, Richards (2003) has a positive view on peer feedback and enumerates its benefits, such as improving writing proficiency through students' awareness of good writing, gaining higher socio-affective competence through sharing their ideas, building more equal learning environment, and taking more ownership of their writing. It not only makes the learners active and self-directed but encourages them to be socially interactive through the process of reading their peer's writing product, analyzing it, sharing their ideas, and then revising their own writing based on the feedback. In other words, it may help them become active learners, develop their critical reading ability, set up an authentic context, and reduce teacher's workload (Richards, 2003).

According to Braine (2003), however, it also has negative aspects: task subjectivity, unfair exercise, strange activity, losing face among peers, and unqualified work. Moreover, another aspect to be considered is learners' affective preference for teacher feedback over peer feedback. It has been reported that a considerable number of learners are strongly likely to prefer feedback from their teachers to that from their peers due to uncertainty of their language use (Carson & Nelson, 1996; Richards, 2003; Zhang, 1995) as well as cultural reluctance in criticizing their peers (Richards, 2003). Leki (1990a) shared his view onto the priority given to teacher feedback, stating that learners' poor language proficiency might reduce their feedback merely to micro-level comments of orthographical or local grammatical errors, making them feel thirsty for more macro-level knowledge, which, in turn, make them rely more upon their teachers' comments.

Amid this longstanding controversy over the effectiveness of peer feedback in writing, one more thing worth mentioning is that the studies performed to clarify the issue are generally based on writing outcomes obtained from L1 (e.g., Faigley & Witte, 1982; Sommers, 1980) or from ESL participants (e.g., Berg, 1999; Caulk, 1994; Lundstrom & Baker, 2009; Mendonca & Johnson, 1994; Nelson & Carson, 1998; Paulus, 1999; Zhang, 1995), lacking an effort to investigate the issue in EFL context.

In addition, as many of the studies conducted in an EFL situation are usually based in a China or Hong Kong setting (e.g., Min, 2008; Miao, Badger, & Zhen, 2006; Tsui & Ng, 2000; Zhang & Curry, 2016; Zhao, 2010), more research is needed to provide a clearer direction on peer feedback in the Korean context (Y. Cho, 2005; Park, 2010). In this respect, the current study aims at identifying the features of peer feedback on EFL students' writing and validating its effectiveness through observing how EFL writing learners perceive the peer feedback activity and why they do so, using quantitative and qualitative data. To fulfill this purpose, the following research questions were posed:

1. How do EFL students evaluate their peers' writings in the quantitative and qualitative manner?
2. How do EFL students perceive of the peer-feedback activity in terms of its effectiveness and drawbacks?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Necessity of Feedback in L2 Writing

There has long been no doubt that high-quality writing skill is a crucial component for a modern society, which requires its members to be actively communicative and interactive. Along with the increasing development of IT, they are facing more diverse contexts to express and share their thoughts and ideas, especially in recent times (Yoon, 2015). In other words, by consistently experiencing a lot of information and simultaneously acquiring knowledge through a wide variety of multimedia platforms, they are forced to be placed in an environment that yields what they produced in many ways, including writing skills in particular. In this situation, the improvement of writing skills has become a challenging task not only for L2 learners but for researchers and practitioners. Furthermore, both a variety of approaches and strategies for enhancing L2 learners' writing skills have already been on the rise in the field of English writing instruction. While much time and effort has been put towards instruction, teaching and enhancing EFL learners' writing skills is still a complex issue for those involved.

Writing feedback, whether coming from the teacher, the peer, the computer, or oneself, has been considered a critical factor to play a key role in L2 learners' writing improvement (Arndt, 1993; Leki, 1990b; Richards, 2003). To date, however, its effectiveness as a way of improving their writing ability has still been questioned (K. Cho, 2013; Richards, 2003). In fact, some studies investigating its effectiveness have reported little impact on learners' writing improvement (Cohen, 1987; Leki, 1990b). For

example, Truscott (1996) strongly claimed its uselessness in his case study against grammar correction in L2 writing classes, suggesting more focus on global matters of content and organization (Richards, 2003). On the contrary, other researchers were taking a positive stance on giving feedback, arguing that it made appreciable differences in learners' first and revised drafts, and that learners favored teacher and/or peer comments on their macro and micro writing matters (Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris 1995). Fathman and Whalley (1990) found that their students produced more quality writing tests after receiving feedback on both content and form.

Notwithstanding different voices concerning the effects of feedback in L2 writings what needs to be positively considered in L2 writing is that feedback provides an opportunity for learners to generate and get different points of view, and to raise their awareness of rhetorical and linguistic modes through the interactive process of feedback (Arndt, 1993; Kroll, 2002). Therefore, what matters is not to determine whether feedback will be engaged in EFL writing classes but to study how feedback will be involved. It is generally agreed that the types of feedback—teacher feedback, peer feedback, or self-feedback—and the forms—oral feedback, written commentary, corrective feedback, teacher-student conferencing, etc.—are essentially taken into account. It should surely be remembered that well-provided feedback may produce quite different and good-quality revised writing results, considering the features of feedback and learners' perception of it.

2. The Role of Peer Feedback in EFL Writing

Despite positive assertions of a number of researchers on teacher feedback, there has been continuing inconsistency on its effectiveness. Peer feedback emerged as an alternative to teacher feedback and stood out as a major interest in the feedback discipline (Tsui & Ng, 2000). Quite a few studies have pointed out its effectiveness and drawbacks. Although there are some challenges to implementing peer feedback such as concerns about credibility and validity due to peer's poor L2 proficiency, students' preference of teacher feedback, time constraints, a degree of authority, or lack of comprehensive feedback, the benefits of peer feedback have been emphasized by many researchers.

First, peer feedback is widely practiced in L2 writing settings since it is claimed that it serves to improve learners' writing proficiency by acquiring awareness of good writing through reading their peers' writing outcome. One of the peer-feedback advantages that Richards (2003) suggested is that it encourages learners to develop their critical reading skills, which, in turn, enhances learner's academic performance. Second, it helps them to gain higher socio-affective competence through responding to each other's work. As learners actively participate in the collaborative task, they offer themselves greater learner

autonomy, build their comfortable learning settings, and even reduce apprehension about writing (Fuchs, Fuchs, & Burish, 2000; Richards, 2003; Tsui & Ng, 2000). Additionally, peer feedback has proved to be beneficial in that it encourages learners to take more ownership of their writing and thus helps them to become a successful writer.

In order to verify positive/negative effectiveness of peer feedback, a good many researchers have studied its varied issues: peer feedback training, comparison of teacher/peer feedback, different types of peer feedback, influence of writers' proficiency, the effects of peer comments on ESL/EFL students' revision and outcomes, and the effects of affective factors, just to name a few. Berg (1999), for example, did research on whether peer feedback training had an effect on ESL learners' revision types and writing performance. It was found that peer feedback training positively affected learners' revisions and writing results. As for L2 writing proficiency as another significant factor, Suzuki (2008) suggested that those who have high language proficiency more actively negotiated with their peers and engaged in the peer feedback activities (Mendonca & Johnson, 1994). In addition, giving feedback itself to low proficiency students is likely to play a positive role in enhancing their writing ability (Allen & Mills, 2014; Lundstrom & Baker, 2009). Contrary to high-level learners, it is claimed by Allen and Mills (2014) as well that the students with low language proficiency tend to get more benefits by receiving feedback from high-level peers than those with low language proficiency.

On the other hand, many a researches have reported negative aspects of peer feedback. Specifically, Nelson and Carson (1998) mentioned that the activity of peer response was not so successful in a sociocultural dimension, arguing that peers had a tendency not to give constructively critical comments in an attempt to avoid "a sense of discomfort and uneasiness" generated from assessing their peers (Liu & Sadler, 2003, p. 194). This response was referred to as "cultural reluctance" by Richards' (2003). This phenomenon may be related with an affective factor that peers are likely to maintain a harmonious interpersonal relationship between themselves and their peers and not "lose face."

Another problem with peer comments was identified by Leki (1990a), stating that students' task was limited to surface-level errors—grammar, spelling, or punctuation—not to textual or deeper level structure such as content and organization. Sommers (1980) concludes, based on this concern, that peer comments do not play a positive role in facilitating both a good-quality revision and valid advice. Braine (2003) also presents several reasons for his negative attitude toward peer assessment such as task subjectivity, unfair exercise, strange activity, losing face among peers, and unqualified work. Table 1 shows Richards' (2003, p. 199) summary of potential pros and cons of peer feedback in detail.

TABLE 1

Potential Pros and Cons of Peer Feedback

Advantages	Disadvantages
Active learner participation	Tendency to focus on surface forms
Authentic communicative context	Potential for overly critical comments
Nonjudgmental environment	Cultural reluctance to criticize and judge
Alternative and authentic audience	Students unconvinced of comments' value
Writers gain understanding of reader needs	Weakness of reader's knowledge
Reduced apprehension about writing	Students may not use feedback in revisions
Development of critical reading skills	Students may prefer teacher feedback
Reduces teacher's workload	

A more important point to be highlighted from the previous studies is that many studies and their findings of peer feedback's role were conducted mostly on L1 and/or in ESL situations, and only a few implemented in EFL settings, particularly in Korea. Not only lacking studies in a Korean EFL setting, but there also exists an inconclusive nature of peer feedback, causing hesitation in active incorporation for its potential benefits into EFL writing instruction. For instance, while Choi (2013) and Cho and Sohn (2007) proved the complementarity of peer and teacher feedback, and claimed its usefulness for English writing, Kim's findings (2009) corroborated with Carson & Nelson's research (1996) that the students preferred teacher feedback to peer. As such, there is lack of consensus on the effectiveness of peer feedback even in Korean EFL writing settings.

III. METHOD

1. Participants

Twenty-two college students participated in the study, who enrolled in an *English Writing* class as a compulsory course during the fall semester, 2016. The participants were all sophomores (21 males and 1 female), and they were in the 19 to 23 age range, majoring in Foreign Studies in a college. Of the participants, only two had been exposed to an English-speaking environment. Their TOEIC scores were 829.25 on average, ranging from 710 to 950, approximately an intermediate-high level. Compared to their level of English proficiency, however, it appeared that they had little chance to acquire English writing skills. According to the pre-survey results, 12 students had never studied English writing before this study, and the rest had a bit of experience in writing: at least above one month (9%), about 6 months (18%), and over 1 year (18%). Additionally, those with experience in English writing reported that they learned it from high schools, private

English institutes, private tutors, on-line websites, etc.

2. Instruments

1) Writing Samples

The 22 students wrote 9 times in total by completing the first, second, and final drafts in each of three writing genres: narrative, expository, and argumentative. Among the collected 198 writing samples, only 132 writing samples were evaluated with the aim of measuring the difference between the first and the second drafts, excluding the final one. The topics were "The Most Memorable Trip I Have Ever Had" for narration, "Important Things to Remember When Purchasing a New Smartphone" for expository writing, and "Nowadays smart phones are indispensable in our life. Some people think they bring us much convenience, while others argue they make more trouble. Which view do you agree on? Choose one view and support your argument in English" for argumentation.

While writing the three genres of essays, the students were in a timed-test situation to raise their concentration on the writing tasks. It took one and a half hour for each writing task from generating ideas to revising their draft. Additionally, they were not allowed to use any reference materials, and they were informed that the writing test results would be valued for their final credit.

When completing the first writing task for each genre, the students were provided with a peer review sheet, which was based on five categories of content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics, using a scale of 1 to 5 points, and then asked to assess their peer's writing. They were also guided to write any comments and/or suggestions, if any, on the feedback form. The second draft modified with the feedback from their peers was submitted to assess the development of their writing outcomes.

For the quantitative assessment of the writing samples, the analytical scoring method was adopted to measure the students' writing performance with the criteria of content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics (Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel, & Hughey, 1981; J.-W. Lee, 2012). Two raters took part in the scoring procedure: a Canadian native English teacher who has been teaching almost over 20 years in Korea and one of the researchers with approximately 14 years of English teaching experience in colleges in Korea. They discussed the scoring rubric, remembering the importance of maintaining consistency while rating students' writing samples. Inter-rater reliability was calculated using Cronbach alpha: .783 and .789 for first and second narrative writing each; .881 and .757 for the first and second expository writing each; and .783 and .906 for first and second argumentative writing each. The reliability ranged from a moderate-high to a high degree, which safely permits further analysis.

2) Questionnaire

A pre-survey questionnaire was administered before the experiment so as to obtain the participants' background information: age, gender, TOEIC score, English writing experience, etc. And a semi-structured post-survey questionnaire was followed by the writing tasks to examine their perception of the peer feedback activity. The items in the questionnaire were provided in an open-ended format to investigate their thoughts and opinions at a deeper level. The items were as follows: Did the peer feedback activity affect your English writing proficiency?; Did it have positive or negative effects on your English writing?; and if so, why do you think that way?

3. Procedures

In the first class, after a pre-survey questionnaire was conducted, the detailed accounts for what peer feedback is, how to assess peer's writing, and what sorts of writing genre they were going to compose were offered. In addition, each participant was asked to make pair up with one of the students in the class to exchange and share his/her feedback, resulting in eleven groups for peer review. After a preliminary practice of peer feedback with the students' pre-writings, the full-scale experiment of writing with three writing genres—narrative, expository, and argumentative—was conducted in a two-week interval throughout the writing course.

In the part, the students first wrote the narrative, exchanged their drafts with their partners, and then gave their peer feedback, including written feedback with suggestions, if necessary. For the peer feedback, they were given a peer review sheet for structured guidance on what features should be considered while assessing their peers' outcome (Holst, 1993). They were asked to assign scores on five analytic criteria—content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics—on a five-point scale, followed by jotting down written comments or suggestions. Based on the feedback from their peers, they revised their first writing and handed in the second draft to the instructor. After getting the teacher's corrective feedback on their second draft, the students rewrote their writing for the final draft. The finals, however, were excluded from the assessment for the purpose of the study. With the same process as the first genre: narrative, the two writing genres (expository and argumentative) were dealt with during the semester. At the end of the semester, the raters scored the revised second drafts to compare the difference between the students' and the teachers' assessment of the writing outcomes.

Lastly, the participants' perception of the peer feedback activity was examined through a post-survey questionnaire at the end of the course. They responded to the survey in their first language to rule out any undesirable effects caused by the use of English on

advancing their thoughts and opinions about the activity.

4. Data Analysis

For the analysis of the results, first, *t*-tests were conducted based on the mean scores assigned by the two groups on the students' writing to determine how different the students' assessment of their peers' writing from the teachers' assessment of the students' writing. Next, using the content analysis approach to infer meanings from the data, written comments the students made on their peers' essays were collected and reviewed thoroughly to elicit distinctive features that they clearly portrayed, and coded the features according to the categories, grouping similar comments together to provide an overall sense of them (Krippendorf, 2004). Finally, open-ended questionnaire items about the benefits and drawbacks of peer feedback were also analyzed using the content analysis approach to clarify the students' perception of the peer feedback activity.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. EFL Students' Evaluation of Their Peers' Writing

1) Students' assessment of their peers' writing

As one part of the peer feedback process, the students were asked to assign scores on their peers' writings. It would be beneficial to compare their scores and the teachers' to determine how they responded to their peers' writing quantitatively. T-tests were conducted based on the mean scores of the two groups to identify any differences in the scores given by the students and the teachers.

As shown in Table 2, the students' scores were statistically significantly higher than the teachers' at $p < .05$. One possible explanation is that they do not have enough English proficiency to critically assess their peers' writings, which implies that they are not able to assume the role of substitute for the teacher (Rollinson, 2005). It is supported by a participant's articulation in the questionnaire that he needs teacher feedback no matter how beneficial peer feedback is (Mendonça & Johnson, 1994; Zhang, 1995). Another may come from Carson and Nelson's (1996) observation that they don't want to impair the relationship with their peers, which is in line with their comment of withholding critical feedback in the questionnaire.

TABLE 2

Difference Between Teachers' and Students' Assessment of Students' Writings

Genre	Group	*Mean (SD)*	*t*	*p*
Narrative	Teacher	18.80 (2.386)	-5.548	.000
	Student	22.15 (2.777)		
Expository	Teacher	18.80 (2.336)	-6.346	.000
	Student	22.40 (1.789)		
Argumentative	Teacher	19.48 (1.788)	-10.376	.000
	Student	23.30 (1.455)		
Total	Teacher	19.03 (2.174)	-12.045	.000
	Student	22.62 (2.108)		

2) Students' written comments on their peers' writing

For peer feedback, the students were also asked to write comments and/or suggestions that would facilitate revision of the writings. Two distinctive features were observed in their comments: micro-level comments and broad—not specific or concrete—statements.

Most of the comments or suggestions the students made on their peers' writing came up at micro-level features of writing instead of textual or organizational ones (Leki, 1990a; Tsui & Ng, 2000). They must have difficulty in offering "suggestions for the whole piece of writing" (Cault, 1994, p. 184) which will help make major changes in their writing. It is quite understandable that they might not have confidence to make macro-text-related suggestions, considering that it would be a cognitively demanding business to think critically and make comments on macro-level features (Arndt, 1993; Tsui, & Ng, 2000).

While providing written comments on their peers' writings, they frequently mentioned grammar usage of verb tense (S2, S4, S7, S10, S13), articles (S2, S6, S7, S10), prepositions (S4, S9, S10, S13), conjunctions (S6, S16), and singular/plural forms (S2, S4, S7). Moreover, they indicated errors of punctuation marks usage (S2, S20) and capitalization (S6, S10). In other words, their comments remained mostly at the surface level of writing and apparently lacked in-depth suggestions to facilitate successful revision.

When the students made comments related to macro-level features such as content or organization of writing, although such comments were rarely reported, they failed to express their intention in a concrete and comprehensible manner that may well be a key to effective revision (Arndt, 1993; Leki, 1990a; Tsui & Ng, 2000). Suggestions were usually made about vocabulary use, content-related issues, and textual organization.

A variety of vocabulary needs to be used. (S2, S4, S5, S12, S13)

Content is a little bit not concrete. (S13)

The conclusion part needs some revision. (S6)

I couldn't see the big picture of the story. (S11)

I felt the lack of introduction, main body, and conclusion a bit. (S5)

I found an awkward division. (S18)

Their comments were so broad and general—sometimes ambiguous and confusing—that it seemed hard for the writer to decide upon the reader's intention specifically. This may have significant bearing on the writer's misgivings about the credibility and accuracy of the comments (Zhang, 1995), which, in turn, is most likely to dissuade the writer from incorporating the comments into her writing.

2. EFL Writers' Perception of Peer Feedback

1) Effectiveness of peer feedback

A number of research projects have reported the beneficial effects of peer feedback in L1 writing (e.g., Gere & Abbot, 1985; Kroll & Vann, 1981) and L2 writing (Arndt, 1993; S. Cho, 2011; Choi, 2013; Min, 2005; Tsui & Ng, 2000). In the current study performed in the EFL context, the proposition was validated that the students enumerated the benefits of peer feedback they gave and received, even though most of them have never experienced getting feedback from peers according to the survey.

The first and foremost benefit they mentioned was raising awareness of their weaknesses in their writing (Tsui & Ng, 2000). Peer feedback was conceivably conducive to enhancing their awareness of problems in their written work. They confessed that they were not able to find certain errors or mistakes in their writings for themselves, and that reading others' writings helped them notice those problems.

Reading and giving feedback on my partner's writing, I found something wrong in my essay. (S1, S6)

Reading my partner's writing, I could catch some grammatical mistakes I had made that I usually failed to notice when I wrote… (S2)

When I wrote an essay, I could pay attention to every part of it. But I could check what I had missed while reading my partner's essay. (S10)

While reading others' writings, I have come to better notice errors and problems I made in my writing. (S18)

The most frequently reported benefit of peer feedback was that they could learn how to make writing effective and successful while reading their peers' writings, giving feedback on them, and incorporating the feedback received from their peers in their writing. This goes well with the outcome of previous studies (Berg, 1999; Mendonça & Johnson, 1994; Rollinson, 2005; Tsui & Ng, 2000) that peer feedback provides writers with an opportunity to become a critical reader of others' writings, which can help them be more critical of their own writing to become more effective revisers and, finally, lead to overall improvements in their writing quality. The participants articulated what they learned from the peer feedback activity during the multiple drafting procedures, from specific grammar points and mechanics to vocabulary and expressions and even to organization of an essay.

My partner's essay reminded me of grammar and vocabulary usage that I've learned, which helped enhance my writing proficiency and English ability. (S9)

…I learned expressions I do not use often from my peer's writing… (S3)

Through reading others' writing, I can make greater efforts not to commit the same mistakes that I make frequently… (S13, S14)

Reading my friends' essays and giving feedback on them, I think we learn from each other about how to organize thoughts and opinions persuasively in my essay as well as to use vocabulary appropriately and grammar points accurately. (S17)

Another feature they reported has to do with social domain and attitude. One of the participants pointed out that it was effective in his writing procedure to get feedback from his supportive peer, which resulted in positive attitudes toward the peer feedback activity and ultimately EFL writing (Leki, 1990a; Tsui & Ng, 2000). The activity tends to motivate him to keep writing in English with the help of his supportive peer.

My peer was so supportive in his peer feedback that I felt quite comfortable performing writing in English. I think the peer feedback activity is one of the useful techniques to improve English writing ability. (S8)

Now we know for sure that students find the peer feedback activity in writing class beneficial and effective (S. Cho, 2011; Choi, 2013; Min, 2005; Tsui & Ng, 2000), and that its socially supportive feature can foster students' attitudes toward writing (Mendonça & Johnson, 1994). In spite of its potential demerits, peer feedback is undeniably beneficial when the learners are engaged in multiple drafts in ESL (and EFL) writing.

2) Drawbacks of peer feedback

In spite of the beneficial aspects of peer feedback mentioned above, it is also true that students have considerable doubts about its effectiveness concerning quality, accuracy, credibility, time constraints, and cultural consideration to name a few (Carson & Nelson, 1996; Leki, 1990a; Zhang, 1995). Moreover, the doubts appear to be considerably serious enough to challenge the advantages of peer feedback acknowledged in many studies.

The participants of the present study worried most about lack of credibility in their partner's writing proficiency as a capable evaluator. They tend to lack confidence in their peers because they think that their peers' English writing ability is more or less the same as theirs and that the peers are less likely to be knowledgeable enough to critique their writing and provide sensible comments in a clear and comprehensible way (Carson & Nelson, 1996; Leki, 1990a; Tsui & Ng, 2000; Ur, 2012).

I'm not sure the evaluator has enough English ability to provide feedback clearly on my writing. (S7)

It would be difficult for my partner to give me in-depth feedback on my essays since his English proficiency might be low… (S10)

There were several cases that my partner pointed out some things as errors in my paper which, I think, are not errors at all. (S20)

Another serious and frequently reported doubt, which was closely connected to the quality concern of themselves as a judge or evaluator of their peers' writing, arose about accuracy and/or quality of peer feedback. Due to the students' lack of trust in their own qualification, they voiced reasonable doubts about whether the feedback they provided was valid (Leki, 1990a; Tsui & Ng, 2000; Zhang, 1995) and how valuable their feedback was in terms of its level (e.g., macro-/micro-level features, local/global errors) (Cault, 1994; Leki, 1990a; Tsui & Ng, 2000).

Due to lack of my English proficiency, I'm not sure the feedback I gave on my partner's

writing was correct and helpful. So I couldn't actively engage in the feedback-giving activity. (S1)

I had difficulty giving feedback and I wasn't sure the feedback I've received from my peer was valid. (S12)

I wasn't sure the feedback I was giving on my partner's essays was accurate and valuable. It was hard to provide concrete suggestions in the macro level which might facilitate revision. (S8)

My English knowledge is in a quite shallow level that I mostly responded to surface errors in my partner's essays… (S5)

A couple of students mentioned time constraints as one of the problematic aspects of peer feedback (Rollinson, 2005). They might have difficulty finding time to read drafts usually more than once, jotting down notes, and writing comments and suggestions which will assuredly take a considerable amount of time.

It was quite difficult to read and comment on my partner's drafts because I was busy and I didn't have enough time to do the tasks. Especially, I couldn't find time figuring out what the essay was clearly about. (S11)

It took much time to give feedback on my partner's writings. I don't think I gave him useful feedback. (S13)

An interesting response was found that a student worried about claiming a degree of authority, considering the relationship between his peer and himself (Carson & Nelson, 1996). He was reluctant to give critical comments on his peer's writing such as not to spoil their friendship and to maintain group harmony.

I thought that giving any kinds of feedback on my friend's essays might compel him to conform to my style of writing. I think he can have different point of view from mine about what good writing should be. So I have to respect his opinion. That's what a friend has to do. (S19)

V. CONCLUSION

The current study was performed to validate the issue of the effectiveness of peer feedback in an EFL writing context. Based on the analysis of 22 students' quantitative and qualitative data on their peers' writing and their responses to the questionnaire on the effects and problems of the peer feedback activity, the following outcomes were obtained.

First, compared to the teacher's judgment on students' writings, the students assigned significantly higher scores to their peers' writings. This may signify that they are reluctant to assess the writing products critically, probably because of their lack of writing proficiency (Rollinson, 2005) and/or probably because of their desire to maintain group harmony (Carson & Nelson, 1996) judging from the reports they made in the questionnaire.

Next, the students' written comments on their peers' writing can be categorized into two features: micro-level comments and broad statements. As for the first feature, their comments and/or suggestions stayed strictly at the surface level, lacking text-related macro-level ones, which will surely be more beneficial for the improvement of writing quality (Leki, 1990a; Tsui & Ng, 2000). It appears to be an inevitable result, considering their lack of confidence in their English writing proficiency (Rollinson, 2005; Ur, 2012). When it comes to the second feature, their attempt to offer macro-level comments, though they were made fairly rarely, was not successful in that the students failed to get their message across effectively through the comments since they were mostly so broad and general as well as very often ambiguous and confusing. The students may well pay little attention to the comments when they revise their drafts.

Finally, the students listed substantial benefits and drawbacks of peer feedback. They confessed, ironically, that raising awareness of the problems in their writing in the process of giving and receiving feedback offered them a perfect opportunity to be a critical reader, effective reviser, and successful writer (Berg, 1999; Mendonça & Johnson, 1994; Rollinson, 2005; Tsui & Ng, 2000), and to enhance positive attitudes toward writing through socially supportive cooperation with their peers (Mendonça & Johnson, 1994).

The drawbacks the students voiced were mostly about accuracy and/or quality of the comments of their peers and their own triggered by reasonable doubts about their peers' and their writing ability. They articulated serious concerns for their qualification as a feedback provider and the validity and usefulness of their feedback (Cault, 1994; Leki, 1990a; Tsui & Ng, 2000; Ur, 2012). It can be interpreted that they are asking for some opportunity to practice to become more self-reliant writers as well as critical readers. They also worried about time constraints for carrying out the activity faithfully (Rollinson, 2005) and claiming a degree of authority over their peers' writing (Carson & Nelson, 1996).

Though effectiveness of peer feedback in L2 writing has been proven in principle and practice, learners still need substantial and practical assistance to perform this potentially

rewarding activity properly, considering that offering it on their peers' writing is surely a cognitively demanding task. In order to foster the advantages of the peer feedback activity and overcome its drawbacks in an EFL writing class, therefore, it is required firstly to help learners clearly understand the complementary role peer feedback can play in the revision stage, and then to devote efforts to organize a positive context to implement the activity effectively by establishing proper procedures of the activity and offering systematic practice in pre-training (Rollinson, 2005). This will be conducive to lowering their anxiety about writing in English and developing a sense of autonomy over their own writings.

The current study was performed with the limitation of the small sample size because it did not aim to generalize the findings obtained from the participants but to provide authentic and detailed descriptions of what they think of the peer feedback activity undertaken in their English writing class, hoping that this study may be of substantial help to enhance the quality of EFL writing instruction using the peer feedback activity. Accordingly, along with the sample size, learner variables such as age, cultural background, and writing proficiency, and whether and to what extent students' peer feedback is incorporated in revision, which may have a decisive effect on better understanding of the role of peer feedback in EFL writing, need to be taken into account in the future studies so as to ascertain the issues raised in the present study (G. Lee, 2016; Rollinson, 2005).

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Examples in: English
Applicable language: English
Applicable Levels: Adolescents and College

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편집위원회 규정

제1장 총 칙

제1조 본 위원회는 한국영어어문교육학회 편집위원회라 칭한다.
제2조 본 위원회는 한국영어어문교육학회 회칙 제5장에 의거하여 학회 내에 둔다.

제2장 구 성

제1조 편집위원회는 전공 영역, 전국성 및 국제성을 고려하여 20명 내외의 국내 편집인과 약간명의 해외 편집인으로 구성하고, 위원장과 이사 및 편집위원을 둔다.
제2조 편집위원장은 편집 담당 부회장이 겸임하고, 임기는 부회장의 임기와 같다.
제3조 편집 간사와 위원은 학술 연구 실적이 뛰어난 상임이사나 회원 중에서 학회 회장이 추천하여 확대이사회의 인준을 얻어 임명하고, 임기는 학회 임원의 임기와 같다.
제4조 편집위원은 아래와 같은 기준에 따라 선정한다.
1. 전공영역 고려: 투고 논문을 세부 전공별로 심사할 수 있도록 각 영역 전문가를 고루 선정한다.
2. 전국성 및 국제성 고려: 국내외의 영어 교육의 활성화와 원활한 정보교류를 위해서 각 지역의 전문가를 고르게 선정하고, 필요에 따라서는 외국의 전문가도 포함한다.
3. 학교급별 고려: 초등, 중등 및 대학 영어교육의 전문가를 고루 선정한다.

제3장 기 능

제1조 편집위원회는 학회지 '영어어문교육(English Language & Literature Teaching)'의 체제, 발간 횟수, 분량, 논문 심사 기준과 절차 및 투고 규정을 정한다.
제2조 편집위원장은 학회에 접수된 논문의 심사위원을 선정 의뢰하고, 편집위원회는 심사 결과를 참조하여 논문 게재여부를 최종 의결한다.
제3조 논문 게재 심사 이외의 편집위원회가 의결한 모든 사항은 이사회의 인준을 거쳐 발효된다.

제4장 회 의

제1조 편집회의는 학술지 발간 시기에 맞추어 정기적으로 소집한다.
제2조 편집회의는 출석 위원 과반수의 찬성으로 의결한다.

제5장 논문 심사 기준

제1조 내용의 적절성: 논문은 영어 교육의 이론과 실제에 관한 비판, 실험 분석, 새로운 제안 등의 내용이어야 한다. 영어학, 언어학, 영문학 및 인접 학문에 관한 것은 영어 교육적 내용이 함축되어 있어야 한다.

제2조 내용의 창의성: 논문은 국내외 타 학술지에 게재되지 않은 새롭고 참신한 내용이어야 한다.

제3조 형식의 적절성: 논문은 본 학술지 투고 규정에 적합한 형식으로 되어 있어야 한다.

제4조 구성 및 전개방식의 적절성: 논문은 영어교육 학술 분야에서 통용되는 논리적인 논문 구성 및 내용 전개 방식에 적합해야 한다.

제5조 연구 방법론의 적절성: 논문은 연구 문제의 제기, 연구의 설계 및 결과 분석의 과정이 각각의 연구 방법에 적절해야 한다.

제6조 학문적 기여도: 논문의 내용은 영어 교육의 이론과 실제를 선도하고 발전시키는데 기여할 수 있어야 한다.

제6장 논문 심사 절차

제1조 접수: 발행 예정일 10주 전까지 논문을 접수하고, 편집위원장은 투고 논문 도착 즉시 “접수 확인서”를 작성하여 필자에게 보낸다. 다만, 논문의 투고 규정이나 작성 요령을 지키지 않은 논문은 접수하지 않고 반송한다. (발행 예정일: 3월 30일 (국제호) / 6월 30일 / 9월 30일 (국제호) / 12월 30일로 연간 4회 발행)

제2조 심사위원 선정: 편집위원장은 접수된 논문을 전공별로 정리한 후, 심사 가능 영역을 미리 파악하여 심사위원을 선정한다. 심사위원은 편집위원을 중심으로 해당분야에서 학술 활동이 뛰어난 회원 중에서 3인을 선정하되, 필요한 경우 편집위원 이외의 전문가도 심사위원으로 위촉할 수 있다.

제3조 심사 의뢰: 편집위원장은 접수된 논문들을 전공별로 정리한 후, 심사위원을 선정하여 소정의 “심사 의뢰서”를 작성하고, 투고 논문과 함께 심사위원에게 보낸다. 이때 각 투고 논문 당 3인 이상의 심사위원을 배정하며, 논문 투고자의 이름과 소속이 심사위원에게 알려지지 않도록 투고 논문에서 삭제하여 보낸다.

제4조 심사: 각 심사위원은 배당된 논문을 심사하고 ‘게재, 수정 후 게재, 수정 후 재심사, 게재불가’의 4등급으로 판정한다. 심사위원은 판정의 근거를 구체적으로 기술하여야 하며, 특히 수정을 제의하는 경우에는 수정 부분을 확실히 명기하여 구체적으로 지시하여야 한다.

제5조 심사 결과 보고서 제출: 심사위원은 투고 논문에 대한 총평, 판정 및 수정 요구 사항을 소정의 “심사 결과 보고서”에 맞게 작성하여 편집위원장에게 통보한다. 수정을 제의하는 경우에는 수정할 곳과 방향을 구체적으로 제시하고 심사서 제출 시 수정 제안을 표시한 투고 논문 원안도 함께 편집위원장에게 보낸다. 논문 심사서에는 심사

위원의 익명성을 보장하기 위하여 심사위원의 소속, 지위, 성명 대신에 본인만의 고유 번호를 사용한다.

제6조 편집위원 회의: 편집위원장은 편집회의를 소집하고 편집회의를 통하여 심사 내용을 검토한다. 심사위원의 판정이 상이할 경우에는 편집위원회의 의결을 거쳐 게재 여부를 결정한다. “게재가”로 최종 판정을 받은 논문은 접수 일자, 게재 확정 일자를 논문의 맨 끝에 명기한다.

제7조 심사 결과 통보: 편집위원장은 심사 결과 보고서와 수정 제안이 표시된 논문 원본을 투고자에게 송부한다. ‘수정 후 재심사’의 판정을 받은 논문은 수정 후 다음 호의 투고 논문으로 받아 다시 위와 같은 심사 절차를 거친다.

제8조 기타: 게재하기로 결정되었거나 게재된 뒤라도 다른 학술지에 게재된 적이 있는 논문이나 무단 도용이 밝혀진 경우에는 편집위원회의 의결에 따라 게재를 취소하고 일정 기간 논문 투고를 제한한다.

제9조 발행 예정일: 본 학회 학술지의 발행 예정일은 다음과 같다.
1호: 3월 30일 (국제호) / 2호: 6월 30일 / 3호: 9월 30일 (국제호) / 4호: 12월 30일

제7장 논문 투고 규정

제1조 투고 자격: 본 학회 회원으로 회비를 성실히 납부한자로 한다.

제2조 논문 내용: 영어교육, 영어학, 문학의 이론과 실제에 관한 창의적 비판, 실험연구, 새로운 제안 등의 내용이어야 한다.

제3조 원고 제출

1. 논문원고는 본 학회의 JAMS 온라인 논문투고 시스템(http://etak.jams.or.kr)로 제출한다. 이때 심사료 납부 사실을 재무이사에게 전자메일로 통지한다.
2. 마감 일자는 다음과 같다.
   1호: 1월 15일, 2호: 4월 15일, 3호: 7월 15일, 4호: 10월 15일
   단, 편집위원회의를 통해, 1회의 논문투고마감 연장 공지가 가능하다.
3. 원고 제출 시 JAMS 온라인 논문투고 시스템 상에, 투고자의 주소, 전화번호(휴대전화 포함)와 전자메일 주소를 명기하여 함께 제출한다.
4. 논문이 공동저작으로 제1저자가 있는 경우 공동 저자와 구분하여 이름과 소속을 명시한다.
   예시: * 제1저자 **공동저자

제4조 논문의 체제는 본 규정의 [한국영어어문교육학회 편집위원회 규정] 논문 작성 요령(국어 논문은 제8장, 영어 논문은 제10장 참고)과 투고 양식 안내에 따라 작성한다.

제5조 게재 예정 증명서의 발급은 편집위원회에 의하여 ‘게재가’로 결정된 이후에만 가능하다.

제6조 게재가로 결정된 원고의 교정은 필자의 책임 하에 행한다.

제7조 동일 필자의 단독 연구 논문 게재는 1년에 1회를 초과하지 않는 것을

원칙으로 한다. 단, 공동저작인 경우 1년에 2회 연속된 호가 아닌 경우, 게재 가능하다.

제8조 게재된 논문은 필자에게 학술지 2부를 증정한다.

제9조 논문의 길이는 학회지 기준 20쪽 이하를 원칙으로 한다. 20쪽이 넘는 논문은 초과 쪽수에 대해 쪽당 1만원의 인쇄료를 필자가 부담한다.

제10조 투고자는 논문 게재시 소정의 게재료를 납부해야 한다.

제11조 투고한 논문은 게재 여부와 상관없이 돌려주지 않으며, 본 학회 학술지에 게재된 논문에 대한 저작권은 필자와 학회가 공동으로 갖는다. 따라서 동 논문 전체 혹은 부분을 재수록할 경우에는 사전 필자와 학회의 동의를 얻어야 한다.

제8장 논문 작성 요령 (국어 논문)

제1조 논문은 “MS-Word 2003 이상”으로 작성한다.

제2조 논문의 크기는 A4 용지에서 위 여백은 50mm, 아래 여백은 52mm, 왼쪽, 오른쪽의 여백은 42㎜, 머리글 42mm, 바닥글은 10mm로 한다. 제목, 본문, 참고문헌의 줄 간격은 고정값 14.5pt로, 영문 초록 12.5pt, 각주는 고정값 10pt로 한다. 글자는 한글은 바탕체, 영문은 Times New Roman으로 하되, 제목 글자는 논문 체제의 예를 참조한다. 장평은 100%, 간격은 표준으로 한다.

제3조 논문 서두에 관한 사항

1. 논문의 제목은 가급적 2행을 넘지 않는다.
2. 공동저자의 표기는 제1저자를 위에 쓰고 기타 저자는 밑에 자모순으로 쓴다.
3. 초록은 200단어 내외로 영어로 작성한다.
4. 연구비 수혜 사실이 있는 경우는 논문의 첫 쪽 하단에 명기한다.
5. 초록 하단에 주제어를 영어, 한국어로 명시한다.
   예: [learning strategies/motivation, 학습 전략/동기]
   단, 영문 논문의 경우, 주제어를 영어로만 명시한다.

제4조 번호 체계, 줄 간격 및 기타 사항

1. 상 하위 제목의 번호체계는 아래 예와 같이 한다.
   예: I. 1. 1) (1) ①
2. 각 제목의 사이는 한 줄씩 띄운다. 세부 제목(즉, (1))과 미세 제목(즉, ①)에 이어지는 본문은 띄우지 않는다.
3. 본문은 한글, 영문 논문 모두 1자 들여 쓰기를 한다.
4. 논문 체제는 다음과 같이 작성한다.

1) 논문 전체의 작성 체제

영어어문교육 제11권 1호 2005년 봄
(2줄 띄움)

학습자 오류에 대한 교사의 오류 수정 방식

[바탕체 14, 진하게]
[2줄 띄움]

김한국* [바탕체 10, 진하게; 오른쪽 정렬]
(Hankuk University) [바탕체 10, 보통; 오른쪽 정렬]
홍길동** [바탕체 10, 진하게; 오른쪽 정렬]
(Korea University) [바탕체 10, 보통; 오른쪽 정렬]

[1줄 띄움]

Kim, Kankuk & Hong, Kil-Dong (1999). Study on teacher' corrective feedback types. *English Language & Literature Teaching, 11*(1), 000-000. [바탕체 9, 진하게; 줄 간격 고정값 12.5pt, 왼쪽, 오른쪽 여백 2.5자, 양쪽 혼합]

[1줄 띄움]

This study explores teacher's corrective feedback types ... [바탕체 9, 보통; 줄 간격 고정값 12.5pt, 왼쪽, 오른쪽 여백 2.5자, 양쪽 혼합]

[1줄 띄움]

[corrective feedback/error type, 오류 수정/오류 유형] [바탕체 9, 진하게, 양쪽 혼합]

[2줄 띄움]

Ⅰ. 서론 [돋움 12, 진하게; 왼쪽 정렬]

[1줄 띄움]

영어 학습에서 오류 수정은[1] ... [바탕체 10, 보통; 국문 1자 들여 쓰기, 양쪽 혼합]

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* 제1저자 ** 제2저자

Swain (1995) elaborated ... [바탕체 9, 보통; 양쪽 혼합]

[2줄 띄움]

Ⅱ. 연구 방법 [돋움 12, 진하게; 왼쪽 정렬]

[1줄 띄움]

1. 연구대상 [돋움 11, 보통; 왼쪽 정렬]

[1줄 띄움]

본 연구의 대상은 ... [바탕체 10, 보통; 국문 1자 들여 쓰기, 양쪽 혼합]

[1줄 띄움]
1) 설문 조사와 인터뷰 [바탕체 10, 보통; 왼쪽 정렬]
[1줄 띄움]
…
[1줄 띄움]
(1) 통계 분석 [바탕체 10, 보통; 왼쪽 정렬]
…
[1줄 띄움]
① 오류수정 유형 [바탕체 10, 보통; 왼쪽 정렬]
…
[1줄 띄움]

표 1 [바탕체 10, 진하게; 가운데]
오류 수정 발화의 유형 [바탕체 9]

	명백한 오류 수정	변경	학습자 자기 교정 시발				합계
			설명 요청	초언어적 피드백	유도 하기	오류의 반복	
음운적 오류	3	12	1	0	0	1	17
(%)	(17.6%)	(70.6%)	(5.9%)	(0%)	(0%)	(5.9%)	(100%)
문법적 오류	5	10	3	4	3	2	27
(%)	(18.6%)	(37.0%)	(11.1%)	(14.8%)	(11.1%)	(7.4%)	(100%)
어휘적 오류	3	13	2	2	0	2	22
(%)	(13.6%)	(59.1%)	(9.1%)	(9.1%)	(0%)	(9.1%)	(100%)
해석상의	8	20	1	4	2	4	39
오류(%)	(20.5%)	(51.3%)	(2.5%)	(10.3%)	(5.1%)	(10.3%)	(100%)

[표 안은 바탕체 9, 줄간격 고정값 10pt, 선두께는 1/2pt]

[1줄 띄움]
…
[2줄 띄움]

참고문헌[돋움 11, 보통; 가운데]

[1줄 띄움]
박소문. (2004). 영어학습자의 오류 유형. *영어어문교육, 10*(3), 121-140. [바탕체 10, 보통; 내어쓰기 3자]
Alptekin. C. (1993). Target-language culture in EFL materials. *ELT Journal, 47*(2). 136-143. [바탕체 10, 보통; 내어쓰기 3자]
…
[2줄 띄움]

부 록 [돋움 11, 보통; 가운데]
제목 [바탕체 10, 보통; 가운데]

…
[2줄 띄움]

예시언어(Examples in): English [바탕체 9, 진하게; 왼쪽 정렬]
적용가능 언어(Applicable Languages): English [바탕체, 진하게; 왼쪽 정렬]
적용가능 수준(Applicable Levels): Secondary [바탕체, 진하게; 왼쪽 정렬]
[2줄 띄움]
김한국 [바탕체 9, 보통; 왼쪽 정렬]
한국대학교 사범대학 영어교육과
123-123 서울특별시 중구 문화동 120-1번지
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2) 논문 각 부분의 글자 속성 및 문단 속성 체제

		글자 크기	글자 모양	줄간격	들여쓰기	정렬방식	비고
논문 제목		**14**	**바탕체진**	14.5pt	하지 않음	가운데	장평 100% 자간 좁게 (0.1pt)
장 제목: I		12	**돋움 진**		하지 않음	왼쪽	
절 제목: 1.		11	돋움 보통		하지 않음		
소 제목: 1)		10	돋움 보통		하지 않음		
세부 제목:(1)							
미세 제목:①							
본문		10	바탕체 보통		1 자	양쪽혼합	
참고 문헌	**제목**	11	돋움 보통	14.5pt	하지 않음	가운데	
	내용	10	바탕체 보통		첫 줄 3 자 내어쓰기	양쪽혼합	
표/ 그림	**제목**	**10**	**바탕체 진**	10pt	하지 않음	가운데	
	내용	9	바탕체 보통				
각주		9	바탕체 보통	10pt	하지 않음	양쪽혼합	
초 록	**제목**	**9**	**바탕체 진**	12.5pt	하지 않고 좌우여백 2.5 자	양쪽혼합	
	내용		바탕체 보통				
주제어		**9**	**바탕체 진**	12.5pt	하지 않고 좌우여백 2.5 자	양쪽혼합	

제5조 참고문헌, 표, 그림, 문헌 인용 등은 APA(American Psychological Association)양식에 준해서 작성한다.(9장의 중요표기 양식 안내 참조)

1. 참고 문헌은 내어 쓰기(3)자로 작성한다. 저서인 경우는 반드시 출판지와 출판사를 표기한다. 초판이 아닌 경우는 개정판 수를 밝힌다.
2. 한글 논문의 경우, 표/그림의 번호와 제목은 표/그림 위쪽 중앙에 배치하고, 모두 진한 글자로 한다. 영문 논문의 경우에는 'TABLE 3', 'FIGURE 3' 등은 모두 대문자, 나머지 제목은 표/그림 아래에 중요 단어를 대문자로 시작한다. 한글은 표 3, 그림 5처럼 쓴다. 번호는 아라비아 숫자로 한다. 본문 속에서 언급할 때는 "as shown in Table/ Figure 3" 혹은 "표/그림 5에서 보듯이"처럼 쓴다.

제6조 저자 성명의 영문 표기를 저자가 정한 철자법에 따르되, 특별한 요청이 없는 한, 영문 논문 제목 하단의 저자 명에는 '이름 성' 방식(예: Kill-Dong Hong)으로, 영문 초록 및 목차에는 '성 이름' 방식(Hong, Kill-Dong)으로 통일한다.

제7조 인용 문헌의 원천 명은 참고문헌에만 열거하고, 각주로서는 달지 않는다.

제8조 심사 통과 후, '게재가'의 판정을 받아 수정한 최종 논문에는 논문 마지막 쪽 하단의 왼쪽에 투고자의 이름, 소속, 주소(우편번호), 전화번호(직장, 휴대전화), FAX번호, e-mail주소를 기재한다.

제9조 참고문헌 뒤에 '예시언어', '적용가능 언어', '적용가능 수준'을 글자 크기 8, 왼쪽여백 1자 왼쪽정렬, 진한체로 다음과 같이 영어로 예시한다.

예) 예시언어(Examples in): English
적용가능 언어(Applicable Languages): English
적용가능 수준(Applicable Levels): Elementary/ Secondary/College/Higher

제9장 중요 표기 양식 안내

본 학회의 영어어문교육지는 기본적으로 많은 응용 언어학 분야의 저널들(TESOL Quarterly 포함)이 채택하는 APA Style을 따른다(※ 단, 문학 논문 투고시에는 제9장의 4항을 참조할 것). 다음은 그 중에서 중요한 몇 가지를 예시한 것이다. 기타 자세한 것은 American Psychological Association. (1994). Publication manual of the American Psychological Association (4th ed.). Washington, DC: Author 참조.

1. 본문 속에서의 인용이나 괄호 안의 문헌 표기 (한국어 논문도 이에 준함)
   1) 인용 부호와 출처 표시: He stated, "The 'placebo effect' disappeared...when behaviors were studied in this manner" (Smith, 1982, p. 276). 인용문은 " "안에 넣고, 그 안에서 다시 인용이나 강조를 할 때는 ' '를 쓴다. 인용문의 문장이 끝나도 마침표는 괄호

(참고 문헌의 정보)가 끝난 후에 찍는다. 괄호 안에는 보기처럼 저자, 연도, 쪽수를 쉼표로 분리하여 표시하고, p. 혹은 pp. (여러 쪽의 경우) 뒤에 한 칸 띄어 쪽수를 쓴다.

2) 쪽수만 인용문 뒤에 표시: Smith (1982) found that "the 'placebo effect' disappeared when [his own and other's] behaviors were studied in this manner" (p. 276).

3) 2명의 저자: 본문이 영문이면 "and"로, 한글이면 "과/와"로 연결하고, 괄호 속에서는 &를 사용한다. 괄호 자체는 영문에서는 독립해서 띄어쓰고, 한글에서는 이름(명사)과 조사 사이에 붙여쓴다.
Gardner and Lambert (1976) found that their previous study (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) could not...
Gardner와 Lambert(1976)의 연구는 과거의 연구(Lambert & Gardner, 1972) 보다...

4) 3-5명의 저자: 처음 언급할 때는 모든 저자의 이름을 표기하고, 그 다음부터는 영어 논문에는 "et al."로, 한국어 논문에는 "등"이나 "외 4인"이라는 식으로 표기한다.
첫 번째 언급: William, Jones, Smith, Bradner, and Torrington (1983) found that...
William, Jones, Smith, Bradner와(및) Torrington (1983)은 학습자의...
두 번째 언급: William et al. (1983) studied the effect of...
William 등(1983)은 담화 구조의 ... William 외 4인(1983)의 연구 결과는...

5) 6명 이상의 저자: 처음부터 영어 논문에는 "et al."로, 한국어 논문에는 "등" 혹은 "외 5인"으로 표기하고, 논문 뒤의 참고 문헌 목록(References)에는 이름을 모두 표기한다. (et al.는 라틴어 et alii(and others)의 약어이므로 al.에만 점을 사용하고, 이탤릭체를 쓰지 않는다.)

6) 여러 저작을 괄호 안에 소개: 여러 저자의 저작을 소개할 경우, 알파벳 순으로 배열하고, semicolon으로 분리한다. 동일 저자의 것은 연대순으로 배열하고, 쉼표로 분리한다.
Oxford (1986, 1989, 1994) reported that many studies (Gosden, 1992; Hanania & Akhtar, 1985; Hopkins, 1987, 1988a, 1989; Tarone et al., 1981) used strategy training ...

7) 동성 이명(同姓 異名)의 저자들: 본문에서는 이름의 약자를 사용하여 혼동을 피한다. 비록 연도가 다르더라도 그렇게 한다. 한국 이름은 성만으로는 혼동이 많으므로 성명을 다 쓴다. 그러나 원 저자의 영문 이름 표기 방식에 따라 성 앞에 한 글자 (Kildong Kim ⇒ K. Kim), 또는 두 글자의 약자 (Kil-Dong Kim ⇒ K.-D. Kim)를 쓸 수도 있다.
H. D. Brown (1993) and J. D. Brown (1994) agreed that . . .

2. References (참고 문헌 목록) 표기 (한국어 논문도 이에 준함)

References에는 논문에 언급된 것만을, 빠짐 없이 (all and only the works cited in the paper) 저자 성의 알파벳 순으로 싣는다. 한국어로

쓴 논문의 참고 문헌 목록에 한국어 문헌과 영어 문헌을 실을 경우, 한국어 문헌을 먼저 가나다 순으로 싣고, 영어 문헌을 저자 성의 알파벳 순으로 싣는다. 한국어 참고 문헌 표기 방법은 영어에 준한다. 단 논문을 영문으로 쓸 경우, References에 실을 한국어 저작은 필자와 논문/책 제목을 Yale 표기법의 로마자로 표기하고 [ ]안에 영어로 번역을 넣는다. (과거에 본 학회지에 실린 논문으로 Abstract에 영어 제목이 주어진 경우에는 그 제목을 사용할 수 있을 것이다.)

1) 저널의 논문 (Journal article)

Pavio, A. (1975). Perceptual comparisons through the mind's eye. *Memory & Cognition, 3*, 635-647.

Davis, J. N., Lange, D. L., & Samuels, S. J. (1988). Effects of text structure instruction: An experimental study on foreign language readers. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 20*(2), 19-34.

모든 저자의 성을 먼저 쓰고, 쉼표를 붙인 후, 이름을 약자로 쓴다. 한 저자이름의 약자에 마침표와 쉼표를 찍은 후에 다음 저자의 성을 쓴다. 마지막 저자의 성 앞에는 &를 붙인다. 출판 연도는 괄호에 넣는다. 논문은 주제목과 부제의 첫 글자와 고유명사만 대문자로 하고 나머지는 소문자로 하며, 보통체로 한다. 저널 이름은 주요 단어의 첫 자를 모두 대문자로 하고 이탤릭체로 한다. volume 번호도 이탤릭체로 하나, issue 번호는 괄호 속에 보통체로 한다(issue 마다 쪽수가 새로 1쪽부터 시작 할 경우에만 issue 번호를 쓴다). 마지막으로 쪽수를 명기하되, pp.를 붙이지 않는다. 저자, 출판 연도, 논문 제목, 출처(저널과 쪽수)의 네 부분으로 나누어 각 부분의 끝에 마침표를 찍는다(단 저자 부분이 약자로 끝날 때는 마침표를 하나만 찍는다).

2) 책 (Book)

Mehan, H. (1979). *Learning lessons: Social organization in the classroom.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Strunk, W., Jr., & White, E. B. (Eds.). (1979). *The elements of style.* New York: Macmillan.

American Psychiatric Association. (1980). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (3rd ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

저자 표기법은 저널 논문의 경우와 같다. Jr.은 약자로 간주하여 보기처럼 쓴다. 편자 (Editor/Editors)인 경우는 (Ed.)/(Eds.)로 부기한다. 책 제목은 이탤릭으로 하되, 저널 논문 제목처럼 주 제목과 부제의 첫 글자만 대문자로 한다. 같은 출판사가 여러 도시에 있을 때는 첫 번째 도시나 본부가 있는 도시를 적는다. 혼동의 염려가 없고 널리 알려진 도시는 주나 국가의 이름을 생략할 수 있다. 미국의 주 이름의 약자는 중간에 점을 찍지 않고 붙여쓴다. 출판사 이름은 식별에 필요한 최소한의 명칭을 쓰므로 Publishers, Co., Inc. 등은 붙이지 않는다. 저자와 출판 기관이 같은 때는 출판 기관의 이름 대신에 Author라고 쓴다.

3) 편집된 책에 실린 논문이나 장 (An article or chapter in an edited book)

Hunt, R. (1994). Speech genres, writing genres, school genres, and computer genres. In A. Freedman & P. Medway (Eds.), *Learning and teaching genre* (pp. 243-262). Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.

논문의 필자, 연도, 논문 제목, 책 제목 들은 저널이나 책에서와 같다. 편자(Editors)의 성명은 저자의 경우와는 달리 모두 이름의 약자를 먼저 쓰고 성을 뒤에 쓴다. (Eds.) 다음에 쉼표를 하고, 논문의 쪽수는 책 제목 바로 뒤 괄호 안에, 보통체로 pp. 다음에 쓴다.

4) 잡지나 신문 기사 (Magazine or newspaper article)

Gardner, H. (1981, December). Do babies sing a universal song? *Psychology Today*, pp. 70-76.

잡지 기사는 저널 기사와 달리, 출간 달까지 표기하고, 쪽수 앞에 pp.를 붙인다.

Lubin, J. S. (1980, December 5). On idle: The unemployed shun much mundane work. *The Wall Street Journal*, pp. 1, 25. 신문 기사는 날짜까지 표기한다. 기사가 비연속적으로 분리된 경우, 해당 쪽수를 쉼표로 분리 표기한다.

5) 연구 보고서 (Report)

Newport, E, L, (1975), *Motherese: The speech of mothers to young children* (Tech. Rep. No. 53). San Diego: University of California, Center for Human Information Processing.

대학 연구소의 보고시일 경우, 대학 이름을 연구소 이름보다 먼저 쓴다. 대학명에 주 이름이 있으면, 도시 이름 다음에 오는 주의 약자를 생략한다.

Gottfredson, L. S. (1980). *How valid are the reinforcement pattern scores?* (Report No. CSOS-R-292). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University, Center for Social Organization of Schools. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 182 465) 연구보고서를 ERIC에서 복사, 입수한 경우 ED 번호를 명기한다.

6) 학회 발표 논문 (Proceedings of meetings and symposia)

Wells, C. G. (1984). Lexio-grammatical features of child language. In B. Meyer (Ed.), *Proceedings of the Fourth International Symposium on Child Language* (pp. 83-92). Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada: Mitchell Press. (발표 논문집이 출간된 경우 이탤릭체로 하고, 학술대회 이름은 고유명사이므로 대문자로 한다.)

Michaels, J. (1989, June). *Communication strategies and learning strategies revisited.* Paper presented at the 1989 Summer Conference of the Korea Association of Teachers of English, Pusan, Korea. (출간되지 않은 학회 발표 논문)

7) 학위 논문 (Doctoral dissertations and master's theses)

학위 논문이 Dissertation Abstracts International (DAI)에 등록되고, 요약이 실려 있는 경우는 제목을 보통체로 쓰고, 미 출간인 경우는 책처럼 취급하여 제목을 이탤릭체로 한다. (미국에서 통과된 대부분의 박사 논문은 DAI에 등록되어 있는데, DAI의 등록 번호를 모르는 경우는 미출간 학위 논문처럼 표기할 것을 제안한다.)

Pendar, J. E. (1982). Undergraduate psychology majors: Factors influencing decisions. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 42,* 4370A-4371A. (University Microfilms No. 82-06, 181)

논문의 요약과 등록 번호가 DAI에 나와 있고, 논문 자체는 University Microfilms에서 사본을 구한 경우 두 가지 번호를 모두 표기한다.

Foster, M. E. (1982). An analysis of the relationship between preservice teacher training and directed teaching performance (Doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1981). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 42,* 4409A.

논문의 요약과 등록 번호가 DAI에 나와 있으나, 논문 자체는 대학에서 구한 경우. 이때 논문 통과 연도와 DAI 등재 연도가 다르면, 본문에서는 Foster (1981/1982), (Foster, 1981/1982)와 같이 표기한다.

Kevins, G. M. (1981). *An analysis of ESL learners' discourse patterns.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation. McGill University, Montreal.

미출간 박사 학위 논문은 제목을 이탤릭체로 한다.

Ryeson, J. f. (1983). *Effective management training: Two models.* Unpublished maser's thesis. Clarkson College of Technology. Potsdam, NY.

미출간 석사 학위 논문의 제목도 이탤릭체로 한다.

8) 인터넷 자료 (Internet resources)

인쇄 매체로 출판되었으나 인터넷을 통해 얻은 자료인 경우는 저널 논문, 책, 연구 보고서 등의 양식을 따른 후 맨 끝에 인터넷 사이트를 괄호 안에 제시한다. 단 인용한 날짜를 밝히며, 출판된 자료가 아닌 경우는 자료 제목을 이탤릭체로 한다.

Feenberg, A. (1999a). *Distance learning: Promise or threat?* Retrieved January 6, 2000, from the World Wide Web: http://www-rohan.sdsu.edu/faculty/feenberg/TELE3.HTML. (미출간 자료인 경우)

Feenberg, A. (1999b, September/October). *No frills in the virtual classroom. Academie, 85*(5). Retrieved February 20, 2001, from the World Wide Web: http://www.aaup.org/SO99Feen.html. (출판된 자료인 경우)

3. 표(Table) 및 그림(Figure) 형식과 제목 달기

표/그림 번호와 제목은 표/그림 윗쪽 중앙에 위치한다. 모두 진한 글자로 한다. 영문은 TABLE 3, FIGURE 5 등은 모두 대문자, 나머지 제목은 표/그림 번호 아래에 중요 단어를 대문자로 시작한다. 한글은 표 3, 그림 5처럼 쓴다. 번호는 아라비아숫자로 한다. 본문 속에서 언급할 때는 “as shown in Table/Figure 3.” 혹은 “표/그림 5에서 보듯이”처럼 쓴다.

표 3
학습자 오류 유형

그림 5
학습자의 응답 유형 분포도

4. 영문학 논문의 체제

1) 한국어 논문은 제목부터 우리말로 쓰는 것을 원칙으로 하며, 뒤에 나오는 예를 참조한다.
2) 원칙적으로 본문에 한자와 영문을 쓰지 않기로 하되, 꼭 필요한 경우에 괄호로 처리 한다. 단 제목은 우리말만을 원칙으로 한다.
3) 고유명사는 한글로 표기하되, 처음 나올 때 괄호 속에 영문 표기를 제시한다. 작품명은 한글로 번역하되, 처음 나올 때 괄호 속에 영문 표기를 제시한다. (인명이나 지명의 경우 해당 언어권의 발음을 존중하도록 하되, 결정이 어려울 때는 교육부 제정 외국어 발음 규정을 따르기로 한다.)
4) 인용문의 경우 산문은 번역문만 싣고, 운문은 원문을 번역문 바로 아래에 제시한다. 인용문은 왼쪽 4자 들여쓰기를 하고 오른쪽은 본문과 끝을 맞추어야 하며, 글자 크기는 본문보다 한 포인트 작게 한다. (영어 논문도 이에 준함)
5) 본문 속에서의 인용이나 괄호 안의 문헌 표기(Side Notes)와 References (참고 문헌 목록) 표기는 본 학회지의 APA Style 중요양식 안내에 나오는 규정을 따른다. (영어 논문도 이에 준함)

한국어 논문의 예:

소로우와 프로스트—자연과 상상어

20세기 뉴잉글랜드의 시인 로버트 프로스트(Robert Frost)는 19세기 뉴잉글랜드의 초월주의 전통을 계승한다. 예컨대 프로스트의 시(1969) 「풀베기」(“Mowing”)는 물질과 정신의 합일이라는 초월주의 이상을 노동의 의미에서 찾는다. 자신의 낫(scythe)과 속삭이듯 아주 “진지한 사랑”으로 “습지의 풀을 줄줄이 베어 넘긴” 농부에게 “그 사실은 노동이 아는 가장 달콤한 꿈”(Poetry, p. 17)이다.

*　　*　　*

『일리어드』(Illiad)같은 고전은 이러한 자연 언어의 성공적인 발견과 기록이다. 이를 두고 소로우(Thoreau)(1999)는 『월든』(Walden)에서 다음과 같이 말한다.

기록된 단어는 유물 중에서 가장 귀중한 것이다. 그것은 다른 어떤 예술 작품보다도 우리에게 친밀하며 더 보편적이다. 그것은 삶 자체에 가장 가까운 예술 작품이다. (p. 94)

시는 언어 예술이다. 예술은 자연에 인공을 가하여 어떤 형(型)을 만드는 것이다. 프로스트의 시 「목적은 노래였다」("The Aim Was Song")는 언어의 원형인 자연의 소리에 인공을 가하여 "말과 가락"으로 전환시키는 시인의 출현을 우화적으로 표현한다. 시는 "자연과 인간의 합동 표현"(Marcus, 1991, p. 105)이다. 자연의 바람은 인간의 도움 없이는 "자연 그대로" "거친 곳"에서 "큰 소리"로 밤낮 불어댔다. 이 시 3연과 4연은 바람에게 보인 인간의 시범과 결과를 표현한다.

그는 그의 입 속에 바람을 조금 취하고,
　그것을 충분히 오래 간직하여 북이
남으로 변환케 하였다.
　그리고는 그것을 치수에 따라 불어냈다.

He took a little in his mouth,
　And held it long enough for north
To be converted into south,
　And then by measure blew it forth. (Poetry, p. 224)

사나운 북풍을 입 속에 조금 취해서 온화한 남풍으로 바꾼 다음 "치수" 즉 예술적 계획에 따라 조심스럽게 입 밖으로 불어내면, 바람은 말과 가락이 되었다(Marcus, 1991).

제10장 논문작성요령(영어 논문 및 국제호 투고논문)

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS OF ENGLISH MANUSCRIPTS

1. Content of the Manuscripts

The content of the manuscript to be submitted should concern theories and/or practices in the field of learning and teaching English. The manuscript may be on an experimental analysis, a new proposal, or a critique of theories and/or practices in the field. The

manuscript may also deal with linguistics, or interdisciplinary areas related to English learning and teaching. Manuscripts are accepted for review with the understanding that the same work has not been submitted elsewhere, or previously published.

2. Submission for Manuscripts

1) The manuscript prepared in English using MS Word (2000) should be submitted via JAMS system, (http://etak.jams.or.kr) to the editor-in-chief.
2) On the last page of the manuscript, the author should provide the author's (or authors') name(s), affiliation, address, and e-mail address.
3) The author(s) should inform the editor-in-charge which issue (spring, summer, fall, or winter) the article is being submitted for when she/he sends the manuscript.
4) After the author pays the reviewing fee, the author should inform the treasurer by e-mail.
5) The deadline for submission is January 15 for the spring issue (international issue), April 15 for the summer issue, July 15 for the fall issue (international issue), and October 15 for the winter issue.

3. Specifications for Manuscripts

1) The length of the manuscript, which should be typed on A4-size paper, is recommended not to exceed 20 pages of the journal, *English Language & Literature Teaching*. ₩10,000 will be charged for each extra page.
2) The left and right margins should be 4.2 cm; the top margins 5.0, and bottom margins 5.2 cm; the top header, 4.2 cm and the bottom header, 1.0 cm. The line spacing of the title, the main text and the reference list should be fixed 14.5 point, while that of the abstract should be fixed 12.5 point, and footnotes should be fixed 10 point. The main text should be Times New Roman 10-point and the letter spacing should be 100% in 0.1-point narrow spacing.
3) The abstract should be composed of approximately 200 words. (Please indicate how many words are included in the abstract in parenthesis at the end of the abstract.)
4) The title of the article should not exceed two lines.
5) The subheadings should be numbered in the following manner: I. 1. 1) (1) ①
6) There should be a line space after every subheading except the fourth and the fifth subheadings.
7) No subheadings should be indented.
8) The main text should be indented 1point (2 characters) at the beginning of each paragraph.
9) Examples of English words and sentences should be italicized.
10) As for tables and figures, avoid using vertical lines and limit the use of horizontal lines. Use a double line for the first horizontal line and use plain single lines for the

rest. The numberings and headings of tables or figures should be presented bold, centered above the tables or figures. 'TABLE,' 'FIGURE' should be all capitalized. Major words in the headings of tables or figures should begin with capital letters. Do not use < > in headings or texts.

11) The references, graphs, illustrations, etc should follow the APA (American Psychological Association) style.

12) Detailed specifications for a sample manuscript are as follows.

English Language & Literature Teaching, Vol. 5, No. 1 Fall 1999 [Times New Roman]

[2 line spaces]

Study on the Teacher's Corrective Feedback Type

Times New Roman 14, bold]

[2 line spaces]

Hankuk Kim* [Times New Roman 10, bold; right indentation]
(Hankuk University) [Times New Roman 10, plain; right indentation]
Kil-Dong Hong**
(Korea University)

[1 line space]

Kim, Hankuk & Hong, Kil-dong (1999). Study on the teacher's corrective feedback type. ***English Language & Literature Teaching, 5*****(1), 3-22.** [Times New Roman 9, bold; fixed-12.5pt line spacing, 2.5-pt left & right indentation, justified]

[1 line space]

This paper examines the role of collaborative dialogue in ... [Times New Roman 9, plain; fixed-12.5pt line spacing, 2.5-pt left & right indentation, 0.3 pt above the paragraph, justified]

[1 line space]

[immersion/motivation] [Times New Roman 9, bold, justified]

[2 line space]

I. INTRODUCTION [Arial 12, bold; left-justified]

[1 line space]

Second language learning[1)] is ... [Times New Roman 10, plain; justified, line space fixed 14.5]

...

1) Swain (1995) elaborated ... [Times New Roman 9, plain; fixed-10pt line spacing, 0.8-pt first-line left indentation, justified]

[2 line spaces]

II. RESEARCH DESIGN [Arial 12, bold; left-justified]

[1 line space]

1. Subjects [Arial 11, plain; left-justified]

[1 line space]

The subjects for this study ... [Times New Roman 10, plain; 1-pt first-line left indentation, justified]]

[1 line space]

1) Questionnaires and Interview [Times New Roman 10, plain; left-justified]

[1 line space]

...

[1 line space]

(1) Features of Collaborative Dialogues [Times New Roman 10, plain; left-justified]

...

[1 line space]

① Interactional Pattern [Time New Roman 10, plain; left-justified]

...

[1 line space]

TABLE 1 [Time New Roman 10, bold; centered]

News Headlines under Analysis [Times New Roman 9]

	Whole-class interaction		Group or pair interaction	
Moves and participants	n	%	n	%
Initiations				
Instructor	151	11	3	1
Students	153	11	23	9
Reponses				
Instructor	354	26	29	11
Students	582	42	198	78
Evaluations	131	10	0	0
Total	1,371	100	253	100

[inside the table, Times New Roman 9, fixed 10-pt line spacing, lines 1/2pt]

[1 line space]

...

[2 line spaces]

REFERENCES [Arial 11, plain; centered]

[1 line space]

Alptekin. C. (1993). Target-language culture in EFL materials. *ELT Journal, 47*(2). 136-143. [Times New Roman 10, plain; 3-pt reverse indentation]

...

[2 line spaces]

APPENDIX A [Arial 11, plain; centered]

Title [Times New Roman 10, plain; centered]

...

[2 line spaces]

Examples in: English [Times New Roman 9, bold; left-justified]

Applicable Languages: English [Times New Roman 9, bold; left-justified]

Applicable Levels: Secondary [Times New Roman 9, bold; left-justified]
[2 line spaces]

Han-Kuk Kim [Times New Roman 9, plain; 1-pt left indentation, left-justified]
Dept. of English Education, Education Division
Hankuk University
120-1, Yejang-dong, Chung-gu
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Email:

[1 line space]
Received in April, 2007
Reviewed in May, 2007
Revised version received in June, 2007

4. Other Important Regulations

1) All the manuscripts submitted will undergo a strict editorial process through the blind review system. They will be rated by reviewers as 'publish without revision', ‘publish with revisions', 'revise and submit for reevaluation', or 'reject.' The writer will be informed of whether the article will be published or not about a month after the deadline for submission.
2) Publication of more than two articles by the same writer per year is not allowed in principle.
3) The publication expenses will be paid by the individual writers.
4) The author of the published article will receive two complimentary copies of *English Language & Literature Teaching.*

5. Style Guidelines

All submissions to *English Language & Literature Teaching* should conform to the requirements of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (4th ed.). The followings are some important examples taken from the manual.

1) Text Citation

(1) One Work by a Single Author: APA journals use the author-date method of citation. The last name of the author and the year of publication are inserted in the text at the appropriate point. In case of a Korean author’s name, the full name is written: the first name is written before the last name (e.g., Han-Kuk, Kim) for a title; the last name is followed by a comma and first name (e.g., Kim, Han-Kuk) for an abstract.

He stated, “the ‘placebo effect’ disappeared ... when behaviors were studied in this manner” (Smith, 1982, p. 276).
Smith (1982) found that “the ‘placebo effect’ disappeared when [his own and other's] behaviors were studied in this manner” (p. 276).

(2) One Work by Two Authors: When a work has two authors, always cite both names every time the reference occurs in the text.

Gardner and Lambert (1976) found that their previous study (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) could not...

(3) One Work by More Than Two Authors and Fewer Than Six Authors: Cite all authors the first time the reference occurs; in subsequent citations include only the surname of the first author followed by “et al.” and the year.

First citation: William, Jones, Smith, Bradner, and Tomington (1993) found that...
Second citation: William et al. (1983) studied the effect of...

(4) One Work by More Than Six Authors: Cite only the surname of the first author followed by “et al.” and the year in the first and subsequent citations. However, in the reference list, the surnames of all six or more authors should be spelled out.

(5) Two or More Works Within the Same Parentheses: Arrange two or more works by the same author by year of publication, and list two or more works by different authors in alphabetical order by the first author's surname. Separate the citations by semicolons.

Oxford (1986, 1989, 1994) reports that many studies (Gosden, 1992; Hanania & Akhtar, 1985; Hopkins, 1987, 1988a, 1989; Tarone et al., 1981) used strategy training...

(6) Authors with the Same Surname: If a reference list includes publications by two or more authors with the same surname, include the authors’ initials in all text citations to avoid confusion, even if the year of publication differs.

H. D. Brown (1993) and J. D. Brown (1994) agreed that...

2) Reference List

All sources cited in the text must be included alphabetically in the reference list. Below are examples of entries for, respectively, a journal article, a book, an article or chapter in an edited book, a magazine or newspaper article, a report, proceedings of meetings and symposia, a doctoral dissertation or master's thesis, and a citation from Internet resources.

(1) A Journal Article

Pavio, A. (1975). Perceptual comparisons through the mind's eye. *Memory & Cognition, 3,* 635-647.

Davis, J. N., Lange, D. L, & Samuels, S. J. (1988). Effects of text structure instruction: An experimental study on foreign language readers. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 20*(2), 19-34.

(2) A Book

Mehan, H. (1979). *Learning lessons*: *Social organization in the classroom*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Strunk, W., Jr., & White, E. B. (Eds.). (1979). *The elements of style*. New York: Macmillan.

American Psychiatric Association. (1980). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (3rd ed). Washington, DC: Author.

(3) An Article or Chapter in an Edited Book

Hunt, R. (1994). Speech genres, writing genres, school genres, and computer genres. In A. freedman & P. Medway (Eds.), *Learning and teaching genre* (pp. 243-262). Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.

(4) A Magazine or Newspaper Article

Gardner, H. (1981, December). Do babies sing a universal song? *Psychology Today*, pp. 70-76.

Lubin, J. S, (1980, December 5). On idle: The unemployed shun much mundane work. *The Wall Street Journal*, pp. 1-25.

(5) A Report

Newport, E. L. (1975). *Motherese: The speech of mothers to young children* (Tech. Rep. No. 53). San Diego: University of California, Center for Human Information Processing.

Gottfredson, L. S. (1980). *How valid are the reinforcement pattern scores*? (Report No. CSOS-R-292). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University, Center for Social Organization of Schools. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 182 465)

(6) Proceedings of Meetings Symposia

Wells, C. G. (1984). Lexical-grammatical features of child language. In B. Meyer (Ed.), *Proceedings of the Fourth International Symposium on Child Language* (pp. 83-92). Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada: Mitchell Press.

Michaels, J. (1989, June). *Communication strategies and learning strategies revisited*. Paper Presented at the 1989 Summer Conference of the Korea Association of Teachers of English, Pusan, Korea.

(7) A Doctoral Dissertation or Master's Thesis

Pendar, J. E. (1982). Undergraduate psychology majors: Factors influencing decisions. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 42, 4370A-4371A. (University Microfilms No. 82-06, 181)

Foster, M. E. (1982). An analysis of the relationship between preservice teacher training and directed teaching performance (Doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1981). *Dissertation Abstract International*, 42, 4409A.

Kevins, G, M. (1981). *An analysis of ESL learner's discourse patterns*. Unpublished doctoral disserration. McGill University, Montreal.

(8) Internet Resources

Feenberg, A. (1999a). *Distance learning: Promise or threat*? Retrievd January 6, 2000, from the World Wide Web: http://www-rohan.sdsu.edu/faculty/feenberg/TELE3. HTML.

Feenberg, A. (1999b, September/October). No drills in the virtual classroom. *Academie, 85*(5). Retrieved February 20, 2001, from the World Wide Web: http://www.aaup.org/SO99Feen.html.

3) Tables and Figures

Tables and figures should be completely understandable, independent of the text. Each table and figure must be mentioned in the text, given a title (placed in the center above the table or the figure), and consecutively numbered with Arabic numerals.

TABLE 3

Subjects' Age Groups and Their Scores

FIGURE 3

Model of Second Language Learning

윤리위원회 규정

제1장 총 칙

제1조 본 위원회는 한국영어어문교육학회 윤리위원회라 칭한다.
제2조 본 위원회는 한국영어어문교육학회 회칙 제6장에 의거하여 학회 내에 둔다.
제3조 (목적) 한국영어어문교육학회(이하 학회) 윤리위원회 운영규정은 학회의 임원과 회원이 윤리헌장을 위반하여 제소되었을 경우, 필요한 사항을 규정하는 것을 목적으로 한다.

제2장 구성 및 운영

제1조 (구성) 본 운영규정의 목적을 달성하기 위하여 윤리위원회를 설치하여 운영한다.
1. 윤리위원회는 위원장을 포함하여 7명으로 구성한다.
2. 윤리위원의 선임은 정회원 5인 이상의 추천을 받은 자 중, 전임 회장 단회의에서 선출한다.
3. 윤리위원장과 위원의 임기는 2년으로 한다.
4. 윤리위원회의 간사는 본 학회의 총무이사로 하며, 간사는 의결권을 가지지 아니한다.

제2조 (운영)
1. 윤리위원회는 윤리위원회에 제소된 회원의 윤리헌장 위반 여부를 심의하며, 이에 필요한 규칙을 제정할 수 있다.
2. 윤리위원회는 제소된 사안에 대해 접수된 날로부터 60 일 이내에 심의. 의결하여야 하며, 심의 절차는 본 학회의 다른 위원회의 심의 절차를 준용한다.
3. 제명, 자격 정지, 공개 사과 등 징계의 종류와 공표는 윤리위원회의 결정에 의한다.

제3조 (윤리헌장과 표절규정 위반의 제소)
1. 윤리위원회에 제소하기 위해서는 정회원 20 인 이상의 서명을 받아야 한다.
2. 윤리헌장 위반으로 제소된 임원과 회원은 본 학회 윤리위원회에서 행하는 조사에 협조하여야 한다.
3. 편집위원회에서 표절이 확정된 논문의 경우 편집위원회가 윤리위원회에 제소하여 제재 내용을 결정한다.

제4조 (소명 기회와 비밀 보장)
1. 윤리헌장 위반으로 윤리위원회에 제소된 자는 확정이 되기 전까지는 윤리헌장을 위반하지 않은 것으로 본다.
2. 윤리헌장 위반으로 윤리위원회에 제소된 자에게는 충분한 소명의 기회가 주어져야 한다.

3. 윤리위원은 결정이 내려질 때까지 당사자의 신원을 외부에 공개해서는 아니 된다.

제5조 (윤리위원회 운영규정의 개정) 윤리위원회 운영 규정의 개정 절차는 본 학회 회칙 개정 절차에 준한다.

제3장 윤리 헌장

본 학회 윤리 헌장은 학회의 임원과 회원이 학회의 목적을 달성하기 위하여 역할을 수행하는 과정에서 준수해야 할 윤리적 원칙과 기준을 정하여 본 학회는 물론 회원 개인의 윤리성 고양을 목적으로 한다.

제1조 학회의 회장, 차기 회장 및 기타 임원은 학회 운영규정에서 정한 각종 사업과 기타 학회 업무를 수행함에 있어서 공정하고 성실하게 의무를 수행하여야 한다.

제2조 학회의 회장 및 차기 회장은 학회의 설립목적에 반하고 학회의 정치적 중립성을 훼손하는 제반 활동을 하여서는 아니 된다.

제3조 학회 회원은 학회활동을 통하여 영어교육학과 영어교육 발전에 기여하고 공익 증진에 노력하여야 한다.

제4조 학회 회원은 교육 및 연구 활동 그리고 현실 참여에 있어 윤리성과 학자적 양심에 충실하여야 한다.

제5조 학회 회원은 타인의 연구나 주장의 일부분을 자신의 연구나 주장인 것처럼 논문이나 저술에 제시하지 아니하며, 타인의 저작권을 존중하여야 한다.

제6조 연구 관련 심사 및 자문을 하는 회원은 오로지 학문적 양심에 따라 공정하게 심사하여야 하며, 제출자와 제출 내용에 대해 필요한 경우 비밀을 유지하여야 한다.

제7조 학회 회원은 연구 수행과 관련하여 취득한 정보를 이용하여 부당하거나 부적절한 이득을 추구하여서는 아니 된다.

제4장 표절 규정

제1조 (정의) 본 학회는 표절을 고의적으로나 또는 의도하지 않았다고 해도 출처를 명확하게 밝히지 않은 채, 타인의 지적 재산을 임의로 사용하는 것으로 정의한다.

제2조 (유형) 본 학회는 다음의 두 가지 형태를 표절의 대표적 행위로 규정한다.

1. 원저자의 아이디어, 논리, 고유한 용어, 데이터, 분석체계를 출처를 밝히지 않고 임의로 활용하는 경우
2. 출처는 밝히지만 인용부호 없이 타인의 저술이나 논문의 상당히 많은 문구와 아이디어 등을 원문 그대로 옮기는 경우

제3조 (심사주체)

1. 영어어문교육 학술지에 이미 게재되었거나, 심사 중에 표절의혹이 제기된 논문에 대한 표절여부의 확정은 학회 편집위원회가 담당한다.

2. 표절 여부가 확정된 경우, 편집위원회는 윤리위원회에 제소하고 제재 내용의 확정은 윤리위원회가 담당한다.

제4조 (제재) 표절이 확인된 저자 및 논문에 대해서 표절의 경중에 따라 다음과 같은 제재를 가한다.

1. 영어어문교육 학술지에 5년 이하의 투고 금지
2. 본 학회 홈페이지에서 논문 삭제
3. 본 학회와 계약을 체결한 사이버 출판 회사에 표절 사실 통보 및 논문 삭제 요청
4. 본 학회 홈페이지 및 표절이 확정된 이후 발간되는 첫 영어어문교육 학술지에 표절 사실 공시
5. 표절 가담자의 소속기관에 표절 사실의 통보

영어어문교육

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