Vol. 24, No. 2
Summer 2018

영어어문교육

ENGLISH LANGUAGE & LITERATURE TEACHING

이 학술지는 한국연구재단의 지원을 받았음



http://www.etak.or.kr

한 국 영 어 어 문 교 육 학 회
The English Teachers Association in Korea

한국영어어문교육학회 임원 명단

(2016년 9월 ~ 2018년 8월)

명예회장 임병빈(공주대)

회　　장 이현구(나사렛대)

부 회 장

편집	장형지(선문대)	**운영**	강문구(공주대)
학술	한혜령(서원대)	**연구**	오마리아(전주교대)
국제	이강영(충북대)	**홍보**	남은희(한경대)
섭외	노승빈(백석대)	**정책**	이노신(호서대)
출판	이정원(충남대)	**윤리**	이학문(한밭대)
정보	이혜원(평가원)	**문화**	이혜경(공주교대)

총무이사 원은석(목원대, 수석)　김동영(해군사관학교, 운영)　한은희(나사렛대, 연구재단)

재무이사 정보현(한밭대, 재무관리)　여숙림(목원대, 회원관리)

감　　사 윤영도(동국대)　엄태송(목원대)

운영이사

허근(한남대, 책임)	김지은(가톨릭관동대, 책임)	오관영(전남대)
최성묵(경북대)	김용명(안동대)	배대권(경남과기대)
이상민(경희대)	안희성(교육부)	이병천(평가원)
이지혜(공주대)		

학술이사

정경옥(한남대, 책임)	하명애(대전대, 책임)	고현숙(울산대)
김기택(경인교대)	황선유(서원대)	변지현(한남대)
황필아(경인교대)	김성우(서울대)	정은숙(춘천교대)
진정숙(인제대)	조형숙(서원대)	

연구이사

육청민(한림대, 책임)	김남희(조선대, 책임)	성명희(을지대)
김성식(전주교대)	백지원(대구대)	안경자(서울교대)
이선영(사이버외대)	정채관(평가원)	정성희(숭실대)
송지연(대전대)		

출판이사

김정옥(원광대, 책임)	윤경옥(공군사관학교, 책임)	신수정(침신대)
조수경(외국어대)	김신혜(계명대)	강수자(배재대)
정영숙(청주교대)	전유아(한양대)	강경옥(임실초)
박미애(춘천교대)		

국제이사	강승만(충북대, 책임)	차미양(남서울대, 책임)	Mlwako(사가미여대)
	Miki Bong(신슈대)	Amanda Racy(대구대)	나경희(충북대)
	Peter H. Jang(서울대)	곽경섭(충북대)	윤상돈(교육부)
	Levi McNeil(숙명여대)		
홍보이사	예진희(용인송담대, 책임)	석진이(서울여대, 책임)	김혜정(광주여대)
	김지영(중앙대)	류호열(한경대)	김수연(안양대)
	김혜경(인천대)	김묘경(숙대)	윤성원(한양대)
	양정임(대전대)		
섭외이사	성창규(목원대, 책임)	왕건(용인송담대, 책임)	홍영숙(중원대)
	송민종(성결대)	김희진(사이버외대)	배지영(공주대)
	양정임(배재대)	황정희(평택대)	박주영(중앙대)
	박용효(평가원)		
윤리이사	전윤실(협성대, 책임)	윤성규(선문대, 책임)	김연만(한밭대)
	김달중(한밭대)	황지인(배재대)	김정순(충남대)
	김영희(공주대)	조국인(전북대)	양현철(나사렛대)
	김원보(제주대)		
정책이사	박광래(천성중, 책임)	임정완(대구대, 책임)	류근호(호서대)
	김준식(평가원)	안상국(천안시)	황규홍(동아대)
	이종익(Newsis)	이재영(호서대)	강혜영(교육부)
	Emanuel Pastreische(경희대)		
문화이사	문은주(배재대, 책임)	전선영(공주교대, 책임)	이윤경(대구가톨릭대)
	이주희(경북대)	김영민(대구교대)	양승주(거제대)
	김지선(안양대)	이선혜(서일대)	박채희(선문대)
	방희정(한밭대)		
정보이사	배제이(극동대, 책임)	이신재(호서대, 책임)	권영애(면일초)
	정미라(분당고)	김영현(명신여고)	김정희(백석대)
	이석재(연세대)	조보경(평가원)	양용준(제주대)
	차민영(단국대)		
기관이사	이관호(K-Books)	임용생(유학닷컴)	강동준(천재교육)
	주종수(해법에듀)	김규현(미드잉글리쉬)	강성원(잉글리쉬무무)
	노상충(당근영어 (주) 캐럿글로벌)		

한국영어어문교육학회 편집위원 및 편집이사 명단

(2016년 9월 ~ 2018년 8월)

편집위원장 장형지(선문대)

편집간사 이명관(안양대) 임미진(국민대) 조미행(충남대)
박혜정(중앙대)

편집위원 강규한(국민대) 김경자(조선대) 김지은(가톨릭관동대)
민수정(공주대) 양창용(제주대) 이석재(연세대)
임정완(대구대) 홍선호(서울교대) 황종배(건국대)
최선희(전주대)

편집이사 김낙복(나사렛대) 김정연(울산과기원) 현숙경(침신대)
민호기(평가원) 박미숙(목원대) 양은미(꽃동네대)
이지연(총신대) 이동환(경인교대) 휴버트박(공주대)
장복명(남서울대) 장선미(호서대) 전문영(서울여대)
최경희(한양여대) 박지선(평가원)

한국영어어문교육학회 자문위원 명단

이상윤(전 한남대) 이흥수(전 전남대) 최용재(전 동국대) 정동빈(전 중앙대)
현태덕(전 안동대) 전병만(전 전북대) 이자원(국민대) 설동호(대전시교육청)
박경자(전 고려대) 임병빈(공주대) 민찬규(한국교원대) 이은표(을지대)
송해성(공주대) 이종복(목원대)

논문 투고

*원고 접수 방법: 온라인접수 ☞ https://etak.jams.or.kr/
*원고 접수 및 연락처: 편집 담당 부회장
충남 아산시 탕정면 선문로 221 선문대학교 국제레저관광학과 장형지
C.P.: 010-4815-7451, 연구실 041-530-2488 Email: etak21@naver.com(편집전용메일)
*원고 마감일
1호(국제호): 1월 15일 2호: 4월 15일 3호(국제호): 7월 15일 4호: 10월 15일
*논문 심사비 및 게재료 문의 ☞ 정보현 재무이사 C.P.: 010-6668-4456
농협 351-0261-5617-23 예금주: 한국영어어문교육학회
Email: etak2014@naver.com

ENGLISH LANGUAGE & LITERATURE TEACHING

THE ENGLISH TEACHERS ASSOCIATION in KOREA Vol. 24, No. 2 Summer 2018

Chung, Bohyon	A Study on the Linguistic Prejudice Against Korean-accented English	1
Cuffey, Daniel James Kang, Mee Hye Seong, Myeong-Hee	Student and Teacher Perceptions of a Performance Assessment for College English Conversation Courses	21
Jung Woo-hyun	Factors Detrimental to Oral Communication in Secondary School Contexts	41
Kim Nahk Bohk	Public Speaking Strategies for Improving English Speaking Skills in the EFL College Context	69
Kim, Shinhye	Learning English and Identity Construction of Korean Early Study Abroad Students	89
Koh, Sungran	An Analysis of ESL Students' Knowledge and Use of Adjectives and Determiners in English Descriptive Writing	111
Min, Sujung Byun, Jihyun	Cultural Conceptualizations of Korean *gyeomson* 'modesty' Schema in L2 Learning	135
박지선 · 김인숙	중학교 영어교과 성취평가 실태 분석	153
원혜주 · 김성연	학습자 영어 수준과 듣기 문항 유형의 차이에 따른 고등학생들의 영어 듣기 전략 사용	177
황선유	STAD 협동 독해수업에 대한 학습효과	201

English Language & Literature Teaching, Vol. 24, No. 2 Summer 2018

A Study on the Linguistic Prejudice Against Korean-accented English*

Bohyon Chung
(Hanbat National University)

Chung, Bohyon (2018). A Study on the Linguistic Prejudice against Korean-accented English. *English Language & Literature Teaching, 24*(2), 1-20.

This study investigated the linguistic prejudice against Korean-accented English (KoE) among Korean speaking learners of English (KSLs). To achieve this aim, this study set two objectives: 1) to explore the factors forming the linguistic prejudice against KoE, and 2) to flesh out valid determiners of KSLs' linguistic prejudice. A questionnaire survey designed to measure prejudice toward foreign accented English by Ura, Preston, and Mearns (2015) was adopted and administered. Data were collected from seventy-eight KSLs, mostly first year college students. The questionnaire items containing 36 items were grouped thematically drawing on the five constructs: credibility, dynamism, social status, language-preference, and foreignness. Descriptive statistical analysis and comparisons between group means were performed for four factors validated with high internal consistency (α > .80). The findings suggest that the linguistic prejudices toward KoE are not always in line with past research showing somewhat negative attitudes toward KoE. Less proficient KSLs tended to be somewhat tolerant of KoE accented speakers. In addition, the degree of some factors in the linguistic prejudice was partially determined by study disciplines and self-assessed ratings in English speaking skills: KSLs majoring in English and who rated themselves at the moderate skill level showed their disapproval to KoE speech.

[Linguistic prejudice/language attitude/Korean-accented English]

I. INTRODUCTION

The wide usage of English as a lingua franca (ELF) has led to the development of

* This work was supported by the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Korea and the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF-2017S1A5A8021743)

multiple forms of English. As technology allows people to be hyper-connected across geographical borders, encounters with different varieties of English become even more frequent. Accordingly, theoretical discussions have been undertaken to address the possibilities of the current multilingual, and multicultural experiences. Kachru (1985) suggested a renowned three-circle model of English, world Englishes (WE) based on diverse sociolinguistic contexts. His WE model includes the inner circle (e.g., the native English usage in UK, and US), the outer circle (e.g., English as a second language context, as in Singapore and India), and the expanding circle (e.g., English as a foreign language context in China, Japan, and Korea). The WE paradigm tends to be recognized for paying attention to legitimating non-native speaker varieties, from the perspective of the outer circle (Matsumoto, 2011; Pennycook, 2003). That is, existing expanding circle varieties are somewhat excluded in WE discussions.

ELF is considered as an alternative model which has been widely used as a theoretical framework that is in parallel with the concept of WE. The notion of WE is disposed to identify English varieties according to national territories (Dewey, 2007; Pennycook, 2003) however ELF, underpinned by theories of language contact, is rather inclined to exploring fluidity and the hybrid and intercultural nature of modern languages (Jenkins, 2000, Seidlehofer, 2009). ELF interactions have been studied from a wide range of aspects: from phonetic and phonological features central to intelligibility (Derwing & Munro, 2015; Deterding, 2013; Jenkins, 2000; Rahimi & Ruzrokh, 2016), lexiogrammar (Kirkpatrick, 2008) and pragmatics (Cogo & Pitzl, 2016; Jenkins, 2000; Lindemann, 2002) to attitudinal studies (Ahn, 2014; Chan, 2013; Fraser, 2009; Ishikawa, 2017; Jenkins, 2007; Lee, Mo, Lee, & Sung, 2013; Lindemann, 2003; McKenzie & Gilmore, 2015). Of many research areas, the current study investigated the attitudinal aspect toward Korean-accent English (KoE) taking ELF into account, attempting to reveal what is concealed beneath the surface of linguistic prejudice against KoE.

Inarguably, English language education in South Korea remains affected by normative approach to English. Considering English as a native language (ENL), particularly American ENL, as the unquestionable norm in English language learning and teaching (Ahn, 2014; Chung & Bong, 2017; Lawrence, 2012; Lee & Green, 2016; Lee, et al., 2013), English language learners in Korea have been guided to form a somewhat defective concept of the English language. Thus, intended to provide a basis for understanding attitudes towards KoE, the current study set out to examine the properties of the prejudice against KoE and a potential determiner affecting their levels. This study was expected to yield meaningful insights because the prejudice toward KoE has been relatively little studied.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Language Attitude

The global spread of English has brought important debates often associated with affective variables (e.g., attitude, motivation, anxiety, perception, etc.) in consideration of their essential role in shaping views on multicultural interactions and worldviews. Having been a core topic in sociolinguistics, attitudes are described as consisting of three elements: (1) cognitive, (2) affective, and (3) behavioral components. First, the cognitive component concerns beliefs and thoughts. This component draws on the concept that attitudes are derived from past experiences, so attitudes are 'learned', and 'reinforced' (Garrett, 2010) by surrounding factors. The cognitive component is deemed to receive scant attention in attitudinal studies because it is often regarded as an opinion of a person. Second, the affective component, which much attitudinal studies of language has been largely focused on, deals with the attitudes of a person. It is concerned with the feelings or emotions of a person connected to various matters and it is often examined with bipolar adjectives. Chan (2016) stated that the test items used in this component mainly fall into the three dimensions developed by Zahn and Hopper (1985): status (e.g., intelligent, rich), solidarity (e.g., friendly, kind), and dynamism (e.g., active, confident). Third, the behavioral component is associated with how the attitude affect a person's behavior.

Given the three components, researchers have expanded attitudinal studies in myriad disciplines, and key features encompassing the attitudinal studies are portrayed. Ishikawa (2017) claimed common ground on attitudes as being (1) feasible to measure, (2) targeted to a psychological matter, and (3) implied and cannot be directly observed. In an effort to provide evidence of attitudinal study, the current research regards the linguistic prejudice as evaluative (Ishikawa, 2017) and capable of being approximated as to the level of the emotional accounts.

2. The Stigma of Non-Native Accents

Since the work of Lambert, Hodgson, Gardner and Fillenbaum (1960), a number of researchers have tried to adopt and extend matched guise and verbal guise techniques (referred to MGT and VGT, respectively) to formalize language attitudes. Non-native English varieties are likely to be stigmatized by both native English speakers and English language learners, represented by what is called as 'foreignness,' or 'accentedness' (Derwing & Munro, 2015). Lindemann (2003) conducted an experiment to thirty-nine native English speakers who were mostly undergraduate students in

freshmen year residing in the Midwest US. Language attitude was measured using adjectives related to status and solidarity on a seven-point Likert scale after listeners were presented with ten speech samples of Korean English speakers and native English speakers. They showed that Korean-accented English was identified as outgroup without being recognized by a specific ethnical background, while US native English was considered as dominant and ingroup. This led all Korean English speakers to be evaluated negatively both on the status and solidarity related factor than were their native English speaker counterparts. Gluszek and Dovidio (2010) went on to point out that speakers with a non-native accent would not only receive negative attitudes from native English speakers, but also in fact experience difficulties in communicative practices and lack of sense of belongings due to the outgroup accents.

It is interesting how the attitudes of second language (L2) speakers toward non-native accents have been depicted in a number of studies. In fact, a variety of L1-accented Englishes were found to be somewhat disapproved within East Asian boundaries, including Korean-accented English (Ahn, 2014; Lee & Green, 2016; Lee, et al., 2013; Lindemann, 2003), Japanese-accented English (Matsuura, 2012; McKenzie & Gilmore, 2015; Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011), and Hong Kong-accented English (Chan, 2016). Along with the general negative attitudes toward non-native accents, L2 English speakers displayed a strong influence of traditional standard norms of English depending on context (reflecting historical, educational, political, economic, social status and other complex reasons). In Hong Kong, on one hand, students seemed to take British English as a correct form of language (Chan, 2016). On the other hand, language learners in Japan and Korea were likely to lean toward American English (Chung & Bong, 2017; Lawrence, 2012; Lee & Green, 2016; Lee, et al., 2013; Matsuura, 2007; McKenzie & Gilmore, 2015). Ahn (2014) and Jenkins (2007) explored teachers' attitudes, in particular, and revealed that L2 English speaking teachers indicated adherence to the 'standard' inner-circle varieties. At the same time, not all non-native accents have been viewed with negative filters. Some outer circle varieties, or so-called nativized Englishes, such as Indian and Sri-Lanka Englishes, are considered as positive to the speakers of each country (Bernaisch, 2012; Bernaish & Koch, 2016). However, it is likely to be undeniable that the language attitude in east Asian contexts have largely remain negative.

Jenkins (2007) has argued that the formation of negative attitudes toward a language has been attributed to a deeper-seated factor, prejudice, which has also been called a predisposition, stereotype, or fixed idea in some other studies (Ahn, 2014; Chan, 2013; Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010). However, the difference between attitude and prejudice has not been as well clarified so far (Ura, Preston, & Mearns, 2015): thus, it was difficult to identify the exact truth about the two. Of the few studies capable of articulating their

focus clearly on linguistic prejudice, Ura et al. (2015) developed a test instrument to measure the level of linguistic prejudice in particular. The current study, therefore, attempts to identify linguistic prejudice in Korea utilizing the questionnaire developed by Ura et al. (2015). Some speakers of ELF were deemed proud of their L1-accent (Jenkins, 2007). It is worth discussing what prejudice toward KoE should look like. The findings from this study may broaden understanding and provide evidence of what constitutes linguistic prejudice with special attention to Korean-accented English. Taken together, two research questions were created in the current study to analyze the prejudice against Korean-accented English.

1. What factors can be identified in linguistic prejudice toward Korean-accented English for Korean-speakers of English?

2. How do learner factors affect their prejudice levels against Korean-accented English?

III. METHODS

1. Participants

A total of 78 undergraduate students took part in the study. The participants included 45 males (57.7%) and 33 females (42.3%), with ages ranging from 18 to 27 (M = 18.8). They identified themselves as Korean, born and raised in Korea. All of them were freshmen-year students in three compulsory English classes as a part of their course of study at a university in Daejeon, South Korea. The participants majored in three disciplines: advanced material engineering (34.6%), industrial design (37.2%), and English language and literature (28.2%). Regardless of their majors, the participants were considered to have similar levels of English ability, as determined by their scores on the Oxford Placement Test 2 (Allan, 2004). No statistically significant difference in the English scores was found between participants' majors (F (2, 75) = .163, p = .850). At the same time, participants were asked to self-assess their English-speaking skills by marking a line at the point where the beginning of the scale represented the basic level (1 point) and the end of the scale represented the advanced level (5 points). There were 20 students (25.6%) who marked 1 as being at basic level, 28 students (35.9%) at 2, neither being basic nor intermediate, and 30 students (38.5%) at 3, being the average level in English-speaking skills. Interestingly, none of the participants described their own levels of English speaking to be higher than average, at 4 or 5 (advanced). In addition, most

participants (91%) indicated they did not have any experience abroad during their education. Only seven (9%) students revealed that they had gone abroad aiming to learn English for less than a year. Four of them had gone to expanding-circle countries to study English as a foreign language (e.g., China, or Japan), two other students had gone to inner-circle countries (e.g., Australia or the US) where English is spoken as a native language, and one to an outer-circle country (the Philippines) where English is spoken as an institutionalized second language. Nonetheless, the participants all shared similar general attributes, such as ethnographic background (Korean, and L2 English speaker), school year, and English language proficiency level at the time of the study.

2. Instruments

A survey questionnaire, developed by Ura et al. (2015), was adopted in this study. Intended to reveal the existence of linguistic prejudice toward accented English speakers, the original questionnaire contained 36 items. Some revisions were made from the original questionnaire, attempting to make it more relevant to the current study's goal. For example, instead of referring to the 'speakers with accents,' in general, the term 'Korean-accent speakers' was used for the participants to directly indicate the prejudice formed in response to KoE. Respondents were asked to mark each item upon a five-point Likert scale to indicate how much they endorse each statement from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. The reliability of the questionnaire was tested to ensure the collected data were consistent and reliable in measuring linguistic prejudice, which was measured with use of Cronbach's alpha coefficient and was determined to be highly reliable with a value of 0.943.

In the fifth week of fall semester in 2017, the survey was administered within regular class hours. The data were collected using the Google Survey platform and by sending the link to the questionnaire to the participants' mobile phones. All the participants were informed about the condition and purpose of the study and read an informed consent online to collect the data. Then, they proceeded to complete the personal information form and the questionnaire on linguistic prejudice toward KoE. The questionnaire survey took no longer than 30 minutes to complete.

3. Data Analysis

The questionnaire survey yielded 78 respondents in total. In the original test battery (Ura, et al.,2015), there were five constructs stated to be taken into account in developing the test instrument: (a) *foreignness*, concerning the fact that accented English speakers are likely to be excluded from American society; (b) *language-preference*,

associated with the predisposition to native English accents (e.g., UK, Standard American English) in language learning; (c) *dynamism*, indicating a lack of initiatives on the part of accented English speakers, which could possibly be seen as passiveness; (d) *credibility*, related to the level of trustworthiness of sources given by speakers with foreign accents; and (e) *social status*, connected with how the accented speakers would likely to be assessed in terms of social class, education, economic position, and other lifestyle factors. The study (ibid.) has shown the five representative items corresponding to each construct, rather having stipulated the extent to which test item was to assess which of the constructs. The five representative items are summarized as follows: "Speakers with accents do not belong to American culture as much as native English speakers (item 36)" for *foreignness*, "Speaking native sounding English will bring more respect than speaking with accents (item 2)" for *language-preference*, "Speakers with accents are less outspoken than native English speakers (item33)" for *Dynamism*, "An eyewitness with an accent is less trustworthy than an eyewitness who is a native English speaker (item 17)" for *credibility*, and "Those speaking English with accents hold lower status than native English speakers (item 18)" for *social status*. Based on the given items standing for five factors, the remaining 31 items were repeatedly screened and were grouped in a search for similar conceptual categories by the author. The five factors, which were used throughout this study as generic terms, were then validated by conducting a Cronbach's coefficient test using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 24. The five factors with their thematically related questionnaire items were summarized with the item numbers included in each factor, the number of items contained in the factor, and Cronbach's alpha of each factor as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Cronbach Alpha, Questionnaire Item Numbers for Each Subscale

Subscale (Factor)	Questionnaire item numbers	*N* of Items	Cronbach α
1: Credibility	5, 8, 9, 17, 20, 26, 34	7	.876
2: Dynamism	3, 4, 6, 7, 12, 15, 16, 23, 24, 29, 30, 33	12	.852
3: Social status	11, 14, 18, 19, 21, 28, 32, 35	8	.822
4: Language-preference	1, 2, 10, 13, 22, 31	6	.729
5: Foreignness	25, 27, 36	3	.584

Note. See appendix for all questionnaire items in Korean.

The reliability coefficients of the factors were included in the analysis if the value appeared to have reasonably acceptable internal consistencies (Field, 2009). Four factors

included in the analysis were *credibility, dynamism, social status, and language-preference*. *Foreignness* was dropped from the analysis due to the low reliability of the items (Cronbach's alpha value = 0.584).

Subsequently, a one-way ANOVA and independent t-test were computed on the basis of three learner variables: (1) gender (male or female), (2) major of study the participant was pursuing at the time of the study, and (3) self-assessment in English speaking skills. Having been discussed in a number of studies as being prospect determiners on attitudinal behaviors (Ellis, 2008; Tomiyana, 1980), this study focused on the three independent variables as a source of explanations for linguistic prejudice by running a one-way ANOVA test.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. The Measurement of the Linguistic Prejudice against KoE

The results of questionnaire items with respect to the four factors are summarized with descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) in Table 2. Given that higher scores on the measure are indicative of greater linguistic prejudice against English speakers with accents (Ura et al., 2015), the overall mean score (M = 2.03, SD = .871) which fell below the scale midpoint (3) allows to determine that the KSLs do not show a strong prejudice on measures toward their L1-accented English, KoE.

TABLE 2

Descriptive Statistics of the Linguistic Prejudice Toward KoE Questionnaire

Factor	Questionnaire items		*M (SD)*
1: Credibility	5	Speakers using KoE are less informative than native English speakers.	1.87(0.877)
	8	It is irritating when a sales associate uses KoE.	
	9	It is frustrating to talk to someone who use KoE when I call customer service.	
	17	An eyewitness using KoE is less trustworthy than an eyewitness who is a native English speaker.	
	20	KoE speakers are less persuasive than native English speakers.	
	26	A politician using KoE is more annoying to hear than a politician with native English.	
	34	KoE speakers have more trouble interacting with others than native English speakers.	

2: Dynamism	3	KoE speakers are less assertive than native English speakers.	1.96(0.872)
	4	KoE speakers cannot develop relationships with their clients as well as native English speakers.	
	6	KoE speakers are less adapted to American culture than native English speakers.	
	7	KoE speakers cannot lead group discussions as well as native English speakers.	
	12	I can work better with an accent-free coworker than a coworker using the KoE accent.	
	15	KoE speakers should not attain as many management positions as native English speakers.	
	16	A car sales associate with the KoE accent cannot sell as many cars as a car sales associate who is a native English speaker.	
	23	It is annoying when my professor has the KoE accent.	
	24	Speakers using KoE accents are less confident than English native speakers.	
	29	I do not prefer to work under a boss with the KoE accent.	
	30	KoE speakers are more submissive than native English speakers.	
	33	KoE speakers are less outspoken than native English speakers.	
3: Social Status	11	A professor with the KoE accent is less effective than a professor with native English.	1.71(0.749)
	14	KoE speakers do not know much about spoken English.	
	18	Those speaking KoE hold lower status than native English speakers.	
	19	Those speaking KoE are less prestigious than native English speakers.	
	21	KoE speakers are less intelligent than native English speakers.	
	28	KoE speakers cannot speak English as well as native English speakers.	
	32	KoE speakers cannot express their opinions as well as native English speakers.	
	35	Speakers with the KoE accents are not as intellectual as native English speakers.	
4: Language-preference	1	I think that KoE speakers should learn to speak English better.	2.57(0.984)
	2	Speaking native sounding English will bring more respect than speaking with the KoE accents.	
	10	When speakers get rid of their KoE accent, they can be more successful in their career.	
	13	Native English speakers are better trained to teach than KoE speakers.	

	22	KoE speakers are more overbearing than native English speakers.
	31	I think that speakers with KoE accents should have positions that do not require much spoken English.
		Total 2.03(0.871)

Note. $N = 78$

The first factor included seven items, all of which indicated the reliability of people using KoE, and thus was titled 'credibility'. Sample items included "Speakers using the KoE are less informative than native English speakers (M = 1.96, SD = 0.874)", and "KoE speakers are less persuasive than native English speakers (M = 1.92, SD = 0.894)". The mean score ranged from 1.67 (item 17, "An eyewitness using the KoE is less trustworthy than an eyewitness who is a native English speaker") to 2.08 (item 34, "KoE speakers have more trouble interacting with others than native English speakers"). The mean score for the seven items in the first factor was 1.87 (SD = 0.877), which appeared to be far below the midpoint of the five-Likert scale.

The second factor included twelve items, all of which had to do with the idea that the personality traits of people using KoE are somewhat reserved and passive; thus, it was titled 'dynamism'. Sample items included: "KoE speakers cannot lead group discussions as well as native English speakers (M = 2.26, SD = 1.062)" as well as "Speakers using KoE accents are less confident than English native speakers (M = 1.77, SD = 0.821)". The mean scores ranged from 1.63 (item 29, I do not prefer to work under a boss with the KoE accent) to 2.47 (item 6, KoE speakers are less adapted to American culture than native English speakers). The mean scores for the twelve items in the second factor was 1.96 (SD = 0.872), which fell further below the midpoint of the five-point Likert scale, giving further evidence that KSLs show a subtle level of prejudice regarding the characteristics of people using KoE.

The third factor included eight items, all of which were related to social class, education, economic position, and other sociocultural factors of people using KoE; thus, it was titled 'social status'. Sample items included "Those speaking KoE hold lower status than native English speakers (M = 1.67, SD = 0.861)" and "KoE speakers are less intelligent than native English speakers (M = 2.01, SD = 0.974)". The mean scores ranged from 1.36 (item 21, KoE speakers are less intelligent than native English speakers) to 2.06 (item 14, KoE speakers do not know much about spoken English). The mean scores for the eight items in this third factor was 1.71 (SD = 0.749).

The fourth factor referred to 'language-preference' and included six items related to the language learners' tendency to believe that targeting a native English accent is crucial for learning English among KSLs. Sample items include "When speakers get rid

of their KoE accent, they can be more successful in their career (*M* = 2.79, *SD* = 1.155)" and "Native English speakers are better trained to teach than KoE speakers (*M* = 2.36, *SD* = 1.069)." Scores ranged from 1.64 (item 22, KoE speakers are more overbearing than native English speakers" to 3.46 (item 1, I think that KoE speakers should learn to speak English better). The mean scores for the six items was 2.57 with an SD of 0.984.

Data collected in the current study do not tell the whole story of linguistic prejudice toward KoE, but it provides valuable information indicating that KSLs are not necessarily pessimistic in viewing shared-L1 accent speakers, KoE speakers. Considering that higher scores represent greater prejudice (Ura, et al. 2015), the mean scores in general as well as those of each factor were relatively low, thus making it difficult to regard KSLs as prejudiced against KoE (*M* = 2.03, *SD* = 0.871). All in all, it is safe to assume that KSLs do not account for using KoE on the linguistic prejudice, specifically the four factors—credibility, dynamism, social status, and language-preference. In other words, it is seemingly sufficient to point out that KSLs themselves do not necessarily regard KoE in a negative way.

Such findings are the exact opposite of those of the examination on the attitudes toward KoE, which have been reported to be largely negative either from English native speakers and L2 English speakers (Ahn, 2014; Lee & Green, 2016; Lee, et al. 2013; Lindemann, 2003).

2. Determining Learner Variable on the Prejudice toward KoE

Subsequent analysis was carried out to extract the determining learner variable for each of the factors comprising linguistic prejudice. The learner variables examined in this study have been commonly identified as sociolinguistic factors that affect patterns of language choice and use (Ellis, 2008). The three variables, (1) gender (male or female), (2) major of study that the participant was pursuing at the time of the study, and (3) self-assessment in English speaking skills, were implemented as independent variables to explore the influential factor on the linguistic prejudice constructs.

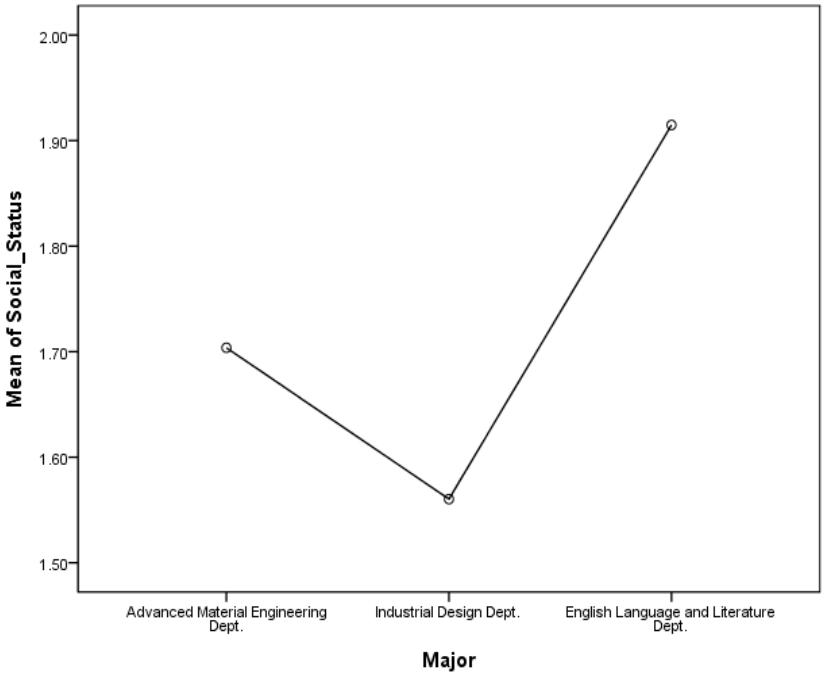
The first learner variable, gender, did not present any statistically significant difference for the four factors: *credibility* (t = 0.480, df = 76, p = 0.63), *dynamism* (t = 1.158, p = 0.88), *social status* (t = 0.980, p = 0.33), and *language-preference* (t = 1.159, p = 0.25). For both female and male KSLs, all sub-factors of linguistic prejudice toward KoE speakers were equally rated with low mean scores, meaning that KSLs were less prejudiced about KoE speakers, and gender was not a major determinant of their viewpoints.

One-way ANOVA tests also confirmed significant differences in some factors with one of the two learner variables; majors or self-assessment skills. Of four factors

comprising linguistic prejudice, the *social status* factor showed statistical differences among major of study (F (2, 75) = 3.210, p = 0.046). Tukey post-hoc comparisons showed that students majoring in English language and literature tended to agree more (M = 1.91, SD = 0.416) compared to industrial design majoring students (M = 1.56, SD = 0.588) in association with the statement that KoE speakers are likely to be assessed with lower social status than that of native speakers. This finding suggests that the more exposure to and interest in English, the more likely KSLs are to evaluate KoE speakers at a lower level of *social status*. Thus, field of study could be a determiner of linguistic prejudice. The results of the mean score differences for this factor with respect to fields of study are presented in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1

Mean Differences between *Social Status* Factor Depending on Fields of Study



Aside from the *social status* factor, two other factors, *credibility* and *language-preference* showed statistically significant differences. The descriptive statistics measured for the learner variables of each factor are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3
Descriptive Statistics for the Four Constructs by the Self-Assessed Speaking Skills

Subscales (factors)	1. Beginner	2. Low-intermediate	3. Intermediate
	Mean (SD)	*Mean (SD)*	*Mean (SD)*
Credibility	1.71 (0.656)	1.70 (0.505)*	2.14 (0.731)*
Language-preference	2.48 (0.669)	2.30 (0.518)*	2.88 (0.624)*

Note. Beginner (N = 20), low-intermediate (N = 28), intermediate (N = 30); $^{*}p < 0.05$

It was found that the determinant for these two factors was the self-assessment in English speaking skills by the participants (for *credibility*, F (2, 75) = 4.332, p = 0.017; for *language preference*, F (2, 75) = 7.038, p = 0.002). On both *credibility* and *language-preference* measures, students who self-reported as being intermediate level (third out of five levels) in their English-speaking skills were likely to display stronger agreement than those at the low-intermediate level (second out of five).

For each factor, KSLs in the intermediate level group were found to have the highest mean score, followed by beginner, and low-intermediate groups. Students in the low-intermediate group had the lowest mean score with a small variation between in-group members (SD > 0.6), meaning that the low-intermediate groups students would almost always rate low scores on both factors. This finding is shown in Figure 2.

FIGURE 2
Mean Differences between Two Factors Depending on Self-Assessment



For the *credibility* factor, on one hand, the difference between the low-intermediate and intermediate groups was 0.44 (p = 0.029). The mean score for this factor in the low-intermediate group was 1.70 (SD = 0.505) whereas the mean in the intermediate group was 2.14 (SD = 0.731). For the *language-preference* factor, on the other hand, the difference between the low-intermediate and intermediate groups was 0.58 (p = 0.001). The mean score in the low-intermediate group for this factor was 2.30 (SD = 0.518) while the mean score in the intermediate group was 2.88 (SD = 0.624).

Given that both differences are judged to be statistically significant, it is likely to be considered that KSLs at the low-intermediate level have less prejudiced perception toward KoE speakers with close attention to their *credibility* and *language-preference* than beginner or intermediate level students. Therefore, the self-assessed ratings in English proficiency could be another determiner of linguistic prejudice along with the major of study of KSLs. This finding is in line with a previous study conducted by Darvin (2017). Darvin showed differences in attitudes toward L1-accent English on the basis of how they position themselves by the social classes. Two participants from the same ethnical background and sharing similar English proficiency levels took part in the study. However, their social classes were in stark contrast: one lower extremity and one upper extremity. Indicating their ambivalent attitudes toward English aligning with their social status, Darvin (2017) argued that the divergent attitudes are likely to stem from "the sense of agency and linguistic confidence (p. 305)". Likewise, this *sense of agency and linguistic confidence* (Darvin, 2017) may have played a critical role in forming the linguistic prejudice against KoE.

V. CONCLUSION

This study utilized a questionnaire developed to investigate linguistic prejudice in particular (Ura et al. 2015) and attempted to study linguistic prejudice toward KoE that KSLs are likely to bear. This article has described the differences in levels of underlying factors comprising linguistic prejudice toward KoE and explored whether any determiners can be detected that can affect the level of the biased perception. Three primary findings were observed in the current study. First, four factors valid for the Korean context were identified: (1) credibility, (2) dynamism, (3) social status, and (4) language-preference. Second, based on the measured level of each factor, KSLs were deemed to be far from being prejudiced, and more likely to have a positive stance on KoE speakers. That is, KSLs tend to embrace the use of L1-accented English. Third, two possible determiners in varying the degree of linguistic prejudice were revealed: the field of study and the self-assessed ratings in English speaking skills. KSLs who are more

exposed to English during their coursework in undergraduate study as in an English department are likely to have stronger prejudice than those who are majoring in industrial design. At the same time, KSLs who self-evaluate their English-speaking skills at the intermediate level are likely to present greater prejudice than those at beginner and low-intermediate levels.

Undoubtedly, KoE and any other non-native accented English have been accused of being deficient and shaping negative attitudes to ENL speakers as well as English language learners themselves. The findings reported here, however, throw doubt on abundant confirmation of the stigmatized attitudes toward non-native English accents in outer and expanding circles, as reported in a number of studies (Ahn, 2014; Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010; Lee & Green, 2016; Lee et al, 2013; Lindemann, 2003). At the same time, the findings suggest that the negative attitudes, or linguistic prejudice in particular, should be viewed as gradual and progressive over time with a significant contribution from the linguistic confidence, which may be associated with academic discipline and self-assessment of English language proficiency. As Jenkins (2007) once argued, it should not be disregarded that the negative attitudes alone may limit the acceptance of an L1-accented English as legitimate English. That is where the importance of English learning environment comes to bear; my point is that, if it is too early to tell ELF should be taught, it calls for taking steps to cultivate the L2 learning environment aiming to promote ELF awareness. Given the limited input English input quality in Korea (Chung & Bong, 2017), it is high time to widen the scope of learning content, such as to develop learning materials with the inclusion of the authentic usages of diverse English varieties. If KoE were presented as a variety of English in the learning materials, and this general lack of non-native English varieties in the learning context at present could be fulfilled, it may begin to ease concerns of KSLs at any proficiency levels in regard to deepening the prejudice against KoE; and thereby to help KSLs to see themselves as legitimate ELF users.

Although the study has produced a number of useful results in better understanding linguistic prejudice against KoE, there are limitations that need to be noted. The present study only involved Korean English learners at the elementary level, specifically A2 level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The research needs to be extended to include students from a wider range of English proficiency levels with a minimum number of thirty participants in each group. There also need to be further improvements in data analysis. In subsequent studies, using a statistical method to ensure the reliability of the thematic categorization of the items would be more fruitful than calculating Cronbach alpha coefficient alone.

English users are becoming increasingly diverse; nonetheless, the potential impact of linguistic prejudice against speakers with foreign accents has not been discussed as

explicitly as other individual differences. A unique aspect of the present study is that this research directly touched upon the topic of prejudice, which has been considered an influential factor to form attitudes. The current study also provided interesting evidence that linguistic prejudice against L1 accented English can be distinguished depending on which academic field speakers are engaged in and how they would rate themselves in English proficiency. For the linguistic prejudice against KoE to be fully examined, further study should investigate other valid subfactors underlying it, with constant follow up in measuring the degree of prejudice, as it is durable yet possibly transitory in nature.

REFERENCES

Ahn, H. (2014). Teachers' attitudes towards Korean English in South Korea. *World Englishes, 33*(2), 195-222.

Allan, D. (2004). *Oxford placement test 2*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bernaisch, (2012). Attitudes towards Englishes in Sri Lanka. *World Englishes, 31*(3), 279-291.

Bernaish, T., & Koch, C. (2016). Attitudes towards Englishes in India. *World Englishes, 35*(1), 118-132.

Chan, J. Y. H. (2016). A multi-perspective investigation of attitudes toward English accents in Hong Kong: implications for pronunciation teaching. *TESOL Quarterly, 50*(2), 285-313.

Chung, B., & Bong, M. H. K. (2017). A study on perceptions of Korean EFL learners on Four Native Varieties of English Accents. *English Language & Literature Teaching, 23*(1), 17-38.

Cogo, A., & Pitzl, M-L. (2016). Pre-empting and signaling non-understanding in ELF. *ELT Journal, 70*(3), 339-345.

Derwing T. M., & Munro, M. J. (2015). *Pronunciation fundamentals: Evidence-based perspectives for L2 teaching and research*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Deterding, D. (2013). *Misunderstandings in English as a lingua franca: An analysis of ELF interactions in South-east Asia*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Dewey, M. (2007). English as a lingua franca and globalization: an interconnected perspective. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 17*(3), 332-354.

Ellis, R. (2008). *The Study of second language acquisition* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. Sage: London.

Fraser, C. (2009). Attitudes, accents and understanding: Listener characteristics and comprehension of accented speech. In H. Chen and K. Cruickshank (Eds.),

Making a difference: Challenges for applied linguistics (pp. 219-234). Newcastle, UK: Cambridge Scholar Press.

Garrett, P. (2010). *Attitudes to language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gluszek, A., & Dovidio, J. F. (2010). Speaking with a nonnative accent: Perceptions of bias, communication difficulties, and belonging in the United States. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 29*, 224-234.

Ishikawa, T. (2017). Japanese university students' attitudes towards their English and the possibility of ELF awareness. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca, 6*(2), 237-263.

Jenkins, J. (2000). *The phonology of English as an international language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Jenkins, J. (2007). *English as a lingua franca: Attitude and identity*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Kachru, B. B. (1985). Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: the English language in the outer circle. In R. Quirk & H. G. Widdowson (Eds.), *English in the world* (pp. 11-30). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Kirkpatrick, A. (2008). English as the official working language of the association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN): Features and strategies. *English Today, 24*(2), 27-34.

Lambert, W. E., Hodgson, R. C., Gardner, R. C., & Fillenbaum, S. (1960). Evaluational reactions to spoken languages. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 60*(1), 44-51.

Lawrence, C. B. (2012). The Korean English linguistic landscape. *World Englishes, 31*(1), 70-92.

Lee, J. Y., Mo, S. K., Lee, S. H., & Sung, K. (2013). Korean English speakers' perception of East-Asian English speakers' pronunciation. *The Journal of Asia TEFL, 10*(4), 1-40.

Lee, K-Y., & Green, R. W. (2016). A study of Korean university students' perceptions and attitudes. *English Teaching: Practice & Critique, 15*(1), 155-168.

Lindemann, S. (2002). Listening with an attitude: a model of native-speakers comprehension of non-native speakers in the United States. *Language in Society, 31*(3), 419-441.

Lindemann, S. (2003). Koreans, Chinese or Indians? Attitudes and ideologies about non-native English speakers in the United States. *Journal of Sociolinguistics, 7*(3), 348-364.

Matsumoto, Y. (2011). Successful ELF communications and implications for ELT: Sequential analysis of ELF pronunciation negotiation strategies. *The Modern Language Journal, 95*, 97-104.

McKenzie, R. M., & Gilmore, A. (2015). “The people who are out of ‘right’ English”: Japanese university students’ social evaluations of English language diversity and the internationalization of Japanese higher education. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 27*(1), 152-175.

Matsuura, H. (2007). Intelligibility and individual learner difference in the EIL context. *System, 35*, 293-304.

Pennycook, A. (2003). Global Englishes, rip slyme, and performativity. *Journal of Sociolinguistics, 7*(4), 513-533.

Rahimi, M., & Ruzrokh, S. (2016). The impact of teaching Lingua Franca Core on English as a foreign language learners’ intelligibility and attitudes towards English pronunciation. *Asian Englishes, 18*(2), 141-156.

Seidlehofer, B. (2009). Common ground and different realities: World Englishes and English as a lingua franca. *World Englishes, 28*(2), 236-245.

Tokumoto, M., & Shibata, M. (2011). Asian varieties of English: attitudes towards pronunciation. *World Englishes 30*(3), 392-408.

Tomiyana, M. (1980). Grammatical errors communication breakdown. *TESOL Quarterly, 14*(1), 71-179.

Ura, Masako, Preston, K. S. J., & Mearns, J. (2015). A measure of prejudice against accented English (MPAAE): Scale development and validation. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 34*(5), 539–563.

Zahn, C. J., & Hopper, R. (1985). Measuring language attitudes: The speech evaluation instrument. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 4*(2), 113-123

APPENDIX

Questionnaire Survey in Korean (adapted from Ura, et al., 2015)

1 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 영어 말하기를 향상시키기 위한 학습이 필요하다.
2 영어 원어민의 발음은 한국식 영어 발음보다 더 존중 받을 것이다.
3 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 영어 원어민보다 자기주장이 약하다
4 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 영어 원어민만큼 회사 고객들과 유대감을 형성하기 어렵다.
5 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 영어 원어민보다 유익한 정보를 주지 못한다.
6 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 영어 원어민보다 영미권 문화에 적응하기 힘들다.

7 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 영어 원어민만큼 그룹 토론을 이끌어 갈 수 없다.
8 판매 직원이 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하면 신경에 거슬린다.
9 서비스센터에 전화했을 때 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하면 언짢은 느낌이 든다.
10 한국식 영어 발음을 교정한다면 사회에서 더 성공할 수 있을 것이다.
11 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 교수님은 영어 원어민 발음을 가진 교수님보다 유능하지 못하다.
12 나는 영어 원어민 발음을 가진 회사동료와 일을 더 잘 할 수 있다.
13 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람보다 영어 원어민이 영어를 가르치는데 더 적합하다.
14 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어회화를 잘 하지 못한다.
15 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 원어민처럼 관리직에 근무할 수 없다.
16 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 차 딜러는 영어 원어민 차 딜러만큼 판매실적이 좋지 못하다.
17 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 목격자의 말은 영어 원어민 목격자의 말보다 신뢰하기 어렵다.
18 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 사회적 지위가 낮다.
19 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 권위가 낮다.
20 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 설득력이 약하다.
21 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 지적 수준이 낮다.
22 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 권위적이다.
23 교수님께서 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하면 신경에 거슬린다.
24 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 영어 원어민보다 자신감이 낮을 것이다.
25 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 미국시민이 될 수 없다.
26 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 정치가의 말은 영어 원어민 정치가의 말보다 더 듣기 힘들다.
27 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 미국 문화에 익숙하지 않다.
28 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 영어 말하기를 못한다.
29 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 상사와 함께 일하기 불편하다.
30 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 순응적이다.
31 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 영어회화가 필요하지 않은 직업을 가지는 것이 좋다.
32 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민처럼 자신의 의견을 표현할 수 없다.

33 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 덜 직설적이다.
34 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 타인과 소통하는 데 어려움을 느낀다.
35 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민만큼 지적이지 않다.
36 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민처럼 미국인에 속하지 않는다.

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

Bohyon Chung
Department of English Language and Literature
Hanbat National University
125, Dongseodae-ro, Yuseong-gu, Daejeon, South Korea
Email: bchung@hanbat.ac.kr

Received in April 14th, 2018
Reviewed in May 26th, 2018
Revised version received in June 5th, 2018

English Language & Literature Teaching, Vol. 24, No. 2 Summer 2018

Student and Teacher Perceptions of a Performance Assessment for College English Conversation Courses

Daniel James Cuffey[*]
(Eulji University)
Mee Hye Kang[**]
(Eulji University)
Myeong-Hee Seong[***]
(Eulji University)

Cuffey, Daniel James, Kang, Mee Hye & Seong, Myeong-Hee (2018). Student and teacher perceptions of a performance assessment for college English conversation courses. *English Language & Literature Teaching, 24*(2), 21-40.

The purpose of this study was to explore college students' and teachers' perceptions of a performance assessment to see how students and teachers understand it. To do this, a quantitative and qualitative survey was given to 969 sophomore students who enrolled for an English conversation course at a university in Gyeonggi province near Seoul. The survey was also completed by eight native English instructors who taught the English conversation program at the same university. The results show that both teachers and students agreed on the necessity of a performance assessment. Both teachers and students believed that the performance assessment was helpful to improve students' general English ability. Teachers preferred multiple types of tests throughout the semester, but students do not show clear preferences. Students prefer a one-on-one interview to a group presentation, even though they believe the group presentation improves their linguistic ability. Teachers believe the performance assessment helps, but do not strongly agree with maintaining the current project-based performance test. The results imply that maintaining a small class for conversation teachers and providing a comfortable setting for the students are the ways for performance assessments to be successful.

[performance assessment/college English conversation courses/student perceptions/ teacher perceptions]

---

[*] The first author, [**] The second author, [***] The corresponding author

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the introduction of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980) in Korea, which refers to a learner's ability to use language to communicate successfully, a number of studies have been conducted highlighting the necessity of a performance assessment (Han & Jeon, 2001; Kim, 1999; J. Lee, 2002; S. Lee, 2000; Pyo, 2003). One of the primary reasons for language scholars and researchers paying particular attention to performance assessments is that they require the test taker to demonstrate the communication skills the test is targeted to measure by doing real-world tasks, rather than by answering questions asking how to do them. As Kim (1999) points out, traditional discrete-point tests such as multiple choice, paper and pencil, fill-in-the-blank, and true/false tests can only measure what information and/or knowledge the learners have memorized instead of whether the learners can actually use the skills and/or knowledge to produce a product. On a similar line of thought, Lee (2002) argues that a language assessment should be focused on 'what learners can do with the language, not what they know about the language.' Simply put, a performance assessment reflects what learners will use in real-world situations.

However, although performance assessments are considered appropriate tests to measure students' communication skills, in reality, they are not preferred or properly implemented by teachers in Korea (Kim, 2005; Park, 2016). The possible reasons why performance assessments are not implemented as extensively as written assessments are because; they are difficult and complicated to administer, difficult to design meaningful and relevant tasks, and involve rater bias (Hughes, 2003; Luoma, 2004; McNamara, 2000). In a similar vein, a number of studies on performance assessments in the Korean EFL context have admitted that performance assessments have many constraints such as a heavy workload, lack of knowledge/confidence from teachers, and insufficient teacher training (H. Kim, 2003; H. Kim & H. Yun, 2015; S. Lee, 2000; T. Park, 2016).

Despite the fact that there have been a growing number of studies calling for performance assessments in the Korean EFL context, only a few studies have focused on performance assessments using empirical data. For example, Park (2016) examined how performance assessments in the English learning context are being implemented in Korean high schools and how they are perceived by teachers and students. He surveyed 310 English teachers and 284 students using questionnaires and the result showed that speaking assessments are underrepresented when assessing students in most high schools. Additionally, the preferred speaking assessment among high school teachers is an indirect assessment rather than a direct assessment.

Another research paper written by H. Kim & H. Yun (2015) investigates how Korean English teachers perceive a performance assessment. They used a teacher-based assessment framework (Davison & Leung, 2009) to investigate their perceptions of this

style of assessment and their uses for it. For their study, they conducted a survey on 58 Korean English teachers who were teaching in Elementary, Middle, and High schools. The findings revealed that the teachers favored the use of traditional exams and quizzes although they understood the importance of teacher-based assessments in language education.

Although the above studies have provided valuable insights into teachers' and students' perceptions of examinations, they have not examined the perceptions of performance assessments, especially in university settings. As many universities in Korea have employed native speaking English teachers (NSETs) to improve students' communicative competence (Choi & Kang, 2009; Lee, 2001; Lim, 2006; Yang, 2011), it is worthwhile to investigate how teachers and students perceive performance assessments in a university environment. Probing into the currently-used performance assessment will provide a chance to examine the problems and constraints and offer guidelines that teachers should consider in making performance assessments more equitable for their students. The findings of this study will demonstrate the different perceptions of teachers and students on performance assessment and how they differ from each other as well as suggest the ways to improve the current test practice.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

With an emphasis on communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980), the use of a performance assessment has received a great deal of attention in the ESL field. This signals a shift of assessments from receptive skills to communicative performance and a change of testing trends from indirect, discrete point tests to direct, authentic communication (Bachman, 1990). Following this trend, the Korean EFL context has moved from traditional assessments to alternative assessments (Kim, 2005) and a growing number of scholars and teachers insist performance assessments should be employed in language assessment (Han & Jeon, 2001) .

A performance assessment, which follows a similar concept of authentic and alternative assessment, is defined as "a task which requires the learners to use skills and/or the knowledge to produce a product or complete a performance." (Wiggins, 1990). Simply put, a performance assessment is one which requires students to demonstrate that they have mastered specific skills and competencies by performing or producing something. Newmann, Brandt & Wiggins (1998) indicate authentic assessment measures products or performances that are centered on meaningful real-world problems or tasks. Moreover, Meyer (1992) notes that an authentic task or assessment allows students to plan, to complete the work, to self-assess, to revise, and to consult with others. Bass, Magone, and

Glaser (2002) defines that performance assessments give students opportunities to engage in cognitively complex activities such as generating strategies, monitoring work, analyzing information, and applying reasoning skills.

Scholars and researchers perceive performance assessments differently and they describe the characteristics of the assessment diversely. For example, O'Malley & Pierce (1996) described authentic assessment as being integrative and consisting of constructed response, higher-order thinking, and authenticity. Aschbacher (1991) states that alternative assessments require problem solving and higher-level thinking, involve tasks that are worthwhile as instructional activities, use real-world contexts or simulations, focus on processes as well as products, and encourage public disclosure of standards and criteria. Herman, Aschbacher, and Winters (1992) believe that alternative assessments require students to perform, create, produce, or do something; tap into higher level thinking and problem-solving skills; use tasks that represent meaningful instructional activities; approximate real-world applications; ensure that people, not machines, do the scoring, using human judgement; call upon teachers to perform new instructional and assessment roles. Bergen (1993) categorized the qualities of authentic assessment as: 1) group-based project with each individual contribution required for success 2) complexed - it measures many facets simultaneously 3) reflects the real world.

O'Malley & Pierce (1996) categorized common types of authentic assessments and their examples include the following: oral interviews, story or text retelling, writing samples, projects/exhibitions, experiments/demonstrations, constructed-response items, teacher observations, and portfolios. Other cited performance assessment types are composition tests, cloze tests, c-tests, cloze elides, dictation, reduced-forms dictation, oral proficiency interviews, role-play tests, group tests, and task-based tests (Brown & Hudson, 1998).

Despite all the positive contributions that performance assessments can have, many teachers still avoid employing them in their classes. Common concerns are that performance assessments have low construct validity and fairness issues due to subjectivity in rating. Also, it is difficult to design or select efficient assessment instruments as various factors affect the result of performance assessments. For example, the definition of the nature of the test construct, the characteristics of the test-takers, the effect of task types, interlocutor effect, rater reliability and so on (Brown, 2004; McNamara, 1996; O'Sullivan, 2008).

However, there are a number of reasons for the use of performance assessments and they (1) provide clear guidelines for students about teacher expectations (Berk, 1986); (2) reflect real-life challenges (Hart, 1994); (3) make effective use of teacher judgement (Archbald & Newmann, 1988); (4) allow for student differences in style and interests (Wiggins, 1989); and (5) are more engaging than other forms of assessment (Wiggins,

1990). Moreover, Darling-Hammond (2006) states that performance assessments that require students to evaluate and solve complex problems, conduct research, write extensively, and demonstrate their learning in projects, papers and exhibitions have proven to motivate students. Also, open-ended assessments improve the chances for English-learning students to engage with language production and learning, offering unique opportunities for them to express their knowledge in a broader sense than the limited linguistic opportunities given to them in traditional discrete point tests. Performance tasks are also instructional, allowing students to actively engage in worthwhile learning activities within the classroom (Palm, 2008). In performance assessment settings, students may be encouraged to seek out additional information or try various approaches, and in some situations, work in teams. These assessment strategies are all beneficial for English learners as the students benefit from engagement in classroom activities.

III. METHOD

1. Research Questions

The research questions were posed as follows:
1) What are the students' perceptions of a performance assessment?
2) What are the teachers' perceptions of a performance assessment?
3) How do the students' and teachers' perceptions differ from each other?
4) What are the students' and teachers' suggestions for improvement?

2. Participants

A case study was used to investigate the teachers' and students' perceptions of the performance assessment method implemented in the conversation courses during the fall semester of 2017. Eight native English instructors and 969 sophomore students enrolled in an English conversation course at a university located in Gyeonggi province were the participants of this study. The teacher participants consisted of five males and three females, ranging from 30-40 years in age, from various countries such as America, England, Ireland and New Zealand. Their EFL teaching experience varied from two to eleven years. Two have master's degrees in TESOL, two have Master's in Education and the others have Master's in various related fields. Of the 969 participating students, 800 were sophomores and 156 were juniors and seniors. The gender ratio of the student participants was 2:8 (male: female), consisting of 773 girls and 196 boys. The student

participants were assumed to have different educational backgrounds and English levels, however, they all completed English Conversation I as a prerequisite course.

3. Setting

English conversation courses are required for all students and the courses consist of two classes which build upon each other: English Conversation I and English Conversation II. Conversation I is designed to be taken during the spring semester, and Conversation II is designed to be taken during the fall semester. The goal of English Conversation II for this study is to enhance students' communicative competence in English with a focus on speaking. The course is 15 weeks long, and the class met once a week for 100 minutes. The average class size is 20 students, with some fluctuation in the size of classes. The course is partially standardized, using a shared syllabus. The course syllabus outlines 15% participation, 15% attendance, 10% project-related homework (submitting a PPT for the group presentation), 10% project presentation, 10% English Clinic (students visit their professors for a 1:1 interview to demonstrate their project outline), and 40% for a written final exam. The contents are always agreed upon by all professors at a pre-semester meeting.

In the past, a non-standardized course evaluation was implemented by individual professors. For example, some professors used written midterm exams while others employed speaking tests. Additionally, some teachers assigned homework from the book while others assigned homework related to class projects. However, researches attest that speaking assessments are necessary in conversation courses to create a better overall course for students and to push the conversation course to become more closely aligned with the goal on the syllabus, which is to enhance students' communicative competence. Taking this into consideration, the written midterm exam used by most professors was replaced with a speaking assessment, the project-based performance assessment. The assessment was in the form of group presentations and one-on-one interviews. A written final exam was kept in order to keep the courses fair and to offset the difficulties of assessing speaking exams. The idea is that this would boost the conversational nature of the courses, while still maintaining fairness in grading through a final written test. The final exams had a standardized format while still allowing teachers to design their own questions.

4. Overview of the project-based performance assessment

Students were formed in groups of 3-4 in the beginning of the semester. They chose their preferred topics or topics of interest from the textbook, Master Debate. After they

chose their topics, they visited their professors individually and demonstrated an outline of their presentation. Students were told in class that they should visit their professors from week 3 to week 8 for one-on-one interviews (English Clinic). In English Clinic, students were only assessed based on a pass/fail basis and they were given make-up interviews, if they had failed. After everyone in the group finished their interviews, they started making a PowerPoint of their project together and submitted it before their presentation. Around week 11, students delivered and video-recorded their presentation in class and uploaded their video on YouTube. Professors selected the top performed presentation from their class and voted for the top seven performances among the compiled videos. Those chosen groups performed their presentation at the university-wide competition and received prizes such as the University President's Awards and scholarships.

The paper focused on the performance assessment by looking at student and professor perceptions of this new assessment method. In summation, the primary change enacted during the Fall 2017 Semester was the following: Written midterm exams were eliminated and replaced with a performance assessment; The performance assessment consisted of visiting English Clinic, completing an outline and PowerPoint for homework, doing a 1-on-1 interview with a professor, and presenting a group presentation to the class. All of these steps built upon each other and were related to a topic from the course textbook.

5. Data Collection

At the end of the Fall Semester, students and professors completed an in-class survey to detail their perceptions of the project-based performance assessment used for Conversation II in Fall 2017. The survey had 18 closed-ended questions and the questions were broken into three sections. Both students and professors answered the same 18 questions based on a five-point scale ranging from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). In addition, two open-ended questions were supplemented for participants to illustrate the advantages and disadvantages of the currently employed performance assessment.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As Lee (2002) notes, an assessment should focus on what learners can do with the language, and not what they know about the language. That is the whole basis for the department's decision to switch to a performance assessment away from written midterm exams. After implementing this change, it is important to see what the students find to be the strengths and weaknesses of this new performance assessment. The questions are

designed to gauge the students' sentiment as completely as possible over all aspects of the performance assessment. The questionnaires consist of three sections: preferences of spoken and written tests for conversation courses; perceptions of the structure and assessment methods selected for the performance assessment; overall perceptions of the performance assessment and its effect on English abilities and the classroom environment.

The first section of questions (Table 1) is to elicit teacher and student perceptions on spoken and written tests for conversation courses. The questions are:

1) Speaking tests are necessary for conversation classes.
2) Both speaking and written tests are necessary.
3) Speaking tests should be conducted only once during the semester.
4) Speaking tests should be conducted several times per course.

TABLE 1
Teacher and Student Preferences of Spoken and Written Tests for Conversation Courses
Number (%)

Q.	Student					Teacher				
	SD	D	N	A	SA	SD	D	N	A	SA
1.	59 (7)	163 (17)	268 (27)	353 (36)	126 (13)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (12.5)	3 (37.5)	4 (50)
2.	92 (9)	238 (25)	291 (30)	265 (27)	83 (9)	1 (12.5)	0 (0)	1 (12.5)	3 (37.5)	3 (37.5)
3.	49 (6)	113 (12)	285 (29)	397 (41)	125 (13)	1 (12.5)	2 (25)	2 (25)	2 (25)	1 (12.5)
4.	45 (5)	106 (11)	329 (34)	352 (36)	137 (14)	0 (0)	1 (12.5)	2 (25)	4 (50)	1 (12.5)

*SD- Strongly Disagree, D- Disagree, N- Neutral, A- Agree, SA- Strongly Agree

For the 1st item, 'speaking tests are necessary for conversation classes' seven out of the eight professors agree that speaking tests are needed for conversation courses, while six out of the eight professors agree with the 2nd item that 'both speaking and writing tests are necessary'. Professors responded, '*It is important to test students' speaking skill as the goal of this course is to enhance their conversational skill.*', '*Speaking tests are necessary, but written tests are also important because they have no rater bias and subjectivity*'. This mirrors a similar correlation to the students as 49% believe speaking tests are necessary, but only 36% believe that both speaking and written tests are necessary. Students explained, '*A speaking test is essential in conversation classes, but it is unfair because*

natural English speakers will surely perform better than unnatural speakers.' This indicates that students and professors marginally consider speaking tests more essential for conversation courses when compared to written tests. This bodes well for the performance assessment as the main purpose is to make the course more conversational.

The performance assessment also aims to take a more holistic approach to assessing speaking by requiring students to complete a few speaking tasks throughout the semester instead of only one large speaking test. The 3rd and the 4th items address this issue. On the 3rd item, 'speaking tests should be conducted only once during the semester', three professors believe that speaking tests should be conducted only once per semester while two were neutral and three disagreed. For the 4th item, 'speaking tests should be conducted several times per course', five professors agree that speaking tests should be conducted several times throughout the semester, with only two neutral and one professor disagreeing. Conversely, 54% of the students agree that speaking tests should be conducted only once per semester while 50% of the students believe that they should be conducted several times.

This is not an overwhelming difference, but it does indicate a small divergence between professor and student opinions on the holistic nature of the performance assessment. Overall, professors seem to prefer multiple speaking tests spread out throughout the semester while students do not show a clear preference. Students stated the performance assessment requires '*…intensive labor…*' and is '*…time consuming...*'. This reaction could be a result of their overall course load, and a desire to decrease this amount, instead of a reaction based on pedagogy. That is, professors may prefer multiple speaking tests as it can be difficult to accurately grade students with only one chance on a speaking test. The students' response could stem from their desire to reduce the number of tests, even though multiple tests are beneficial. In sum, both student and teacher participants do seem to agree that speaking tests are necessary in conversation courses despite showing different preferences on the frequency of tests.

Table 2 describes teacher and student perceptions of the structure and assessment methods selected for the performance assessment. The questions are:

5) A 1-on-1 interview is the best performance assessment method.
6) English Clinic with a Group presentation is better than an interview to assess speaking skills.
7) The presentation topic plays an important role in the performance assessment.
8) English Clinic is helpful to improve speaking competence.
9) English Clinic is helpful to improve the group presentation.
10) The performance assessment consisting of homework (PPT submission) and a group presentation is adequate.

11) The current structure of the performance assessment should be maintained.

TABLE 2
Teacher and Student Perceptions of the Structure and Assessment Methods Selected for the Performance Assessment

Number (%)

Q.	Student					Teacher				
	SD	D	N	A	SA	SD	D	N	A	SA
5.	57 (6)	132 (14)	282 (29)	340 (35)	158 (16)	1 (0)	2 (25)	3 (37.5)	2 (25)	1 (12.5)
6.	68 (7)	221 (23)	331 (34)	247 (25)	102 (11)	2 (25)	2 (25)	3 (37.5)	0 (0)	1 (12.5)
7.	26 (2)	114 (12)	349 (36)	376 (39)	104 (11)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (50)	3 (37.5)	1 (12.5)
8.	40 (4)	127 (13)	392 (40)	316 (33)	94 (10)	2 (25)	1 (12.5)	0 (0)	3 (37.5)	2 (25)
9.	34 (3)	100 (10)	340 (35)	363 (38)	132 (14)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (50)	4 (50)
10.	26 (3)	77 (8)	351 (36)	403 (41)	112 (12)	1 (12.5)	0 (0)	4 (50)	2 (25)	1 (12.5)
11.	22 (2)	89 (9)	326 (34)	393 (41)	139 (14)	1 (12.5)	0 (0)	5 (62.5)	2 (25)	0 (0)

*SD- Strongly Disagree, D- Disagree, N- Neutral, A- Agree, SA- Strongly Agree

On the 5th item, ‘a 1-on-1 interview is the best performance assessment method’, more than 50% of the students indicate that they believe a 1-on-1 interview is the best assessment method. This likely stems from a student preference to speak English in front of an audience of one instead of many people. Students noted that they ‘*…dislike public speaking…*’, which fits the data presented here. Especially because the students are comparing the presentation directly with the interview, so one choice requires public speaking while the other does not. Conversely, only two professors agree with the 5th item showing a divergence from student opinions. Professors responded, ‘*One-on-one interviews are much more time consuming and difficult to schedule while group presentations generally require less time.*’, ‘*One-on-one interview is an ideal way of assessing students’ speaking skills but seeing more than 100 students individually is impossible.*’

For the 6th item, ‘English Clinic with a Group presentation is better than an interview to assess speaking skills’, only one professor agrees while three are neutral and four disagree.

Similarly, only 36% of the students agree that English Clinic along with the Group Presentation is the best way to assess speaking skills. The professors and students both indicate that interviews are marginally better in terms of assessment methods when compared to group presentations.

On the 7th item, 'the presentation topic plays an important role in the performance assessment', four professors agree while the other four are neutral. This exactly mirrors the student sentiment with 50% of the students agreeing that the presentation topic is important. They said, '*The topic motivates us to participate.*', '*If a topic is interesting, we enjoy talking about it.*' The professors and students both seemingly agree that the topic should be interesting and relevant to the course material when designing a performance assessment.

The 8th and the 9th items focus on English Clinic and its usefulness for students. English Clinic is a communication channel to give students an extra chance to talk with their professor outside of class and it is required for all students in conversation courses. Five professors agree with the 8th item, 'English Clinic is helpful for speaking competence', while three professors disagree. For students, 43% agree, while 17% disagree. Additionally, all professors agree with the 9th item, 'English Clinic is helpful for the group presentation', along with 52% of the students. Professors said, '*It is a good chance to help students individually.*' This item shows the strongest agreement for the professors out of all the others. It can be said that the professors truly value this time outside of class to provide extra support for the students. The students also agree but not as strongly as the professors. Students contended, '*It is difficult to visit professors due to their limited time of availability.*', '*Seeing professors for such a short time does not offer any valuable help*.' This could be a result of the students having difficulty scheduling time with their professors due to their busy schedules and lack of extra time.

Three professors agree with the 10th item, 'the performance assessment consisting of homework (PPT submission) and a group presentation is adequate', while four are neutral and one disagrees. The students had a slightly higher agreement at 53%. This indicates that the students are mostly satisfied with the current requirements for the performance assessment. Additionally, the 10th item had a very low rate of disagreement for both the professors and students with only one professor and 11% of the students. This is likely because the requirements for the performance assessment were decided before the semester and presented clearly to the students as soon as possible.

For the 11th item, 'the current structure of the performance assessment should be maintained', two professors agree while five are neutral and one disagrees. Conversely, 55% of the students agree that the current performance assessment should be maintained. Their reasons are '*It provides opportunities to speak in English*.', '*It helps to build presentation skills*', '*It helps to build teamwork*'. This indicates that the students are content with the

current performance assessment. However, professors suggest making some changes. Professors responded, '*Scripted presentations are not a realistic measure of true conversation ability*.', '*The textbook is focused on conversation and the test does not reflect students' learning*.' This calls for a change of curriculum or a textbook which aligns with the assessment.

Table 3 demonstrates overall teacher and student perceptions of the performance assessment and its effect on English abilities and the classroom environment. The questions are:

12) The performance assessment improves overall English ability.
13) The group presentation improves linguistic competence.
14) The group presentation is a good chance for students to interact.
15) The performance assessment provides a positive learning environment.
16) The performance assessment is a creative and meaningful task.
17) The performance assessment helps teachers measure students' overall English ability.
18) The performance assessment meets the goals of the course.

TABLE 3
Teacher and Student Overall Perceptions of the Performance Assessment and Its Effect on English Abilities and the Classroom Environment

Number (%)

Q.	Student					Teacher				
	SD	D	N	A	SA	SD	D	N	A	SA
12	29 (3)	103 (11)	460 (47)	301 (31)	76 (8)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (25)	4 (50)	2 (25)
13	30 (3)	75 (8)	286 (29)	451 (47)	127 (13)	0 (0)	1 (12.5)	1 (12.5)	4 (50)	1 (12.5)
14	22 (2)	103 (11)	400 (41)	355 (37)	89 (9)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (12.5)	4 (50)	3 (37.5)
15	33 (3)	140 (15)	378 (39)	340 (35)	78 (8)	0 (0)	1 (12.5)	2 (25)	3 (37.5)	2 (25)
16	25 (2)	113 (12)	407 (42)	338 (35)	86 (9)	0 (0)	1 (12.5)	2 (25)	3 (37.5)	2 (25)
17	24 (2)	76 (8)	372 (39)	401 (41)	96 (10)	1 (12.5)	0 (0)	3 (37.5)	2 (25)	2 (25)
18	23 (2)	126 (13)	404 (42)	339 (35)	77 (8)	1 (12.5)	1 (12.5)	4 (50)	1 (12.5)	0 (0)

*SD- Strongly Disagree, D- Disagree, N- Neutral, A- Agree, SA- Strongly Agree

For the 12th item, six professors agree that 'the performance assessment improves overall English ability' while two are neutral. Conversely, 39% of the students agree and 47% are neutral. However, through the interviews, students stated, '*It improves my vocabulary skills as I have to look up on the dictionary to find words in English.*', '*Researching in English helps me to develop my reading skills.'* This reflects the students' belief that the group presentation improves linguistic competence specifically when compared to overall ability. Four professors agree that the performance assessment helps teachers measure overall English ability while three are neutral and one disagrees. It seems both teachers and students agree that the performance assessment is effective in developing general English ability.

Item 13, 'the group presentation improves linguistic competence', has the strongest student agreement of all other items at 60%. The students believe that the group presentation improves linguistic competence, yet they still prefer a 1-on-1 interview. This further supports the notion that the preference for a 1-on-1 interview comes from a dislike of public speaking rather than a belief that group presentations are ineffective.

Seven professors agree with the 14th item 'the group presentation is a good chance for students to interact' while one is neutral. Professors said, '*It helps students get to know each other better and builds teamwork.'* However, the students were not as positive about the chance for interaction as a result of the group presentation at 46%.

Along the same lines, more than 60% of the professors show agreement with the 15th item, 'the performance assessment provides a positive learning environment' while only 43% of the students agree. This indicates that the students did not perceive the overall classroom environment to be as positive as the professors believed it to be.

Five professors agree, while two are neutral and one disagrees with the 16th item 'the performance assessment is a creative and meaningful task'. For the students, 44% agree with this which indicates the performance assessment has some room for improvement. As the development of this assessment is an ongoing process, the professors also believe there is room for improvement. This is verified by the fact that only two professors agree with the 18th item 'performance assessment meets the goals of the course' while four are neutral and two disagree. 43% of the students agree with this which indicates that some work could be done to create a performance assessment that more closely aligns with the course goals.

Interestingly, a slight majority of the students felt that the homework for the performance assessment was suitable and that the current performance assessment should be maintained. Despite this satisfaction from the students, the professors did not agree that the current performance assessment should stay. This mirrors the professors' preference to run the courses in their own way, not following the shared curriculum, as well as the load of work, even though group presentations and interviews were the best assessment methods.

The student agreement was 51% on the 17th item, 'the performance assessment helps teachers measure students' overall English ability', indicating that they believe the performance assessment is an effective tool for evaluating students. Half of the professors also agreed that it is an effective method of assessment. Additionally, 43% of the students agree that the performance assessment meets the goals of the course. On the other hand, 42% were neutral and only 15% disagreed with this statement. This shows that the performance assessment is aligned with the goals of the course according to the students. However, this also means that in order to further align this course project with the conversational goals of this class, some changes will need to be made. The teachers attest that the project-based performance assessment is not designed to measure students' conversational skills and could be improved upon.

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The aim of this study was to investigate college student and teacher perceptions on the currently employed multiple performance assessment. The research findings reveal that teacher and student perceptions on the assessment are not in consensus and they have different perspectives on the assessment practice.

Based on the findings, the students and professors both consider speaking tests to be marginally more important compared to written tests for conversation courses. This aligns well with the goals of the performance assessment. Professors prefer multiple tests throughout the semester, while students do not show a clear preference of multiple tests. This is presumably a result of differing interests between professors and students. Professors are likely concerned with accurately assessing students, which is easier to do across multiple speaking tests, while students desire to decrease their course load.

Next, the professors and students both perceive group presentations and one-on-one interviews as beneficial for college English conversation courses. However, the students likely dislike public speaking which can be confirmed through the results. As the figures present, the students recognize the linguistic value of the group presentation yet they still prefer one-on-one interviews when given a choice. This seems to be strongly favored by students in order to use English in a more comfortable setting instead of in front of a large audience. Yet, teachers assert one-on-one interviews are not ideal as they require heavy teaching hours and meeting a large number of students. This implies that the performance assessment was successful but can be improved with some changes. Specifically, developing strategies for a more comfortable setting for the group presentation and maintaining a speaking assessment for a sizeable percent of the final grade are optimal for a conversation class.

The results also suggest to provide students with more communication channels, such as English Clinic, to help students throughout the project. Both students and teachers agree that English Clinic is beneficial, but it is important to provide such channels in qualitative and quantitative ways. Moreover, the topic seems important for a performance assessment. The topic should be related to the course and interesting for the students to add extra motivation.

In sum, teachers preferred multiple types of tests throughout the semester, but students do not show clear preferences. Students prefer a one-on-one interview to a group presentation, even though they believe the group presentation improves their linguistic ability. Teachers believe the performance assessment helps, yet they do not strongly agree with maintaining the performance test. The results imply that maintaining small classes for conversation teachers and creating a comfortable setting for the students are the ways for the performance assessment to be successful.

Despite the constraints we have in conducting the performance assessment, it is still important and worthwhile for teachers to maintain the test as our goal is to help students use the language communicatively in the real world. While every preference and opinion of students and teachers cannot be acted upon, the findings give simple guidelines that teachers and test developers can use to acknowledge the complexity of performance assessment practices.

Going forward, it is important to propose specific ideas in order to improve upon the current performance assessment. Based on the data, it is clear that maintaining small class sizes is important for the performance assessment and would be beneficial for students and professors. When assessing students through one-on-one interviews, smaller class sizes lighten the load on professors. Also, as noted before, students prefer interviews to presentations and are more comfortable without a large audience. However, the students still note that presentations are necessary in conversation classes. This is an important skill that will likely be used by many students after graduation. For this reason, the presentation should not be eliminated and should be a part of future performance assessments. Keeping this in mind, there are some changes that can be made to the current presentation style in order to create a more comfortable presenting environment. Aside from keeping class sizes small, students could alternatively present in subgroups.

Using this method, the class would be divided by the professor into groups. On presentation day, each subgroup would go to a different room and students would present in front of a smaller audience. While the different groups of students are presenting, the professor would have to rotate around to the different classrooms. In order to maintain grading accuracy, videos would still need to be taken of every presentation. This way the professor would be able to watch the presentations in their entirety at a later time when grading. For this to work, students would be responsible for filming other students in

each presentation room. This could prove to be empowering for students as they would be taking part in the management of the presentation process. Presenting in subgroups would create the atmosphere and comfort of a small class even if a particular language department does not have the luxury of keeping all conversation classes under a designated number.

Additionally, professors noted that scripted presentations are not always the best indicators of language ability. A non-scripted speaking assessment could take the place of a group presentation in future performance assessments. One example of a potential non-scripted speaking assessment is a group debate. This would require students to demonstrate their conversational ability without simply memorizing a script. If a group debate was implemented, students would be presented with their topic early in the semester and given time to research and prepare. English Clinic could still be used in a performance assessment with a debate. Students would visit English Clinic for help with research instead of for help with a script.

In summation, a performance assessment based on the feedback from this paper would retain some aspects but could also benefit from some changes. More specifically, English Clinic would remain as both students and professors viewed that favorably. The one-on-one interview would also remain, but it would be important to keep class sizes small so professors could dedicate ample time to each student. If it is not possible to reduce class sizes, then adjustments can be made. For example, the time for each individual interview could be shortened. Additionally, the group presentation could change from being scripted to non-scripted so the professors can more accurately assess students' language ability. When presenting the group debate in class, students could be divided into subgroups and assigned to different rooms in order to retain the comfort of a small class. This means the newly proposed performance assessment would consist of English Clinic, a one-on-one interview, and a non-scripted group presentation.

These proposed changes are based on the feedback from the questionnaire given to students and teachers. However, it should be noted that this study has limitations due to a small sample size, and therefore cannot be generalized for all teachers and students. More information needs to be collected and analyzed in future research. However, considering the scarcity of research on teacher and student perceptions of performance assessments in university settings, we believe this kind of empirical study will provide useful information to teachers and test developers for designing and making similar performance assessments in the future.

REFERENCES

Archbald, D.A., & Newmann, F.M. (1988). *Beyond standardized testing: Assessing authentic academic achievement in the secondary school.* Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

Aschbacher, P. A. (1991). Performance assessment: State activity, interest, and concerns. *Applied Measurement: Issues and Practice, 11*, 36-44.

Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bass, K. M., Magone, M. E., & Glaser, R. (2002). *Informing the design of performance assessments using a content-process analysis of two NAEP science tasks.* (CSE Technical Report No. 564). Los Angeles: National Center for Research on Evaluation, Standards, and Student Testing.

Bergen, D. (1993). Authentic performance assessments. *Childhood Education, 70*(2), 99-102.

Berk, L. E. (1986). Relationship of elementary school children's private speech to behavioral accompaniment to task, attention, and task performance. *Developmental Psychology, 22*, 671–680.

Brown, H.D. (2004). *Language assessment: Principles and classroom practice:* White Plains, NY Pearson Education.

Brown, J. D., & Hudson, T. (1998). The alternatives in language assessment. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(4), 653.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches of second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics, 1*, 1-47.

Choi, Hoon, & Kang, Jung-Hye. (2009). Native English-speaking teachers, EFL education system, college student's English learning, English conversation class, EFL student. *The Association of English Language and Literature in Korea, 35*(1), 295-321.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2006). No child left behind and high school reform. *Harvard Educational Review, 76*(4), 642–667.

Davison, Chris & Leung, Constant. (2009). Current issues in English language teacher-based assessment. *TESOL Quarterly, 43*(3), 393-415.

Han, Jong-Im & Jeon, Ji-Hyun. (2001). A study of performance assessment of English oral communicative competence based on the 7th national curriculum. *Foreign Languages Education, 8*(2), 193-222.

Hart, D. (1994). *Authentic assessment: A handbook for education.* California: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

Herman, J. L., Aschbacher, P.R., & Winters, L. (1992). *A practical guide to alternative assessment.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum

Development.

Hughes, A. (2003). *Testing for language teachers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kim, Chong-hoon. (1999). A study on performance assessments in English education. *Education Science Research, 1*(1), 139-179.

Kim, Eun-Jeong. (2005). The teachers' test construction practices in a college English program: A case study. *English Teaching, 60*(2), 267-283.

Kim, H. Y (2003). The types of speaking assessment tasks used by Korean junior secondary school English teachers. *Asian EFL Journal.* December, 1-30.

Kim, Hoe Kyeung & Yun, Hongoak. (2015). Promoting teacher-based assessment: Korean English teachers' perceptions of assessment and its applications. *Teacher Education Research, 54*(2), 171-187.

Lee, Hwa-ja. (2001). The role of native English-speaking teachers in the Korean EFL education system. *The Study of English Education, 6*(2), 33-67.

Lee, Jong-Bok. (2002). An assessment model for proficiency oriented English instruction in college English. *English Language & Literature Teaching, 8*(2), 177-196.

Lee, Soyoung. (2000). Multiple-choice testing and performance assessment: From opposition to harmony. *Foreign Languages Education, 7*(2), 219-232.

Lim, Jeong-Wan. (2006). A case study of general English course evaluation based on a questionnaire. *Modern English Education, 7*(2), 130-149.

Luoma, S. (2004). *Assessing speaking.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

McNamara, T. F. (1996). *Measuring second language performance.* London: Longman.

McNamara, T. F. (2000). *Language testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Meyer, C. (1992). What's the difference between authentic and performance assessment? *Educational Leadership, 49*(8), 39-40.

Newmann, F., Brandt, R. & Wiggins, G. (1998). An exchange of views on semantics, psychometrics, and assessment reform: a close look at 'authentic' assessments. *Educational Researcher, 27*(6), 19-22.

O'Malley, J. M., & Valdez. Pierce, L. (1996*). Authentic assessment for English language learner: Practical approaches for teachers.* New York: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

O'Sullivan, B. (2008). Notes on assessing speaking. Retrieved November 10, 2014, from the World Wide Web:http://www.Irc.cornell.edu/events/past/2008-2009.osull.pdf

Palm, Torulf. (2008). Performance assessment and authentic assessment: A conceptual analysis of the literature. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation, 13*(4), 23-40.

Park, Taejoon. (2016). Examining how performance assessment in English is being implemented in high schools and how it is perceived by teachers and students. *Secondary English Education, 9*(3), 77-98.

Pyo, Kyung-Hyun. (2003). A case study of general English course evaluation in classrooms. *Foreign Languages Education, 10*(2), 273-290.

Wiggins, G. (1989). A true test: Toward more authentic and equitable assessment. *Phi Delta Kappan, 70*(9), 703-716.

Wiggins, G. (1990). The case for authentic assessment. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation, 2*(2).

Yang, Taesun. (2011). Korean university students' perceptions about native and non -native English speaking teachers in TEE course. *English Language & Literature teaching, 17*(3). 237-254.

APPENDIX

I. Please answer to the questions below with SD (Strongly Disagree), D (Disagree), N (Neutral), A (Agree), SA (Strongly Agree).

1) Speaking tests are necessary for conversation classes.
2) Both speaking and written tests are necessary.
3) Speaking tests should be conducted only once during the semester.
4) Speaking tests should be conducted several times per course.
5) A 1-on-1 interview is the best performance assessment method.
6) English Clinic with a Group presentation is better than an interview to assess speaking skills.
7) The presentation topic plays an important role in the performance assessment.
8) English Clinic improves speaking competence.
9) English Clinic improves the group presentation.
10) The performance assessment consisting of homework (PPT submission) and a group presentation is adequate.
11) The current structure of the performance assessment should be maintained.
12) The performance assessment improves overall English ability.
13) The group presentation improves linguistic competence.
14) The group presentation is a good chance for students to interact.
15) The performance assessment provides a positive learning environment.
16) The performance assessment is a creative and meaningful task.
17) The performance assessment helps teachers measure students' overall English ability.
18) The performance assessment meets the goals of the course.

II. Please answer to the questions below.

1) What are the advantages of the current performance assessment?
2) What are the disadvantages of the current performance assessment?

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

Daniel James Cuffey
Faculty of Liberal Arts
Eulji University
Sanseongdae-ro 553, Seongnam-si
Gyeonggi-do, 13135, Korea
Email: Daniel.cuffey@gmail.com

Mee Hye Kang
Faculty of Liberal Arts
Eulji University
Sanseongdae-ro 553, Seongnam-si
Gyeonggi-do, 13135, Korea
Email: unipingu@gmail.com

Myeong-Hee Seong
Faculty of Liberal Arts
Eulji University
Sanseongdae-ro 553, Seongnam-si
Gyeonggi-do, 13135, Korea
Email: seong@eulji.ac.kr

Received in April 14th, 2018
Reviewed in May 26th, 2018
Revised version received in June 5th, 2018

English Language & Literature Teaching, Vol. 24, No. 2 Summer 2018

Factors Detrimental to Oral Communication in Secondary School Contexts*

Woo-hyun Jung
(Yeungnam University)

Jung, Woo-hyun (2018). Factors detrimental to oral communication in secondary school contexts. *English Language & Literature Teaching, 24*(2), 41-67.

This study aims to explore factors inhibiting L2 learners' oral communication in Korean EFL secondary school contexts. For this purpose, this study employed a questionnaire survey, which consisted of six overall types of communication obstacles: linguistic, background knowledge, cognitive, affective, interactional, and institutional domains. A total of 337 questionnaires were collected from three student groups: middle school, general high school, and vocational high school students. The results show that the vocational high school students face greater trouble with linguistic, background knowledge, cognitive and affective factors than do the middle school and general high school groups when speaking English. They also show that institutional factors cause greater speaking problems for the general and vocational high school students than for the middle school students. A comparison between engineering and commercial high school students reveals no statistically significant differences in most of the communication barriers except for the institutional factors. Another noteworthy finding is that many subsets of communication obstacles in the vocational high school group are significantly correlated with each other, one problem interacting with another. On the basis of the results, pedagogical implications are provided together with helpful suggestions for overcoming speaking difficulties in secondary school contexts. (195)

[oral communication/speaking difficulties/communicative competence]

I. INTRODUCTION

With the advent of the theory of communicative competence (Hymes, 1972) and the practice of communicative language teaching, the teaching of speaking or oral communication skills has become the focal point in many ESL classrooms (Lazaraton,

* This research was supported by the Yeungnam University research grants in 2018.

2001). Ur (1996) also took a similar position, regarding speaking as the most important skill among four language skills. Despite its significance, speaking is considered as one of the most difficult aspects of language learning (Brown & Yule, 1983) or the greatest challenge for all language learners (Pinter, 2006).

This inspired L2 researchers to delve into what factors make speaking difficult. A substantial amount of research has reported that learners' speaking difficulties are caused by a wide variety of factors ranging from linguistic to affective factors. Among these factors, affective factors have drawn utmost attention thus far. For example, Brown (2007) argued that one of the major obstacles learners have to overcome in learning to speak is anxiety generated over the risks of blurting things out that are wrong, stupid, or incomprehensible. Although the previous studies on the impediments to oral performance are appealing and informative, they have several limitations. First, they paid too much attention to an exploration of affective factors, especially anxiety (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Liu & Littlewood, 1997; Park, 2006; Tsui, 1996) with much less consideration of other factors inhibiting oral communication. Second, this line of research focused too heavily on university students (e.g. Ferris, 1998; Kim, 2006; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Pae, 2013; Park, 2004b) without due heed to secondary school students. This is especially true in Korean EFL contexts since to date little has been known about the difficulties secondary school students encounter when speaking English.

The current research is therefore an attempt to fill this gap by building upon the previous studies dealing with potential blocks to students' oral communication. The main purpose of the study is to identify what kinds of speaking difficulties are encountered by students in three types of secondary schools: middle school, general high school, and vocational high school. This study pays special attention to the vocational high schools since they are classified as a specialized high school, which seeks to provide students with vocational education or technical instructions so that they can prepare for the workplace, especially in the engineering and commercial fields. The purpose of this research merits exploration in that the main goal of English education in Korean EFL secondary school settings is to help students develop their communicative competence, but secondary education has not been so successful in the development of communicative competence. In this sense, it is of significance to identify factors hampering learners' speaking performance, which will eventually lead to their effective communication.

On the basis of the research purpose, this study addresses three main research questions, as shown in the following:

(a) Are there any differences in each domain of communication obstacles among the middle school, general high school, and vocational high school student groups?

(b) Are there any differences in each domain of communication obstacles between the engineering and commercial high school student groups?
(c) Is there any relationship among the six domains of communication obstacles in the vocational high school student group?

The first research question compares three types of secondary school student groups, while the remaining two questions focus on the vocational high school students.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Oral Communication Skill

Speaking skill is complex in nature since successful oral communication is possible when L2 speakers equip themselves with a wide range of knowledge and sub-skills. The complexity of learning to speak in another language is reflected in the range and type of sub-skills that are entailed in L2 oral production: Learners must simultaneously attend to content, morphosyntax and lexis, discourse and information structuring, and the sound system and prosody, as well as appropriate register and pragmalinguistic features (Tarone, 2005).

Earlier, Canale and Swain (1980) classified communicative competence into four components such as grammatical competence (grammatical, phonological, and lexical knowledge), discourse competence (cohesion and coherence), sociolinguistic competence (sociocultural knowledge), and strategic competence (verbal and nonverbal communication strategies). This model is further developed by Bachman (1990). Her model is made up of two main components: organizational competence and pragmatic competence with the former involving grammatical and textual knowledge and the latter involving knowledge of illocutionary conventions and sociolinguistic conventions. In her model, strategic competence plays a crucial role since it serves an executive function of making the final decision (Bachman, 1990).

Casting doubt on the validity of the previous models of communicative competence, Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1995) provided detailed content specifications for the constituent components of communicative competence, which includes five components: linguistic competence, discourse competence, actional competence, sociocultural competence, and strategic competence.

While these models have their own characteristics, it is crucial that L2 learners should have adequate preparation for each component of communicative competence. If they do not equip themselves with a particular component of communicative competence, it can

serve as a debilitating force of oral communication, which is directly linked to the purpose of the present study.

2. Previous Studies on Oral Communication Obstacles

The issue of oral communication obstacles has been widely explored in ESL and EFL contexts.

1) ESL and Non-Korean EFL Contexts

In ESL and Asian EFL contexts, it has been reported that L2 learners' speaking difficulties can be caused by a multitude of factors ranging from poor linguistic knowledge to psychological and affective factors. For example, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) noted that mismatches and misunderstanding in oral communication could be the result of any of the following problems: lack of linguistic knowledge, lack of background knowledge, lack of sociocultural rules of appropriacy. In a similar vein, Burns and Joyce (1997) identified three main factors which cause a reluctance to speak English: linguistic, cultural, and/or psychological/affective factors.

On the other hand, Ur (1996) presented four major factors impeding speaking skill: inhibition (e.g. worry about making mistakes or losing face), nothing to say, low or uneven participation, and mother-tongue use. Similar claims are evident in Shumin's (2002) study since she considers affective factors (anxiety, fear of making mistakes or losing face) and sociocultural factors (interference of cultural norms) as potential blocks to L2 learners' oral communication.

Some studies focused on linguistic factors as contributory to oral performance. Brown (2007) provided eight features of spoken language which may make speaking difficult: unmanageable clusters of words, redundancy, reduced forms, performance variables (e.g. false starts), colloquial language, rate of delivery, stress and intonation, and rules of interaction. In an examination of the perceptions of ESL learners with regard to their communication difficulties, Derwing and Rossiter (2002) focused particularly on pronunciation problems, arguing that pronunciation is a factor contributing to the learners' communication problems.

Although some studies identified lack of linguistic knowledge as a factor hampering speaking skill, copious research has focused considerable attention upon affective factors. In ESL settings, Liu and Kuo (1996) examined the impact of affective variables on graduate students' oral classroom participation. They showed that the learners have the potential to speak up in their academic content courses, but they are overcautious in risk-taking and socializing, which is the main hindrance to their speaking performances. In

another study conducted in ESL contexts, Ferris (1998) explored students' perceptions of their own difficulties in the aural/oral skills and revealed that the students expressed a general lack of confidence in their speaking skill, which inhibited their oral interaction. Unlike Ferris's (1998) study, Tsui (1996) delved into teachers' perceptions of the factors causing students' lack of participation in oral interactions. From the point of view of the teachers, the students had five speaking problems such as students' low English proficiency, students' fear of mistakes, teachers' intolerance of silence, uneven allocation of turns, and incomprehensible input. These factors, Tsui argued, contribute to language anxiety, which is a critical factor inhibiting oral interactions. The same is also true in Chilean EFL contexts. Gregerson and Horwitz (2002) examined the reactions of Chilean EFL learners to their actual oral performance and indicated that anxious and non-anxious learners differ in their oral performance standards, fear of evaluation, and concern over errors.

Many studies on communication obstacles have been carried out in Chinese EFL contexts. Interestingly, most of these studies attributed the learners' speaking difficulties to affective factors. For example, Liu and Littlewood (1997) raised a question as to why East Asian students are reluctant to participate in classroom learning discourse and showed that this is largely due to lack of confidence in spoken English and anxiety from high-performance expectations. A very similar tendency seems evident in Jackson's (2002) study, which revealed that Chinese EFL students' obstacles to English discussions include lack of confidence, anxiety, fear of making mistakes, and fear of losing face. His collaborative research (Liu & Jackson, 2008) also demonstrated the great influence of Chinese EFL learners' willingness to communicate and language anxiety on oral communication.

2) Korean EFL Contexts

Research on Korean students' communication obstacles has flourished over the past several decades. Earlier, Pae (1984) argued that Korean students' speaking skill is impeded by a wide variety of factors including L1 and L2 differences, the neglect of oral skills, the cultural climate surrounding Korean students, and educational facilities. These findings, however, were not empirically based.

Pae's (1984) findings do not always hold true in more recent research. For example, Jung and Oh (2005) looked into what makes oral communication difficult at the Korean EFL adult level and revealed that major barriers to oral communication involve lack of linguistic knowledge (e.g. lack of vocabulary and grammar) followed by lack of background knowledge.

Other studies went far beyond the linguistic factors. Kim (2006) presented five factors

influencing the university freshmen's speaking ability, including the total amount of time spent with visual media and the total of amount of time spent at English language institutes. On the other hand, Lee's (2009) study of graduate students' oral participation showed that the students' oral skill is influenced by multi-layered factors, including the students' English proficiency, differences in sociocultural values and educational practices between L1 and L2 cultures, and classroom environment.

Unlike these studies, Pae (2013) placed a heavy weight on affective factors, showing that students' anxiety and positive attitudes toward English as well as students' perceived English competence made a direct influence on the students' speaking ability. Indeed, the issue of anxiety has gained widespread popularity in many studies conducted in Korean EFL contexts. For example, Park (2006) showed that both integrative motivation and anxiety have direct effects on English speaking skills, integrative motivation affirmatively but anxiety negatively.

In another line of research, Park (2000, 2004a, 2004b) carried out a series of qualitative studies into the factors implicated in speaking difficulties. His studies paid special attention to sociocultural and affective factors. For example, some of his studies (Park, 2000) attributed university students' deficiency in oral interaction to peer pressure, while others (Park, 2004a) ascribed it to the fear of losing face and teacher characteristics. The previous studies discussed thus far dealt with university students' speaking difficulties. This motivated the present study to explore barriers to oral production encountered by secondary school students.

III. METHOD

1. Participants

Those who participated in this study were 337 secondary school students in Daegu city and Gyongbuk Province: middle school students (94; 27.8) and high school students (243; 72.1) with the high school students further divided into two specific groups: general high school (84; 24.9) and vocational high school (159; 47.2) students. A total of 10 schools participated in this study: four middle schools, three general high schools, and three vocational high schools. The vocational high schools were further divided into two kinds: engineering schools and commercial schools. A detailed profile of the participants is presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Distribution of Participants

Types of school		Gender		School year		
		Male	Female	1st	2nd	3rd
Middle	(94; 27.9)	46 (48.9)	48 (51.1)	39 (41.5)	21 (22.3)	34 (36.1)
General	(84; 24.9)	31 (36.9)	53 (63.1)	51 (60.7)	4 (4.8)	29 (34.5)
Vocational	(159; 47.2)	96 (60.3)	63 (39.6)	37 (23.3)	103 (64.8)	19 (11.9)
TOTAL	337	173	164	127	128	82

Middle=Middle school, General=General high school, Vocational=Vocational high school

In terms of gender, the middle school students were similarly divided into 46 males (48.9%) and 48 females (51.1%), but the two types of high schools were in contrast since females (63.1) were predominant in the general high schools but males (60.3) were predominant in the vocational high schools. When the participants were divided in terms of school year, first-year students represented the largest portion at 41.5 percent in the middle schools and 60.7 percent in the general high schools, but a majority of students were second-year students (64.8) in the vocational high schools.

In regard to the self-rated level of English proficiency, the three student groups had a similar distribution, showing a bell-shaped curve that represents the typical distribution. This is summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 2

Distribution of Students' Self-Rated Level of Proficiency

	Low	Intermediate	High	TOTAL
Middle	22 (23.4)	60 (63.8)	12 (12.8)	94 (100)
General	30 (35.7)	45 (53.6)	9 (10.7)	84 (100)
Vocational	63 (39.6)	87 (54.7)	9 (5.7)	159 (100)

In the three types of schools, the students who rated their proficiency as intermediate occupied the greatest portion, those who rated their proficiency as high represented the smallest portion, and those who rated their proficiency as low are in between.

With respect to whether the participants had been to any English speaking countries, those who gave a negative response outnumbered those who gave a positive response. Specifically, the number of students who had been to English speaking countries added up to three in the middle schools, twelve in the general high schools, and five in the vocational high schools. Their average length of stay in English speaking countries was 4.7 months for the middle school students, 7 months for the general high school students, and 8.4 months for the vocational high school students.

When it comes to the last demographic question, the number of students who were having opportunities to engage in English conversations at the time of the survey was greater for the middle school students (27; 69.2) than for the general high school students (3; 7.7) and for the vocational high school students (9; 23.1), respectively. Their average hours of English conversations per week were 8.4 hours for the middle school students, 1.3 hours for the general high school students, and 1.1 hours for the vocational high school students.

2. Research Instrument

The research instrument employed in the study was a questionnaire survey. The questionnaire was composed of two main parts. The first part pertained to demographic information, which covered the following questions: type of school, gender, school year, self-rated level of proficiency, whether or not to have any opportunities to stay in English speaking countries, the length of stay in English speaking countries, whether or not to currently have opportunities to engage in English conversation, and the hours of English conversations per week.

The second part of the questionnaire was designed to answer the main research questions. It consisted of a total of 30 questions, which were in turn divided into six domains of communication obstacles: linguistic, background knowledge, cognitive, affective, interactional, and institutional domains. Distribution of questionnaire items is summarized in Table 3.

As seen in the table, the linguistic domain was comprised of 6 items (item 1 to 6) covering a multitude of linguistic elements ranging from pronunciation to colloquial language, while background knowledge domain included 4 items (item 7 to 10) related to a range of conversation topics. Cognitive domain as another crucial domain consisted of 4 items (item 11 to 14) involving thinking and memory, while affective domain covered 6 items (item 15 to 20) including anxiety, motivation, and confidence. On the other hand, interactional and institutional domains were equally divided into 5 items. The former domain (item 21 to 25) pertained to interaction with others or the influence from others, while the latter (item 26 to 30) had to do with education systems or educational environment. Responses to the closed questions were measured on the basis of a five-point Likert scale with values of 1 to 5 assigned to each descriptor (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree). This scale was used to measure the degree of the participants' agreement or disagreement on individual statements regarding communication obstacles. In addition to the 30 closed questions, the questionnaire also included an open-ended question left for the participants to write freely about their speaking difficulties other than those provided in the questionnaire. The full

version of the questionnaire is given in Appendix A.

TABLE 3

The Structure of the Questionnaire

Domain	Item
Linguistic Domain	1. poor pronunciation
	2. lack of vocabulary
	3. lack of grammatical knowledge
	4. lack of colloquial language
	5. word order
	6. lack of listening skill
Background Knowledge Domain	7. limited conversation topics
	8. lack of background knowledge about a topic
	9. unfamiliar topics
	10. lack of English cultural knowledge
Cognitive Domain	11. thinking in Korean and speaking in English
	12. difficulty in retrieving knowledge from memory
	13. the differences in the way of thinking
	14. thinking too much before speaking
Affective Domain	15. fear of making mistakes
	16. lack of motivation
	17. shyness
	18. lack of risk-taking
	19. lack of confidence
	20. lack of willingness to communicate
Interactional Domain	21. fear of criticism or losing face
	22. being overwhelmed by a better speaker
	23. being evaluated by peer students
	24. difficulty in speaking with L2 speakers
	25. teacher's pressure
Institutional Domain	26. lack of opportunities to speak English
	27. lack of time for speaking English
	28. lack of native speakers
	29. lack of English speaking classes
	30. the university entrance exam

The questionnaire items were developed on the basis of literature on the factors influencing oral communication, especially on the basis of Jung and Oh's (2005) study. Moreover, given that most of the previous studies focused on university students, further information on communication barriers was collected from preliminary interviews with a sample of secondary school students: two middle school, two general high school, and

three vocational high school students. The interviews were undertaken in Korean language using a semi-structured technique. The researcher interviewed some of the students independently and others in pairs. He began interviews by asking ready-made general questions such as “Do you have any difficulty in speaking English?”; “What makes your oral production difficult?” The participants were asked to feel free to express the difficulties they face in their oral production. Wherever necessary, the researcher asked more detailed, follow-up questions to clarify, further probe, and expand the interviewees’ responses. This approach helped to grasp the reality faced by secondary students while speaking English. It eventually helped to ensure the quality of the questionnaire by reflecting the voices of the secondary students.

The first version of the questionnaire was piloted with 10 students (three middle school, three general high school, and four vocational high school students) to ensure that the statements in the questionnaire best suited the purpose of the study. This pilot study helped to identify any unclear, unnatural or inappropriate statements and subsequently refine them. The questionnaire was designed in Korean to avoid potential misunderstanding and confusion.

Cronbach’s alpha was used to gauge the reliability of the questionnaire. This is presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4

Reliability of Six Domains in the Questionnaire

Domain	No. of items	Cronbach’s alpha
1. Linguistic	6	0.85
2. Background knowledge	4	0.79
3. Cognitive	4	0.75
4. Affective	6	0.84
5. Interactional	5	0.79
6. Institutional	5	0.79

As presented above, Cronbach’s alpha for linguistic and affective domains fall over 0.8, which indicates good reliability, while the remaining domains are close to 0.8, which indicates acceptable reliability. These results taken as a whole are indicative of generally high internal consistency.

3. Procedure and Data Analysis

The questionnaire survey was administered during the 2017 fall semester with the cooperation of secondary school English teachers. The teachers gave clear and detailed

information on the purpose of administering the questionnaire and the way of completing the questionnaire. The participants were asked to choose one of five options on a five-point Likert scale, which measures the degree of the participants' agreement or disagreement on individual statements regarding speaking difficulties.

The students were allowed to complete the questionnaire in their free time (break time or lunch time), which means that they were given no time limit to this task. The respondents were informed that the questionnaire was anonymous. The total number of questionnaires distributed was 370, of which 362 were returned. Out of 362, 25 copies were eliminated due to incompleteness and inconsistencies. Thus, 337 questionnaires finally remained valid for analysis.

Data analysis was conducted using SPSS Version 22. Specific statistical methods employed here included t-tests, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and Pearson correlation analysis. The level of statistical significance was set at .05. However, the data regarding the respondents' demographic information were calculated and presented in percentage.

IV. RESULTS

1. Descriptive Statistics of Communication Obstacles

Before proceeding to a discussion of the three main research questions, it is worthwhile to take a glimpse at the mean scores of communication obstacles across the three student groups. This is presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5

Descriptive Statistics of Six Domains across the Three Student Groups

Domain	Middle		General		Vocational	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
1. Linguistic	2.87	0.83	2.84	0.87	3.21	0.78
2. Background	2.68	0.85	2.59	0.79	3.10	0.83
3. Cognitive	2.88	0.90	2.77	0.84	3.20	0.73
4. Affective	2.65	0.83	2.62	0.91	2.94	0.85
5. Interactional	2.72	0.89	2.58	0.93	2.81	0.83
6. Institutional	2.76	0.85	3.37	0.91	3.23	0.81

For the middle school students, the mean score of each category is below 3.0, whereas for the vocational high school students, many categories reveal a mean score above 3.0: institutional (*M*=3.23), linguistic (*M*=3.21), cognitive (*M*=3.20), and background knowledge (*M*=3.10) domains. On the other hand, for the general high school students,

institutional domain (*M*=3.37) displays the highest mean score.

In order to clarify these results, it is important to look closely at the distribution of each individual item hampering oral production. This is presented in Appendix B. Due to space limitations, only some items of higher mean scores are summarized in Table 6.

TABLE 6

Items of Higher Mean Scores across the Three Student Groups

Group	Item	*M*	*SD*
Middle School	3. lack of grammatical knowledge	3.07	1.15
	2. lack of vocabulary	3.06	1.06
	4. lack of colloquial language	3.06	1.02
General high school	30. the university entrance exam	3.89	1.16
	26. lack of opportunities to speak English	3.46	1.27
	29. lack of English speaking classes	3.29	1.32
Vocational high school	11. thinking in Korean and speaking in English	3.54	0.96
	4. lack of colloquial language	3.53	0.97
	3. lack of grammatical knowledge	3.51	1.00

The table shows some important points. First, the items with higher mean scores for the middle school and vocational high school students involve lack of linguistic knowledge including grammar and colloquial language. Second, the items negatively influencing the general high school students' oral production involve institutional factors such as the university entrance exam, lack of opportunities to speak English, and lack of English speaking classes. The results taken as a whole differ considerably from most of the previous studies, which showed that L2 learners' difficulties in oral production are brought about by affective and/or sociocultural factors (MacIntyre, Dornyei, Clement, & Noels, 1998; Park, 2004a, 2004b; Park, 2006).

2. An Exploration of the Three Research Questions

It is vital to scrutinize communication barriers according to the three student groups in different learning contexts: middle school, general high school and vocational high school groups. This issue is related to the first research question, which pertains to whether there are any differences in each domain of communication obstacles among the three student groups. This question can be analyzed with a one-way ANOVA. The results are tabulated in Table 7.

TABLE 7

One-way ANOVA of Communication Obstacles According to the Three Student Groups

Domain	Group	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	Welch	*p*	post-hoc
Linguistic	Middle[b]	94	2.87	0.83	8.158		.000***	a > b
	General[b]	84	2.84	0.87				
	Vocational[a]	159	3.21	0.78				
Background	Middle[b]	94	2.68	0.85	13.450		.000***	a > b
	General[b]	84	2.59	0.79				
	Vocational[a]	159	3.10	0.83				
Cognitive	Middle[b]	94	2.88	0.90		9.532	.000***	a > b
	General[b]	84	2.77	0.84				
	Vocational[a]	159	3.20	0.73				
Affective	Middle[b]	94	2.65	0.83	5.061		.007**	a > b
	General[b]	84	2.62	0.91				
	Vocational[a]	159	2.94	0.85				
Interactional	Middle[b]	94	2.72	0.89	1.992		.138	
	General[b]	84	2.58	0.93				
	Vocational[a]	159	2.81	0.83				
Institutional	Middle[b]	94	2.76	0.85	13.545		.000***	a > b
	General[a]	84	3.37	0.91				
	Vocational[a]	159	3.23	0.81				

**p<.01, ***p<.001

At this point, it is important to note the differences between *F*-test and Welch's test. If the data met the assumption of homogeneity of variances, which requires that the variances of the groups are equivalent, *F*-test was used, whereas if the data failed to meet this assumption, Welch's test was run in the one-way ANOVA. The statistical analyses show that there are statistically significant differences among the three student groups in linguistic (F = 8.158, p = .000), background knowledge (F = 13.450, p = .000), cognitive (Welch = 9.532, p = .000) and institutional (F = 13.545, p = .000) domains at the significance level of .001 and in affective domain (F = 5.061, p = .007) at the .01 significance level.

Since the one-way ANOVA simply shows that at least two groups are different, a post-hoc test was run to ascertain which specific groups show statistically significant differences from each other. In the case of linguistic domain, there are statistically significant differences between the vocational high school group and the middle school group on the one hand and the vocational high school group and the general high school group on the other, but not between the middle school group and the general high school group. More specifically, lack of linguistic knowledge is more troublesome case for the vocational high

school students (*M*=3.21) in oral production than for the middle school (*M*=2.87) and the general high school (*M*=2.84) groups, respectively. This finding is in part supported by Kim (2000)'s report that vocational high school students have poor English language skills and abilities. It is also backed up by the participants' self-rated proficiency of English since the proportion of the students who rated their English proficiency as low was found to be higher for the vocational high school group at 39.6 percent than for the middle school group at 23.4 percent and for the general high school group at 35.7 percent, respectively, as illustrated in Table 2 earlier. The finding that the vocational high school students have greater trouble with linguistic knowledge than the middle school students clearly indicates that the level of academic schooling does not always ensure a high level of linguistic knowledge. Since the main pedagogical focus of vocational high schools is vocational education and training, English is not a core subject. This is another plausible reason for the vocational high school students' deficiency in linguistic knowledge.

Similarly, lack of background knowledge is a greater hindrance to speaking performance for the vocational high school group (*M*=3.10) than for the middle school group (*M*=2.68) and for the general high school group (*M*=2.59), respectively. These results indicate that the vocational high school students have deficiency not only in linguistic knowledge but also in background knowledge, both of which are important elements of oral communication.

The exactly same tendency is repeated in the case of cognitive domain (the vocational high school group=3.20 > the middle school group=2.88, the general high school group=2.77) and in the case of affective domain (the vocational high school group=2.94 > the middle school group=2.65, the general high school group=2.62). This is consonant with Kim's (2000) finding that vocational high school students have a relatively low level of interest and confidence in English.

Unlike the above-mentioned domains, institutional domain reveals statistically significant differences between the middle school group (*M*=2.76) and the general high school group (*M*=3.37) on one hand and between the middle school group (*M*=2.76) and the vocational high school group (*M*=3.23) on the other, but not between the general high school and vocational high school groups. This signals that institutional domain is a greater communication barrier for the general high school and vocational high school groups than for the middle school group. The general high school students' speaking problems regarding institutional factors are largely because English education in this type of school is really oriented toward training the students to score highly on the university entrance exam. This exam-oriented education system has negative influences on other institutional factors. As Choi (2008) pointed out, the national exam does not include speaking and writing components, thus leading to very little, if any, teaching of speaking and writing at high school. This in turn hinders the students from having many opportunities to speak and

write in English.

In order to address the second research question, the vocational high school group was further divided into two different subtypes: engineering and commercial schools. The specific research question in this regard is whether there are any differences in each domain of communication obstacles between the engineering and commercial high school groups. This issue was analyzed using a t-test, as shown in Table 8.

TABLE 8

Communication Barriers between the Engineering and Commercial Groups

Domain	Group	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
Linguistic	Engineering	96	3.21	0.79	-0.061	0.951
	Commercial	63	3.22	0.78		
Background	Engineering	96	3.12	0.84	0.419	0.676
	Commercial	63	3.06	0.81		
Cognitive	Engineering	96	3.25	0.80	1.132	0.259
	Commercial	63	3.12	0.63		
Affective	Engineering	96	2.94	0.90	0.140	0.889
	Commercial	63	2.92	0.80		
Interactional	Engineering	96	2.75	0.83	-1.228	0.221
	Commercial	63	2.91	0.83		
Institutional	Engineering	96	3.06	0.80	-3.272	0.001**
	Commercial	63	3.48	0.75		

**p<.01

The statistical results indicate that institutional domain is the only domain which reveals statistically significant differences between the engineering and commercial high school groups (t = -3.272, p = .001) at the significance level of .01. To rephrase, institutional domain is a more serious communication barrier for the commercial school group (M=3.48) than for the engineering school group (M=3.06). The other categories did not show statistically significant differences.

At this point, it is worth probing further into which individual items in the institutional domain show significant differences between the two types of vocational high schools. This was analyzed with a t-test.

TABLE 9

Differences between the Engineering and Commercial Groups in the Individual Items in the Institutional Domain

Item	Disciplines	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
26. lack of opportunities to speak English	Engineering	96	3.25	0.96	-2.493	0.014*
	Commercial	63	3.65	1.03		
27. lack of time for speaking English	Engineering	96	3.01	1.06	-0.402	0.688
	Commercial	63	3.08	1.05		
28. lack of English native speakers	Engineering	96	2.83	1.14	-1.801	0.074
	Commercial	63	3.17	1.21		
29. lack of English speaking classes	Engineering	96	2.99	1.11	-3.495	0.001***
	Commercial	63	3.60	1.04		
30. the university entrance exam	Engineering	96	3.22	1.18	-3.545	0.001***
	Commercial	63	3.87	1.07		

*p<.05, ***p<.001

There are statistically significant differences between the engineering and commercial high school groups in speaking problems pertaining to lack of opportunities to speak English (t = -2.493, p = 0.014), lack of English speaking classes (t = -3.495, p = 0.001), and the university entrance exam (t = -3.545, p = 0.001), More specifically, the lack of opportunities to speak English makes speaking more difficult for the commercial students (M=3.65) than for the engineering students (M=3.25). The same is true for the lack of English speaking classes since it is a more troublesome case for the commercial students (M=3.60) than for the engineering students (M=2.99). Another noteworthy factor is the university entrance exam, showing that the commercial high school students (M=3.87) face greater problems with the national exam than do the engineering students (M=3.22). This seems to indicate that the number of students planning to apply for university is greater in the commercial high school than in the engineering high schools. As noted earlier, the university entrance exam does not include a speaking test and thus students as well as teachers do not bother to deal with productive skills in high school classrooms (Choi, 2008). This is one of the crucial reasons that show why high schools avoid offering speaking classes, which in turn can block pathways to the students' oral performance.

With respect to the last research question, a Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to measure whether there is any relationship among the six domains of communication obstacles in the vocational high school group. Table 10 summarizes the correlations among each subset of communication obstacles in the vocational high school group.

TABLE 10

Correlations among the Six Domains in the Vocational High School Group

	Linguistic	Background	Cognitive	Affective	Interaction	Institution
Linguistic	1					
Background	0.508***	1				
Cognitive	0.607***	0.515***	1			
Affective	0.570***	0.545***	0.579***	1		
Interaction	0.458***	0.437***	0.449***	0.660***	1	
Institution	0.264***	0.222**	0.153	0.339***	0.294***	1

**p<.01, ***p<.001

Interaction=Interactional domain, Institution=Institutional domain

As presented in the table, the correlation analyses reveal that the most significant positive correlation is the correlation between affective and interactional domains (r = 0.660, p < .001), immediately followed by the correlation between linguistic and cognitive domains (r = 0.607, p < .001).

On the other hand, moderate correlation is evident between cognitive and affective domains (r = 0.579, p < .001), between linguistic and affective domains (r = 0.570, p < .001), between background knowledge and affective domains (r = 0.545, p < .001), between background knowledge and cognitive domains (r = 0.515, p < .001), between linguistic and background knowledge domains (r = 0.508, p < .001), between linguistic and interactional domains (r = 0.458, p < .001), between cognitive and interactional domains (r = 0.449, p < .001), and between background knowledge and interactional domains (r = 0.437, p < .001).

In addition, weak correlation is found between affective and institutional domains (r = 0.339, p < .001), between interactional and institutional domains (r = 0.294, p < .001), between linguistic and institutional domains (r = 0.264, p < .001), and between background knowledge and institutional domains (r = 0.222, p < .01). However, institutional domain is not correlated with cognitive domain.

These results clearly indicate that many of the communication obstacles are not mutually exclusive but interrelated with each other, one domain influencing and being influenced by another.

3. The Results of the Open-ended Question

In addition to the closed-ended questions, the questionnaire included an open-ended question asking the participants to write freely about any communication obstacles other than those presented in the questionnaire. The participants made only a few comments on

this question with the middle school students making no comments at all. The comments are summarized in Table 11.

TABLE 11

Summary of Comments on the Open-ended Question

School	Comments	Frequency
General high school	1. nervousness about meeting English speakers	1
	2. late English learning	2
	3. heavy reliance on rote learning	2
Vocational high school	1. too much focus on accuracy	1
	2. grammar-based learning	2
	3. lack of basic knowledge	2
	4. lack of writing ability	1
	5. lack of concentration	1

These comments display a similar tendency revealed from the statistical analyses in the sense that the general high school students attribute their speaking difficulties largely to institutional factors and teaching methods, while the vocational high school students perceive lack of linguistic knowledge as a crucial factor detrimental to their oral performance.

V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The analysis thus far has demonstrated that speaking difficulties encountered by the secondary school students are caused by a wide range of factors, especially linguistic and institutional factors. However, this study found that affective factors are not critical stumbling blocks to oral communication for the Korean EFL secondary students. This finding stands in sharp contrast to what has been reported in many previous studies (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Liu & Kuo, 1996; Liu & Littlewood, 1997; Pae, 2013; Park, 2006; Tsui, 1996) which attributed L2 learners' poor speaking performance to affective factors such as anxiety, lack of motivation, and/or lack of self-confidence. This gap may be due to different learning contexts. In other words, the previous studies focused on university students, whereas the present study focused on secondary students. Unlike university students who already passed the university entrance exam, secondary students put too much emphasis on the preparation for the exam (Choi, 2008).

A brief look at the mean scores of communication obstacles showed that there is no critical factor blocking pathways to oral interaction for the middle school group considering that the mean scores of all the categories are below 3.0. On the other hand, the

general high school students' speaking problems are related to institutional factors such as the university entrance exam and lack of opportunities to speak English. This suggests that there is a strong need for including a speaking test in the university entrance exam, which will help the students have more opportunities to speak English. Unlike the middle school and general high school students, the vocational high school students encountered multi-faceted speaking difficulties, i.e., institutional, linguistic, cognitive, and background knowledge domains. This suggests that greater efforts should be exerted by the vocational high school educators than the middle school and general high school educators to help the inferior students overcome these barriers, thereby improving their speaking ability.

The statistical analyses of the three student groups showed that the vocational high school students face greater trouble with linguistic, background knowledge, cognitive and affective factors than the middle school and general high school students when speaking English. Some of these results run contrary to our expectations. Specifically, the vocational high school students had a higher level of academic schooling than the middle school students and thus they were expected to have less trouble with linguistic knowledge than the middle school group, but the results revealed the opposite. This finding indicates that the higher level of formal academic schooling does not always guarantee greater linguistic knowledge in a narrow sense and more effective speaking performance in a wide sense. The first and foremost thing the vocational high school teachers should do is to help their students to equip themselves not only with linguistic knowledge but also with background knowledge. Prior knowledge, either linguistic or nonlinguistic, will serve a good basis for producing the intended message.

Another finding deserving much consideration is that institutional factors cause greater trouble for the general and vocational high school students than the middle school students when speaking English. Among the institutional factors, the university entrance exam system is of particular attention. Since the general high school curricula are oriented toward the university entrance exam, an overwhelming majority of English classes deal primarily with reading skills coupled with grammar and vocabulary with little heed paid to speaking skill (Choi, 2008), despite the fact that the goal of secondary school English education is to help students develop their communicative competence. This clearly shows that there is a mismatch between the goal of secondary school English education and actual classroom practice. This discrepancy fails to respond to the students' need to improve communication ability. This gap can be bridged by integrating a speaking test into the university entrance exam system. This reform will help the high schools provide students with more English speaking classes, which in turn can help the students develop their speaking skills. The findings also suggest that institutional problems such as the lack of opportunities to speak English and the lack of speaking classes should be improved in both the general high schools and the vocational high schools.

Also worthy to note is the finding that the comparison between the two types of vocational high schools revealed no statistically significant differences in most of the communication barriers such as linguistic, background knowledge, cognitive, affective, and interactional domains. These findings demonstrate that the engineering school students and the commercial school students encounter similar difficulties when speaking English. The only domain that showed a difference between the two types of vocational high school groups was institutional domain. To rephrase, the commercial school students face greater problems with the university entrance exam, the lack of opportunities to speak English, and the lack of English speaking classes than do the engineering school students. This finding leads us to assume that the number of students planning to apply for university is greater in the commercial schools than in the engineering schools. This finding reemphasizes the need to change the current university entrance exam for the commercial high school students. The inclusion of a speaking test in the university entrance exam is expected to bring about positive washback effects on English language teaching in the classroom (Taylor, 2005) since it can provide the students with more opportunities to speak English in the classroom. Only when the national exam is reformed can the high school educators tailor their curricula to the students' needs and pedagogical goals. Though this attempt is a great challenge, it is of paramount importance.

The finding that a great majority of subsets of communication obstacles in the vocational high school group were significantly correlated with each other indicates that the students in this type of high school face a wide range of speaking problems. Out of many pairs of variables, the correlations between interactional and affective domains and between linguistic and cognitive domains are of particular attention in the sense that both marked strong correlation coefficient values. In other words, the students who suffer more greatly from interactional problems tend to face greater trouble with affective problems, or the other way around, when speaking English. By the same token, the greater trouble the learners have with linguistic knowledge, the greater cognitive problems they tend to face, or the other way around, when speaking English. These strong relationships and positive correlations demonstrate that most of the communication obstacles in the vocational high school group are not mutually exclusive but related with each other, one problem interacting with another. They suggest that the vocational high school teachers have many challenging things to do to make their students' oral communication more effective. Specifically, they should encourage their students to free themselves from the negative aspects of peer pressure or teacher pressure, which will in turn help them to lower the defenses that prevent open interpersonal communication (Brown, 2007). Moreover, the teachers should also guide their students to enrich their linguistic repertoire ranging from grammar and vocabulary to colloquial language expressions. At the same time, they should train them to strengthen their cognitive functions such as better thinking skills and memory

skills which can facilitate effective communication. These efforts will eventually help the students to cope adequately with a number of interrelated speaking problems they encounter.

The present study is not without limitations. The sample was drawn from only one particular area, that is, Gyeongsang area. Thus, the results are not generalizable to the whole population of secondary school students. In addition, this study did not cover students from foreign language high schools and science high schools. Hence, an examination of a larger sample with more diverse school backgrounds is obviously worthy of further investigation in the future. Another limitation is that the questionnaire survey was conducted with the cooperation of secondary school English teachers. In future research, it would be more effective if the researcher himself administers the survey. In spite of these limitations, the findings of the study will help to capture what types of speaking problems Korean EFL secondary students face, which will in turn provide some insightful ideas of how to overcome their speaking problems. This attempt will eventually pave the way for the development of speaking skills and communicative competence in secondary school contexts.

REFERENCES

Bachman, L. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Brown, D. (2007). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (3rd ed). White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.

Brown, D., & Yule, G. (1983). *Teaching the spoken language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Burns, A., & Joyce, H. (1997). *Focus on speaking*. Sydney: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics,1*, 1-47.

Celce-Murcia, M., Dörnyei, Z., & Thurrell, S. (1995). Communicative competence: A pedagogically motivated model with content specifications. *Issues in Applied Linguistics, 6*(2), 5-35.

Celce-Murcia, M., & Olshtain, E. (2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Choi, I. (2008). The impact of EFL testing on EFL education in Korea. *Language Testing, 25*(1), 39-62.

Derwing, T. M., & Rossiter, M. J. (2002). ESL learners' perceptions of their pronunciation

needs and strategies. *System, 30*, 155-166.

Ferris, D. (1998). Students' views of academic aural/oral skills: A comparative needs analysis. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(2), 289-316.

Gregersen, T., & Horwitz, E. K. (2002). language learning and perfectionism: Anxious and non-anxious language learners' reactions to their own oral performance. *The Modern Language Journal, 86*, 562-570.

Hymes, D. (1972). Communicative competence. In J. P. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: Selected readings* (pp. 269-293). Harmonsworth, UK: Penguin.

Jackson, J. (2002). Reticence in second language case discussions: anxiety and aspirations. *System, 30*, 65-84.

Jung, W.-H., & Oh, H. (2005). Barriers to English communication at the Korean EFL adult level. *English Language & Literature Teaching, 11*(3), 1-23.

Kim, H.-K. (2000). Real state of English class in vocational high school. *Modern English Education, 1*, 33-50.

Kim, V. (2006). Five factors influencing the speaking ability of university freshmen: What's their secret? *STEM Journal, 7*(2), 123-147.

Lazaraton, A. (2001). Teaching oral skills. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 103-115). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Lee, G. (2009). Speaking up: Six Korean students' oral participation in class discussions in US graduate seminars. *English for Specific Purposes, 28*, 142-156.

Liu, J., & Kuo, L. (1996). Factors affecting oral classroom participation of international graduate students in an ESL setting. *Educational Research Quarterly, 19*(4), 43-61.

Liu, M., & Jackson, J. (2008). An exploration of Chinese EFL learners' unwillingness to communicate and foreign language anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 92*(1), 71-86.

Liu, N., & Littlewood, W. (1997). Why do many students appear reluctant to participate in classroom learning discourse? *System, 25*(3), 371-384.

MacIntyre, P. D., Dörnyei, Z., Clement, R., & Noels, K. A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *The Modern Language Journal, 82*(4), 545-562.

Pae, T.-I. (2013). A study of the factors affecting English speaking ability of Korean university students. *English Language Teaching, 25*(1), 145-160.

Pae, Y. (1984). Factors detrimental to learning speaking command of English. *English Teaching, 27*, 15-31.

Park C. (2000). Peer pressure and learning to speak English: Voices from the selected learners. *English Teaching, 55*(4), 231-268.

Park C. (2004a). When are Korean students ready to talk? *English Language Teaching, 16*(2), 209-245.

Park C. (2004b). Factors that negatively influence oral interaction in-and-out of the classroom. *Foreign Languages Education, 11*(4), 343-371.

Park, H. (2006). The effects of L2 learners' motivation and anxiety on English speaking skills. *Foreign Languages Education, 13*(4), 219-241.

Pinter, A. (2006). *Teaching young learners.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Shumin, K. (2002). Factors to consider: Developing adult EFL students' speaking abilities. In J. C. Richards & W. A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching* (pp. 204-211). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tarone, E. (2005). Speaking in a second language. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 485-502). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Taylor, L. (2005). Washback and impact. *ELT Journal, 59*(2), 154-155.

Tsui , A. (1996). Reticence and anxiety in second language learning. In K. M. Bailey & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Voices from the language classroom: Qualitative research in second language education* (pp.145-167). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ur, P. (1996). *A course in language teaching: Practice and theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire (Korean Version)

이 설문지는 여러분이 교내에서나 교외에서 영어로 대화 나눌 때 영어 말하기에 어려움을 초래하는 요소가 무엇인지를 파악하기 위한 것이오니, 솔직한 답변을 부탁 드립니다.

1. (중학교□ / 인문계 고교□ / 실업계 고교□) 2. 성별: (남□ / 여□)
3. 학년: ____
4. 당신의 영어 말하기 수준은 어느 정도 된다고 생각하십니까?
   ① 낮은 수준이다 ② 중간 수준이다 ③ 높은 수준이다
5. 영어권 국가에서 체류한 경험이 있습니까? (예: ___ 아니오: ___)
   있다면, 몇 개월 동안 체류했습니까? _____ 개월
6. 당신은 요즘 영어 대화를 나누고 있습니까? (예: ___ 아니오: ___)
   있다면, 주당 대화 시간을 적어주세요. (주당 총시간: ___시간)

아래 각각의 요소들이 당신의 영어 말하기에 어려움을 초래하는 정도를 체크 표시해 주세요. (오른쪽에 다섯 개 중에 하나를 골라 체크 표시하면 됩니다.)

1.매우 그렇지 않다 2. 그렇지 않다 3. 보통이다
4. 그러하다 5. 매우 그러하다

1. 발음이 별로 좋지 않아서 영어로 말하기가 어렵다. 1 2 3 4 5
2. 단어 지식이 부족해서 메시지를 전달하기 어렵다. 1 2 3 4 5
3. 문법 지식이 부족해서 전달하고자 하는 문장을 만들기가 어렵다. 1 2 3 4 5
4. 영어회화에 사용되는 구어체 표현을 잘 몰라서 말하기가 어렵다. 1 2 3 4 5
5. 한국어와 영어가 어순이 달라서 말이 금방 나오지 않는다. 1 2 3 4 5
6. 원어민이 말한 것을 이해할 수 없어서 영어로 답하기가 어렵다. 1 2 3 4 5
7. 대화 주제가 다양하지 못해 무슨 말을 해야 할지 모르겠다. 1 2 3 4 5
8. 특정 주제에 대한 배경지식이 부족해서 깊이 얘기하지 못하겠다. 1 2 3 4 5
9. 친숙하지 못한 주제에 대해서는 피하거나 다른 주제로 바꾼다. 1 2 3 4 5
10. 영어권 문화에 대한 지식이 부족해서 대화에 한계를 느낀다. 1 2 3 4 5
11. 한국어로 먼저 생각하고 난 후 영어로 표현하니 시간이 많이 걸린다. 1 2 3 4 5
12. 영어로 대화 나눌 때 머릿속에 있는 지식을 금방 꺼내서 사용할 수가 없다. 1 2 3 4 5
13. 한국인과 원어민의 사고관 차이로 인해 영어 대화가 어렵다. 1 2 3 4 5
14. 말로 표현하기 전에 생각을 너무 많이 한다. 1 2 3 4 5
15. 실수할까봐 긴장되고 두려워서 영어로 말이 잘 안 나온다. 1 2 3 4 5
16. 영어 회화를 잘 하기 위한 동기가 부족하다. 1 2 3 4 5
17. 소심하고 수줍은 성격으로 인해 영어 대화가 어렵다. 1 2 3 4 5
18. 과감한 시도가 부족해서 영어 회화에 한계가 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
19. 영어 회화를 잘 하고 싶지만 자신감이 생기지 않는다. 1 2 3 4 5
20. 영어로 대화하려는 의지가 부족하여 영어 회화에 한계가 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
21. 남들이 나의 실력을 비웃을까봐 눈치가 보여서 하고 싶은 말을 못하겠다. 1 2 3 4 5
22. 영어회화에 뛰어난 사람이 있으면 위축되어 말이 잘 안 나온다. 1 2 3 4 5
23. 친구들이 나의 영어실력을 평가한다고 생각하니 영어회화가 잘 안 된다. 1 2 3 4 5
24. 한국인과는 대화가 잘 되지만 원어민과는 회화가 잘 안 된다. 1 2 3 4 5
25. 원어민이나 선생님이 나에게 말을 시킬까봐 신경이 쓰인다. 1 2 3 4 5
26. 영어로 대화 나눌 기회가 부족해서 영어 회화에 한계가 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
27. 영어로 대화 나눌 기회가 있어도 시간적 여유가 충분하지 않다. 1 2 3 4 5
28. 대화 나눌 원어민 강사가 부족해서 영어 대화가 어렵다. 1 2 3 4 5
29. 영어 회화 수업이 부족해서 말하기에 한계가 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
30. 대학입시 시험 위주의 교육방식이 영어회화에 저해요소가 된다. 1 2 3 4 5

▌위에 제시된 요소 외에 당신이 영어 말하기를 하는데 있어서 어려움을 초래하는 요소가 있다면 구체적으로 적어주세요.

APPENDIX B

Descriptive Statistics of Individual Items across the Three Student Groups

	Middle School		General high school		Vocational high School	
Item	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1. poor pronunciation	2.33	1.03	2.37	1.05	2.54	0.95
2. lack of vocabulary	3.06	1.06	3.24	1.17	3.36	1.07
3. lack of grammar	3.07	1.15	3.00	1.12	3.51	1.00
4. lack of colloquial language	3.06	1.02	3.15	1.20	3.53	0.97
5. word order	2.94	1.18	2.81	1.15	3.23	1.05
6. lack of listening skill	2.77	1.10	2.44	1.21	3.12	1.13
7. limited conversation topics	2.63	1.05	2.51	0.95	3.01	1.06
8. lack of background knowledge about a topic	2.65	1.07	2.51	1.02	3.23	1.05
9. unfamiliar topics	2.47	0.99	2.68	1.02	3.02	1.02
10. lack of English cultural Knowledge	2.96	1.22	2.65	1.20	3.13	1.08
11. thinking in Korean and speaking in English	3.00	1.16	2.99	1.17	3.54	0.96
12. difficulty in retrieving knowledge from memory	2.96	1.08	3.00	1.17	3.44	0.92
13. the differences in the way of thinking	2.63	1.10	2.23	1.10	2.64	1.00
14. thinking too much before Speaking	2.91	1.18	2.86	1.11	3.16	1.10
15. fear of making mistakes	2.76	1.27	3.00	1.25	3.14	1.18
16. lack of motivation	2.76	1.15	2.73	1.24	3.08	1.03
17. shyness	2.33	1.08	2.27	1.11	2.50	1.11
18. lack of risk-taking	2.66	1.13	2.61	1.13	2.97	1.10
19. lack of confidence	2.74	1.22	2.70	1.20	3.07	1.18
20. lack of willingness to communicate	2.64	1.19	2.43	1.24	2.85	1.10
21. fear of criticism	2.69	1.28	2.55	1.27	2.72	1.21
22. being overwhelmed by a better speaker	2.82	1.25	2.93	1.23	3.01	1.15
23. peer's evaluation	2.72	1.20	2.56	1.22	2.72	1.14
24. difficulty in speaking with English native speakers	2.74	1.10	2.31	0.99	2.77	1.10
25. teacher's pressure	2.61	1.23	2.54	1.28	2.83	1.17
26. lack of opportunities to	2.96	1.20	3.46	1.27	3.41	1.01

speak English						
27. lack of time for speaking English	2.61	1.14	3.13	1.22	3.04	1.05
28. lack of native speakers	2.47	1.16	3.07	1.42	2.97	1.18
29. lack of English speaking Classes	2.73	1.11	3.29	1.32	3.23	1.12
30. the university entrance exam	3.01	1.18	3.89	1.16	3.48	1.18

APPENDIX C

Descriptive Statistics of Individual Items in the Engineering and Commercial Groups

	Engineering		Commercial	
Item	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1. poor pronunciation	2.47	0.92	2.65	0.99
2. lack of vocabulary	3.38	1.09	3.35	1.05
3. lack of grammar	3.44	1.03	3.62	0.94
4. lack of colloquial language	3.52	1.01	3.54	0.91
5. word order	3.16	1.11	3.33	0.95
6. lack of listening skill	3.31	1.09	2.83	1.14
7. limited conversation topics	3.08	1.01	2.90	1.12
8. lack of background knowledge about a topic	3.24	1.09	3.22	0.99
9. unfamiliar topics	2.94	1.10	3.14	0.88
10. lack of English cultural knowledge	3.22	1.09	2.98	1.07
11. thinking in Korean and speaking in English	3.50	0.99	3.60	0.91
12. difficulty in retrieving knowledge from memory	3.45	0.96	3.43	0.87
13. the differences in the way of thinking	2.85	0.98	2.32	0.95
14. thinking too much before speaking	3.19	1.09	3.13	1.13
15. fear of making mistakes	3.22	1.22	3.02	1.11
16. lack of motivation	3.10	1.07	3.03	0.98
17. shyness	2.53	1.16	2.46	1.04
18. lack of risk-taking	2.92	1.12	3.06	1.06
19. lack of confidence	3.04	1.20	3.11	1.14
20. lack of willingness to communicate	2.84	1.12	2.86	1.08
21. fear of criticism or losing face	2.59	1.28	2.92	1.07
22. being overwhelmed by a better speaker	2.88	1.17	3.22	1.10
23. peer’s evaluation	2.63	1.10	2.87	1.20
24. difficulty in speaking with L2 speakers	2.80	1.07	2.71	1.16
25. teacher’s pressure	2.83	1.16	2.83	1.20
26. lack of opportunities to speak English	3.25	0.96	3.65	1.03
27. lack of time for speaking English	3.01	1.06	3.08	1.05

28. lack of native speakers	2.83	1.14	3.17	1.21
29. lack of English speaking classes	2.99	1.11	3.60	1.04
30. the university entrance exam	3.22	1.18	3.87	1.07

Examples in: English
Applicable Language: English
Applicable Level: Secondary

Woo-hyun Jung, Ph.D.
Dept. of English Language & Literature
Yeungnam University
280, Daehak-ro, Gyeongsan-si
Gyeongsangbuk-do, Korea
E-mail: woohjung@ynu.ac.kr

Received in April 14th, 2018
Reviewed in May 26th, 2018
Revised version received in June 5th, 2018

English Language & Literature Teaching, Vol. 24, No. 2 Summer 2018

Public Speaking Strategies for Improving English Speaking Skills in the EFL College Context*

Nahk Bohk Kim
(Korea Nazarene University)

Kim, Nahk Bohk (2018). Public speaking strategies for improving English speaking skills in the EFL college context. *English Language & Literature Teaching, 24*(2), 69-88.

This paper aims to analyze the perceptions of Korean students' public speaking anxiety (PSA) and suggest some applicable strategies for enhancing speaking skills in the EFL context. To do this, a survey on PSA was conducted, targeting 34 low-level students for G1 and 83 high-level students for G2 enrolled in an "English Conversation Class". In-depth interviews were conducted with twelve students among enrolled students. Data was analyzed utilizing SPSS 22.0. The results were as follows. Students were more anxious in the pre-speech phase than during-speech phase. Overall, regardless of gender and English proficiency level, students feel nervous and anxious in PS. In addition, some effective and applicable strategies for improving English speaking skills were suggested; eliciting small group or individual students to speak freely in front of the class on certain familiar topics, a more relaxed environment ushered in by the instructor, evading a strong discouragement of mocking peers when they make mistakes, more opportunity to speak in front of students in building close rapport, and impromptu speech activities encouraging high-level students, and utilizing familiar chunks for speaking skills. Finally, implications for building up the value of speech communication skills were highly presented for better PS instruction.

[public speaking/public speaking anxiety/conversation class/strategy]

I. INTRODUCTION

To date, in the era of speech communication, the ability to communicate in public is regarded as a highly desirable skill, whether to further one's career or merely for

*This work was supported by the Korea Nazarene University Research Grant of 2018.

personal use (Humphries, 2011). Regarding the history of public speaking (PS), McCroskey (2009) speaks of the major changes in American public speaking education starting from the late 1940s to the late 1960s. In the 1980s and 1990s, many PS specialists had come to realize that the development of operating classes were not just with students speaking in front of the class but also of teaching skills by means of small groups and interpersonal communication. Again, gradually they recognized that "some students had anxiety and fears about communication other than just giving public speeches." (McCroskey, 2009, p. 160)

In regard to language communication, language learners regard anxiety as one of the most significant socio-affective factors influencing foreign language acquisition (Woodrow, 2006). In general, communication apprehension (CA) can lead to the critical success or detrimental failure of students' foreign language acquisition. Having high CA has been shown to have negative effects on individuals of a variety of cultures (McCroskey, 2009). Therefore, McCroskey, Fayer, and Richmond (1985) have argued that language instructors must address the CA of different types of students in order to facilitate second language acquisition. In light of the positive impact of languauage communication, CA was first developed as a tool to measure public speaking anxiety (PSA) but in the past 50 years it has become one of the most researched constructs in the field of communication (McCroskey, 2009).

Then, how are students being challenged to improve their PS skills outside of the formal classroom? Many US universities recognize the importance of providing students with opportunities to develop their communication skills, and consider that "the incorporation of a basic communication course such as the introductory class to PS is an important advance in curriculum development" (Greene & Walker, 2004, p, 435). This recognition is manifest not only in the United States but in Korean universities as well. The challenge is that contrary to American students, many Korean students do not have many opportunities to communicate their ideas in a public setting because they have grown up in a society and educational system where the value is placed on listening rather than speaking. Therefore, PS which is an aspect of willingness to communicate (WTC) is not only a salient research endeavor but a challenge of getting students prepared to express themselves.

Recently, a number of leaders from many sectors of society such as politicians, businessmen and social workers as well as educators spend much of their time practicing PS, reading books for researching, writing an outline of what they wanted to say, and practicing delivering a speech according to the various types of PS (i.e. informative, persuasive, inspirational etc.). Besides, speech classes in university general education also require students to listen to other speakers' speeches / presentations in various public venues as well as to help them prepare for a wide variety of job interviews effectively.

Considering the above introductory remarks, the idea of introducing such PS courses in Korean universities is the basis of this study which was designed to (1) identify EFL students' perceptions and levels of PSA, and (2) to seek strategies to be applied to EFL conversation classes, finding viable and proactive solutions to overcome such anxiety. Thus, the purpose of this study was to investigate participants' perceptions of PSA and PS, and to analyze the responses of a PS class focusing on the activities of twelve students who participated in a Focus Group Interview (FGI) as a means of investigating the following two research questions:

1) What are the perceptions of EFL university students regarding public speaking anxiety?
2) What are some applicable strategies for public speaking skills in EFL conversation classrooms?

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

1. Public Speaking and Public Speaking Anxiety

According to Wikipedia, PS is defined as "the process or act of performing a speech to a live audience. This type of speech is deliberately structured with three general purposes: to inform, to persuade and to entertain." This definition speaks of the different genres of speeches. Therefore, not all speeches are designed, nor ought they be, to inform, persuade and entertain. Rather they can do one of these three or an infinite list of these as well as other possibilities. Nonetheless, it is not unforeseeable that certain speeches in certain contexts might actually do all three although not usually in the formal way most people associate with speaking in public. Traditionally public speakers have addressed audiences most often without much, if any verbal interaction at all, with their respective audiences. Therefore, the speaker takes responsibility for what s/he says and/or does (O'Hair, Stewart, & Rubenstein, 2015). A speaker generally delivers a message with a specific purpose to a large group of people. Thus, PS is commonly understood as a single person speaking to a group of people in a formal, face-to-face format (Griffin & Bone, 2014; Trenholm, 2014). And now in our postmodern era, the concept of dialogue is becoming more and more prevalent. That is, PS can be enlarged conversation.

Currently day by day, PS as a group communication type can serve the purpose of transmitting information, telling a story, motivating people to act or a combination of these in an interactional manner. PS can also take the form of a discourse community in which the audience and speaker use discourse to achieve a common goal, like solving

the problem of students who lack WTC in English. Especially, different from only a handful of privileged individuals before, with the development of communications technology, millions of world citizens across the globe can watch the world leaders' speeches on national and international television or view it online or on mobile devices (Coopman & Lull, 2015).

When it comes to public speaking anxiety (PSA) it is a perfectly normal and a situation-specific social anxiety that arises from the real or anticipated enactment of an oral presentation (Antony, 2004). As a result, the root of PSA is the lack of positive PS, feeling different from members of the audience, and uneasiness about being the center of attention. There is an often-cited but probably apocryphal study claiming that PS is the world's most common phobia, more fearsome to people than any other source of anxiety such as the fear of heights, spiders, the dark or even death itself (James, 2002). Students have a comparatively high level of communication apprehension (CA). Studies also reveal that students prefer group discussion as a way of reducing their communicative anxiety (Nahk Bohk Kim, 2017; Zhang & Liu, 2013).

Regarding overcoming PSA, recently Chapman University's Survey on American Fears (2014) revealed that PS is Americans' number one fear for nearly thirty percent of Americans. The key to students conquering their fear of speaking and actually doing well in front of people is ample preparation and practice. Prior to that, however, students need to be motivated. They require the sense that they need and want to improve their PS skills in order to "go deep" into their careers and "seize the day". For example, one might be invited to speak at a friend's wedding, give a eulogy for a deceased loved one, and motivate people to volunteer at a charity event or express sincere condolences to a family in grief.

Ultimately, becoming a well-versed public speaker can enhance the way one is perceived by others, which helps us feel more confident, and even open up unimaginably unlimited doors of opportunity. This all sounds good and well but the challenge, the "mountain", so to speak, is that in order to open these "doors of opportunity", students have to take advantage of the opportunities given to them "to make all-out efforts" to "practice to perfection" (Nahk Bohk Kim, 2017).

2. Conversation Enhancement Skills

Conversation is an integral part of personal interactions between two or more people about something of interest or concern. Increased conversational skills can boost information value and help us experience the enjoyment of participation. Keeping a conversation going is something of an art, and one in which many students now seem to

lack, or are unwilling to show in front of other students. This seems counter-intuitive to having constructive and enjoyable conversations with others which are supposed to be fun. Contrary to communication which is to be heard in more formal dialogue, conversation is simply talking to someone else beginning with but ultimately going beyond small talk,[1] usually informally.

Simply speaking, conversation is spoken on the proverbial "a two-way street," where at least one person, if not the other parties as well, ideally tries to achieve a balance between talking and listening in both directions, though this may not happen at all times by all people in every conversation (Antony, 2004). So trying to ask a question to establish common ground is the "golden rule" of conversation. Bilateral speakers can build rapport in a friendly way by establishing some common grounds, simply smiling and using positive and reinforcing body language with such questions as, "What do you think about…?" or "What are you interested in?" We are told to avoid continuous and controversial topics at our first encounter with other people on the so-called "taboo" topics of politics and religion.

Meanwhile, in a college setting, although students are worried about having conversations in English because they are concernced they will not be able to keep the conversation going, students are eager to improve their conversation and communication skills. They can cover most academic and professional topics, including interviews, presentations like TED talks, discussions and debates to enhance their thinking structure. Discussions on these taboo topics are arguably fundamental to students' success when they meet people from around the world.

In order to enhance their conversation skills, students need to establish some appropriate strategies to become better speakers and presenters from the beginning to the end. PS is not just about verbally articulating what we have on our minds but it is also about conveying our thoughts and ideas or even assertions as well in a manner congruent with the type of speech we are giving (O'Hair et al., 2015). Along with that, speakers / presenters show all aspects of their nonverbal cues through such things as appearance, impression, and movements, not to mention verbal cues such as voice, tone, enunciation and volume in a way that captures and keeps the attention of the audience (Nahk Bohk Kim, 2017).

That is, PS is one aspect of communication used to introduce oneself visually in front of a crowd of people, persuade others convincingly, inform someone of something in a

[1] 'Small talk' is, broadly, inconsequential 'chit-chat' about minor or uncontentious issues such as the weather, recent news items or jobs. Some people purport to despise small talk as being unimportant, or trivial, but it serves a useful function of allowing one to build rapport and establish common ground without having to invest too much emotion in the conversation. This may be particularly important for introverts. (https://www.skillsyouneed. com/ips/conversational -skills.html)

concise and comprehensive way, and deliver a wide array of audience adaptation speeches such as wedding speeches, funeral speeches, congratulatory remarks, inspirational remarks at a charity event or an introductory speech (O'Hair et al., 2015). Not only can conversational skills be learned and developed, but it is surprisingly easy to do so, especially in a democracy, one's ability to express one's thoughts on politics, or even the policy of education is vital, going beyond small talk.

Consequently, as students listen to speeches, they are "prone to wander." People in the audience have many things to think about other than the speech they are listening to. When a student is in the audience, however, they can help out the speakers by listening carefully and critically to their fellow students. With many different styles of listening, sometimes we listen for comprehension or listen to receive information. And there are times when we listen critically, to evaluate the speaker's message. In a speaking class, students ought to listen to learn, but also to evaluate the speaker's message. When they sit down, people in the audience will be asked to give the speaker feedback, and feedback requires careful listening. When the teacher asks students in the audience to give feedback to their peer who just spoke in front of the class, those students should keep these things in mind. Consequently, "public speeches are more formal than private conversations; at the same time, public speeches aim to be conversational and personal" (Hemmert, 2008, p. 20).

III. METHOD

1. Participants

The total number of students who participated in this PSA survey was 117 students consisting of a wide variety of majors, 34 low-level students for G1 and 83 high-level for G2 who took a conversation course at a Korean university. For follow-up in-depth interviews, 12 students out of the survey participants of the high level group, 7 male and 5 female students responded to 8 interview questions as part of a FGI regarding the challenges of speaking in front of their peers in English Conversation classes and for the purpose of ascertaining applicable strategies for improving conversation skills in the EFL context. These students were enrolled in from "English Conversation 1 or 2 for low-level group (G1: a TOEIC score less than 500)" to "English Conversation 3 or 4 for high-level group (G2: a TOEIC score more than 500)" during the fall semester of 2017. Table 1 indicates some variables of the survey and interview participants, arranged according to gender, year, and class.

TABLE 1

Summary of Interview Participant Variables (n=12)

Interviewee	Gender	Year	Class
A	Male	Freshman	English Conversation 4
B	Female	Sophomore	English Conversation 4
C	Male	Freshman	English Conversation 4
D	Male	Freshman	English Conversation 4
E	Female	Freshman	English Conversation 4
F	Female	Freshman	English Conversation 4
G	Male	Freshman	English Conversation 4
H	Male	Freshman	English Conversation 4
I	Female	Freshman	English Conversation 4
J	Female	Freshman	English Conversation 4
K	Male	Freshman	English Conversation 4
L	Male	Sophomore	English Conversation 4

2. Instruments

1) Questionnaire and interviews

The instrument for this study was a modified questionnaire used to identify PSA through McCroskey's PRPSA[2] which measures students' levels of communication anxiety. Students filled out the questionnaires during the class. To express their thoughts and opinions about PS, the questionnaire included 5-level Likert items (1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=neutral, 4=disagree, and 5=strongly disagree). Additionally, 12 participants playing the role of FGI responded to open-ended interview questions.

Interviews were conducted during the regular class before the final exam in the form of feedback to interview questions with 12 students in order to investigate their perceptions of PS activities and some applicable strategies on how to overcome PSA and to organize better PS curriculum. These 12 interviewees were chosen randomly by the international instructor, an American. The randomly selected student talked one-on-one at the instructor's desk in front of the classroom in most of the classes. In order to balance the interviewees equally between women and men, the instructor only did a random selection with students of that gender.

Concretely, the first method utilized for this research was that of conducting surveys with the 117 students taking a conversation class. The second method utilized for this research was that of interviewing students. In order for students to understand the questions and to be able to answer the questions accurately, the interview was done in

[2] Personal Report of Public Speaking Anxiety (PRPSA)'s questionnaire was developed by McCroskey in1970 in order to measure communication-bound anxiety. In this study the items were adopted and partly revised a little from previous contents to compare students' responses.

the form of a short questionnaire where 8 questions were presented to students on paper in both Korean and English. Students were given no strict guidelines on how long their answers needed to be. They were conducted mostly in English so if students had a strong command of English their answers tended to be long, whereas students with a lower English ability tended to answer more briefly with less conviction about the shortcomings of the class related to getting students to speak in front of the class. Students could read the questions that the instructor asked but they did not write down their answers.

The PSA surveys were distributed to students during the class. There were no strict instructions given on the required length for the answers. The interviews were simply one-on-one conversations between one representative student of each class and the instructor. Students' abilities or attitudes were not factors in being selected. This gave the survey a good balance and involved students who were less motivated to speak in class as well as students who were more motivated to speak in class.

3. Data Collection and Analysis

For the first research question, a descriptive analysis of the questionnaire on PSA was utilized to identify enrolled students' perceptions and levels of PSA through modified PRPSA during the class. The collected samples were analyzed in terms of descriptive statistics through the program SPSS 22.0. G1 and G2 were analyzed separately in terms of the second research question, related to English Conversation students, to ascertain applicable strategies for improving speaking skills, twelve students were selected for the FGI in order to identify challenges students encountered in terms of volunteering or being asked to speak in front of their peers in English Conversation classes. The surveys distributed to students were quantitatively administered whereas the interviews at the Korean university where the second part of this study was conducted were administered according to PRPSA utilizing qualitative research methodology.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Students' Perceptions on Public Speaking Anxiety

Regarding PSA analysis, the researcher largely divided the questionnaire items into two parts except for only item 4 about post-speech. In order to identify students' PSA in each group, data was collected via a questionnaire using a 5-point Likert scale

(1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=neutral, 4=disagree, and 5=strongly disagree). They were completed by G1 and G2 students enrolled in an English Conversation course. In addition, twelve FGI students were interviewed about their perceptions of their own PSA and how to improve their speaking skills through PS activities in the classroom. Pre-speech phrase in Table 2 is about various physical and physiological anxieties during pre-preparation and preparation process. During-speech phrase in Table 3 is about a variety of dimensional nervous feelings which students can experience during the process of delivering a speech from beginning to end.

TABLE 2

Results of the PSA Questionnaire for "Pre-Speech Phase" (*n*: G1=34, G2=83)

PSA Questions	G1		G2	
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*
1. While preparing for speaking in front of the class, I feel tense and nervous.	2.45	0.94	2.44	0.99
2. I feel tense when I see the words presentation and speaking (share with the class) on a course outline when enrolled in a class	2.57	1.01	2.53	1.11
5. I get anxious when asked to speak in front of the class.	2.36	0.96	2.82	0.97
7. Although I am nervous just before speaking in front of the class, I soon settle down after starting and feel calm and comfortable.	3.22	0.92	2.86	1.10
8. I look forward to speaking in front of the class.	4.07	0.89	3.85	0.99
9. When the instructor announces a speaking assignment in class, I can feel myself getting tense.	2.83	1.08	2.74	1.02
12. I enjoy preparing to speak in front of the class.	3.94	0.85	3.82	0.97
19. I perspire just before speaking in front of the class.	3.43	1.04	3.56	1.02
21. I experience considerable anxiety while sitting in the room just before I speak in public.	2.58	0.98	2.71	1.12
25. I breathe faster just before speaking in front of the class.	2.72	0.97	2.80	1.01
26. I feel comfortable and relaxed in the hour or so just before speaking in front of the class.	3.61	0.90	3.30	1.14
27. I do poorer speaking in front of the class because I am anxious.	2.69	1.02	2.94	1.07
28. I feel anxious when the teacher announces the date of a speaking assignment.	2.93	0.97	2.74	1.19
31. I have trouble sleeping the night before a speaking test.	3.54	1.04	3.47	1.28
33. I feel anxious while waiting for my turn to speak in front of the class.	2.48	0.89	2.68	1.15

The results of the questionnaires in Table 2 and 3 showed that participants felt more nervous at the pre-speech phase than they did at the during-speech phase in aspects of PSA, regardless of low-and high level students. Just thinking of and preparing speaking

in public, PSA made them more tense, perspiring, and breathing faster (see items 1, 2, 5, 9, 19, and 25). They also gradually felt anxious when they encountered speaking assignments (see items 9 and 28). However, they felt comfortable and calm as time went on (see items 7, and 26). Overall, students had a comparatively high level of PSA and did not long to engage in PS (see items 8, 12 and 33).

Students felt nervous prior to and during the time they gave a speech, and sometimes even after their speeches were already delivered like N. Kim's research (2017). Table 3 shows that speaking in front of the class makes students nervous, jumbled and be in constant fear (see items 3, 6 and 13). Their fear of giving a speech was most evidenced by trembling hands, beating heart and helpless feeling (see items 10, 20, 22, 29, 30 and 32). However, with time students felt less anxious and more relaxed regarding their speeches (see items 11, 16, 17 and 24), even though they continued to make mistakes while giving speeches.

TABLE 3

Results of PSA Questionnaire for "During-Speech Phase" (*n:* G1=34, G2=83)

PSA Questions	G1		G2	
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*
3. My thoughts become confused and jumbled when I speak in English in front of the class.	2.58	0.96	2.56	1.05
6. I have no fear of speaking in front of the class.	3.99	0.90	3.56	1.11
10. My hands tremble when I am speaking in front of the class.	3.33	1.03	3.15	1.13
11. I feel relaxed while speaking in front of the class.	4.00	0.80	3.77	0.99
13. I am in constant fear of forgetting what I prepared to say when I speak in front of others.	2.69	1.06	2.53	0.90
14. I get anxious if someone asks me something about my topic that I do not know when I have to speak in front of the whole class.	2.60	0.96	2.68	1.04
15. I face the prospect of speaking in front of the class with confidence.	3.57	1.03	3.36	0.98
16. I feel that I am in complete possession of myself while speaking in front of the class.	3.54	0.94	3.21	0.84
17. My mind is clear when speaking in front of the class.	3.40	0.90	3.44	0.93
18. I do not dread speaking in front of the class.	3.66	0.99	3.26	1.07
20. My heart beats very fast as I start a speech.	2.43	0.93	2.65	0.85
22. Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid while speaking in front of the class.	3.02	1.00	2.94	1.13
23. Realizing that only a little time remains when speaking in public makes me very tense and anxious.	2.80	1.04	2.68	1.12

24. While speaking in front of the class, I know I can control my feelings of tension and stress.	3.35	0.76	3.15	0.90
29. When I make a mistake while speaking before class, I find it hard to concentrate on what I want to say next.	2.57	0.90	2.68	1.04
30. During an important presentation I experience a feeling of helplessness building up inside me.	3.20	0.96	2.79	1.17
32. My heart beats very fast while I speak in front of the class.	2.50	0.85	2.82	1.03
34. While speaking in front of the class, I get so nervous I forget facts I really know.	2.67	0.88	2.91	1.11

TABLE 4

Significant Results of the PSA Questionnaire for G1 and G2

PSA Questions	G1		G2		t	*Sig.*
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*		
5. I get anxious when I am asked to speak in front of the class.	2.36	0.96	2.82	0.97	-2.35	0.02
6. I have no fear of speaking in front of the class.	3.99	0.90	3.56	1.11	2.18	0.03
18. I do not dread speaking in front of the class.	3.66	0.99	3.26	1.07	2.08	0.04

Only 3 factors contained items 5, 6, and 18 in Table 4 show a significant difference between G1 and G2 in the level of 0.5. This implies that the level of English proficiency does not have any huge impact on PSA. That is, regardless of the English proficiency level, most students suffer from PSA.

As for male and female, the overall results of two-way ANOVA analysis significantly differ among 8 items out of 34 items. Interestingly enough, only post-speech item 4 shows a significant difference between male and female students. Table 5 shows significant differences among items 7, 12 and 31 in a Pre-speech phase, also items 14, 15, 16 and 17 in a During-speech phase, respectively.

TABLE 5

Significant Results of the PSA Questionnaire for Male and Female

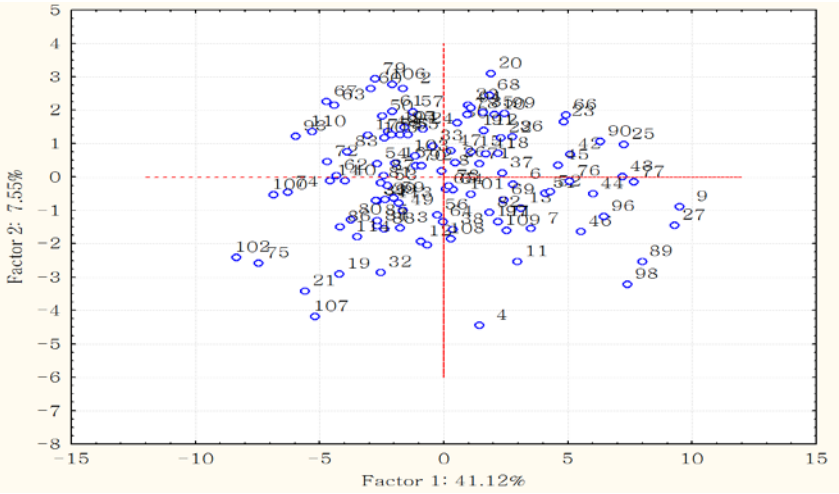
PSA Questions	Male		Female		t	*Sig.*
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*		
4. Right after speaking in front of the class I feel that I have had a pleasant experience.	2.62	0.82	3.10	0.86	-2.55	0.01
7. Although I am nervous just before speaking in front of the class, I soon settle down after starting and feel calm and comfortable.	2.91	1.00	3.37	0.92	-2.57	0.01

12. I enjoy preparing to speak in front of the class.	3.74	0.92	4.12	0.79	-2.33	0.02
14. I get anxious if someone asks me something about my topic that I do not know when I have to speak in front of the whole class.	2.85	0.93	2.31	0.97	3.02	0.00
15. I face the prospect of speaking in front of the class with confidence.	3.30	1.08	3.76	0.86	-0.50	0.01
16. I feel that I am in complete possession of myself while speaking in front of the class.	3.14	0.86	3.84	0.86	-4.42	0.00
17. My mind is clear when speaking in front of the class.	3.21	0.92	3.69	0.81	-2.91	0.04
31. I have trouble falling asleep the night before a speaking test.	3.73	0.97	3.25	1.23	2.32	0.02

Meanwhile, Figure 1 reveal that two dimension ordination of students' responses to 34 questions using factor analysis. Numerals indicate student number, from 1 to 34 for G1 and from 35 to 117 for G2 of high-level students. More specifically, in order to determine whether students between groups responded differently, factor analysis was conducted according to Statistica (H. No & H. Jeong, 2002).

FIGURE 1

Factor Analysis of Responses between Groups



As shown in Figure 1, students' responses reveal that there is no distinct difference between the two groups (G1 and G2), showing mixed distribution on the whole, except for a few numbers. That is, the results of factor analysis disclose that most students stand

at the central part, showing similar responses except for the low-level student numbers 4, 9, 19, 21, 27, and 32, and high-level student numbers 75, 89, 98, 102, and 107 which are a little apart from the center. Considering these results, teachers need to not only design the conversation framework to overcome PSA for the whole class but touch individually on the language proficiency according to the difference level. Generally speaking, regardless of gender and English proficiency level, students feel nervous and anxious in PS.

2. Applicable Strategies for PS Skills in the EFL Contexts

Based on the analysis from the open-ended questionnaire and interviews, the researcher identified the following several applicable strategies for PS skills. Table 6 indicated that participants enrolled in conversation class responded to interview questions. Students were expected to answer eight questions. As for the first, second, and third questions, most students referred to either shyness or a lack of confidence, even alluding to Korean culture being a cause of them not wanting to "stick out." Some students stated that the issue is related to English itself, such as vocabulary or grammar, whereas other students argued that it is unrelated to English. They said that students do not have an opportunity to speak in front of their peers in English and that they do not know each other well. A vast majority of students are extremely afraid of being judged by others. They have little experience with speaking in English and also they are afraid of saying the wrong answer.

TABLE 6

Students' Responses to Interview Questions

Items	Students' Major Responses
1. Do you think speaking English in front of the class is difficult? Why or why not?	Shyness & nervousness and not enough experience, couldn't process their thoughts in English, English education focusing on reading and listening, no confidence, worried about making mistakes, not adjusted to speaking to each other in public, awkward environment, awkward environment
2. Why do you think students are hesitant to speak (especially presentations) in English in front of other students?	Feeling of being ashamed and embarrassed, difficulty expressing themselves in English, incomplete preparation, overwhelmed by lots of people, not good pronunciation, lack of familiarity with one another, worried about making mistakes, not familiar with using English in public
3. What would be the worst thing that could happen if you made mistakes while speaking in English in front of your peers?	Awkward environment, shyness and feeling of being embarrassed and humiliated, laughing and teasing, confidence loss, stopping the flow of speaking, face turning red, unable to concentrate on what I want to say, valuable experience, ashamed and nervous, become more comfortable with English

4. Why are you satisfied with the way this English Conver – sation professor gave speaking tasks regarding the way students interact in front of the whole class?	Need for space for one-on-one conversation, a way of speaking with common interests, a matter of students' will, satisfied and beneficial, students' attitude, talking about current topics, fostering group discussion, create a burden-free conversation environment, giving free-time for team debate, building a closer relationship with fellow students
5. Mark the two items below which you consider to be necessary graded speaking activities for English Conversation classes with a "No. 1" and a "No. 2" in the parentheses next to the corresponding item.	Then write an example and your reason for why you think so. a. One-on-one interview (6); b. Group presentations (2) c. Role-play (2); d. Group discussion (4) e. Speaking activities with no preparation: Free-talking (8) Stressed out for presentation, improving speaking ability through various natural role-playing situations, improving speaking skill on any situation by free talking,
6. What do you think are good methods for getting students to actively participate in speaking activities in public, whether it involves the whole class or groups of students?	Intimate encouraging atmosphere, creating a relaxed atmosphere, ample opportunity to talk, joint conversation with students' speaking taking priority, having opportunity for everyone to speak, group assignment, roleplay & group discussion, triangulated participation, bonding with each other, generous grading, giving rewards for praising, presentation through a game or fun activities
7. How can students overcome their anxiety of speaking in front of other students?	A lot of experience and effort, mock roleplaying presentation through cooperation, can do attitude, frequent practice with a variety of methods with free topics, developing a more comfortable environment, use it in every conversation consciously, constant and sufficient practice, make situations not focused on individuals
8. What do you think are good individual and class methods to develop students' public speaking skills in English Conversation classes?	Attitude for speaking in public, positive modeling for practice, get better acquainted for conversation, more time, regular role play and free talking, make presentation through more comfortable situations, more opportunities to speak in English, do sufficient speaking practice, memorized speaking, practice having conversation with useful expressions during free-talking

Regarding the fourth, fifth, and sixth questions, they were the most difficult questions for students to answer. This could demonstrate that students themselves are dumbfounded in many cases on what they need to do to overcome their fear of speaking in English in front of others, much less what somebody should do to help them on their behalf. It shows that instructors need to have a clear idea on what is needed in order to foster a WTC environment in speaking contexts (Hodis, Bardhan, & Hodis, 2010). In order to reduce the nervousness students expect to play games that give them the opportunity to

speak more naturally in English. As expected, some students find the concept of speaking in front of the whole class ineffective. Students prefer free talking or one-on-one interviews to other methods like group presentations or discussions and role-plays. This is because students tend to be individually minded rather than collective. They prefer to participate in activities which demonstrate their own speaking level.

In regard to preferable methods overcoming PSA and applicable methods concerning question number 7 and 8, students demonstrated a lack of certainty, recommend bonus points, and put the responsibility on students by suggesting that they memorize more words. This suggests general education classes outside of their majors are not going to be taken seriously. Basically students want to play more games and do a variety of activities which foster a more lighthearted environment.

Overall, students' responses to the interview suggest that there are a variety of factors and certain barriers to successfully speaking in public. Most importantly, the American instructor told the researcher, saying the following, "the instructor needs to be a 'Jack of all trades' when it comes to getting students to be successful in communicating in English":

> "The instructor plays a great role as a counselor encouraging students by reminding them that it's okay to make mistakes, as an ambassador in creating a warm environment where students feel safe to speak in front of others, and as a facilitator instigating a variety of activities that are not always necessarily connected directly to the textbook but that gets students to know each other better and to be a provider, giving students ample opportunities to speak with and in front of their peers in such a way that at the end of the semester students can say, "I did it".

Further results are deciphered in order to ascertain some more effective and applicable strategies for improving English speaking skills. Some examples of these kinds of strategies include impromptu speeches, speaking in small groups, eliciting students to speak in front of the class, creating a warm and safe environment where students can perform at their best without any burdens.

On the other hand, informative and persuasive speeches with two speakers are like enlarged conversation in a sense. Through group discussion the classroom debate would be a constructive learning activity. The debates will help improve their critical thinking skills and oral communication ability. In addition, other benefits of such debates include mastering course content, boosting confidence, overcoming stage fright, and improving teamwork skills. Even more, their confidence spreads into all areas of their work.

More concretely, on the basis of the illustration of O'Hair et al. (2015), the researcher

of this study formulated a PS framework basically consisting of three-process activities. The first example of this type of activity is video-recording. After practicing the speech several times, students can record their speech as a means of practice. These practice sessions can provide valuable feedback. As students watch their initial recording they can take notes of the things they would like to change. Before recording again, they need to practice several more times until they are comfortable enough with the changes they've incorporated.

The second type of these three-process activities is self-reflection and peer correction. In order to add more creative gestures, students record their presentations for interactional evaluation like Ho Lee's research (2016) suggested in the media-conference English debate. The purpose of this activity is for them to ask themselves what they have learned from the experience of incorporating new ideas. Through group coaching sessions in the evaluation stage of PS classes, they will notice how everyone has to master the same techniques.

One more applicable solution is to use the technique of giving impromptu speeches, especially for advanced students. An impromptu speech is one that requires no previous preparation. The speaker is given the topic seconds before s/he delivers it. This speech requires the speaker to familiarize oneself with the basic format of the speech and organize the contents on a spur-of-the-moment basis.

A recent PS study shows that students who practiced their speeches in front of small audiences received significantly higher evaluations in their classroom speeches than students who did not practice or practiced in different ways (Beebe & Beebee, 2015; Colombo, 2007). Although practicing did not directly produce less speech anxiety, the overall better performance outcomes for those who did practice suggest that even the more anxious students were better able to control their anxiety. This goes along the lines of Kamridah, Yassi, Arafah and Imran's study (2016) that a person's level of anxiety did not become barriers for speaking.

From the innovative teaching approach in terms of improving public speeches, in EFL situations, the combination of words, instead of word by word is beneficial in language use in terms of the basic language components. When students try to learn new lexical items as an unanalyzed unit they should pick up the most common chunks and use them appropriately in class or in free-talking activities at an English café or in speaking as well as in writing (Nahk Bohk Kim & Brent Dirks, 2011; Lewis, 1997; Shinwoong Lee 2015). Their responses seem to imply that they built up confidence in speaking and writing through a variety of trials and errors as well as overcoming their fear of making speaking mistakes

V. CONCLUSION

According to a 2010 survey conducted by the National Association of Colleges and Employers in the United States, communication skills are ranked first among a job candidate's "must have" skills and qualities. To date in Korea, PS is also increasingly becoming an intrinsic part of our daily lives, no matter what our field of study is related to, college students preparing for a job interview, or students making a class presentation. The purpose of this study was to investigate participants' perceptions of PSA and PS, and to search for applicable strategies through responses focusing on the activities of 12 students by investigating the two research questions.

Firstly, "What are the perceptions of EFL university students regarding public speaking anxiety?" Students had a comparatively high level of PSA and did not want to engage in PS with confidence, and felt more anxious in the pre-speech phase than during-speech phase. Regardless of their gender and English proficiency level, students experienced PSA. Anxiety has been regarded as one of the most important socio-affective factor influencing conversation skills. As a result, applicable strategies for improving PS and addressing learners' language anxiety are vital for academic purposes (Humphries, 2011).

Secondly, "What are some applicable strategies for PS skills in EFL conversation classrooms?" There were different ways of coping with PSA and handling PS preparation and delivery strategies based on whether the speakers were EFL speakers or native speakers. EFL students mainly focused on rapport and intimate non-verbal environment rather than linguistic and verbal communication (Nahk Bohk Kim, 2017). As to applicable strategies, an appropriate audience-friendly environment, self-reflection and peer correction through video-recording, sometimes impromptu speeches would be suggested for better enhancing public speeches.

The limitations of this paper include the following. This was carried out at just one Korean university in one English-speaking country with 117 students for PSA survey and twelve interviewees as a preliminary case study. It is limited in terms of generalizing the results of this paper. Despite these limitations, however, the implication in this study is that EFL instructors elaborately design the public speaking curriculum framework for EFL students, connecting verbal communication elements together with nonverbal communication components. In addition, especially for overcoming PSA, teachers need to develop a wide variety of speech communication platforms that are applicable and feasible in the real conversation class. Moreover, further studies are needed to create effective speech communication environments such as comfort zones together with dealing with social anxiety and shyness (McCroskey, 2009) in the EFL context which can address the limitations of this present study.

REFERENCES

Antony, M. (2004). *10 simple solutions to shyness: How to overcome shyness, social anxiety and fear of public speaking*. Oakland, CA: New Harbinger.

Beebe, S. A., & Beebe, S. J. (2015). *A concise public speaking handbook*. New York: Pearson.

Chapman University's Survey on American Fears. (2014). *8 steps for controlling public speaking*. Retrieved February 5, 2017. From world wide web https://www.slideheroes.com/conquer-the-fear-8-steps-for-controlling-public-speaking-anxiety/

Colombo, J. R. (2007). *Speech anxiety: Overcoming the fear of public speaking*. Retrieved October 8, 2016. From world wide web www.speechcoach forexecutives. com/speech_anxiety.html.

Coopman, S. J., & Lull, J. (2015). *Public speaking: The evolving art* (3rd ed.). Stamford, Connecticut: Cengage Learning.

Greene, D. M., & Walker, F. R. (2004). Recommendations to public speaking instructors for the negotiation of code-switching practices among black English-speaking African American students. *Journal of Negro Education, 73*, 435-442.

Griffin, C. L., & Bone J. E. (2015*). Invitation to human communication* (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.

Hemmert, N. G. (2008). *Public speaking in American English*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Hodis, G. M., Bardhan, N. R., & Hodis, F. A. (2010). Patterns of change in willingness to communicate in public speaking contexts: A latent growth modeling analysis. *Journal of Applied Communication Research, 38*(3), 248-267.

Humphries, R. (2011). Language anxiety in international students: How can it be overcome? *Pragmatics and International Communication 4*(1). 65-77.

James, E. T. (2002). Adventures in public speaking: A guide for the beginning instructor or public speaker. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 71*(2), 15-19.

Kamridah., Yassi, A., Arafah, B., & Imran, N. (2016). Correlation between level of anxiety and public speaking performance through systematic learning approach in foreign language. *International Journal of Science and Research (LJSR), 5*(9), 1658-1663.

Kim, Nahk Bohk., & Brent. D. (2011). Effective free-talking methods in a Korean university setting. *Modern English Education, 12*(4), 192-214.

Kim, Nahk Bohk. (2017). A comparative analysis of public speaking anxiety among three different nationalities. *Modern English Education, 18*(2), 109-130.

Lee, Ho. (2016) Analyzing peer-to-peer instruction features in the media-conference English debate: From the perspective of speaking assessment. *English Language & Literature Teaching, 22*(2), 237-258.

Lee, Shinwoong. (2015). Korean EFL learners' productive collocation knowledge and its relationship to their writing proficiency. *English Language & Literature Teaching, 21*(4), 59-84.

Lewis, M. (1997). *Implementing the lexical approach: Putting theory into practice.* London: Language Teaching Publications.

McCroskey, J. C. (1970). Measures of communication-bound anxiety. *Speech Monographs, 37*(4), 269-277.

McCroskey, J. C. (2009). Communication apprehension: What have we learned in the last four decades. *Human Communication, 12*(2), 157-171.

McCroskey, J. C., Fayer, J. M., & Richmond, V. P. (1985). Don't speak to me in English: Communication apprehension in Puerto Rico. *Communication Quarterly, 33,* 185-192.

No, Heongjin., & Jeong, Hanyeol (2002). *Well-Defined Statistical Analysis according to Statistica.* Seoul: Hyeongseol Publisher.

O'Hair, D., Stewart, R., Rubenstein, H. (2015). *A speaker's guidebook* (7th ed.). New York: Bedford/St. Martin's.

Trenholm, S. (2014). *Thinking through communication: An introduction to the study of human communication* (7th ed.). New York: Pearson Education, Inc.

Woodrow, L. (2006). Anxiety and speaking English as a second language. *Regional Language Centre (RELC) Journal, 37*, 308-328.

Zhang, W., & Liu Meihua. (2013). Evaluating the impact of oral test anxiety and speaking strategy use on oral English performance. *The Journal of Asia TEFL, 10*(2), 115-148.

Examples in: English

Applicable Language: English

Applicable Levels: Secondary, College & Adults

Nahk-Bohk Kim
Korea Nazarene University
Flight Business English Department

31172 Wolbong-ro 48, Seobuk-gu, Cheonan city
Chungnam, S. Korea
Email: knb2030@kornu.ac.kr

Received in April 14th, 2018
Reviewed in May 26th, 2018
Revised version received in June 5th, 2018

English Language & Literature Teaching, Vol. 24, No. 2 Summer 2018

Learning English and Identity Construction of Korean Early Study Abroad Students

Shinhye Kim
(Keimyung University)

Kim, Shinhye (2018). Learning English and identity construction of Korean early study abroad students. *English Language & Literature Teaching, 24*(2), 89-110.

The purpose of the study is to investigate the relationship between learning English and constructing identities by Korean early study abroad (ESA) students in US university contexts. Drawing on the poststructuralist notion of identity, the study attempts to depict ESA students learning English and their identity construction. Data were collected from interviews with six ESA students enrolled in US universities and analyzed to examine investment in learning English, communities of practice (CoP, Wenger, 1998), and conflicts between imagined and actual identities. The findings show that the participants had conflicts between their imagined identity of a perfect bilingual speaker and the current identity of an ambivalent speaker. Their sense of obligation to use more English was in conflict with peer pressure among Korean students. The results show that ESA students' investment to learn English is facilitated or constrained by sociocultural contexts and their identity is constructed through negotiating the conflicts between English-speaking and Korean-speaking communities. The findings suggest that learners should be aware of sociocultural constraints or opportunities in their learning context, and should be encouraged to set a reasonable goal, specific to their needs.

[early study abroad/identity/communities of practice/imagined identity]

I. INTRODUCTION

As English is regarded as a crucial tool for communication and gaining a competitive edge in a job market, a great number of Korean students have chosen to study in the English-speaking countries prior to college education. This type of transnational movement is termed as *Joki yuhak*, which literally means early study abroad (ESA, hereafter), and it refers to a student's study abroad in their (pre-)teen or pre-college years (Song, 2010). It is regarded as a strategy to acquire bilingual or multilingual competence through gaining

access to English as a valuable linguistic resource. It is also a pursuit to become 'global elites' (Bae, 2013, p. 416) who have multilingual competence and symbolic capital (Bourdieu, 1991). *Joki yuhak* began to increase in the late 1990s due to the widespread dissatisfaction with the public education system and intense competition in and outside Korea (Lee & Koo, 2006; Lim, 2005; Moon, 2011; Park & Lo, 2012) and has become a distinctive educational and linguistic investment for upper- and middle-class Koreans (Bae, 2013). The ESA students are either accompanied by a parent (usually a mother) or stay with a guardian designated by their parents. They are differentiated from second-generation Koreans (*gyopo*, Korean Americans) who were born in the US, or those who immigrated in their pre-teen years with their family (*imminja*, immigrants) in that the primary purpose of the ESA students' mobility is to learn English or to go to a university in the US. The duration of their stay in the US depends on the legal status and job availability after graduating from college. Because of different purpose of immigration, the time of arrival, and the types of residence, the ESA may have different paths of learning English and different perceptions of themselves. Despite the different purpose of immigration and sociocultural contexts that the ESA students undergo, relatively little research has been conducted to investigate how they struggle to learn English and how they construct their identity especially after graduating from a secondary school.

Learning a second language does not simply mean gaining additional linguistic knowledge. It involves gaining a second language ego and forming a new identity. Hence, the second language learning process can be considered a struggle to gain new identities in a given linguistic community. As the relationship between second language learning and sociocultural environments has been an important issue in the field of applied linguistics, close attention has been paid to how learners resolve conflicts among different identities and reconstruct their identities while learning a second language.

The concept of learner identities has been explored mainly with English native speakers learning European languages (e.g. Kinginger, 2008) and only a few studies looked at Asian English learners in second language contexts (e.g., Gao, 2011; Kang, 2012; Song, 2012). Studies on Korean study abroad students reported that ESA is a strategic investment to gain global competence by experiencing an advanced education system and participating in diverse linguistic and cultural opportunities (Hong & Sung, 2011; Kim & Yoo, 2008; Lee, 2010). Yet, research with the ESA students also demonstrated they may experience emotional and financial problems, cultural maladjustment, and changes with family relationships (Song, Yoon, Lee, & Kim, 2011). While previous studies have shown general characteristics of Korean ESA students in terms of their psychological, emotional, and cultural experiences, they did not specifically focus on ESA students' identity and how it is related to their learning and use of English. In this regard, the present study draws attention to a growing number of Korean study immigrants and how they identify themselves in the

process of gaining a second language, addressing the issues of learner identity, L2 motivation, and sociocultural influence.

The poststructuralist notion of identity provides a useful tool to investigate the ESA students' language learning and identity construction process as it assumes second language learning and learner identity are closely interrelated. ESA students may experience different paths of adaptation to the L2 environments due to their different visa status, linguistic proficiency, and peer groups. It needs to be pointed out that the ESA experience does not only affect a student's linguistic and academic achievements but also influences one's future career, relationship with family and friends, and perception of oneself. Thus the ESA students' experience has to be viewed as a process of constructing their identities which involves tension and conflicts between their old and new identities (Kim & Okazaki, 2014; Lee, 2010). From this perspective, studies on learner identity have demonstrated how cultural and societal contexts facilitate or constrain learners' agency and participation in the CoP, and how second language learning is inextricably interrelated to identity construction. Taking the view that language learning is a fundamentally social, cultural, and temporal activity rather than just an individual, decontextualized, ahistorical, cognitive activity, the present study examines the ESA students' experience based on the notions of CoP and imagined identity (Norton, 2000). Considering the scarcity of the studies with Korean ESA students (e.g., Kang, 2012; Song, 2012) and the growing interest in sociocultural theory in applied linguistics, the study aims to illustrate Korean ESA students' English learning and identity construction processes. The specific research questions are as follows:

- What are the trajectories of ESA students' learning and use of English?
- What are the critical influences in learning and using English?
- What is the relationship between their self-evaluation of English and their learner identity?
- How do they resolve the conflicts between language choice and social relationships?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Poststructuralist Concept of Identity

Since Firth and Wagner (1997) proposed their criticism on the narrow focus of predominantly-cognitively oriented approaches in the second language acquisition (SLA) field, SLA researchers have widely adopted sociocultural and poststructuralist approaches that take account of the societal, historical, and cultural contexts in explaining second language learning processes (Block, 2007; Firth & Wagner, 1997; Norton Peirce, 1995).

From the poststructuralist perspective, identity is framed as “fragmented and contested in nature,” not fixed for life (Block, 2007, p. 864). Hence, elucidating how people balance or negotiate such multi-faceted identities is a key issue in identity research. Research has also suggested that identity is not an act of exclusively individual agency but is constructed, maintained, and negotiated through participation in communities (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Wenger’s (1998) notion of CoP emphasizes the interaction between individuals and social communities. The notion of CoP was further developed to imagined communities which can be constructed through learners’ imagination and enable them to invest in their imagined identities (Kanno & Norton, 2003; Norton, 2000; Norton & Gao, 2008; Norton & Toohey, 2011).

The notion of imagined communities provides a theoretical framework in explaining female immigrants’ investment in learning English (Norton, 2000). Norton (2000) contested that the opportunities for immigrant women to practice English as a second language (ESL) are socially structured outside the classroom and the practices of environments constrain or facilitate the learner’s opportunities to practice their use of English. She also focused on how immigrant women respond to and act upon these social structures to create, use or resist opportunities to practice English whereby they choose to construct their imagined identity. She concluded that both context and agency are instrumental in forming and reforming one’s identities. Thus how different contextual environments, including interpersonal relationship and institutional structure, and how individuals act upon on the context, have been a key issue in identity research. In short, identity research has recognized the possibility of broadening a mostly cognitively-oriented explanation of second language learning to include more social and sociocultural perspectives by linking individuals’ concepts of identity with their sociocultural environments.

2. Studies on Korean ESA Students

Studies on Korean ESA students have mainly focused on their adaptation process and reported the problems and difficulties of home-stay family and school life. Kim and Okazaki (2014) interviewed ten Korean ESA students who stayed in the host country without their parents. They described that the students were vulnerable in a new context due to their lack of voluntary motivation and lack of preparedness for the study abroad. They were also shown to experience feelings of isolation and guilt, and struggled to achieve a sense of belongingness in the new culture. They also pointed out that the relationship between ESA students and the home-stay guardian is critical in helping students adapt to a new cultural environment. However, conflicts occur between students and home-stay guardians due to their different expectation of each other. Yu (2005) found

that ESA students experienced varying degrees of depression due to the language barrier and homesickness, which they usually tried to deal with by themselves. When they did not have a supporting system or someone to discuss their problems, they were more likely to experience a high degree of depression. As pointed out by Kim and Okazaki (2014), Yu's (2005) study also shows the importance of a reliable adult's presence around the ESA students, especially at the beginning stage of ESA. These studies show ESA students, particularly those without their parents in the host country, are vulnerable to emotional and linguistic difficulties and that they may lose a sense of who they are.

As these studies were conducted from a psychological perspective, they focused on the ESA students' psychological problems and needs, but did not provide details on how they perceive themselves and cope with the linguistic, academic, and cultural challenges in a new context. A few studies looked into the issues of learner identity and second language learning in ESL settings. Among those, Lee (2010), in her study with 22 undergraduate ESA students, described that between-ness between two cultures is the most characteristic feature of their identity. Their between-ness not only means their connections to Korea and America, but also the advantage of being transnational elites who can be potential critics or social activists in a wider society. Lee (2010) pointed out that ESA should not be simply viewed as learning English as a second language, but as a process that students develop social awareness in multilingual, multicultural contexts. On the same note, Shin (2012) observed the language learning paths of ESA students in Toronto high schools and showed that ESA students adopt the Korean language and culture to distinguish themselves from (white) Canadians and long-term Korean immigrants to claim a cosmopolitan identity, which is morally and culturally cool, and different from that of Asian nerds or FOBs (Fresh Off the Boat)[1]. Their identity is referred to as styling for Korean cool which is achieved by means of intraethnic othering (Lo & Kim, 2012). In an ethnographic study of three Korean families in Singapore, Bae (2013) shows that ESA families pursued multilingual competence that is assumed to be needed for their children to become global elite. Despite their investment to achieve the goal of multilingual competence, their pursuit only resulted in truncated multilingualism (English, Mandarin, and Korean). Their evaluation of the values and functions of each language led them to employ different strategies of linguistic investment.

These studies commonly showed that multiple and ambiguous identities of ESA students exist due to their fluid membership of participation in the communities. It is also notable that transnational, global, or cosmopolitan elitism is their imagined identity which often conflicts with their current identities. While previous research was usually conducted with

[1] FOB generally refers to the students who come to the US in their college years and this term is used to contrast with the term 'Twinkies' in the present study.

ESA students at pre-college level and focused on their linguistic and cultural adaption process, fewer studies were carried out with college-level ESA students, especially those who came without their parents. While previous research noted that the feelings of between-ness characterize the ESA students, how they position themselves in relation to other groups and how ESA students' evaluation of their English is related to their identity construction have not been closely explored. Considering the recent research interests in learner identity and the scarcity of studies on ESA, the study attempts to investigate how multiple and potentially conflicting identities are expressed in their stories of learning English and gaining a membership in a CoP.

III. METHODS

1. Participants

The participants were part of the study that I conducted with the ESA students in Washington, D. C. Among fourteen interviewees, six interviewees were selected based on the criteria of those who came to the US without their parents and spent their secondary school years in an English-speaking country. I became acquainted with all of them in a Korean church that I attended during my sabbatical term in the US. I met them at church activities (services, community volunteering, excursions, etc.) and on campus before conducting the study. The profile of the participants is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1

The Profile of Participants

Partici-pant	Age	Time of Arrival	Legal Status	University Major
Andy	26	2nd year in middle school	Int'l student	Accounting
Beth	24	1st year in high school	Int'l student	Journalism
Cathy	24	Middle school / 1st year in college*	Int'l student	International law
Dianna	22	1st year in high school	Permanent Resident	Engineering
Esther	22	6th grade in elementary school	US Citizen	Art history
Helen	23	2nd year in middle school	US Citizen	Pre-medicine

*Cathy first went to New Zealand when she was in middle school, and later came to the US.

Though similar, in that the participants shared the experience of being ESA students abroad, they differed in various aspects. Except Beth – whose ESA experience was the first

exposure to an English-speaking culture – the other participants had lived or spent some time in an English-speaking country. Andy had an earlier exposure to English programs in the US. Dianna and Helen had spent their childhood in the US due to their parents' stay for their academic careers. Cathy and Esther had experience of returning to Korea following an earlier ESA period in New Zealand and Canada, respectively.

In terms of legal status, Andy, Beth, and Cathy remained as international students while Dianna acquired permanent-resident status. Esther and Helen had US citizenship but they perceived themselves as Korean. In fact, none of the participants claimed their identity as American despite their long stay and desire to remain in the US. Esther and Dianna sometimes referred to themselves as Asian to distinguish themselves from Korean international students. The participants generally used more Korean than English in their daily life and this tendency appears to be related to their perceived competence in English and the level of comfort with the languages. Esther tried to use the same amount of Korean and English and felt that her English was better than her Korean. Helen used more Korean but felt her level of English was not lower than her Korean.

2. Data Collection and Analysis

Interviews were the primary source of data to collect the ESA students' experiences, which were collected for a four-month period from November 2014 to February 2015. A list of questions about the participants' ESA experience (e.g. When and how did you decide to come to the US? What was it like to live with a host family or with students from other countries at the dormitory? How did you learn English? How did you choose the university? Which language do you use in your daily life? Who do you usually spend time with? How do you evaluate your English? What is your plan after graduation?) was prepared before the interview but the questions were used as prompts when needed to ask follow-up questions to elaborate on the participant's stories. I engaged in their stories as a sympathetic listener and encouraged them to talk about their experience as much as they wanted.

I obtained permission to contact the participants from the pastor of the church and sent out an email message to explain the purpose of the study. Upon receiving their permission to participate in the study, I met each participant for an interview. Each interview lasted for a minimum 90 minutes and it was conducted at a café or on campus. Because of the previous acquaintance at the church, I started the interview with church-related events or their study at the university. I told them to use either Korean or English for the interview and all of them chose to use Korean. The interviews were recorded and transcribed for analysis. After each interview, I wrote noticeable points made by the participants for analysis in my research journal.

Data analysis was conducted simultaneously with data collection. I read the transcripts a couple of times to get a glimpse of the content of the interviews, and then segmented the parts for analysis. Instead of mechanically assigning a code to each line as suggested for line-by-line coding, I assigned a code to sentences that denoted the same meaning. While trying not to group multiple sentences together under one code, I also tried not to generate too many codes that are not directly useful. Using Nvivo 11, a computer-based qualitative data analysis tool, I followed the content analysis procedure (Glaser, 1998) to code the data. The initial codes were close to verbatim in order to stay close to the original meaning. In the next step, the codes were grouped together to find key themes. The important codes that provided the axis to construct the participants' stories were 'better English', 'better education', 'a perfect bilingual speaker', and 'peer pressure'. In order to verify the accuracy of the data, I sent the transcript to the participants and confirmed the content of the data. After the analysis, I invited the participants for member-checking to check the validity of my interpretation. Among the participants, Andy, Beth, Cathy, and Esther read a brief summary of my analysis and shared their opinion. While maintaining my analytical perspective as a researcher, I tried to see if my analysis was faithful to the ESA students' experience.

IV. FINDINGS

1. Trajectories of ESA Students' English Learning

1) Choosing ESA: Seeking Better English and Better Education

The participants had had prior exposure to English-speaking countries (Andy, Cathy, Esther, Dianna, Helen) except Beth who came to an English-speaking country for the first time. The participants' parents generally believed that English is an essential tool in the globalized society and shared the beliefs that their children should be educated in an English-speaking country to be part of competitive elite. Dianna and Helen spent some years in their childhood in the US due to their fathers' job, and it was natural for them to choose ESA. For Cathy and Esther, it was their parents' strong wish to send them abroad and they eventually came to the US after their first trial. While under firm parental influence to opt for ESA, Andy and Beth voluntarily chose ESA as they felt suffocated with exam-focused study and pressure for college entrance examination. Whether it was the parents or the participants themselves, their ESA was driven by the belief that they will receive better education in an English-speaking country. Andy stated his motivation to choose ESA as follows:

(1) Uh… I did well on my study, I was not bad. But I didn't go to a private institute or get a private tutoring like other students. I wanted to study on my own but I felt I reached my own limit… Because I lived in a local town. If you are not one of the top students in your school, you cannot get into a university like SKY.[2] I was frustrated because I had to be worried if I could get into one of those top universities…I wanted to do something other than just study. But I was not allowed to do any sports or play the musical instruments. I felt… how can I say? Suffocated, I think. (Andy, Interview on Nov 6, 2014)

Andy described the conflicts between his desire to balance studying and doing extracurricular activities, and the pressure that he should go to a good university. His feeling of being suffocated led to ESA as an alternative. His prior experience in summer camp programs in the US helped him choose ESA without much difficulty. Similarly, Beth wanted to pursue "a better direction in life" instead of studying just to get a good grade for university admission. The participants' desire for a better education coupled with their romanticized idea of better education in an English-speaking country and their parents' beliefs about English drove them to choose ESA. The participants' ESA experience can be divided into different phases according to their learning and use of English, and each phase will be illustrated in the following sections.

2) Phase I: Gaining Proficiency

At the beginning of ESA, the students' most urgent task was to pick up English so that they could adjust to a new academic and cultural environment. Though the participants had initial difficulty in using English, they soon reached a level of proficiency at which they felt comfortable in engaging in academic and social life. They did not feel much stress with study and found themselves academically successful despite their disadvantage of being a non-native English speaker. The participants purposefully tried to avoid using Korean with Korean students so that they would use more English. Andy, Beth and Helen chose to stay with an American host family after their initial stay with a Korean host family. Esther was the only participant who stayed with the same Korean host family, which encouraged her to use English at home. Cathy and Dianna stayed in a dormitory where they had to interact with multinational students.

The participants were actively involved in extracurricular activities in their high school years as this was mandatory for college admission. Esther did more than 400 hours of

[2] SKY is an abbreviated term referring to Seoul National University, Korea University, and Yeonsei University, which are the three top-ranked universities in Korea.

extracurricular activities and participated in diverse club activities including fund-raising events at high school. The participants' active involvement in extracurricular activities provided them opportunities to use and improve their English. Andy's comment that "I thought I was American" suggests the extent of English he was engaged in. He described himself as "snobbish" as he answered in English even when a Korean friend asked a question in Korean. Beth joined the newspaper club and wrote journal articles during her high school years. She described her effort in using English in Excerpt (2).

(2) I had only one or two Korean friends that I could talk to. Because, I didn't hate Koreans. But…When I came to Maryland, there were a couple of friends like me. We are Korean but we talk in English. We all know we want to use English and let's do it kind of. But if you use English, you cannot have deep friendship. (Beth, Interview on Jan 12, 2015)

Beth tried to stay away from Korean-speaking students and purposefully used English with Korean friends. She admitted that her insistence of using English cost her "deep friendship". Likewise, the participants commonly felt "desperate" to improve their English, and this drove them to make efforts to use English while trying to keep distance from the predominantly Korean-speaking students.

3) Phase II: Using More Korean and Less English at the University

The choice of college was a critical decision that the participants had to make. Unlike their idealized image of a freer educational atmosphere in the US, they were under pressure to enter a highly-reputed university. Their financial conditions, scholarship availability, and visa status were factors that influenced their decision. They generally shared feelings of disappointment and obligation, and felt a need to prove themselves worthy of their parents' investment in their ESA. The pressure to achieve academic excellence and good job prospects forged a sense of bond among the ESA students, and the Korean church provided any emotional support they needed. The participants' involvement in the Korean church naturally increased their use of Korean. Though both Korean and English usage were mixed at the church, Korean was considered as the main medium of service and church activities.

Contrary to their supposition that university-life would provide more opportunities to mingle with multilingual and multicultural students, the participants turned out to spend more time with Koreans. Andy and Dianna explained why they had to use Korean as follows:

(3) In the department, even in class, there's an assumption that we, Koreans work together for the project even without saying to each other. We're in the business school and have a lot of projects. That's why we keep hang out with Koreans and naturally we do not use English. (Andy, Interview on Nov 6, 2014)

(4) There has to be place to use English. But I can't just stop hanging out people that I used to just to use more English. (Dianna, Interview on Dec 4, 2014)

After rejecting the prospect of joining intramural sports clubs or study groups, Andy did not find a group with which he could use English on a daily basis. As described in Excerpt (3), he felt obligated to socialize with Korean students in the department and to use Korean when among with them. Living with 1.5-generation Korean roommates, Dianna felt that she should use more English. However, she was torn between her relationship with Koreans and the need to use English. Esther and Helen used to feel more comfortable with English but they felt obligated to use Korean when conversing with Korean students at the university.

While the participants lived in a small town, they found a limited number of Koreans; they moved to a bigger city where they could have easy access to Korean communities and more frequent contacts with Koreans. In addition, the participants found the university segregated by ethnic groups. Andy referred to such tendency as "Koreans together with Koreans, Whites together with Whites" implying the difficulty in gaining membership in other ethnic groups. The close-knit membership in the same ethnic group limited the opportunities to use English and increased their use of Korean.

Having more contact with Korean students not only increased the participants' use of Korean but it also made them follow the norm expected by Koreans. The participants stated than they never volunteered to answer or ask questions in class. They preferred to be quiet unless classroom participation was mandatory for grades. They felt more comfortable in a lecture-based (larger) class in which their interaction was not necessarily expected. Helen, for example, would ask questions only when she had to give the impression that she still remained focused.

(5) I am not 100% confident in English. And you know how Koreans are. I went to elementary and middle school in Korea. Kids never volunteer unless they were pointed out. I was never a student who raise a hand to ask or answer a question in Korea. I kind of avoided presentations. In the US my English is not perfect so I feel like I have to get noticed. I have to show my efforts. That's why I do presentations. I never enjoy presentations. I say things in class just to show that I stay focused. I think it's important to show the professor that I'm making efforts

otherwise I won't do it. (Helen, Interview on Feb 12, 2015)

Helen was born and spent her early childhood in the US, and yet she was rather reserved in class. She attributed this high degree of reservedness to her imperfect English and to her previous schooling in Korea. The other participants also stated that they would not volunteer to participate in class unless they had to. They would force themselves to participate if their participation counted towards grades. In addition to their lack of confidence in English, the participants' reluctant participation was often attributed to the unsaid agreement that you should not stand out. As students from different ethnic backgrounds rarely mingled to work together, the ESA students did not want to be excluded from the Korean group, which made them act more Korean – being quiet, and not speaking unless you are pointed out. It was shown that the implicit peer pressure from the Korean students constrained interaction with non-Korean users and use of English among Korean students.

4) Phase III: Keeping the Status Quo

Ironically, the participants tended to use less English at the university due to more frequent contacts with Koreans on campus. Besides, the participants believed that had already reached the level at which their proficiency would not greatly fluctuate. They strove to create opportunities to use English and even separate themselves from the Korean community. The pattern was reversed at the university. They felt less need to improve their English and tended to stay together with Koreans. Though they had a sense of obligation to keep improving English in order to be part of the mainstream English-speaking community, they did not actively seek opportunities until they had an immediate need or pressure. Andy, for example, believed that he had no problem in communicating in English until he faced a job interview. He realized that he could not act in the way that American students act in spontaneous conversation situations, which, he assumed, might affect his chances in the job market. Though admitting the need to use English more, he justified his using Korean on the basis of his "good enough" English. Esther stated that her English was at the level at which it does not fluctuate much, even after a dominant use of Korean.

The participants' dominant use of Korean became an obstacle to further developing their English and interacting with non-Koreans. However, with their sense that they had reached a sufficient level of proficiency, they fell back on the emotional need for support, which drew them to the Korean community. The conflict between the need for improving English and having emotional support was difficult for the participants to resolve. If they tried to use more English, they might be criticized for standing out and not be accepted as members of the Korean CoP. On the other hand, if they keep using Korean, they might lose

a competitive edge in the academic community or in the job market.

2. Evaluation of English

The participants evaluated that their English seemed to plateau at the university. Their English was at its peak when they became involved in the many activities necessary to enter the university. The participants can be divided into three groups depending on their level of comfort with English and the amount of language use. Table 2 shows the details:

TABLE 2

The Participants' Comfort and Use of Languages

	Andy, Dianna	Beth, Cathy	Esther, Helen
Level of comfort	Korean > English	Korean > English	Korean = English
Amount of use	Korean > English	Korean = English	Korean ≥ English

Andy found his two-year military training period was detrimental to his English and felt that his proficiency never recovered to the level he perceived at high school. He never felt comfortable with English and attributed this lack of ease to his later arrival in middle school. His active participation in the church activities was a main reason for his dominant use of Korean. He described his English as far better than those who can barely graduate from the college but not natural enough to engage in casual conversations with American students. Dianna also expressed difficulty in presenting herself in a professional manner. She felt she could not "sell herself" at a job interview because of her "not 100% nativelike English".

On other hand, Beth found that her English was not greatly fluctuating but using Korean extensively affected her response rate in English. She evaluated her English during presentations as being less natural and having longer hesitations. That was why she avoided situations in which she had to exclusively use Korean. She took a very critical stance toward the Korean students who criticized her for hanging out with American students and using English. Wishing to be an international lawyer, Cathy found her academic English was sufficient enough to compete with American students but she felt she needed to extend vocabulary to the native-speaker level. She found it better to use Korean when speaking to Koreans because she could not fully express her personal, deep thoughts in English. While Beth and Cathy tried to balance their use of English and Korean by limiting socialization with Koreans, Esther and Helen used slightly more Korean when they came to the university as they felt they should socialize with Koreans.

Spending childhood in the English-speaking environment, Esther and Helen did not have much linguistic difficulty but they still found that their English was not nativelike.

Helen explained her lack of confidence as follows:

(6) In an everyday conversation, I am considered a 2nd-generation Korean. But when I speak unfamiliar words, I speak with Korean accent. In the science field, there are a lot of unfamiliar words and I have hard time pronouncing them. I feel self-conscious when I read them…I found the cultural gap is greater than the linguistic gap. When I talk with my American friends, they talk about TV shows, movies, or actors they know from elementary or middle school. They are new to me. I can't share what they talk about. When they talk about those, conversations break down. I don't know the American history that well, and conversation topics are always limited. I feel that I don't have anything to talk about. (Helen, Interview on Feb 12, 2015)

Helen found her pronunciation still carried a Korean accent and considered it as a marker of being less than nativelike. In addition, she found the cultural gap was a strong indicator that distinguished her from her American friends. Like her, the other participants also stated that they often ran out of topics because they could not find the common interests or cultural experiences to talk about. The cultural gap explains the awkwardness that the participants expressed in casual conversations and the lack of socialization with American students.

The findings show that the participants set their goal of learning English to be a nativelike or perfect bilingual. Although being nativelike is not a realistic or necessary goal, they evaluated their English in terms of nativelikeness. Thus the participants felt that they were not 100% native speakers, and indicated their lack of satisfaction with their level of English. Though not completely satisfied, they still evaluated their English proficiency as being far better than other groups of Korean students. In fact, they categorized Korean student groups based on perceived English proficiency. Compared to native speakers, they placed a hierarchical order of Twinkies or Korean Americans (1.5-generation or 2nd-generation Koreans) which is followed by ESA students at universities of higher reputation, ESA students at universities of less reputation, and FOB students.[3]

The participants' perceived competence in English seemed to be related to their amount of English use rather than the arrival time. The more dominantly they used Korean, the less confident they felt about English. The participants evaluated their English as good enough to do academic studies while they felt different degrees of awkwardness using English for

[3] A Twinkie is an American snack cake, marketed as a 'Golden Sponge Cake with Creamy Filling.' This term is used to refer to a student who appears like an Asian but who is actually American deep inside. It is often used to describe Asian-Americans in the US who identify themselves as American, not Asian.

socialization purposes. Though residing in the US for an extended period of time, the ESA participants still felt the cultural gap and found it difficult to use English to create a meaningful sense of bond.

3. The Relationship between Perceived Proficiency and Identity

The participants' perceived English proficiency had changed over time. This appeared to be related to their engagement in a CoP. At the initial stage of ESA, they used more English, aiming to be a nativelike or a perfect bilingual speaker and they distanced themselves from Koreans who used Korean. At the university, however, their use of English decreased due to their socialization with Koreans. They were in conflict between their sense of obligation to increase English use and to maintain their ties to the Korean student community. Their conflicts can be summarized as those between the ideal identity as a perfect bilingual speaker and an ambivalent Korean resident in the US as in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1

Conflicts between the Actual and Imagined CoPs

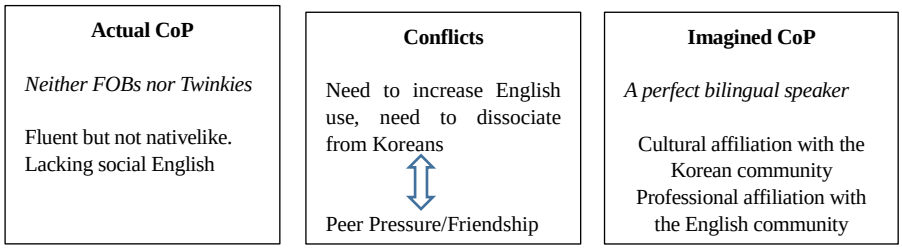


Figure 1 illustrates the discrepancy between the ESA students' actual and imagined CoPs and the conflicts between their different needs. The participants' ambivalent membership as neither FOBs nor Twinkies clashes with their imagined identity of being a perfect bilingual speaker. They wished to be culturally affiliated with the Korean community but professionally with the mainstream English-speaking community. This created conflicts between the languages they had to choose. They recognized the need to increase their use of English, and yet their affordances of English use were constrained by peer pressure and fear of losing friendship. They felt obligated to act like Koreans, as if in observance of the Korean proverb "The nail that sticks out gets hammered in." They equally emphasized their need to use more English in and out of the class but they also shared the fear of being different from other Koreans. It is a deeply rooted cultural belief that promotes conformity among group members. Being different or acting differently can be considered a sign of resistance or dishonor the norms of the community.

Their ambivalent membership as neither FOB nor Twinkies, and the conflicts between the actual and imagined CoPs had to be negotiated to ease the tension. The participants used othering strategy to justify their ambivalence of identities. They did not identify themselves with FOBs or Twinkies and it led them to being in limbo. Esther showed her desire for belongingness and tried to explain the conflicts between the different language communities in Excerpt (7):

(7) Esther: Then when I went to the university, I was in dilemma. I felt like I had to hang out with Koreans, and also had to hang out with foreigners. I did not want to hang out with Koreans all the time though. They are not wrong but they are different. The ways we think and live are very different, so we cannot get along. Not everybody is like that but most of them are.
Researcher: You mean those who finished high school in Korea?
Esther: Yes, those students. And even those who have studied here for a long time, there are students who want to hang out only with Korean students. For example, those who are from LA. I know everybody doesn't like me if I say this. But everybody knows that I am right. You know, the reason that they came to the US is to learn English. Even when you can speak English totally fluently, that's not it. You can't hang out with 2nd-generation Koreans. I don't seem to be able to getting along with 2nd-generation Koreans either. Then I am confused. I'm not an international student, not a yuhaksaeng, who just came from Korea, not a 1.5-generation those who have lived here for a long time, not a 2nd-generation not an American. Who am I? (Interview on Nov 27, 2014)

Esther referred to different immigrant groups in the US and explained why it was difficult to associate with those groups. She did not want to identify herself with those who just came from Korea because of the different ways of thinking and living. She also distanced herself from those "who are from LA" that represent the Korean students who just hang out with Koreans despite their long stay in the US. She further added that there had to be more than linguistic fluency to gain access to 1.5- or 2nd-generation Korean groups. Her reasoning led to the question of who she really is and her question most succinctly summarizes the ESA students' conflicts. The findings also indicate that being an ESA student is not a single category but it has multiple layers of differentiation based on linguistic and academic competence, and cultural capital associated with different groups of Koreans.

V. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The study aimed to examine the ESA students' English learning and their identity construction process. The participants' decision to choose the ESA was based on their idealized image of American education as a better educational environment in which they could become a bilingual speaker with a degree at a distinguished university. That is, the ESA process is driven by the desire for better English and better education and the participants' investment in English is indeed an investment in their imagined identity as a perfect bilingual speaker. Their imagined identity is, however, in conflict with their actual identity of being less than bilingual or bicultural. The participants identify themselves as neither FOBs nor Twinkies; such ambivalent identity places them in constant dilemma in choosing both a language and a CoP. The conflicts arise from their sense of obligation and need for emotional support, as well as peer pressure. The ambivalence of identities and the conflicts between the actual and imagined identities were features of ESA students' identity construction.

The findings show that English learning motivation is not solely driven by individuals' desire but it is rather shaped by socially constructed discourse about English. English is regarded as a critical tool by which one can gain access to better education opportunities. Accordingly, English symbolizes cultural capital that helps learners acquire a more competitive edge within and outside Korea. Thus each participant's decision to be an ESA student is a social one. Their trajectories of ESA experience exhibit the influence of social discourse on idealized identity of being part of translational elite. Though different in terms of social and economic capital, the participants were similar to a Tongan immigrant, Sela as described by Barkhuizen (2009). He showed how the immigrant's English learning was related to her pursuit of a better life and construction of teacher identity. The reason why it is important for Sela to be a teacher is informed by the socially constructed discourse of what is valuable. Similarly, the ESA students were physically located in the US but they were not free from the equation of a 'Good student = Good university = Good life', which is deeply embedded in the social discourse surrounding education in Korea.

The results suggest that learning English is a process highly influenced by the social discourse about the importance of English and individuals' affordances to comply with such a discourse. The constant emphasis of English as an international language in the globalized society drives people to invest in English. ESA is a costly activity and requires economic and cultural capital to make it happen. The parents' financial and social capabilities are what made the ESA mobility, and thus the participants' exposure to English possible. Besides, the opportunities to use English are contextually determined. The different residential environment at the initial stage of ESA and the ethnically separated groupings at the university influenced the participants' affordances of using English.

Harklau (2000) pointed out that pre-college immigrant students had a sense of superiority and resisted being conflated with late arrivals at the college. A similar tendency was observed with the ESA students in this study; they distinguished themselves from the other groups of Korean students based on their hierarchical evaluation of linguistic and academic competence. By alienating themselves from FOBS and Twinkies, the participants exhibited their feelings of being in-between FOBs and Twinkies – essentially, they felt in limbo as shown with immigrant students in universities in the US and South Africa (Catalano, Fox, & Vandeyar, 2016). It is noticeable that the alienation or othering was not necessarily caused by the majority group but by the immigrant students themselves. The participants chose to position themselves as immigrants who had more cultural capital than late arrivals. Though they wished to have more access to the English-speaking community and felt obligated to use more English, the participants' dominant language was Korean for peer pressure and for the fear of losing friendship. Lee (2010) described that Korean immigrant students felt conflicts between being Korean and being American, and such in-between-ness was characteristic of immigrant students' identity. The present study, however, noted that the ESA students felt more conflicts between English-users and non-English users among Koreans. Thus, peer pressure was found to play a critical role in the participants' decision to choose their primary language and CoP. The university environment does not necessarily provide more opportunities to use English, though it is a linguistically and culturally more diverse community. There is a strong tendency for the students to gather together by their own ethnic groups. Such a group solidarity made it difficult for the ESA students to socialize with students from other groups and thus had less opportunities to use English. The ESA students needed a CoP and the Korean church played a central role in solidifying their Korean group membership. The participants had an ambivalent relationship toward the Korean church as a CoP as it is a place where the ESA students' use of Korean is legitimized and even encouraged.

The findings of this study elucidate the need to demystify the belief that one can acquire nativelike proficiency in the ESL context; second language learning does not happen naturally and learners should make agentive efforts to gain linguistic proficiency no matter where they are located. The study also points out the blind belief that young learners can naturally pick up a new language without conflicts once they are immersed in the second language environment. The trajectories of ESA students showed they had to make tremendous efforts to adapt to new linguistic and social environments. It is a daunting or even risky task for young learners to manage their own emotional and academic challenges in a new linguistic and cultural environment.

It should be also noted that immersion environment does not guarantee an ideal bilingual. The participants reached the level of proficiency that distinguishes them from FOBs (or even those in less privileged immigrants) but they did not identify themselves as being

bilingual or bicultural. They found themselves less than bilingual due to their emotional and cultural affiliation with the Korean group. Even though the host country itself has a better opportunity to provide a language-rich experience, the local context that defines the access to interaction is far more critical in terms of language use and degrees of improvement. The participants went through the trajectory of rejection and belonging to the Korean community as their need for English improvement changed over time. Thus their investment in English was socially facilitated (through interaction with non-Koreans) or constrained (through using Korean with Koreans).

Setting the goal of obtaining nativelike proficiency and being a perfect bilingual frustrated the ESA students. Thus, they constantly compared their English with that of native speakers in terms of vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and sociolinguistic levels. It raises the question of what an optimal goal of learning English is. Aiming to acquire nativelike proficiency is not only unrealistic but also unnecessary though it is often regarded as an ideal goal. Learners should be encouraged to set a reasonable goal, specific to their needs without following a native speaker fallacy.

While the findings contributed to helping ESA students' voices being heard, the study has methodological limitations that need to be considered in future research. Because of limited availability of ESA students and time constraints, interviews were conducted with each participant for a single time and it is a primary source of data. In order to get a richer picture of ESA students and validate their experiences, the data sources need to include journal writing or observation for an extended period of time. The six participants do not represent all ESA students, and their stories provide only a plausible picture of ESA experience. ESA students in different contexts may undergo different experiences, which need to be fully investigated in future research.

REFERENCES

Bae, S. (2013). The pursuit of multilingualism in transnational educational migration: Strategies of linguistic investment among Korean jogi yuhak families in Singapore. *Language and Education*, *27*(5), 415–431.

Barkhuizen, G. (2009). An extended positioning analysis of a pre-service teacher's better life small story. *Applied Linguistics*, *31*(2), 282-300.

Block, D. (2007). The rise of identity in SLA research, post Firth and Wagner (1997). *The Modern Language Journal*, *91*, Focus Issue, 863-876.

Bourdieu, P. (1991). *Language and symbolic power*. Cambridge, MA: Polity.

Catalano, T., Fox, J., & Vandeyar, S. (2016). Being "in a limbo": Perceptions of immigration, identity and adaptation of immigrant students in South Africa and the

United Stated. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, *15*(3), 137-150.

Firth, A., & Wagner, J. (1997). On discourse, communication, and (some) fundamental concepts in SLA research. *The Modern Language Journal*, *81*(5), 285-300.

Gao, F. (2011). Exploring the reconstruction of Chinese learners' national identities in their English language learning journeys in Britain. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, *10*, 287-305.

Glaser, B. G. (1998). *Doing grounded theory: Issues and discussions*. Mill Valley, CA: Sociology Press.

Harklau, L. (2000). From the "Good kids" to the "Worst": Representations of English language learners across educational settings. *TESOL Quarterly*, *34*(1), 34-67.

Hong, S.-J., & Sung, J.-H. (2011). The meanings and perceptions of child education and mother's role for children of Korean mothers in Malaysia. *The Southeast Asian Review*, *21*(1), 1-47.

Kang, Y. (2012). Singlish or globish: Multiple language ideologies and global identities among Korean educational migrants in Singapore. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, *16*(2), 165–183.

Kanno, Y., & Norton, B. (2003). Imagined communities and educational possibilities: Introduction. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, *2*(4), 241-249.

Kim, H.-J., & Okazaki, S. (2014). Navigating the cultural transition alone: Psychosocial adjustment of Korean early study abroad students. *Cultural Diversity & Ethnic Minority Psychology*, *20*, 244-253.

Kim, H.-J., & Yoo, S.-K. (2008). Adjustment process of Korean adolescents studying abroad in the U. S. *The Korea Journal of Counseling*, *9*(2), 615-644.

Kinginger, C. (2008). Language learning in study abroad: Case studies of Americans in France. *The Modern Language Journal*, *92*(1), 1-124.

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lee, M. (2010). The issues and self-perceptions of Korean early study-abroad undergraduates in the US. *Bilingual Research*, *43*, 301–324.

Lee, Y., & Koo, K. (2006). 'Wild geese fathers' and a globalized family strategy for education in Korea. *Development Planning Review*, *28*(4), 533–553.

Lim, J. (2005). A multiple case analysis of Korean students attending US K-12 schools. In Yun, H.-T. (Ed.), *Early study abroad: Public perceptions and reality* (pp. 45-75). Seoul: KEDI.

Lo, A., & Kim, J. (2012). Linguistic competency and citizenship: Contrasting portraits of multilingualism in the South Korean popular media. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, *16*(2), 255–276.

Moon, S. (2011). Expectation and reality: Korean sojourner families in the UK. *Language and Education*, *25*(2), 163–176.

Norton, B. (2000). *Identity and language learning: Gender, ethnicity, and educational change*. Harlow, England: Longman.

Norton, B., & Gao, Y. (2008). Identity, investment, and Chinese learners of English. *Journal of Asian Pacific Communication*, *18*(1), 109-120

Norton, B., & Toohey, K. (2011). Identity, language learning, and social change. *Language Teaching*, *44*(4), 412-446.

Norton Peirce, B. (1995). Social identity, investment, and language learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, *29*(1), 9–31.

Park, S.-Y., & Lo, A. (2012). Transnational South Korea as a site for a sociolinguistics of globalization: Markets, timescales, neoliberalism. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, *16*(2), 147–164.

Shin, H. (2012). From FOB to cool: Transnational migrant students in Toronto and the styling of global linguistic capital. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, *16*(2), 184–200.

Song, J. (2010). Language ideology and identity in transnational space: Globalization, migration, and bilingualism among Korean families in the USA. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *13*(1), 23–42.

Song, J. (2012). The struggle over class, identity, and language: A case study of South Korean transnational families. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, *16*(2), 201–217.

Song, M.-K., Yoon, C.-K., Lee, H.-J., & Kim, G.-E. (2011). A qualitative research on the reflections of early studying abroad and life experiences after graduating colleges or universities. *Korean Journal of Youth Studies*, *18*(12), 375-402.

Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Yu, J.-H. (2005). *The psychological characteristics and propensity to values of students who abroad early*. Unpublished master's thesis. Hanyang University, Seoul.

Examples in: English
Applicable Language: English
Applicable level: Tertiary

Shinhye Kim
Department of English Education
Keimyung University

42601 Dalgubeol-daero, Dalseo-gu
Daegu, Korea
Email: shinhye6@kmu.ac.kr

Received in April 14th, 2018
Reviewed in May 26th, 2018
Revised version received in June 5th, 2018

English Language & Literature Teaching, Vol. 24, No. 2 Summer 2018

An Analysis of ESL Students' Knowledge and Use of Adjectives and Determiners in English Descriptive Writing

Koh, Sungran
(Kookmin University)

Koh, Sungran (2018). An analysis of ESL students' knowledge and use of adjectives and determiners in English descriptive writing. *English Language & Literature Teaching, 24*(2), 111-133.

As the number of Social Networking Service (SNS) users increases, proficient English writing skills are critical for clear expression in the global age. Accordingly, L2 learners need the confidence to present their thoughts and feelings more precisely by using a wide variety of descriptive adjectives. This paper seeks to develop the ability of Korean ESL students to use descriptive writing. To accomplish this, they will develop their correct use of adjectives and determiners in English writing. To begin this study, a pretest is given to identify the Korean ESL student subjects' deficiencies in English descriptive writing. Then, two points are presented to the class: the difference between determiners and adjectives and the difference between cumulative adjectives and coordinate adjectives. After that, the errors they made on the pretest are edited, and they compose several descriptive writing samples. As a result of repeated practice, the L2 learners achieve a high degree of improvement. The result of this study demonstrates a notable development of the L2 learners' descriptive writing ability. As a result, best practices suggest that L2 learners will benefit from the use of appropriate pedagogy in developing their English writing skills employing the use of determiners and adjectives with a focus on determiners and descriptive adjectives.

[descriptive writing/determiners/adjectives]

I. INTRODUCTION

Many researchers have discovered that ESL students have difficulties in acquiring English because it has syntactic and semantic differences from their native language. Among their difficulties, the use of determiners including an article produces the most frequent errors in their English writing. Native English speakers learn the usage of

articles with nouns when they begin to speak. However, this is difficult for non-native English speakers whose first language does not use articles. The use of determiners depends on context which becomes consistent hurdles for most non-native speakers of English. While the incorrect use of determiners in front of noun phrases does not bring about serious problems in speaking English, it would be a considerable obstacle on the way to proficient English writing. Swan (2005) asserts, ″The correct use of articles is one of the most difficult points in English grammar″ (p.51). In particular, Korean is an example of a language that does not have articles and depends on not only determiners to show definiteness but also in the context of the sentence. Certain characteristics of ESL students′ first language are transferred to the second language. Consequently, those students whose native language does not use articles, like Korean, have a much harder time in writing these ″little words,″ and they realize that they may face great obstacles in reaching English writing mastery.

Adjectives, which are one of the eight main parts of speech, modify or describe the quality of nouns. Determiners and adjectives are followed by a noun, and both serve a modifying function. Even so, determiners are grouped apart from adjectives. Swan (2005) states that determiners are not adjectives because they do not convey a lot of information by themselves. Adjectives such as *weird*, *purple*, and *freezing* suggest some meaning, even without other words (King, 2000). However, most ESL students do not distinguish between them.

Furthermore, it is difficult for Korean ESL students to use the appropriate adjective because of the differences between their native language and second language. Adjectives are important tools to add a description for listeners and readers. The Korean language does not havethe abundance of descriptive words as does English. For example, the corresponding English words for the Korean word ″choeun (좋은)″ are *good, wonderful, excellent, perfect*, etc. This variety is thought to provide more precise and interesting communication. Korean ESL students commonly use only one word such as *good*. As a result, they are considerably limited in using these descriptive words because they are notfamiliar with the abundant expressionsavailable to them. Research shows that ESL students do not recognize the difference between cumulative adjectives and coordinate adjectives, so, they make a lot of errors in academic writing. The purpose of this research is to establish the current abilities of ESL students in descriptive writing, and, then,develop their use of adjectives and determiners in order to more vividly write in English without making lots of errors. The clinical portion of this study begins with a pretest to identify the problems Korean ESL students are having with English descriptive writing. The researcher then teaches two points to the class: the difference between determiners and adjectives and the difference between cumulative adjectives and coordinate adjectives. Accordingly, the errors they made on the pretest are corrected, and

they practice a descriptive writing assignment. Finally, as the result of repeated practice, the degree of improvement is examined.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

1. Determiners and Adjectives in English

A determiner is a grammatical element that modifies a noun or noun phrase as a complement. Determiners include definite and indefinite articles, demonstratives and possessives. It is a similar definition as for the adjectives, in that determiners precede a noun and add information about the noun; but, determiners are distinct from adjectives because they are a relatively fixed category of words that are always followed by a noun. Adjectives need not precede a noun. Hockey and Mateyak (1998) state the following:

> As an informal semantic description, determiners contribute something quantitative or identificational to the NP interpretation (e.g. many dogs, few dogs, this dog) which is quite different from adjectives which contribute qualitative information to the interpretation of NPs in which they appear (e.g. big dogs, red dogs, fast dogs, hungry dogs). (p. 3)

Hockey and Mateyak (1998) explain the syntactic differences between determiners and adjectives as follows: determiners are necessary to make singular count NPs while adjectives are not.

(1) a. The man left.
b. *Big man left.

Adjectives appear in predicative constructions, and determiners do not.

(2) a. Tom is happy.
b. *John is the.

Determiners precede adjectives when both occur in the same NP.

(3) a. the happy man
b. *happy the man

Mowarin (2013) states, ″Adjectives are called epithets. Determiners are optional constituents of noun phrases, and they always precede adjectives if they co-occur″ (p.161). However, Radford (1998) says that two major differences between determiners and adjectives are as follows: either mono- or dissyllabic adjectives have the inflectional morphemes, <−er> for their comparative forms and determiners do not. Adjectives have comparative forms and determiners do not. In addition, since determiners are function words, they do not have synonyms or antonyms.

TABLE 1

The Form of Adjectives and Determiners

Adjectives		Determiners	
Base form	*Comparative*	*Base form*	*Comparative*
tall	taller	This	*thiser
big	bigger	That	*thater

Radford(1998) points out different semantic properties between determiners and adjectives. Certain adjectives can modify a restricted class of nouns because of the selective restrictions on the type of nouns. For instance, the adjective *wise* can only co-occur with nouns that have the [+animate] feature.

(4) a. John is a *wise* boy.
b. I have a *wise* dog.
c. *I bought a *wise* kettle.

However, determiners do not carry specific meaning and are semantically more neutral. They do not have the selective restriction.

(5) a. *This* boy is dirty.
b. *This* dog is sick.
c. *This* kettle is new.

2. The Class of Determiners in English

Determiners in English have three broad subdivisions: pre-determiners, determiners, and post-determiners. Pre-determiners and post-determiners are also called pseudo-determiners. The classifications and examples are as follows:

TABLE 2

Form Class of Determiners in English (from Mowarin (2013))

Pre-determiners	Determiners	Post-determiners
All, both, half	a. Articles (i) definite – the (ii) Indefinite – a(n) b. Demonstratives – this – these – that –those c. Possessive Determiner – his, her, their, my, our d. Possessive Nouns or Genitives – *John's Ovie's boy's, boys'*	a. Numerals i cardinals – one, two, a dozen, a few ii. ordinals – first, second, third b. Quantifiers i. indefinite– some, several, many ii. Partitives– much, a little iii. Universals – every, each iv. Phrasal – plenty of, a lot of, a few of...

3. The Class of Adjectives in English

In English, adjectives have two broad subdivisions: cumulative adjectives and coordinate adjectives. They are both dependent on how the particular adjectives are used in a sentence. Put another way, the adjectives can be cumulative or coordinate.

(6) Cumulative Adjectives	Coordinate Adjectives
The poor little black dog	The wet, cold, (and) hungry dog
	The cold, wet, (and) hungry dog
	The hungry, wet, (and) cold dog

Coordinate adjectives are used to describe the same noun before the noun. They can be changed or scrambled in any order. The word *and* can be placed before the last one, but, it is not necessary. They describe similar features. Most coordinate adjectives are adjectives of opinion or evaluation. Commas must be used between coordinate adjectives. However, when two or more coordinate adjectives are used after a linking verb, the word *and* must be put before the last one.

(7) Before a noun	A hungry, cold, wet dog sat outside our front door.
(*and* optional)	A wet, cold, and hungry dog sat outside our front door.
After a linking verb	The dog was hungry, wet, and cold.
(*and* required)	

Hogue (2008, p. 107)

On the other hand, cumulative adjectives always occur before a noun with other adjectives of different descriptive categories. They give different types of information. They go in a conventional order and commas are not put between them. The conventional order of cumulative adjectives is as follows:

TABLE 3
Conventional Order of Cumulative Adjectives (Hogue. A. (2008. p.107))

Kind of Adjective	Examples
1. Articles, Demonstrative Pronouns, Possessives	an, the, this, that, these, those, her, their, Mary′s
2. Quantity	two, fifty, some, many,(a) few
3. Opinion	poor, beautiful, interesting, cheerful, expensive
4. Appearance	*Size* big, little *Shape/Length* round, square, short, long *Condition* rusty, broken, hungry, wet, cold
5. Age, Color	old, new, young, black, red, blond
6. Nationality, Religion	Guatemalan, European, Congolese, Asian Catholic, Muslim, Buddhist, Jewish, Protestant
7. Material, Purpose	silk, wood, cotton, gold, metal swimming, reading, hiking
8. Noun used as an adjective	shoe (as in *shoe store),*wedding (as in *wedding dress)*

When cumulative adjectives and coordinate adjectives are in the same sentence, commas separate the coordinate adjectives,

(8) John is a considerate, thoughtful, loving young boy.

″Considerate, thoughtful, loving″ are coordinate adjectives showing quality or character while ″young″ is a cumulative adjective meaning age.There is a traditional explanation to distinguish between cumulative adjectives and coordinate adjectives. First, try the *and* test: to put ″and″ between the adjectives. If the sentence still sounds right, then they are coordinate adjectives and need a comma.

(9) Our dog is a happy and lively poodle. (sounds right)

Second, try switching the order of the adjectives: If the adjectives can be switched, then they are coordinate adjectives and need a comma.

(10) Our dog is a lively and happy poodle. (sounds right)

Nash (2017) suggests the easier explanation: If the two adjectives have the same number in the chart above, they need a comma.

(11) The elegant (#3), wealthy (#3) lady looks like a model. (coordinate adjectives)
The big (#4) old (#5) black (#5) bull followed the young (#5) Brahma (#6) cow. (cumulative adjectives)

Hogue(2008) argues that it is better not to use more than three cumulative adjectives in a row because using too many adjectives makes readers confused and weakens the description.

(12) The bride wore her mother′s beautiful satin wedding dress.

Hogue (2008) states that the article, demonstrative pronoun, possessive, and quantity are included in the cumulative adjectives. Although there is some debate in the literature regarding whether these should be classified as determiners or adjectives, we believe that these items that do not carry much meaning by themselves are called determiners. Our data analysis is in line with Mowarin (2013), and we treat the article, demonstrative pronoun, and possessive as Determiners A (Det A) and quantity as a Determiner B (Det B).

III. METHODOLOGY

1. Research Questions

For the first step of this research, these two things are investigated:

a) Do the ESL students know the differences between coordinate adjectives and cumulative adjectives?
b) Do the ESL students know the differences between determiners and adjectives?

For this study, these four methods are used through a written examination. First, students correct their errors to the given questions. Next, they clarify the distinction between determiners and adjectives. Then, they identify the problems concerning the distinction between coordinate adjectives and cumulative adjectives. Lastly, students describe food in a picture of a shared refrigerator where there are both messy and neat sides. The purpose of this study is to determine if students can correctly use adjectives and determinerswith variety.

The study was conducted in an English writing course at a university in Seoul, Korea. Because the subjectsof this study were junior and senior ESL students majoring in English language and literature, they had studied English as their majorfor two years. They were also in the English writing class for one semester.

2. Teaching Methodology

After the examination, I initially lecture the students on the use of adjectives as a tool for vivid and interesting description. I, then, lecture about these principles: a) the differences between determiners and adjectives, b) the differences between coordinate adjectives and cumulative adjectives, as well as the importance of punctuation. In addition, they receive a semester of the method of English writing.

When I teach the ESL students in class, I focus on the two keys to describing a place in descriptive writing: 1) Use space order to organize the description, and 2) Use a lot of descriptive details.

There areseveral ways of space order : top to bottom, bottom to top, right to left,left to right, far to near, near to far, outside to inside, and inside to outside. I explain the ways of space order and ask them to use the top to bottom way when they write their descriptive paragraphs of the refrigeratorpicture. Then, I lecture the ESL students on how to write the topic and concluding sentences for descriptive paragraphs. The topic sentence for a descriptive paragraph generally gives the person, place, or things, and the controlling idea part generally uses a general impression. The concluding sentences for a descriptive paragraph may repeat the idea mentioned in the topic sentence or give the student′s feeling or opinion about the topic. The example of the topic and concluding sentences for description is as follows:

(13) The club $_{\text{TOPIC}}$ was full of young people having fun.$_{\text{CONTROLING IDEA}}$
(14) To sum up, music, dancing, and flashing lights make clubs exciting and fun.

Hogue (2008, p. 99)

As the second keys of the specific detail, I have the ESL students draw a more precise

picture with a lot of words. The opposite of being specific is too general, or vague. The more specific they can be, the better their reader can see what they are describing. (Hogue, 2008)

(15) Vague Specific
a lot of money $500,000
a pretty face warm brown eyes, shining black hair, and sparkling white teeth

Finally, I have the ESL students correctly add capital letters to each detail. After lecturing, prewritten paragraphs of individual students are displayed through PowerPoint and corrected with the participation of the whole class.

At the end of the class, students describe the picture of the shared refrigerator again in order to see their improvement and how correctly they use determiners and adjectives in English descriptive writing.

FIGURE 1
The Shared Refrigerator



IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

1. Coordinate Adjectives and Cumulative Adjectives

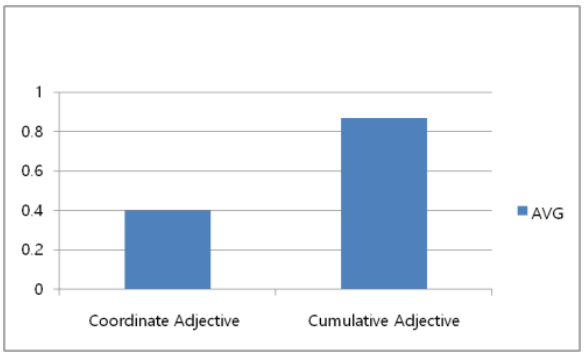
The questionnaire objective for coordinate adjectives and cumulative adjectives is to find and correct the errors in the sentences. In some sentences, commas are missing. In other sentences, adjectives are in the wrong order. The pretest shows that the ESL

students do not know much about coordinate adjectives and cumulative adjectives. Also, they are not sure of the necessity of the use of commas with coordinate adjectives. Most of the ESL students did not put commas before coordinate adjectivessuch as *hungry, frightened dog; the coach's enthusiastic, supportive manner; a hungry, cold, wet dog.*

TABLE 4
Coordinate Adjective Questions & Cumulative Adjective Questions

Questions	AVG
Coordinate Adjectives	0.40
Cumulative Adjectives	0.87

FIGURE 2
Coordinate Adjective Questions & Cumulative Adjective Questions



The finding shows overall Korean ESL students have better understanding about cumulative adjectives than coordinate adjectives.The correct ratio (0.40) of cumulative adjectives is half that (0.87) of the coordinate adjectives. All of the subjects had the right answers in the questionnaire for the coordinate adjectives as follows.

Q1. My mother always bakes a chocolate delicious cake for my little brother's birthday. (chocolate delicious → delicious chocolate)
Q2. For his tenth birthday, he received a metal new baseball bat. (metal new → new metal)

Five ESL students earning the whole points for each question of the cumulative adjectives did not earn at least one point in the coordinate adjectives. This means the ESL students should receive instruction in the coordinate adjectives including punctuation.

2. Determiners and Adjectives

The questionnaire for determiners and adjectives is to identify the determiners and adjectives and to mark them in each sentence. The ESL students tended to recognize the determiners as articles, demonstratives and possessives. Forty percent of them were able to identify articles, demonstratives and possessives as the determiners, but only 29.7 percent could identify post-determiners (numerals and quantifiers) as determiners.

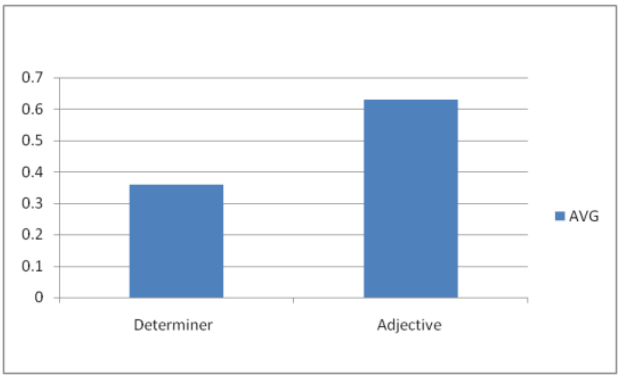
TABLE 5

Determiner Questions & Adjective Questions

Questions	AVG
Determiner	0.36
Adjective	0.63

FIGURE 3

Determiner Questions &Adjective Questions



The study shows that many ESL students know more about adjectives than determiners. The adjective ratio (0.63) is nearly twice the determiner ratio (0.36). Most words such as *seedless*, *elderly*, *oldest*, *gray*, *jealous*, *new*, *guilty*, *red*, *green*, *happy*, *sweet*, *mean*, *smaller*, and *interesting* in the questionnaire were recognized as adjectives at the rate of more than 50 percent except for the adjective *mean* because *mean* is usually used as a verb.

3. Description of the Picture of the Shared Refrigerator

The results show that the number of words the ESL students used almost doubled

when comparing the pre-instruction and post-instruction assignments on the usage of determiners and adjectives.

TABLE 6

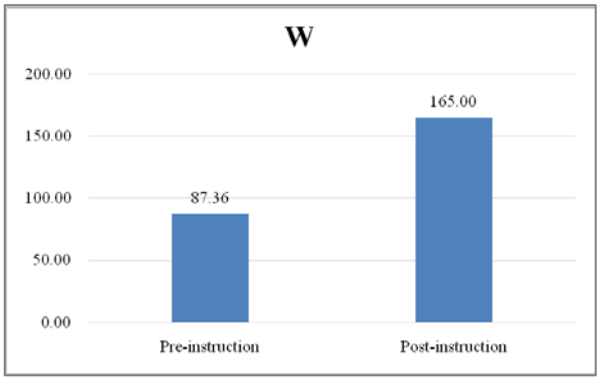
The Use of Wordson Pre-instruction and Post-instruction Assignment

Words	AVG(n=22)		P-value
Pre-instruction	87.6		<0.001
Post-instruction	165.0		

*AVG: Average / STD: Standard Deviation P-value of T-test for Non-equal Variances

FIGURE 4

The Use of Words in Pre-instruction and Post-instruction



The study also shows that the number of sentences the ESL students used increased when comparing the pre-instruction and post-instruction assignments using determiners and adjectives.

TABLE 7

The Use of Sentences in Pre-instruction and Post-instruction

Sentences	AVG(n=22)	P-value
Pre-instruction	7.50	<0.001
Post-instruction	12.91	

FIGURE5

The Use of Sentences in Pre-instruction and Post-instruction

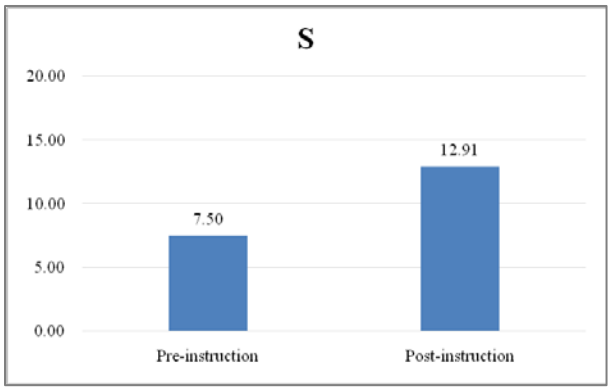


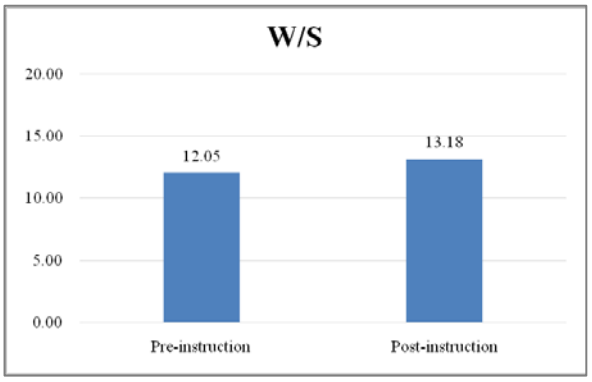
TABLE 8

The Use of Words per Sentence in Pre-instruction and Post-instruction

Words per Sentence	AVG(n=22)	P-value
Pre-instruction	12.05	<0.058
Post-instruction	13.18	

FIGURE 6

The Use of Words per Sentence in Pre-instruction and Post-instruction



Most researchers refer to P<0.05 as statistically significant and P<0.01 as statistically highly significant. As depicted in the table, this finding is statistically highly significant in terms of P-value as P< 0.01 in the number of words and sentences. The word number per sentence number is also statistically significant as P<0.05.

The research also shows that the number of adjectives, descriptive adjectives, and

determiners in sentences increases. It is noted that the percentage of the adjectives per sentence increased from 1.26(SD = 0.61) to 1.64(SD = 0.51), or 1.3 times. The descriptive adjectives increased 0.5(SD = 0.48) to 1.16(SD = 0.62) and developed by more than double.Specific details regarding adjectives and descriptive adjectives are presented later.

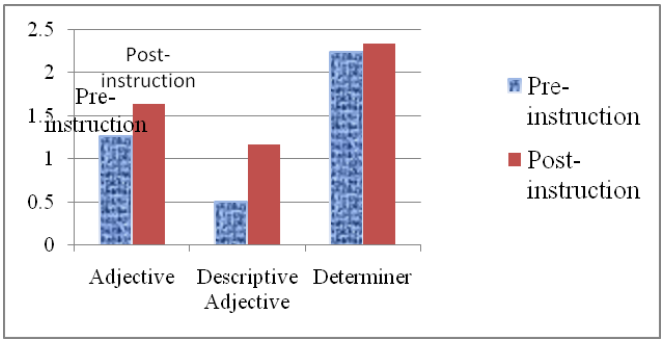
TABLE 9

The Use of Adjectives, Descriptive Adjectives, and Determiners in Pre-instruction and Post-instruction

AVG	Adjectives	Descriptive Adjectives	Determiners
Pre-instruction	1.26	0.5	2.24
Post-instruction	1.64	1.16	2.33

FIGURE 7

The Use of Adjectives, Descriptive Adjectives, and Determiners inPre-instruction and Post-instruction



The use of determiners increased from 1.59 (SD=0.49) to 1.82 (SD=0.53) and that of post-determiners increased from 0.65 (SD=0.68) to 0.68 (SD=0.42).

TABLE 10

The Use of Determiners inPre-instruction and Post-instruction

	Determiners	Post-determiners
Pre-instruction	1.59	0.65
Post-instruction	1.82	0.68

As mentioned in the earlier pretest, the ESL students tended to more frequently use the determinerssuch as articles, demonstratives, and possessives than the post-determiners such as numerals and quantifiers. Determiners were used 2.4times as post-determiners in

the pre-instruction while post-determiners were used 1.0 time after the post-instruction. It is interpreted that the ESL students tried to balance the use of determiners and post-determiners after the instruction.

TABLE 11

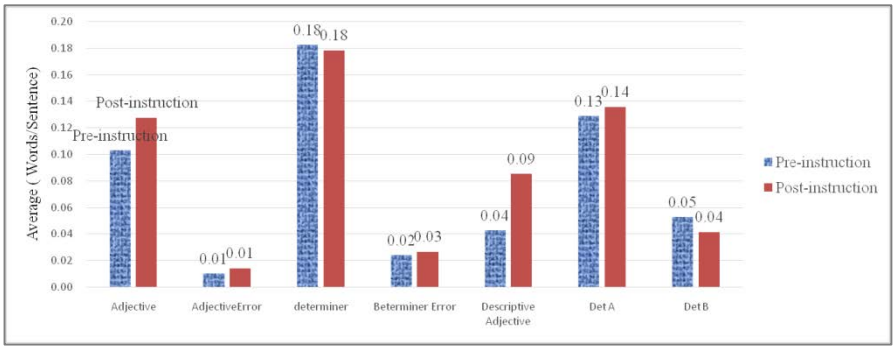
Errors in Pre-instructionand Post-instruction

	Adjective Errors	Determiner Errors
Pre-instruction	0.13	0.29
Post-instruction	0.3	0.46

Table 11 displays the increased number of errors. As the number of sentences grows, the number of errors inevitably increases. However, because they use more detail and precise adjectives and determiners with more specific explanations,the expression and quality of the sentences become more powerful and accurate.It means the increase in the errorratioshould not be interpreted asa significant point, compared to the word ratio increase.Figure 8summarizes the usage improvement inthe pre-instruction and post-instructionassignments.

FIGURE 8

Comparison of Improvement Rates in Pre-instruction and Post-instruction



4. A Closer Error Examination of Individual Data

1) The Use and Errors of Adjectives

All of the ESL students, except one, increased the number of adjectives used. The student having the highest improvement level increased their skill by nine times. Also,

the number of descriptive adjectives noticeably increased. Most students used the descriptive adjectives much more.

Most of the ESL students showed the use of an increased number of adjectives and detailed explanations. For example, a student wrote on the pre instruction, ″fruits and vegetables are stored.″ and then, post-instruction, she wrote, ″well-ripened apples and washed broccoli in a plastic bag are stored.″ They are now able to use more specific and precise adjectives with more detailed explanations. The individual data is as follows:

TABLE 12

Comparison between Pre-instruction and Post-instruction Adjective Use

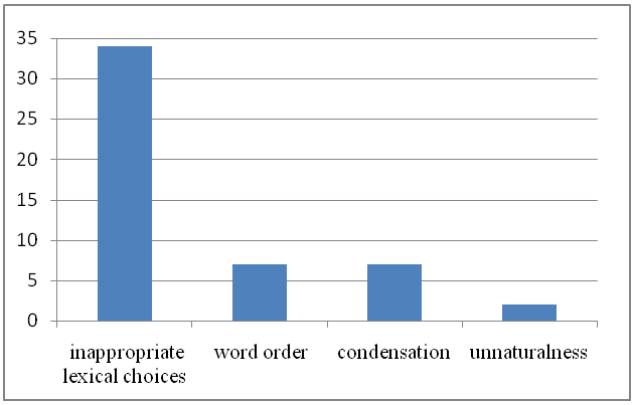
Pre-instruction	Post-instruction
three kinds of containers	**three rectangular** containers
fruits and vegetables are stored	**well-ripened** apples and **washed broccoli in a plastic bag** are stored.
On the pizza, there is a **big bowl** which contains some noodles.	A **big, stinky slice of** pizza lies under a bowl of **spaghetti.**
There is a **disgusting** liquid.	It is mottled with hot sauce and also beginning to get musty. It is **disgusting and smelly.**
There is milk, fresh juice, water, and **eggs.**	There is **a neat, opened** egg carton.
There is **unwrapped** bread and wilted lettuce next to the beverages.	There is **rotten, dry** bread, half of a **withered** cucumber, and a **wilted** cabbage that looks **inedible.**
On the third shelf, there are noodles **falling out of the bowl.**	The third shelf is messiest, for there is a slice of pizza and an uncovered bowl of spicy noodles **which iscausing a bad smell.**
On the bottom shelf, **the noodles' liquid** has spilled.	The bottom shelf is also dirty because of the **oily, sticky soup** from the noodles on the third shelf.
On the left side, there is **milk, water, and juice**	On the top shelf, there are **fresh milk, fresh-squeezed orange juice** in a big pitcher which **smells sweet and sour, and eggs**.
To the left there are some dairy products.	On the next shelf, she keeps her **dairy products inappropriate sealed containers.**
a slice of pizza	a **cold slice** of pizza
On the bottom shelf, there are three containers.	On the last shelf, she has three containers, **and she put the smallest one in front of the other two.**
the left side of it is **neat**, but the right side is **disorganized.**	On the left side, it is very **neat and clean** while the right side is **messy and smelly.**

Finally, there are two drawers. The left drawer is **organized** better than the right.	Two are **big and opaque**; but, one is **small and transparent.**
Although there is one refrigerator, there are two types of organization. On the left side, it looks really **clean.**	Half of it is really **organized and neat**; but, the other half of it is **really messy and unclean.**
On the left side of the two drawers, however, it looks really **messy.**	On the left side of the two drawers, there are **fresh**fruits and **green** vegetables a plastic bag.
On the top shelf, we can see some beverages such as **milk** and **water.**	On the top shelf, I can see some beverages like water in a bottle,**fresh milk**, and **sweet lemonade.**
On the third shelf are yogurt, cheese, **eggs**, and tofu.	On the third shelf, one of the roommates put **some organic foods** to keep her body healthy; but, she has to eat **the eggs as soon as possible**, for they will expire in three days.
The second shelf also holds **beverages**, in this case, in cans.	There are cans of **sweet orange soda**, Coca Cola, and **sour lime soda** in that order from the left.
It contains yogurt, **eggs**, **cheese**, and **butter.**	There are **cheddar cheese**, **perfectly shaped eggs**, strawberry flavored yogurt, and what appears to be a stick of **non-fat butter**.
There are apples, grapes, and many other fruits.	It contains fresh fruits including apples and green grapes.
The food on the third shelf seems **rotten.**	They seem to be **rotten and wilted**, for their colors have changed. The **green cabbage changed to brown, orange carrots to black.**
On the right side, there are **old, wilted vegetables and fresh bread**.	On the next shelf, there are **two old carrots**, a half-eaten sausage, **a big loaf of brown bread**, and **one dirty cabbage**. **The cabbage is so old that it is wilted**
dirty water	a **strange and smelly** liquid
fruits	There are **rotted** fruits
On the top shelf, there is milk, a jar of juice, and water side by side	On the top shelf, thereisa carton of **fresh** milk, pitcher of **sweet** juice, and a bottle of water side by side
Cheese, a carton of eggs, and yogurt are set side by side.	A **smelly** cheese, a tray of **white** eggs, and **a large-size Greek yogurt** are set side-by-side

The adjective errorswere analyzed and categorized into three major parts according to the reason for the errors:inappropriate lexical choices, word order, condensation, and unnaturalness.

FIGURE 9

Adjective Errors



Overall, the most error types wereinappropriate lexical choices with a total of 34 errors (68%), followed by word order with 7 errors (14%), condensation with 6 (12%), and unnaturalness with 3 errors (0.06%). Inappropriate lexical choice tends to be affected by the first language. In the data, *fresh milk* is used as the *new milk* and *fresh-squeezed orange juice* is used as the *handmade orange juice*. *Plastic bag*is used for the vinyl bag. Among the inappropriate lexical choices, past participle form errors were the most common. The passive form is one of the difficult grammar points for Korean ESL students. In the data, *canned juices* and *canned beverages* were used inappropriately as the *can juices* and *can beverages*. Also, *chilled soft drink, well-ripened, wilted cabbage* were used incorrectly as *chill soft drink, well-ripen, wilt cabbage*.

As mentioned earlier, the word order of the adjectives is also a challenging part for ESL students. The errors are the following: white three (→ three white) eggs is open and broken (→ broken eggs is open), plastic white bottle (→ white plastic bottle), green and fresh vegetables (→ fresh green vegetables), eggs uncovered (→ uncovered eggs), spilled unknown liquids (→unknown spilled liquids), organized well (→ well organized).

Condensation is one of the frequently occurring errors for Korean ESL students. A lengthy expressionadds to some redundant information. Korean ESL students tend to clutter up their writing and make it longer thannecessary, especially by using a relative clause. Therefore, it makes the writing awkward to read. The errors are as follows: cabbage without being wrapped(→ unwrapped cabbage), dairy products which are fresh(→ fresh dairy products), There are bread, sausage, and some vegetables without a package (→ There are unpackaged bread, sausage, and some vegetables), a slice of pizza and noodles in a bowl (→ a slice of pizza and a bowl of noodles), vegetables and fruits

that all are very fresh (→ fresh fruits and vegetables), It is not able to eat(→ It is inedible).

Lastly, although this unnatural phrasing by Korean ESL studentsdoes not completely ruin the meaning, it may puzzle native English speakers. As an examplefrom the data, *in an open carton* is better than *in an uncovered box*. *Vegetables that don't be tied are there*could obscure the exact meaning and *loose vegetables* is better than the former.

2) The Use and Errors of Determiners

Most of the determiners that the ESL students used were the definite article "the" and the indefinite article "a(n)".In accordance with this, most of the demonstrative errors occur in the use of articles. Koh (2013) found that the most grammar errors in Korean-English subtitles were the use of articles with a total of 13 errors (22.80%), followed by prepositions with 12 errors (19.20%). She remarks that since articles such as "a (n)" and "the" are not common in Korean, they are the most difficult challenge for ESL students. The same holds for these data.

TABLE 13
The General Errors with the Use of Articles

Pre-instruction	Post-instruction
On the left, all the items are organized inall the shelf anda drawer	On the left, all the items are **well-packed**, not making **the** refrigerator **a** mess
Salami looks go bad because it seems not fresh and it is droop	**The** salami looks**like it went** bad because it **doesn't** seem fresh, and it is droop**ing**
The owner of refrigerator bought it one week ago from Domino Pizza	The owner of **the** refrigerator bought it one week ago from Domino**'s** Pizza

In particular, the frequent occurrence of errors in my dataiswiththe usage of articles before directional words,superlatives, and ordinal numbers: ″the left, the right″, and ″the first, the second, the third.″ Also, there are some errors where″the″ is used with ″next, last, same″ and ″only″.

TABLE 14
Frequent Errors with the Use of Articles

Pre-instruction	Post-instruction
Left side of it is neat, but right side is unorganized	**Theleft** side of it is neat, but, **theright** side is **dis**organized
My friend and I share a same refrigerator, but its inside is very different	My friend and I share **the same** refrigerator, but its inside is very different

Next shelf, however, differences appear	On **the next** shelf, however, differences appear
On the third and fourth shelves are as same as the second shelf	Third and fourth shelves are **the same** as the second shelf
Another is cola, and the other row is lemon lime on the left	**The left** side of **the second** shelf holds rows of cola and lemon lime soda.
One is yellow, another is green, and last one is black, cola	One is yellow, another is green, and **the last** one is black, cola
Third shelf is most messy, for a piece of pizza and unwrapped bowl of spicy noodle, which is causing a bad smell	**The third** shelf ismessiest, for there is a slice of pizza and **an** uncoveredbowl of spicy noodles which are causing a bad smell

The data shows the students do not recognize that articles are not used together with ″my, this″, or other determiners.

TABLE 15

Errors of the Use of Articles Used with Pronoun

Pre-instruction	Post-instruction
Because I and **a my** roommate use the fridge together, that is divided into halves	Because I ~~**and a my**~~ **roommate** use the fridge together, ~~that~~ it is divided into halves
I have to clean the other half of the refrigerator.	I have to clean **that** half.
Those they were bought before three months before.	**They**were bought before three months before.

Also,″the″ in sentences or clauses where you define or identify a particular person or object is needed. The errors are as follows:

TABLE 16

Errors of the Use of the Article ″the″ in Clauses Where the Subjects are Defined

Pre-instruction	Post-instruction
On the third shelf, there are milk products such as containers on the bottom shelf	On the third shelf, there are milk products such as **the** containers on the bottom shelf
They seem like rotten on the third shelf	~~They seem like rotten~~ **The food** on the third shelf seems rotten.
A surface of the salami is crinkled	~~A~~ **The** surface of the salami is crinkled

3) The Use and Errors of Punctuation

As we′ve shown earlier withtheresults of the pretest, the ESL students are not sure about coordinate adjectives and cumulative adjectives. In particular, they do not

understand the necessity of the comma between the coordinate adjectives. However, after lecturing, they improved the use of the comma between them.

TABLE 17
The Proper Use of the Punctuation Comma in Post-instruction

Pre-instruction	Post-instruction
the pizza	a big, stinky slice of pizza
eggs	a neat, opened egg carton
unwrapped bread	rotten, dry bread
liquid	the oily, sticky soup
food	brown, orange carrots
yogurt	a large-size, Greek yogurt

On the pretest, the students wrote only a noun with one adjective. Post Instruction, they were able to write more than two coordinate adjectives with the comma as shown in Table 17. In addition, they are able to use the necessary ″and″ after a linking verb between the coordinate adjectives and the optional ″and″between the cumulative adjectives.

TABLE 18
The Proper Use of ″and″ in Post-instruction

Pre-instruction	Post-instruction
a disgusting liquid	It is **disgusting and smelly**
It is neat, but, the right side is disorganized	It is very **neat and clean** while the right side is **messy and smelly**
The left drawer is organized better than the right	Two are **big and opaque**, but one is **small and transparent**.
Although there is one refrigerator, there are two types of organization. On the left side, it looks really clean	Half of it is really **organized and neat**, but the other half of it is really **messy and unclean**
rotten food	They seem to be **rotten and wilted**
There is dirty water	There is a **strange and smelly** liquid
It is white and older version	It is **a white older version**

In the last data, the L2 learner recognized the usage of the cumulative adjectives and was able toemploy the appropriate use of cumulative adjectives without “and” such as “a white older version”, not “white and older version.”

Ⅴ. CONCLUSION

The result of this study demonstrates the noticeable development of the L2 learners in descriptive writing. The data emphasizes three important points regarding teaching English writing. First, as Morrett (2011) notes, since errors in the use of English articles often occur with L2 learners, teachers should realize that it cannot be corrected with a brief overview. Therefore, they should consistently review and emphasize the right use of articles. Actually, the current educational curriculum for English grammar in middle and high school does not include the use of determiners including definite/indefinite articles. Korea offers an English reading and grammar class for the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT) for university entrance. However, the appropriate education on the use of determiners and adjectives for English writing is not provided. Second, as users of the SNS (Social Networking Service) have increased in the global age, the number of English writers is also increasing. Rich and refined English writing is necessary for SNS users to clearly express themselves. To do this proficiently and fluently, they need the appropriate education and training in the use of a wide variety of descriptive adjectives. Then, the L2 learners will have the confidence to describe their deep thoughts and feelings more specifically. Therefore, it is suggested that L2 learners be educated with appropriate teaching methods and strategies in their study of determiners and adjectives, focusing on determiners and descriptive adjectives.

REFERENCES

Hockey, B. A., & Mateyak, H. (1998). *Determining determiner sequencing*. Retrieved June 4th, 2016, from in the World Wide Web https://repository.upenn.edu/ircs_reports/56/

Hogue, A. (2008). *First steps in academic writing*. (2nded), NY: Longman

King, G.(2000). *Good grammar*. Glasgow, UK:HarperCollins

Koh, S. R. (2013). An error analysis of Korean-English subtitles in the Korean drama *"That Winter, The Wind Blows"*. *The Korean association of translation studies, 14*(4), 247-272.

Morrett, H. (2011). *Korean ESL students' use of English definite Articles.* (Unpublished senior thesis in the Honors Program). Liberty University, USA.

Mowarin, M. (2013).Determiners and adjectives in English and Nigerian pidgin.*English Linguistics Research, 2*(2), 160-171

Nash, K. (2017). *English grammar 101*.Retrieved January 10, 2017, from in the World Wide Web: https://www.englishgrammar101.com/module-5/modifiers-

adjectives-and-adverbs/lesson-4/order-of-adjectives
Radford, A. (1998). *Transformational Grammar*. UK: Cambridge University Press.
Swan, M. (2005). *Practical English Usage*. UK: Oxford.

Examples in: English
Applicable Language: English
Applicable Levels: secondary and college education

Koh, Sungran
Kookmin University
77 Jeongneung-ro, Seongbuk-gu, Seoul, Korea, 02707
E-mail: sungran@kookmin.ac.kr

Received in April 14th, 2018
Reviewed in May 26th, 2018
Revised version received in June 5th, 2018

English Language & Literature Teaching, Vol. 24, No. 2 Summer 2018

Cultural Conceptualizations of Korean *gyeomson* 'modesty' Schema in L2 Learning

Sujung Min[*]
(Kongju National University)
Jihyun Byun[**]
(Hannam University)

Min, Sujung & Byun, Jihyun (2018). Cultural conceptualizations of Korean *gyeomson* 'modesty' schema in L2 learning. *English Language & Literature Teaching*, *24*(2), 135-152.

Language use as L1 and L2 both involves cultural conceptualizations because learning language requires continued cultural experiences and sustained mutual understanding among the members of a cultural group. This study aims to give some insights into the cultural conceptualization on L2 learning by examining the cultural schema of *gyeomson* 'modesty' and in Korean culture and language from the cultural linguistic perspective. Through the process of cultural experiences, the language learners internalize cultural schemas in both linguistic and non-linguistic aspects. This study shows how Korean L2 learners rely on the cultural conceptualizations such as cultural schema of *gyeomson* that have essentially connected to their L1 and argues that both L2 learning and intercultural communication require getting used to new configuration of cultural conceptualizations. The study concludes with a discussion of practical implications of such processes in L2 learning and intercultural sense making in English as a lingua franca context.

[cultural conceptualization/cultural schema/cultural linguistics/modesty]

I. INTRODUCTION

The sociocultural scope of language use as both L1 and L2 has been primary concerns in cultural linguistics, anthropology, and applied cognitive linguistic studies, with a special focus on variation of cultural conceptualizations such as cultural schemas and

[*] First author
[**] Corresponding author

metaphors (Diaz Vera, 2014; Goddard, 1996; Maalej, 2004; Musolff, 2010, 2014; Sharifian, 2007, 2015; Wolf, 2008; Yu, 2003, 2008, 2015). Since Lakoff and Johnson (1980) acknowledged the cultural ground of human experience and Palmer(1996) laid out a theoretical basis of sociocultural conceptualizations, research in the field of cultural linguistics investigate every sectors of language use in its sociocultural context (Goddard, 1996; Maalej, 2004, 2007; Musolff, 2010, 2014; Sharifian, 2007, 2015; Yu, 2003, 2008, 2015). Because only through the system of language we express the ways we conceptualize experiences of various kinds (Sharifian, 2015), they study language use in sociocultural context, placing great emphasis upon cultural conceptual configuration that affects our language use. The systems of specific culture, as Musolff (2010) articulates, are also culturally acquired, transferred, and negotiated among the cultural group. L2 learners, therefore, should confront different conceptual systems through the different system of L2. Therefore, it is not unacceptable that many L2 learners, especially at their early stage of language learning, face a substantial degree of misunderstanding due to the cultural aspects of language structure and use.

Cross-cultural and cross-linguistic variation in conceptualizations of cultural experiences has been clearly revealed in the field of English as L2 learning and English as a lingua franca (Musolff, 2010, 2014; Nacey, 2013; Sharifian, 2007, 2015; Yu, 2003). The research has provided evidence of cultural conceptualizations of experiences in the regions where English is used as L2. English is currently the most widely used language between speakers from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. And cultural differences cause different linguistic configurations and foster different perspective in the minds of language users (Wierzbicka, 1995). Learners of English as L2, therefore, need to be equipped with different systems of conceptualizing experience. English classrooms, however, do not pay much attention to culturally loaded conceptualization embedded in language, just focusing on the learners' literal fluency (Watson-Gegeo, 2004). They exhibit a set of cultural assumptions that often differ from those of the learners' own cultures with varying degrees of explicitness (Shrifian, 2015). This does not mean that L2 learners in every second language contexts need to acquire all new cultural conceptualizations. For the learners from the shared cultural backgrounds, the differences in cultural conceptualizations may be less transparent.

Providing the case of Korean culture specific schema of *gyeumson*, this study presents the argument that L2 learning is likely to involve different configurations of cultural conceptualizations including cultural schemas. The schema associated with *gyeomson* encourages Koreans to show modesty or humility through the denial or downplay of praise by others. Instead of accepting and acknowledging the compliment, they tend to assign the praise to simply luck or redirect the compliment to the person who initiates the compliment or to others. Korean conceptualization of cultural schema of *gyeumson*

differs from that of English schema of modesty in Western culture to a great degree. Therefore, the differences between Korean and Western culture may prove to be more obvious and less subtle. Analyzing the data of cultural schema of *gyeomson* from Korean-speaking learners of English, this study shows how Korean L2 learners of English rely on cultural conceptualization of *gyeomson* which has essentially been related with their L1. This paper also discusses some practical implications of the processes of L2 learning and intercultural sense making in the context of English as a lingua franca.

II. CULTURAL SCHEMA

1. Cultural Schema

Subscribing its framework to applied cognitive science and anthropological linguistics and drawing on the combined resources, cultural linguistics explores the relationship between language and cultural conceptualizations (Sharifian, 2011, 2015), paying a particular attention to the role of culture in conceptualization of experiences and interrelationship between language and cultural conceptualization. It is argued that features of language represent culture specific conceptualizations of our experiences in the forms of cultural schemas and cultural metaphors (Sharifian, 2015). Since Palmer (1996) paved the basis for the theoretical progression and Sharifian (2007, 2011) established the further framework, both applied and empirical research (Maalej, 2004, 2007; Yu, 2009; Wolf & Polzenhagen, 2009; Musolff, 2015) demonstrate the critical role of culture in the process of conceptualizing experiences between the members of a speech community across cultures. From the perspective of cultural linguistics, meaning is conceptualization and conceptualization is culturally produced (Sharifian, 2007). In general, cultural linguistics investigates an intricate relationship between human experiences and language, emphasizing our conceptual faculty as a dynamic agent negotiating between language and experiences in a cultural context (Shariffian, 2015).

The analytical tools of cultural linguistics are cultural schemas, metaphors, and categories. Among the three components which are closely related to diverse features of languages, cultural schemas are a group of schemas that are culturally composed and act as a ground for interpreting cultural meanings (Strauss & Quinn, 1997). As Sharifian (2015) accounts, an illustrative example provided for a cultural schema is that of the restaurant schema. Although the restaurant schema belongs to many cultures, the detailed content of restaurant schema is different culture to culture. Culturally composed comprehensive meaning of vocabulary of each language, Palmer (1996) states, is

captured in each cultural schema, and as such whole cultural schemas reflect what we know about our language and culture. Cultural schemas mirror how we perceive world since our language use is culturally composed. Cultural schemas is also said to provide socio-pragmatic meaning since our everyday language use between interlocutors is based on the shared knowledge which is culturally constructed and captured in cultural schemas themselves (Sharifian, 2015). For example, 'greeting' speech act in Korean context usually involves lexical items connected with cultural schemas of 'eating', while it is related to different cultural schemas such as health or well-being in other languages. Levinson (1983) identifies this aspect of cultural schemas as inference or something taken-for-granted among the interlocutors who belong to the same cultural group. As such, cultural schemas provide important components that underlie both semantic and socio-pragmatic meanings of languages and language usages.

Till lately, research in the related fields of global spread of English from both historical and functional perspectives has mostly paid its attention to the representative linguistic features shown in different varieties of English. Each different variety of English, however, also shows distinctive features with regard to the culturally constructed conceptualizations of our experiences. Theoretical and analytic frameworks of cultural linguistics, therefore, provide a novel and meaningful approach to the studies on the different varieties of English across the world. Sharing the principal view with applied cognitive linguistics, the framework of cultural linguistics regards meaning as conceptualization which is a cultural construct and uses its criteria to reveal interdependence between culture and language. Within the theoretical and analytical frameworks of cultural linguistics, recent studies on varieties of English explores diverse components of English such as Aboriginal English and bidialectal education (Malcolm & Rochecouste, 2000; Sharifian, 2005), cultural framework of a variety of African English (Wolf & Polzenhagen, 2009), Persian cultural conceptualization embedded in English (Sharifian, 2007), unique Asian culture that underlies characteristic construct of Singaporean English (Wong, 2006). Through a thorough analysis of each variety of English, all the research has revealed that each different variety of English represents diverse linguistic features which encode certain cultural conceptualization.

By providing data from Persian-speaking English as L2 learners, Sharifian (2007) shows that Persian learners of English rely on cultural conceptualizations deeply related to their L1. Persian speech acts, Sharifian (2007) demonstrates, are closely associated with two typical Persian cultural schemas, *tarof* 'complement' and *shekastch-nafsi* 'modesty'. He explores the way Persian learners of English conduct cultural meanings when they communicate in English and what makes them to be misunderstood by non-Persian interlocutors. Examining Korean cultural schemas of emotions by adopting similar methodological approach, Min (2015, 2017) shows that Korean speech acts are

originally associated with Korean cultural schemas and Korean learners of English accordingly face difficulties when they use English. In Chinese context, Yu (2009) investigates how Chinese body schemas such as *xin* 'heart' has been conceptualized in Chinese language and philosophy, and demonstrates that parts of human body in Chinese has been believed to be the central capacity of cognition and the conceptualizations of body parts is extensively displayed in the form of cultural schemas of the Chinese language.

2. The Korean Cultural Schema of *Gyeomson*

Among the most predominant social and cultural schemas in Korea which owe much to Confucianism and Buddhism, one is the schema of *gyeomson* (Choi, 2000) and the other is schema of *chemyeon* 'face'. The schema of *gyeomson* is closely connected to the schema of *chemyeon* (Min, 2017; Kim & Yang, 2013). The schema of *chemyeon* supports Korean speakers to avoid force or pressure on other people and the schema associated with *gyeomson* encourages Korean speakers to show modesty through the denial or downplay of praise or laudation by others. Instead of accepting and acknowledging the compliment, they tend to assign the praise to simply luck or redirect the compliment to the person who initiates the compliment or others such as family members or friends. In other words, the schema of *gyeomson* encourages speakers to make better *chemyeon* 'face' of their interlocutors or others who might have played an important role in their achievement or success either directly or indirectly.

This schema of *gyeomson* in Korean culture is similar to that of *shekasteh-nafsi* found in Persian culture which represents one of the most Oriental cultures (O'shea, 2000; Sharifina, 2007). Ahmadi and Ahmadi (1998) maintain that the schema of *shekasteh-nafsi* in Persian culture restrains oneself from any form of self-attachment or show-off, which would imply the exclusion of others who may deserve credits. Similar to *shekasteh-nafsi* schema, the schema of *gyeomson* tends to hinder any form of self-admiration or self-flattering in Korean culture and language. The schema of *gyeomson* spurs Korean people to perceive their social identity and their achievement in relation with other members of society which they belong to and consider themselves as members who depend on others in the group.

Cultural and religious tradition of Confucianism and Buddhism can be presented to explain the schema of *gyeomson* (Shim, Kim, & Martin, 2008). Confucianism as the base of Korean collectivism emphasizes the importance of harmonic human relationship. The virtue of humility and modesty is more prominent in Buddhism and represents a characteristic that is both an essential spiritual practice and a result of it in the principles of Buddhism (Chung, 2015). Buddhism is a religion of self-examination (Tachibana,

1992) and aims to cultivate humility and enlightenment through sustained practicing of self-examination. The cultivated virtue of humility is expanded by the wisdom acquired by the experience of non-self (Tachibana, 1992). Criticizing oneself and praising others is considered a cardinal virtue in this traditional religion in Oriental countries including Korea (Chung, 2015). The emphasis on preserving harmony in relationship in Confucianism and practicing emptying self and cultivating non-self in Buddhism leads to the conceptualization of Korean culture-specific virtue of *gyeomson*. Chung (2015) believes that Korean society revolves around *gyeomson*, a formalized politeness that involves verbal and non-verbal forms. In that sense, the *gyeomson* schema provides a means for exercising a degree of 'face work' or *chemyeon*. The *gyeomson* schema frequently surfaces in expressions such as the following.

(1) *Gyeomson-i mideog-ida*
'Modesty is virtue'

(2) *Gyeomson-i mom-ey baeeoissda*
'He is modesty by nature'

(3) *Gyeomyang-ui mideog*
'Virtue of humility'

(4) *Gyeomsonhan saram*
'Modest person'

(5) *Gyeongsonhan maeumgajim*
'Modest attitude'

Aside from the above expressions, in which the word *gyeomson* is made explicit, there are many expressions of representing the schema of *gyeomson* shown in the following exchanges.

(6) *Hulyunghan eobjeok-ey taehae ikhi deulseoseo algo isseoyo*
extraordinary achievement about thoroughly heard knew
'I've heard so much about your extraordinary achievement'

(7) *Anipnida hancham baewoya hamnida*
No for a time should learn
'Please don't say that. I don't even qualify as student.'

There are also several formulaic utterances in Korean that are commonly used in response to praise and they reassign the praise to the interlocutor such as the following.

(8) *Chokey* *bwaju-seoseo* *guleoh-chiyo*
Favorably think-due to be that way
'You view favorably'
'Your eyes see beautifully'

(9) *Deukbun-ibnida*
All thanks to you
'Whatever it is because of you'

(10) G*wachan-isibnida* *hancham* *bujokhamnida*
Overpraise for a while fall short of
'It is not worthy of you. I don't even qualify.'
'I'm so flattered'

(11) *Che-ga* *mweol* *hangey-issnayo*
I what did
'I haven't done anything.'
'It belongs to you'

The formulaic expression (8) is usually used in reply to a compliment about the beauty of what one has or how one looks. Expressions (9), (10), and (11) are commonly used formulaic utterances in response to praises on one's possessions or either physical properties or accomplishment and talent. The expression (10) may also be used in reply to compliments on what the speaker has made, obtained, and achieved. Recent comparative studies on response speech act to compliments in Oriental cultures where the schema of humility is highly valued notice that speakers tend to render such formulaic expressions when they interact in English (Sharifian, 2005, 2007). This may cause varying degree of awkwardness or discomfort in the side of their interlocutors to whom the cultural schema of humility is not quite familiar.

It can be seen here that the compliment is redirected and reassigned to the interlocutor by playing down one's own achievement or capabilities. These expressions are in fact consonant with the Korean cultural schema of *gyeomson*. In the context of using English as a lingua franca and the Korean speakers draw on the schema of *gyeomson* in their use of English, it may lead to undesired misunderstanding or misinterpretation on the side of non-Korean interlocutors, particularly not familiar with the *gyeomson* schema. The

following dialogue (12) between a Korean student and an American teaching assistant, and (13) between a Korean research assistant and her American colleague clearly demonstrate the case where Korean interlocutors draw on the *gyeomson* schema in their use of English lead to unexpected interpretations on the side of American interlocutors, who are unfamiliar with this schema. The parallel *gyeomson* schema is not shown in dialogues (14) and (15). Dialogues (14) and (15) are between American interlocutors. The dialogues are from the interview situation that was employed in this study.

(12)
A: I'm so glad you finished the final draft.
K: Oh, I haven't done anything. I owe all to you!
A: What? Don't say that! No. It's all your work.

(13)
A: You're so devoted to your work. You're always the first to arrive on the scene.
K: I'm not such a hard worker! You view favorably! Thank you.
A: You are always too modest about yourself.

(14)
A1: I heard you did a great job!
A2: Oh, thank you! So glad you say so.
A1: You're welcome!

(15)
A1: You are always thorough in your work!
A2: Hey, it's my job. I'm supposed to be that.
A1: Right. You are incredible, anyway!

In dialogue (12) Korean's response to American's praise seems to have left the American with a little bit of discomfort. When the American participant was asked to comment about his initiative praise, he said that the Korean student went too far and played down her work. The American participant is considered to draw on his own cultural schema of individual credit. The Korean student, on the other hand, reported that her response was totally natural and appropriate in such circumstance. The Korean student's response to the compliment is consistent with the cultural schema of *gyeomson*. Dialogue (12) suggests that Korean speakers of English may lose some form of merit due to the degree to which they depreciated or yielded their achievements or abilities. Dialogue (13) also demonstrates that Korean interlocutor draws on the *gyeomson* schema

when received compliments on her diligence or hard working.

The dispositions that are argued so far are cognitive in nature, therefore they may not always be provided in the form of fixed expressions or formulas. For example, even when the *gyeomson* schema may trigger certain formulaic manifestations or conventionalized expressions in Korean such as *guachan-isibnida hancham bujok-hamnida* 'we are not worth of it. I don't even qualify', when Korean speakers display the *gyeomson* schema in their use of English, they do not by all means use the word for word translation of a Korean formulaic expression. It is highly possible that they use different expressions such as 'I am just below average', 'In fact, I have low intelligence,' or 'I know I am an average person' to set a low value on their capabilities. Under this circumstance, the Korean speakers of English may have lost their credit to their language fluency or accuracy because they might give impressions that they are not able to properly respond to the complements by downplaying their abilities or achievements too much. While the cognitive nature of schemas such *gyeomson* schema is represented in linguistic forms, the schema may not be just linguistic in nature. As shown in many oriental cultures, culture specific schemas can be physically as well as verbally reflected (O'shea, 2000). The *gyeomson* attitude in Korean culture also has physical manifestations, such as standing to attention on the arrival and departure of other guests or offering the seat to somebody else, which comprise all polite behavior in Korean society.

III. EVIDENCE OF SCHEMA OF *GYEOMSON* 'MODESTY'

Aiming to show how Korean learners of English draw on cultural conceptualization of *gyeomson* which has essentially been related with their L1, the study is qualitative in nature and the data consist of interview with thirteen informants for more genuine responses and an inquiry into meta-linguistic attitudes to *gyeomson* 'modesty'. The twelve informants are comprised of seven Korean native and four native speakers of American English and one native speaker of Canadian English. All informants are graduate students pursuing a Master's degree in Asian Studies and Linguistics at a state university in the United States. Korean informants have been staying over two years and have good command of English. All informants, both native and non-native English speakers, can be referred to represent exemplary users of English as a lingua franca since they use English in everyday interactions for both academic and interpersonal purposes.

1. Schema of *Gyeomson*

In terms of learning and using English as an L2, Korean speakers of English have realized that they make attempts to render some formulaic expressions of *gyeomson* in English when they received complements on what they have made or achieved. This is reflected in the responses from the Korean informants whom the researcher asked how they respond to the praises and compliments from the American interlocutors and what expressions they normally use for the responses. Here are the responses from Korean informants (the responses have been edited for English spelling and grammar, but no content has been added or changed).

Korean A: Sometimes I receive compliments on my appearance, talents, or achievements at school. When I receive praises on kind of trivial things such as my appearance or the dishes I prepared for my friends, I usually respond with an expression such as 'thank you'. As for the complements on my achievements or talents, however, things are not so simple or straight. Whenever I get complements such as 'You did a really good job! It is extraordinary work', then I don't feel comfortable to respond saying 'Thank you, you're so kind'. It seems for me too arrogant and haughty to respond to the complements from colleagues or teachers by just expressing my gratitude. So I usually say 'Oh no! It's nothing' or 'I don't even qualify'. Of course, I am not quite comfortable saying like this either. But I feel this kind of modest expression is much better than just saying my thanks. Probably, it's because I grew up in the culture where being arrogant is not a virtue. You know we have always heard 'the virtue of modesty, even though I don't think 'modesty' is a proper English equivalent to *gyeomson* or *gyeomyang* in Korean. Though *gyeomson* in Korean society tends to lose its social meaning as concern about others, it is still important for elders.

Korean B: Of course I had a plentiful experience of both giving and receiving compliments in the U.S. When I praise somebody for his or her possessions such as new clothes or hair style, that is a trifle, I don't think I expect some expressions of hesitation or words of *gyeomson*. It seems totally natural to me. But in case of matters of a great deal of weight, things are different. When I pay praise on somebody's academic work or his or her talents, it seems natural to expect some words of modesty, I mean, *gyeomson*. I believe there is still so much concern about so-called the virtue of *gyeomyang* in our society. So, to say 'I haven't done anything, I owe all to my teacher' seems quite natural to me. In the same way, when I get praised by my American classmates or friends, I tend to use expressions such as 'Oh no, please don't say that,' or 'Thanks to you.' I know that saying those expressions

do not truly mean that. But it's natural for me to say the phrases first. It totally makes sense for us who grew up in Korean society. *Gyeomson* culture, being modesty, influences the way we talk in everyday interactions, formal or informal.

Korean C: *Gyeomson* is not simply translated into English word at all. 'Modesty' or 'humility' does not convey the social meaning of *gyeomson*. *Gyeomson* is an attitude which is closely related to the speech act of compliments. Therefore, either paying or receiving praises on something such as food, house, or appearance, we usually add 'Yours eyes see beautifully' after 'Thank you.' If I get compliments on more important matter like my school-work, scholarship, or academic achievement, I feel I have to express modest attitude by saying 'I haven't done anything,' 'I owe it all to everybody,' or 'All thanks to you,' or 'I don't even qualify.' Among these expressions, I usually say 'all thanks to you' and 'I'm so flattered.' If somebody does not say any of the formulaic expressions after receiving complements, he or she is thought to be kind of arrogant or lack of *gyeomson* attitude. This is my thought. And if the interaction is in Korean, it's perfectly normal and natural. But in English context, I often feel kind of awkwardness, frankly speaking. It's because expressing my *gyeomson* attitude in English seems not to be comfortable to my American friends or colleagues. This feeling is still the same after staying more than five years in US. I still feel uncomfortable both expressing my *gyeomson* attitude and not saying any word except gratitude. My American friends tend not to express much of being modest. They just express how they thank for the complements or how kind of the person who pays the complements. Maybe this is a typical example of culture difference.

Korean D: Two years ago, I received a scholarship for one academic year. You know it is not easy and even common for foreign students to win a full time scholarship. So I was so delighted. Of course I received compliments and praises from friends and teachers. One day I received compliments on my work and scholarship from one of my American classmates and responded to the complements with my gratitude, saying 'Oh, thank you so much, but I'm so much flattered! I owe all to you and others.' Then she smiled and said 'Hey, don't' be ridiculous! It's all your work and you've done something unusual.' Maybe she thought that I stretched the truth too far. So she seemed to feel a certain degree of discomfort. But I did not find anything wrong with my response. It's a kind of expression of *gyeomson* attitude. It is a kind of norm for me as a Korean to downplay my achievement or capability using *gyeomson* expressions. *Gyeomson* expressions do not mean that I really underestimate my talent or capability. It is just manners or etiquette to express

gyeomson attitude. It is a kind of mutual implicit agreement. Am I right?

Korean E: I personally find one misunderstanding of Americans about Eastern cultures including Korean. They often don't understand *gyeomson* and sometimes take it wrong. *Gyeomson* is a cultural phenomenon that consists of refusing and offering something out of politeness. *Gyeomson* attitude is good manners in Korean society. I think that is why we have certain conventionalized expressions associated with *gyeomson* attitude in Korean. So even when I talk with someone from different culture in English, I tend to use *gyeomson* expressions. But when many speakers of Korean manifest *gyeomson* attitude in their use of English, they do not by all means use the verbatim translation of a formulaic Korean expression. Rather, we Koreans including me may downplay their capability using other expressions such as 'Oh no! I think I am just an average person,' or 'You stretch my intelligence, I believe.' When the expressions, either conventionalized or not, are uttered in Korean, it's completely natural and easily understood. But in English, it may sound awkward. I have experienced such cases several times. Whenever I responded to the complements on my achievement or capability with those expressions of *gyeomson* attitude, my American interlocutors appeared to be discomfort to a certain degree.

Korean F: Korean politeness is as subtle as the intricate social network, I think. *Gyeomson* and also *chemyeon* have no English translation. It is important to show high degree of modesty in our behavior. But sometimes I am not quite sure the boundary between being and not being humble when I receive praises that are more than I deserve. I find it is not right to give up modest attitude at any circumstances.

From the above responses from Korean informants, it is clear that the Korean learners of English may find it is quite natural to draw on the schema of *gyeomson* in their everyday interactions. The interview also suggests that in many cases Korean speakers of English have lost some form of merit or credit because of the degree to which they downplay their capabilities or talents and reassign their achievements to somebody else. It is important to note that Korean learners of English may find it difficult to abandon the schema of *gyeomson* in their use of English, and this may lead to misunderstanding on the part of those not familiar with the schema.

Although Korean informants used English words such as 'modesty' or 'humility' intermittently, they have used the words *gyeomson* and *gyeomyang* throughout the interview, which reflects the lack of English word that accurately conveys this schema of *gyeomson*. The Korean cultural schema of *gyeomson* may not be reflected thoroughly by English words like 'modesty', 'humility,' or 'humble attitude' at all. That means the

schema of *gyeomson* is quite Korean specific cultural one. But the problem is not just the existence of different cultural schemas and consequently the lack of a comparable word or concept in English. Korean learners of English tend to anxious for making mistakes either in correctness of linguistic aspects or cultural intelligibility, and consequently losing their face. In other words, the *gyeomson* schema may discourage the Korean learners to actively respond to their interlocutors in the context of speech act of compliments particularly among the learners with low level of English proficiency. Table 1 shows the responses given by both Korean and American informants about their conceptualizations of *gyeomson*. The responses in Table 1 also have been edited and normalized for English spelling and grammar.

TABLE 1

Conceptualizations of *gyeomson* 'modesty'

Koreans	Americans
Gyeomson attitude is still very significant in social relations in the countries like Korea. We grew up learning that *gyeomson* is one of the important qualities that we must be equipped with. It is kind of attitude to show our courtesy and good manners to other people.	Modesty is one of desirable human nature. I think I am a modest person. But it's also natural to expect kind of credit for my achievements.
I tend to try not to be seen as arrogant or ill-mannered. That's why I keep *gyeumson* attitude. When I get praised or receive complements on my talents, particularly, I don't take it for granted, just saying 'thank you'. I usually refuse to accept the complements directly and try to reassign the praise to others.	I haven't given much thought on that. If it means humble attitude, it depends on the context, definitely.
It is not easy to choose English word for *gyeumson*. It seems quite different attitude from 'modesty' or 'humility'. Definitely it has different connotation. It involves both verbal and nonverbal forms. I think we can show our dignity through *gyeomson* attitude.	I think humble attitude is reflected in modest behaviors in our everyday interactions such as offering my seat to somebody else or making way for others, and not giving others inconvenience.
We can notice *gyeomson* attitude both verbal and physical manifestations. Good manners, for example, are also associated with the general meaning of *gyeumson*.	Modesty means good manners! We place a high value on good manners.

I don't like people who have not *gyeomson* attitude. *Gyeomson* does not mean self-depreciation. In contrast, it makes oneself more respectable. It also encompasses politeness. Of course going too far in *gyeomson* attitude sometimes may make people around feel uncomfortable or awkward.	We are supposed be moderate in showing our modesty. Going too far should be avoided.

The responses from the Korean informants instantiate culture specific schema of *gyeomson*, as they refer to 'very significant in social relations', 'different attitude from 'modesty' or 'humility'', 'to reassign the praise to others', 'it makes oneself more respectable', 'dignity', and 'politeness'. *Gyeomson* for Koreans is associated with the social aspect of self-consciousness for self-realization fulfilled by taking modest attitude in every sector of social relations. It is more than just good manners or politeness. *Gyeomson* schema in Korean culture is well reflected in linguistic expressions as demonstrated in aforementioned formulaic expressions. *Gyeomson* schema, however, is not merely linguistic in nature, nor are they realized only in linguistic terms. It has both linguistic and non-linguistic manifestations. The latter consist of activities or polite and formal demeanor. Along with *chemyeon* schema, *gyeomson* schema reflects collectivism in Korean society and culture compared to more individual-oriented western culture. On the other hand, the responses from the American informants activate cultural schema of individual merit and suggest that modesty or humble attitude as an important bearing for them is, in most cases, restricted to physical manifestation of good manners. Modesty for them is not a device to give up credit which they deserve. The responses such as 'to expect kind of credit for my achievements', 'good manners', 'not giving others inconvenience', and 'offering my seat' reflect an aspect of American culture of individual merit or being modest as physical manifestations. Modest attitude for the American informants represents, in most cases, their desire to get a credit for their achievements without going too much.

V. DISCUSION AND CONCLUSION

The analysis of Korean cultural schema of *gyeomson* suggests that language learning and using involve cultural conceptualizations through continued cultural experiences. Language learning is a part of more general process of obtaining membership of a cultural group (Sharifian, 2007). The process needs sustained cultural understanding and

negotiation with other members by participating in conceptualization of cultural experiences and the ways of language use. As Sharifian (2015) maintains, language learners take in cultural schemas brought from experiences both linguistic and non-linguistic and make them their own. Compared with acquiring language as L1, L2 learning may be more complicated and difficult. It is highly possible that the process of learning L2 which has quite different cultural conceptualizations from those of L1 and does not encode learners' cultural schemas brings about much more intricate situations.

The culturally loaded conceptualization of *gyeomson* schema is internalized by Korean L1 speakers. When learning English as L2, however, different conceptualization and schema of *gyeomson* that underlie language use in English should be acquired. In the same way, English learners of Korean as L2 also need to acquire different conceptualization and cultural schema of *gyeomson* which is quite different from their schema of modesty. While *gyeomson* schema represents collectivism in Korean culture, the schema of modesty reflects individualism in Western cultural context where modesty does not mean giving up or reassigning their credit, but belong to keeping individual merit and physically manifesting good manners.

The observations made in the previous chapters open up a new ground for more profound research into how cultural schemas conceptualized in Korean have an effect on the process of learning English as L2. Since language learning involves multifarious factors including linguistic and non-linguistic competence, activating knowledge about culture specific conceptualizations such as schemas and categories may significantly facilitate learning process of English. While it is obvious that the observations and suggestions in this study need to be backed up further with more thorough methodology and extended data analysis, they evidence a step toward in-depth research in cultural grounding of conceptualizations and language learning.

This study also has meaningful implications for the use of English as a lingua franca. Whether the cultural aspect and social norms of English conform to those of English L1 speakers or instead to those attributes of each local culture is one of the current debates (MacKay, 2002; Sharifian, 2007). Globalization with other significant social factors caused more and more use of English as a lingua franca among the non-native English speakers. Thus, the use of native English speakers as the 'cultural guide book' is controversial and problematic (MacKay, 2002). Nowadays, English is used for interactions among people with diverse non-Western cultural backgrounds. In those situations, it would be not realistic either desirable to ask the speakers of English as a lingua franca to make themselves well-acquainted with diverse cultural conceptualizations across the world including those of Anglophone culture. As a solution for the matter, Sharifian (2007, p. 48) suggests "meta-cultural competence" which necessitates kind of meta-cultural awareness that diverse cultural groups conceptualize

their experiences diversely, and that people in English as a lingua franca contexts also rely on diverse cultural systems of cognition. The difference in the systems of cultural cognition makes the structure of language use different. Therefore, speakers of English in ELF contexts need to be encouraged to be aware of diverse cultural conceptualizations and acknowledge the diversity as valuable resources and to avoid the assumption of sharing cultural experiences.

REFERENCES

Ahmadi, N. & Ahmadi, F. (1998). *Iranian Islam: The concept of the individual*. London: MacMilan Press.

Choi, S. (2000). *Psychology of Koreans.* Seoul: Chung-Ang University Press.

Chung, E. (2015). *Korean Confucianism: Tradition and modernity*. Seoul: The Academy of Korean Studies Press.

Diaz Vera, J. (Ed.) (2014). *Metaphor and metonymy across time and cultures: Perspectives on the socio-historical linguistics of figurative language*. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.

Goddard, C. (1996). Cross-linguistic research on metaphor. *Language & Communication*, *16*, 145-151.

Kim, Y. & Yang, J. (2013). Impact of *chemyeon* on Koreans' verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness. *Korea Journal*, 53(3), 48-77.

Lakoff, G. & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors we live by*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Levinson, S. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Maalej, Z. (2004). Figurative language in anger expressions in Tunisian Arabic: An extended view of embodiment. *Metaphor and Symbol*, 19, 51-75.

Maalej, Z. (2007). The embodiment of fear expressions in Tunisian Arabic. In F. Sharifian & G. Palmer (Eds.), *Applied cultural linguistics* (pp. 87-104). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Mackay, S. (2002). *Teaching English as an international language: Rethinking goals and approaches*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Malcolm, I. & Rochecouste, J. (2000). Event and story schemas in Australian Aboriginal English. *English World-Wide*, 21, 261-289.

Min, S. (2015). Achieving mutual understanding using interactional strategies in English as a lingua franca context. *Journal of the Korea English Education Society*, *14*(2), 121-139.

Min, S. (2017). The Korean cultural conceptualizations in L2 learning and intercultural communication. *Journal of the Korea English Education Society*, *16*(3), 119-138.

Musolff, A. (2010). Metaphor, nation and the Holocaust. *The concept of the body politic*. London/New York: Routledge.

Musolff, A. (2014). Metaphors: Sources for intercultural misunderstanding? *International Journal of Language and Culture, 1*, 42-59.

Musolff, A. (2015). Metaphor interpretation and cultural linguistics. *Language and Semiotic Studies, 1*, 35-51.

Nacey, S. (2013). *Metaphors in learner English*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: Benjamins.

O'shea, M. (2000). *Cultural shock: Iran*. Portland, OR: Graphic Arts Publishing Company.

Palmer, G. (1996). *Toward a theory of cultural linguistics*. Austin: University of Texas Press.

Sharifian, F. (2005). Cultural conceptualizations in English words: A study of Aboriginal children in Perth. *Language and Education, 19*(1), 74-88.

Sharifian, F. (2007). L1 cultural conceptualizations in L2 learning. In F. Sharifian & G. Palmer (Eds.), *Applied cultural linguistics* (pp. 33-51). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Sharifian, F. (2011). *Cultural conceptualizations and language: Theoretical framework and applications*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Sharifian, F. (2015). Cultural linguistics and world Englishes. *World Englishes, 10*, 514-532.

Shim, Y., Kim, M. & Martin, J. (2008). *Changing Korea: Understanding culture and communication*. New York, NY: Peter Lang.

Strauss, C. & Quinn, N. (1997). *A cognitive theory of cultural meaning*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Tachibana, S. (1992). *The ethics of Buddhism*. Bloomberg: Psychology Press.

Watson-Gegeo, K. (2004). Mind, language, and epistemology: Toward a language socialization paradigm for SLA. *The Modern Language Journal*, 88, 331-350.

Wierzbicka, A. (1995). Everyday conceptions of emotion: A semantic perspective. In J. Russel, J. Fernandez-Dols, A. Manstead, & C. Wellenkamp (Eds.), *Everyday conceptions of emotions: An introduction to the psychology, anthropology and linguistics of emotion* (pp. 17-47). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Wolf, H-G. (2008). A cognitive linguistic approach to the cultures of world Englishes: The emergence of a new model. In G. Kristiansen, & R. Dirven (Eds.), *Cognitive sociolinguistics: Language variation, cultural models, social systems* (pp. 353-385). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Wolf, H-G., & Polzenhagen, F. (2009). *World Englishes: A cognitive sociolinguistic approach*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Wong, J. (2006). Contextulizing aunty in Singaporean English. *World Englishes, 25*, 451-466.

Yu, N. (2003). Metaphor, body and culture: The Chinese understanding of gallbladder and courage. *Metaphor and Symbol, 18*, 13-31.

Yu, N. (2008). Metaphor from body and culture. In R. W. Gibbs (Ed.), *The Cambridge handbook of metaphor and thought* (pp. 247-261). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Yu, N. (2009). *The Chinese HEART in a cognitive perspective: Culture, body, and language*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Yu, N. (2015). Embodiment, culture, and language. In F. Sharifian (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of language and culture* (pp. 227-239). London: Routledge.

Examples in: English
Applicable Language: English
Applicable Level: College

Sujung Min
Department of English Education
Kongju National University
56 Gongjudaehak-ro, Gongju
32588 Chungcheongnam-do, Korea
Email: sujmin@kongju.ac.kr

Jihyun Byun
Department of English Language and Literature
College of Liberal Arts
Hannam University
70 Hannam-ro, Daedeok-gu
34430 Daejeon, Korea
Email: byunjh@hnu.kr

Received in April 14th, 2018
Reviewed in May 26th, 2018
Revised version received in June 5th, 2018

영어어문교육 *제24권* 2호 2018년 여름

중학교 영어교과 성취평가 실태 분석

박 지 선*
(한국교육과정평가원)
김 인 숙**
(한국교육과정평가원)

Park, Jiseon & Kim, Insuk (2018). A study on the current state of achievement standards-based assessment implementation in middle schools: In the domain of English language subject. *English Language & Literature Teaching, 24*(2), 153-175.

This study examines the current state of Achievement Standards-based Assessment (ASA) implementation in middle schools, in the domain of English language subject. For this purpose, the study analyzed the average and standard deviation of raw scores and the distribution of achievement levels of middle school students during the academic years of 2012-2016, by school year, metropolitan/provincial district, and school type. The data examined in this study was obtained from the posts of educational information, released by middle schools according to the Disclosure of Information Act for Educational Institutes. By examining the score reports of about 3,200 middle schools, the study identified several tendencies of ASA in the domain of English language subject. For example, the average score and the percentage of Achievement Level A increased each academic year of 2012-2016, while the ratio of Achievement Level E decreased. However, the average score and the percentage of Achievement Level A tended to continuously decrease as the grade (school year) of students increased while the ratio of Achievement Level E increase. Based on the analysis results, the study attempted to discuss implications for ASA implementation and suggest topics for future research.

[Achievement Standards-based Assessment/English language subject in middle school/achievement levels, 성취평가제/중학교 영어교과/성취수준]

Ⅰ. 서론

미래 사회, 또는 4차 산업혁명 시대 및 지능정보시대의 도래를 맞아 기존의

* 제1저자, **교신저자

지식 습득 위주의 교육에서 벗어나 핵심 역량을 배양하는 역량 위주의 교육으로 이동하는 교육의 혁신을 모색하는 것은 교육 분야에서의 전 세계적 추세이다. 예를 들어 OECD에서는 'DeSeCo(the Definition and Selection of Key Competencies) 프로젝트'를 통해 미래 사회 시민이 갖추어야 할 핵심 역량을 선정하고 제시하였으며(OECD, 2005), 교육부와 정보통신 기업이 참여한 미국의 '21세기 역량을 위한 파트너십(The Partnership for 21st century skills) 연구 (The Partnership for 21st century skills, 2009)'과 호주 멜버른 대학을 중심으로 구성된 '21세기 역량 교육 평가에 관한 산학연 협동 연구(Assessment and teaching of 21st century skills, ATC21S)(Griffin, McGaw & Care, 2012)' 미래 사회에 대비하기 위해 필요한 역량을 파악하고 그 역량을 평가하기 위한 방안을 모색하고 있다. 또한 최근인 2016년에 스위스 다보스에서 열린 세계경제포럼(World Economic Forum)에서는 '4차 산업혁명'을 핵심 의제로 선정하고 미래 사회에 대한 전세계적 차원에서의 대응 방안에 대해 여러 분야에 걸쳐 논의하였는데, 이 중 하나가 초·중등 교육에서 필요한 21세기 역량과 이에 대한 사회적·경제적·교육적 대응이었다(World Economic Forum, 2015).

우리 나라도 이러한 국제 동향에 발맞추어 미래 사회의 변화에 대처할 수 있는 교육 정책을 추진하고 있는데, 이러한 노력의 대표적인 하나가 바로 '중등학교 학사관리 선진화 방안'에 따른 중등학교 성취평가제의 도입이다 (교육과학기술부, 2011). 성취평가제란 학생간의 상대적인 서열이 아닌 "학생이 무엇을 어느 정도 성취하였는지를 평가하는 제도로, 교육과정에 근거하여 개발된 교과목별 성취기준에 도달한 정도로 학생의 학업 성취수준을 평가"하는 일종의 준거참조평가(criterion-referenced evaluation)이다 (한국 교육과정평가원, 2013, p. 8). 성취평가제 도입의 이면에는 상대적 서열을 정하기 위한 변별력 확보에 무게를 두었던 기존의 규준참조평가(norm-referenced evaluation)에서 탈피하여 평가의 목표를 교육과정에서 제시하는 목표, 즉 성취기준 도달 여부를 파악하는데 둠으로써 이에 따른 환류 효과로서의 교수·학습의 변화와 학생의 과도한 학업 스트레스 경감 및 학생의 실질적인 학업 능력 향상이 의도되었다. 또한 학생 간 경쟁이 감소됨에 따라 보다 협력적인 분위기에서 학습이 가능해져, 학교 교육을 통해 미래 사회에서 요구되는 핵심 역량의 하나인 협력(collaboration) 및 문제해결력과 의사소통 능력 등의 배양이 보다 용이해질 것으로 기대된다.

우리나라 중등교육의 선진화를 위해 도입된 성취평가제는 중학교의 경우 2012학년도에 1학년을 대상으로 처음 전면 적용되어 오늘에 이르고 있다. 이처럼 성취평가제가 평가뿐 아니라 교수·학습을 포함한 교과 교육의 전반적 측면에서 중요한 영향력을 미치고 있으나, 도입 이후 5년이 지난 지금까지 성취평가제가 실제로 각 교과에서 어떻게 시행되고 있는지 그 실태를 분석하여 제시한 연구는 찾아보기 어려우며, 특히 교과에서의 성취평가제 적용 추이를 대규

모로 분석한 연구는 더욱 희소하다. 이에 본 연구에서는 영어교과에서 성취평가제가 실제로 어떻게 시행되고 있는지 학년, 지역, 학교 유형 등 여러 요인에 따른 구체적인 연도별 추이를 분석하여 성취평가제 시행 실태를 파악하고자 한다. 현재 성취평가제가 적용되는 대상은 중학교와 고등학교이며, 중학교는 2012학년도 1학기부터, 고등학교는 2014학년도 1학기부터 성취평가 제가 전면 적용되었다. 따라서 현시점에서 성취평가제의 시행 추이 분석을 위해서는 시행 기간이 상대적으로 짧은 고등학교 보다는 중학교를 연구 대상으로 설정하는 것이 적절하다. 또한 고등학교의 경우 규준참조평가를 기반으로 한 내신 9등급제가 성취평가제와 병행하여 시행되고 있기 때문에, 성취평가제의 결과 분석만으로 성취평가제의 실질적인 시행 실태를 파악하기 에는 한계가 있다. 이러한 점을 종합적으로 고려하여 중학교 영어교과 성취 평가제 실태 파악을 위해 설정한 본 연구의 구체적인 연구 질문은 다음과 같다.

1. 중학교 영어교과 성취평가제 시행과 관련하여, 2012~2016학년도 원점수 평균 및 표준편차와 성취수준 비율 분포의 추이는 어떠한가?
2. 중학교 영어교과 성취평가제 시행과 관련하여, 학년, 시·도, 학교 유형 변인에 따른 원점수 평균 및 표준편차와 성취수준 비율 분포의 차이는 존재하는가? 차이가 존재한다면 시간에 따른 추이는 어떠한가?

II. 이론적 배경 및 선행 연구 분석

성취평가제가 기반하고 있는 준거참조평가는 흔히 절대평가로 알려져 있으며, 절대적인 준거(criterion)에 비추어 학생이 무엇을 얼마만큼 알고 수행할 수 있는지를 측정하는 평가 방법으로서 교육 목표에 따른 학생의 현재 성취 정도 및 행동 목표도달 정도를 보여준다(Brown & Hudson, 2002; Miller, Linn, & Gronlund, 2002). Popham(1978)에 따르면 준거참조평가는 준거, 즉 학습목표에 대한 학습자의 수행 가능 정도를 해석하기 위해 마련된 평가이며, 학생의 성취수준을 정의하고 학습에 대한 능숙 정도에 대한 정보를 제공하는 것을 평가의 주요 목표로 삼는다. 반면 흔히 상대평가로 알려진 규준참조평가는 학습자의 성취수준을 비교 집단의 규준(norm)에 비추어 측정하는 평가 방법으로 집단에 대한 학생의 서열 정보를 제공하며 그 대표적인 예가 현재 우리나라에서 시행되고 있는 대학수학능력시험이다. 규준참조평가는 학습자의 학습 목표에 대한 도달 여부, 즉 학생이 무엇을 얼마만큼 아는가에 대한 정보를 제공하기 보다는 서열이나 상대적 위치를 분류하는 것에 초점을 맞춘다. 따라서 규준참조평가의 경우 교수학습 이론에 부적절하며, 경쟁을 강조하여 협력 학습을 저해하는 동시에 충분한 시간 동안의 지적 탐구를 통한 문제 해결보다는 암기 위주의 교육을 조장하고, 이해력과 분석력, 창조력, 탐구심을 결여 시킬 수 있다는 문제점

이 지속적으로 지적되어 왔다(성태제, 2009). 이에 비해 준거참조평가는 교수학습에 유용한 정보를 제공하고 학습 효과를 증진시키며, 학생의 탐구심과 협력을 고취시키는 동시에 서열의식보다는 지적인 성취를 유발한다는 점에서(성태제, 2009) 미래 사회를 대비한 핵심 역량 함양을 목표로 교육 혁신을 추구하는 세계적인 교육 혁신에 보다 맞닿아 있는 평가 방법이다. 따라서 2012학년도에 중학교 1학년부터 전면 시행하게 된 성취평가제는 기존 상대평가 방식의 성적 산출 방식에 비해 학생의 학습 성장과 탐구심, 창의성, 문제해결력, 협력 등의 핵심 역량 함양 함양에 보다 긍정적인 역할을 할 것으로 기대된다.

박은아 외(2013)에 따르면 준거참조평가 개념을 기반으로 한 성취평가제의 주요 특징은 다음과 같다. 첫째, 성취평가제는 교육과정에서 제시하고 있는 성취기준에 대하여 학생이 어느 정도 알고 수행할 수 있는지에 초점을 맞춘다. 성취평가제에서는 학기초에 성취기준을 반영하여 평가 계획을 수립하고 이를 바탕으로 평가를 시행하기 때문에, 평가 결과가 학생의 학업 성적 변별 보다는 성취기준에 대한 학생의 성취 정도에 대한 정보를 제공할 수 있다. 둘째, 성취평가제에서는 수업 및 평가의 계획이 모두 교육과정의 성취기준에 근거하여 이루어지기 때문에 교육과정과 교수·학습, 평가의 연계성이 높아진다. 성취평가제의 평가 결과는 학생의 성취기준 도달에 대한 정보를 제공해 주기 때문에 교수·학습에 대한 피드백을 제공하는 것이 가능하다. 셋째, 성취평가제를 통해 제공되는 평가 결과는 집단에 대한 서열 정보가 아닌 학습자 개인의 학습 성취 결과 정보를 제공한다. 따라서 성취평가제의 평가 결과는 교사의 수업 개선을 위한 피드백 자료로 활용될 수 있는 동시에 학생의 학습 상황에 대한 교사와 학부모 및 학생 간 의사소통을 증진시킨다. 또한 한국교육과정평가원(2013)에 따르면 단위학교에서 성취평가제를 원활히 시행하기 위해서는 교과목에 대한 학기별 평가 계획과 성취기준 및 성취수준의 설정, 평가 계획 수립, 평가도구 개발, 평가 결과 검증, 평가 결과 분석과 피드백이 해당 과목을 가르치는 교사 협의회를 통해 이루어지기 때문에 교과 협의회가 활성화될 필요가 있으며, 과학적이고 체계적인 평가 계획 수립 및 평가 도구 제작을 위한 교사의 평가 전문성 향상과 변별력 확보가 아닌 학생의 실질적 학력 향상을 추구하고자 하는 교사의 인식 전환이 중요하다.

교육평가 방식의 혁신을 통해 학생의 학습 성장과 역량 함양을 도모하기 위해 성취평가제가 오늘날 전체 중등학교에 적용되고 있음에도 불구하고 이에 대한 연구는 미미한 실정이다. 그간 발표된 소수의 성취평가제의 학교 적용과 관련 연구들은 성취평가제에 대한 교사 인식을 조사한 것이 대부분이며(김석우, 2014; 배원희 & 신상근, 2016; 유미나, 2014; 이용순 & 김종욱, 2013; 최숙기, 2016), 학교급도 고등학교에 편중되어 있다(김슬기, 2016; 송재환 & 고호경, 2018; 이명규, 이태수, 성태모 & 정대근, 2015; 장세은, 2013; 장재혁, 김석우 & 이승배, 2015; 장재혁, 김석우, 이승배 & 김성숙, 2015). 이 중 영어교과에 대한 성취평가제 관련 연구로는 성취평가제에 대한 중고등학교 영어 교사의 운

영 실태 및 인식을 설문조사와 면담을 통해 분석한 배원희와 신상근(2016), 성취평가제 수행평가에 대한 중학교 교사와 학생의 인식을 설문조사와 면담을 통해 조사한 유미나(2014), 마찬가지로 설문조사와 면담을 통해 성취평가제를 시범 운영하는 10개 고등학교에 재직 중인 영어 교사의 인식을 조사한 장세은(2013)이 있다. 배원희와 신상근(2016)는 대구의 중고등학교 영어 교사 100명을 대상으로 설문조사를 실시하고 이 중 20명을 대상으로 심층 면담을 진행하였으며, 전반적으로 성취평가제의 여러 단계가 충실하게 실행되고 있으나 여전히 교과협의회보다는 개별 교사에 의한 형식적 처리가 많고, 성취기준과 성취수준 설정에 어려움을 겪고 있다고 분석하였다. 또한 이 연구에서는 85% 이상의 교사가 기존의 상대평가보다는 성취평가제를 선호 하였으며, 성취평가제를 통한 긍정적인 변화의 가능성을 제시하였다.

종합해 보면, 지금까지 영어교과에서의 성취평가제의 실제 적용 결과를 분석한 연구는 제시되지 않은 상황이며, 지금까지의 보고된 소수의 연구는 설문조사와 면담을 통해 단위학교 차원에서 성취평가제 실행에 따른 교사의 인식을 분석한 것이다.

III. 연구 방법

1. 연구 대상 및 자료 수집

본 연구의 주요 목적은 2012학년도부터 계속 누적되어 온 성취평가제에 따른 평가 결과 자료를 분석함으로써 중학교 성취평가제의 전반적 실태를 파악하는 것이다. 따라서 본 연구에서는 성취평가제가 본격적으로 중학교에 도입된 2012학년도부터 최근인 2016학년도까지 전국의 모든 중학교를 대상으로 성취평가 결과 자료 수집하였으며, 이를 위해 중학교 성취평가제 정보공시 자료를 활용하였다. 중등학교의 경우 '교육관련 기관의 정보 공개에 관한 특례법 시행령'에 따라 4월과 9월, 연 2회 교과별 학업성취 사항을 공시하며 (대통령령 제27812호, 2017. 1. 31.), 평가 결과와 관련하여 학년별, 과목별 원점수 평균과 표준편차, 성취수준별 분포 비율 정보를 제공하고 있다. 따라서 본 연구에서도 중학교 영어교과에 대해 각 학교가 공시한 정보에 근거하여 학년별, 과목별 평균과 표준편차 및 성취수준 A와 E[1]의 비율 분포 정보를 분석 대상 자료로 수집하였다. 연구 논의의 초점화를 위해 중학교 일반 교과에 적용되는 A-B-C-D-E의 5개 성취수준 중 성취평가제의 시행과 관련하여 우려되는 부분으로 지적된 성

[1] 영어를 포함한 중학교 성취평가제의 일반 교과의 경우, 학생의 성취수준을 A-B-C-D-E로 평정하며, 각 성취수준별 기준성취율은 A - 90% 이상, B - 80% 이상 ~ 90% 미만, C - 70% 이상 ~ 80% 미만, D - 60% 이상 ~ 70% 미만, E - 60% 미만으로 고정되어 있다(한국교육과정평가원, 2013).

적과대평가와 밀접히 연계된 성취수준 A의 비율과, 공교육을 통한 기초학력 보장과 관련된 성취수준 E의 비율만을 선택하여 분석하였다.

본 연구의 분석 대상에 포함된 2012~2016학년도별 중학교 수는 <표 1>과 같다. 2016년 자유학기제 전면 도입에 따라 1학년의 경우 2학기를 자유학기로 지정하는 학교가 많았기 때문에 분석 대상 학교 수(70개교 이하)가 매우 작아 경향성을 비교하는 데 한계가 있어 본 연구의 분석 대상에 포함시키지 않았다. 또한 성취수준 비율의 경우 2012년 2학기부터 정보 공시 대상에 포함되었기 때문에, 성취수준 비율 변화 추이는 2012학년도 2학기부터 분석하였다.

표 1

중학교 영어교과 성취평가제 시행 결과 분석 대상 학교 수

학년	2012학년도		2013학년도		2014학년도		2015학년도		2016학년도	
	1학기	2학기	1학기	2학기	1학기	2학기	1학기	2학기	1학기	2학기
1학년	3,188	3,188	3,207	3,207	3,224	3,224	3,245	3,245	3,255	70
2학년	-	-	3,207	3,207	3,224	3,224	3,245	3,245	3,255	3,221
3학년	-	-	-	-	3,224	3,224	3,245	3,245	3,255	3,221

이러한 정보공시 자료를 바탕으로 성취평가제 적용 이후 중학교 영어교과의 평균 점수 및 표준편차, A 수준 비율 및 E 수준 비율을 연도별로 추이 분석 하였으며 이를 다시 시·도와 학교 유형별로 나누어 추이를 분석하였다.

2. 분석 방법

본 연구에서는 정보 공시 자료인 원점수 평균과 표준편차, 성취수준별 분포 비율 정보에 대해 SPSS 24.0 프로그램을 이용하여 다음과 같이 학년별, 시·도별, 학교 유형별로 평균과 표준편차 등 기술통계를 살펴보았다. 첫째, 중학교 영어교과 성취평가제 운영과 관련하여 학년별 실태를 파악하기 위해, 2012~2016학년도 원점수 평균 및 표준편차와 성취수준 비율의 학년(1~3학년)별 전체 평균과 표준편차를 살펴보았다. 둘째, 성취평가제 운영에 대한 시·도별 양상을 파악하기 위해, 2012~2016학년도 원점수 평균 및 표준편차와 성취수준 비율의 17개 시·도별 전체 평균과 표준편차를 살펴보았다. 셋째, 성취평가제 운영에 대한 학교설립 유형별 양상을 파악하기 위해, 2012~2016학년도 원점수 평균 및 표준편차와 성취수준 비율의 설립 유형(국공립/사립)별 전체 평균과 표준편차를 살펴보았다. 넷째, 성취평가제 운영에 대한 학교성별 유형에 따른 양상을 살펴보기 위해, 2012~2016학년도 원점수 평균 및 표

준편차와 성취수준 비율의 학교성별(남학교/여학교/남녀공학) 전체 평균과 표준편차를 살펴보았다.

Ⅳ. 결과

1. 점수 평균 및 표준편차

1) 학년별 점수 평균 및 표준편차

2012학년도부터 2016학년도에 해당하는 중학교 영어교과 학기말 원점수 평균 및 표준편차(SD) 분석 결과는 <표 2>와 같다.

표 2

학년별 중학교 영어교과 원점수 평균 및 표준편차

	2012학년도				2013학년도				2014학년도				2015학년도				2016학년도			
학년	1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기	
	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD
1학년	70.5	7.7	69.0	7.5	70.7	6.5	69.5	6.3	71.5	6.5	70.3	6.6	73.2	6.4	71.8	6.4	73.2	6.6	-	-
2학년	-	-	-	-	67.2	6.4	67.4	6.4	67.9	6.4	67.7	6.3	69.5	6.5	69.8	6.5	70.3	6.5	70.5	6.3
3학년	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	66.5	6.3	65.5	6.4	67.9	6.3	67.9	6.4	68.4	6.4	67.6	6.4

중학교 영어교과의 학기말 원점수 평균 및 표준편차를 살펴보면, 학년에 따라 학기별 평균 점수의 변화 양상이 다른 것을 알 수 있다. 우선 1학년의 경우는 매해 1학기에 비해 2학기의 평균 점수가 1점 이상 낮게 나타났으나, 2학년의 경우 2014학년도를 제외하고는 2학기의 평균 점수가 다소 높게 나타났다. 3학년의 경우에는 2학기의 평균 점수가 1학기에 비해 낮거나 동일한 경향을 보였다. 평균 점수의 연도별 추이를 살펴보면 1, 2, 3학년 모두 동일하게 매해 점수가 상향되었다. 또한 1학년에서 2학년, 2학년에서 3학년으로 학년이 증가할수록 평균 점수가 감소하였으며 (대상 년도 전체 평균: 1학년 71.1점, 2학년 68.8점, 3학년 67.3점), 특히 1학년에서 2학년 사이의 평균 점수 감소폭이 큰 것으로 나타났다.

2) 시 · 도별 점수 평균 및 표준편차

2012학년도부터 2016학년도까지 중학교 1학년 학생들의 영어교과 학기말 원점수 평균 및 표준편차를 시 · 도별로 분석한 결과는 <표 3>과 같다.

표 3

시·도별 중학교 1학년 영어교과 점수 평균 및 표준편차

시·도	2012학년도				2013학년도				2014학년도				2015학년도				2016학년도			
	1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기	
	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD
서울	71.7	6.7	70.3	5.8	72.5	5.4	70.5	5.5	74.3	5.4	71.6	5.1	75.7	5.1	72.5	5.3	75.3	5.2	-	-
부산	75.2	4.3	73.2	4.5	75.1	5.0	73.8	4.8	76.7	4.4	75.2	4.0	77.7	4.4	75.6	4.2	78.0	4.8	-	-
대구	72.5	10.7	72.5	4.6	73.9	4.3	72.4	4.6	73.7	3.6	71.9	4.9	73.9	4.6	-	-	73.4	4.3	-	-
인천	68.7	5.1	67.4	5.1	72.2	4.3	70.3	4.6	73.6	4.3	72.2	4.5	74.0	4.7	72.3	4.3	74.8	4.6	-	-
광주	70.0	9.1	68.4	8.7	70.6	5.5	69.4	5.5	72.3	5.0	71.1	5.6	74.5	5.6	-	-	75.2	5.3	-	-
대전	72.4	9.7	71.1	9.7	73.3	5.9	72.2	5.9	73.8	6.3	72.4	5.9	74.7	5.2	73.2	4.7	75.2	5.1	-	-
울산	69.5	10.1	67.4	9.9	71.8	4.6	70.7	4.8	74.0	5.1	72.3	4.3	75.3	4.3	74.0	4.7	75.8	5.6	-	-
세종	70.3	5.1	70.3	3.7	68.5	4.5	65.5	3.8	71.6	6.5	71.4	6.2	75.5	6.1	-	-	75.8	4.5	-	-
경기	70.1	6.9	68.2	7.7	70.5	6.2	69.2	6.0	71.6	5.5	70.8	5.3	73.5	5.3	71.3	5.6	73.8	5.6	-	-
강원	68.6	7.9	66.9	8.4	67.1	6.5	67.0	6.3	68.1	7.0	66.9	7.9	69.9	7.7	-	-	69.7	7.9	-	-
충북	71.1	6.1	69.8	5.7	72.1	6.1	71.0	6.0	70.9	5.7	70.1	6.0	71.5	5.3	72.2	6.5	71.0	6.8	-	-
충남	70.4	5.7	68.2	6.5	69.0	6.5	68.3	6.7	69.9	6.4	67.7	7.0	71.9	6.0	71.8	5.8	71.5	5.9	-	-
전북	68.5	9.3	67.4	8.1	69.0	6.1	67.6	6.2	68.8	6.3	67.8	7.1	70.5	7.6	69.8	7.9	71.5	7.7	-	-
전남	70.4	6.6	69.3	6.1	70.1	6.4	68.8	6.3	70.3	6.3	69.6	6.7	71.1	6.2	70.3	6.4	71.3	7.3	-	-
경북	71.6	9.2	70.7	9.2	71.5	7.3	70.8	7.0	71.6	7.5	71.3	7.7	74.4	7.4	-	-	73.2	7.2	-	-
경남	67.3	8.2	65.7	8.0	66.7	7.2	66.1	7.0	67.0	7.6	66.5	7.9	69.8	7.4	69.9	8.5	69.8	7.1	-	-
제주	72.3	4.5	70.5	5.5	71.3	5.5	71.3	5.1	72.8	6.2	-	-	75.2	4.9	-	-	76.4	4.8	-	-
최고	75.2		73.2		75.1		73.8		76.7		75.2		77.7		75.6		78.0		-	
최저	67.3		65.7		66.7		65.5		67.0		66.5		69.8		69.8		69.7		-	
차이	7.9		7.5		8.4		8.3		9.7		8.7		7.9		5.8		8.3		-	

중학교 1학년 영어교과 평균 점수는 부산이 매해 가장 높았으며, 강원과 경남이 가장 낮은 경향을 보였다. 2012학년도부터 2016학년도까지 중학교 1학년 영어 시·도별 평균 최고점은 1학기와 2학기 모두 대체적으로 지속적인 상승을 보여주었으나, 최저점의 경우 상승과 하락을 반복하였다. 중학교 1학년의 시·도별 평균 최고점과 최저점의 차이는 1학기의 경우 7.9점, 8.4점, 9.7점, 7.9점, 8.3점, 2학기는 7.5점, 8.3점, 8.7점, 5.8점으로, 2012~2014학년도에는 1학기와 2학기 모두 지속적으로 상승하였으나 2015학년도에서 1학기와 2학기 모두 감소하였다.

2013학년도부터 2016학년도까지 중학교 2학년 학생들의 영어교과 학기말 원점수 평균 및 표준편차를 시·도별로 분석한 결과는 <표 4>와 같다.

표 4

시·도별 중학교 2학년 영어교과 점수 평균 및 표준편차

시·도	2013학년도				2014학년도				2015학년도				2016학년도			
	1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기	
	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD
서울	68.0	6.0	67.7	5.7	69.3	5.3	70.0	4.9	70.9	5.1	70.7	5.3	71.0	5.2	71.0	5.4
부산	70.2	5.0	70.2	5.1	71.8	5.0	71.0	5.2	74.1	4.9	73.9	4.9	75.4	4.6	74.6	4.9
대구	70.4	4.1	71.0	4.0	70.1	4.1	69.1	4.0	70.5	4.3	70.9	4.3	70.5	4.5	70.0	4.4
인천	68.6	4.3	68.6	4.3	70.5	4.9	68.9	3.3	70.8	4.3	71.2	4.1	70.8	4.8	70.9	4.4
광주	67.1	5.2	66.4	4.7	68.6	5.7	69.3	4.8	70.5	5.9	70.3	5.2	71.9	5.5	72.0	5.9
대전	69.7	5.4	70.2	5.2	70.5	5.9	69.8	5.7	71.9	4.9	72.7	4.6	72.2	4.7	71.5	4.8
울산	67.7	4.8	68.6	4.8	68.4	4.0	69.0	4.2	70.5	4.7	71.3	4.7	71.3	5.3	72.0	4.3
세종	66.2	6.1	64.1	6.3	68.2	6.2	68.0	4.9	72.4	5.6	74.6	4.5	73.1	4.4	73.9	5.2
경기	66.8	6.0	66.7	6.0	67.5	5.8	67.5	5.6	70.1	5.3	70.2	5.3	70.9	5.6	70.9	5.7
강원	64.2	6.0	65.5	6.2	65.3	7.2	64.5	7.4	66.2	7.3	66.1	7.5	66.1	8.1	66.9	7.6
충북	67.7	6.5	68.0	6.5	68.7	5.9	68.0	6.3	68.2	6.3	68.5	6.3	68.7	6.2	68.3	5.8
충남	65.7	6.4	66.8	6.4	66.8	6.4	66.5	6.3	68.6	6.8	68.9	6.7	69.4	6.6	69.7	6.3
전북	65.4	6.9	65.4	6.8	65.4	6.8	65.2	6.9	66.6	7.4	67.5	7.1	69.8	7.6	70.2	7.9
전남	67.7	6.0	67.7	6.0	67.6	6.3	67.3	6.0	68.1	6.6	68.4	6.9	68.6	6.5	69.7	6.6
경북	68.5	6.7	69.3	6.4	69.0	7.0	69.1	6.8	70.4	7.6	70.7	7.3	71.4	7.5	71.4	7.2
경남	63.5	7.6	63.9	7.5	64.1	7.5	63.3	7.8	66.0	8.2	66.6	8.0	67.3	7.3	67.6	6.8
제주	69.5	5.3	69.8	4.6	69.6	5.4	70.3	5.0	72.6	6.1	73.7	5.4	74.4	4.5	74.3	4.6
최고	70.4		71.0		71.8		71.0		74.1		74.6		75.4		74.6	
최저	63.5		63.9		64.1		63.3		66.0		66.1		66.1		66.9	
차이	6.9		7.1		7.7		7.7		8.1		8.5		9.3		7.7	

중학교 2학년 영어교과 평균 점수는 부산, 세종 및 제주가 타 시·도에 비해 높고, 강원과 경남이 낮은 경향이 나타났다. 세종시의 경우 2013학년도에는 1학기 평균이 66.2점으로 타 시·도 대비 낮은 평균 점수를 보였으나, 매해 상승하여 2015학년도 2학기에는 74.6점으로 전체 시·도 중에서 가장 높았다. 2013학년도부터 2016학년도까지 중학교 2학년 영어 시·도별 평균 최고점과 최저점의 차이는 2016년 2학기를 제외하고는 매해 지속적으로 상승하는 경향을 보였다.

2014학년도부터 2016학년도까지 중학교 3학년 학생들의 영어교과 학기말 원점수 평균 및 표준편차를 시·도별로 분석한 결과는 <표 5>와 같다.

표 5

시·도별 중학교 3학년 영어교과 점수 평균 및 표준편차

시·도	2014학년도				2015학년도				2016학년도			
	1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기	
	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD	평균	SD
서울	66.8	5.4	66.4	5.1	69.2	4.8	68.2	4.9	69.3	4.8	67.6	5.2
부산	69.5	5.2	69.0	4.7	71.6	5.2	71.2	5.2	72.9	4.9	72.1	5.1
대구	68.7	3.9	67.3	4.1	69.4	4.1	69.2	4.2	69.0	4.6	67.4	4.8
인천	68.9	4.3	66.7	4.1	68.7	3.8	68.8	4.7	68.6	4.1	67.8	4.3
광주	67.9	4.9	65.2	5.5	69.5	5.8	68.2	5.5	70.4	5.6	68.5	5.4
대전	68.6	5.4	67.0	5.3	70.0	4.3	69.5	4.5	69.7	4.9	68.2	5.0
울산	67.0	4.8	66.6	5.4	68.1	4.8	67.5	5.2	70.4	5.1	69.0	5.1
세종	66.1	5.4	66.4	5.3	70.1	5.2	71.5	5.7	69.8	4.2	69.6	4.1
경기	66.3	5.4	65.2	5.7	67.5	5.2	67.2	5.5	68.4	5.3	67.2	5.5
강원	63.8	6.7	62.8	7.5	64.4	8.0	64.9	8.0	64.6	7.4	64.8	7.6
충북	67.2	6.6	66.2	6.2	69.0	6.2	69.1	6.2	67.6	6.5	66.3	6.4
충남	65.7	6.6	65.3	6.1	68.6	5.8	69.6	6.0	68.5	6.4	69.3	6.3
전북	64.1	6.6	61.4	8.1	65.9	6.8	64.8	7.4	68.0	7.5	66.6	7.7
전남	67.4	6.5	66.4	6.3	66.8	6.9	67.6	6.9	67.6	7.2	68.3	6.9
경북	68.1	7.1	66.9	7.5	69.8	6.9	69.9	7.0	69.2	7.7	68.3	7.3
경남	62.4	7.4	62.5	7.5	63.9	7.5	65.4	7.6	64.5	7.3	64.7	7.4
제주	69.4	5.1	69.8	4.6	71.4	5.5	72.5	5.5	72.4	5.8	72.4	5.3
최고	69.5		69.8		71.6		72.5		72.9		72.4	
최저	62.4		61.4		63.9		64.8		64.5		64.7	
차이	7.1		8.4		7.7		7.7		8.4		7.7	

중학교 3학년 영어교과 평균 점수는 중학교 2학년과 마찬가지로 부산과 제주가 타 시·도에 비해 높고, 강원과 경남이 낮은 경향이 있었다. 2014학년도부터 2016학년도까지 중학교 3학년 영어 시·도별 평균 최고점과 최저점의 차이는 1학기의 경우 7.1점, 7.7점, 8.4점, 2학기는 8.4점, 7.7점, 7.7점으로, 1학기의 차이는 연도별로 다소 상승하는 반면, 2학기의 차이는 뚜렷한 경향성을 보이지 않았다.

3) 학교 유형별 점수 평균 및 표준편차

우선 학교설립 유형에 따른 2012학년도부터 2016학년도에 해당하는 중학교 학생들의 영어교과 학기말 원점수 평균 및 표준편차를 분석한 결과는 <표 6>과 같다.

표 6

학교설립 유형에 따른 중학교 영어교과 점수 평균 및 표준편차

학년	설립 유형	2012학년도 2학기		2013학년도 1학기		2013학년도 2학기		2014학년도 1학기		2014학년도 2학기		2015학년도 1학기		2015학년도 2학기		2016학년도 1학기		2016학년도 2학기	
		학교수	평균 (SD)	학교수	평균 (SD)	학교수	평균 (SD)	학교수	평균 (SD)	학교수	평균 (SD)	학교수	평균 (SD)	학교수	평균 (SD)	학교수	평균 (SD)	학교수	평균 (SD)
1 학년	국·공립	2,543	69.0 (7.3)	2,564	70.8 (6.3)	2,564	69.6 (6.1)	2,583	71.6 (6.4)	2,583	70.3 (6.4)	2,605	73.3 (6.3)	2,605	71.8 (6.3)	2,617	73.3 (6.5)	-	-
	사립	645	68.9 (8.3)	643	70.3 (7.1)	643	69.4 (7.1)	641	71.1 (6.7)	641	70.1 (7.1)	640	72.8 (6.7)	640	71.8 (6.7)	638	72.8 (6.9)	-	-
2 학년	국·공립	-	-	2,564	67.3 (6.2)	2,564	67.5 (6.2)	2,583	68.0 (6.2)	2,583	67.7 (6.1)	2,605	69.6 (6.4)	2,605	69.8 (6.3)	2,617	70.4 (6.4)	2,584	70.5 (6.2)
	사립	-	-	643	66.8 (6.9)	643	67.2 (6.7)	641	67.5 (7.2)	641	67.5 (7.3)	640	69.3 (6.9)	640	69.6 (7.1)	638	70.1 (7.0)	637	70.2 (6.8)
3 학년	국·공립	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,583	66.6 (6.1)	2,583	65.6 (6.3)	2,605	67.9 (6.0)	2,605	67.9 (6.2)	2,617	68.4 (6.3)	2,584	67.6 (6.3)
	사립	-	-	-	-	-	-	641	66.3 (6.9)	641	65.4 (7.0)	640	67.9 (7.1)	640	67.8 (7.1)	638	68.6 (6.8)	637	67.6 (6.7)

모든 학년에서 국·공립학교의 평균 점수가 사립학교 대비 대체적으로 다소 높게 나타나는 경향이 보였다. 다만 2015학년도 3학년 1학기와 1학년 2학기, 2016학년도 3학년 2학기에는 설립 유형별 평균에 차이가 없었으며, 2016학년도 3학년 1학기에는 사립 중학교의 평균 점수가 국·공립 중학교의 평균 점수보다 다소 높았다.

학교성별에 따른 유형별로 2012학년도부터 2016학년도에 해당하는 중학교 학생들의 영어교과 학기말 원점수 평균 및 표준편차를 분석한 결과는 <표 7>과 같다.

표 7

학교성별 유형에 따른 중학교 영어교과 점수 평균 및 표준편차

학년	학교성별	2012학년도 2학기		2013학년도 1학기		2013학년도 2학기		2014학년도 1학기		2014학년도 2학기		2015학년도 1학기		2015학년도 2학기		2016학년도 1학기		2016학년도 2학기	
		학교수	평균 (SD)	학교수	평균 (SD)	학교수	평균 (SD)	학교수	평균 (SD)	학교수	평균 (SD)	학교수	평균 (SD)	학교수	평균 (SD)	학교수	평균 (SD)	학교수	평균 (SD)
1 학년	남학교	412	68.1 (7.2)	408	69.8 (5.6)	408	68.8 (5.6)	408	70.7 (5.6)	408	69.4 (5.5)	407	72.3 (5.9)	407	71.3 (5.4)	395	72.1 (6.1)	-	-
	여학교	363	70.6 (6.4)	357	72.7 (5.4)	357	71.5 (5.5)	357	73.1 (5.2)	357	72.2 (5.0)	357	74.7 (4.9)	357	73.4 (5.4)	354	74.5 (5.0)	-	-
	남녀 공학	2,405	68.9 (7.7)	2,435	70.6 (6.7)	2,435	69.4 (6.5)	2,457	71.4 (6.7)	2,457	70.1 (6.9)	2,478	73.1 (6.6)	2,478	71.6 (6.7)	2,506	73.2 (6.8)	-	-

2학년	남학교	-	-	408	66.1 (5.6)	408	65.9 (5.5)	408	66.8 (5.7)	408	66.3 (5.7)	407	68.5 (5.8)	407	68.6 (5.8)	395	69.1 (6.0)	394	69.0 (5.9)
	여학교	-	-	357	69.2 (5.5)	357	69.6 (5.4)	357	70.0 (5.0)	357	69.8 (5.3)	357	71.3 (5.1)	357	71.6 (5.0)	354	72.1 (4.8)	350	72.2 (4.8)
	남녀공학	-	-	2,435	67.0 (6.5)	2,435	67.3 (6.4)	2,457	67.8 (6.6)	2,457	67.6 (6.5)	2,478	69.4 (6.8)	2,478	69.7 (6.7)	2,506	70.3 (6.7)	2,474	70.4 (6.5)
3학년	남학교	-	-	-	-	-	-	408	64.7 (5.7)	408	63.5 (5.8)	407	66.3 (6.1)	407	66.0 (6.3)	395	67.3 (5.8)	394	65.7 (6.0)
	여학교	-	-	-	-	-	-	357	68.5 (5.3)	357	67.6 (5.2)	357	70.2 (4.4)	357	70.1 (4.7)	354	69.9 (5.2)	350	69.4 (4.9)
	남녀공학	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,457	66.6 (6.4)	2,457	65.5 (6.6)	2,478	67.9 (6.4)	2,478	67.9 (6.5)	2,506	68.4 (6.6)	2,474	67.7 (6.6)

분석 결과, 모든 학년에서 여학교>남녀공학>남학교의 순으로 평균점수가 높았다. 1학년의 경우, 여학교와 남학교 간 평균점수의 차이는 대체적으로 2~3점 수준이 유지되었으며, 2학년의 경우에는 여학교와 남학교 간 평균점수의 차이는 대체적으로 3점 수준이 유지되었다. 3학년의 경우 여학교와 남학교 간 평균점수의 차이는 2016년 1학기를 제외하고는 약 4점 가량으로 나타났다. 이러한 결과는 중학교 영어교과의 경우 학년이 높아지면서 여학교와 남학교의 평균점수 차이가 점차로 증가하는 경향이 있음을 보여준다.

2. 성취수준 분포 비율

1) 학년별 성취수준 분포 비율

우선 2012학년도부터 2016학년도에 해당하는 중학교 1학년 학생들의 영어교과 성취수준별 분포 비율을 분석한 결과는 <표 8>과 같다.

표 8

중학교 1학년 영어교과 성취수준별 분포비율

성취수준	2012학년도	2013학년도		2014학년도		2015학년도		2016학년도	
	2학기	1학기	2학기	1학기	2학기	1학기	2학기	1학기	2학기
A	21.4	23.4	22.7	25.1	25.1	28.7	27.4	29.0	-
E	31.3	28.8	31.3	27.7	30.4	25.4	28.1	25.5	-

중학교 1학년 영어교과의 2012학년도부터 2016학년도의 성취수준 A의 비율은 1학기보다 2학기가 다소 높거나(2013, 2015학년도) 같았다(2014년). A의 비율은 1학기에는 23.4%, 25.1%, 28.7%, 29.0%, 2학기에는 21.4%, 22.7%,

25.1%, 27.4%로, 학기별로 볼 때 1학기와 2학기 모두 매년 지속적으로 상승하였음을 알 수 있다. 성취수준 E의 비율은 1학기보다 2학기가 높은 경향을 보였으나, 1학기와 2학기 모두에서 대체로 비율이 점차 감소하는 경향을 보였다.

2013학년도부터 2016학년도에 해당하는 중학교 2학년 학생들의 영어교과 성취수준별 분포 비율을 분석한 결과는 <표 9>와 같다.

표 9

중학교 2학년 영어교과 성취수준별 분포비율

성취 수준	2013학년도		2014학년도		2015학년도		2016학년도	
	1학기	2학기	1학기	2학기	1학기	2학기	1학기	2학기
A	19.5	20.7	20.5	21.3	24.3	25.4	25.2	26.6
E	35.4	35.0	34.2	34.7	31.9	31.7	30.5	30.8

우리나라 중학교 2학년의 성취수준 비율 분포를 살펴보면, 우선 성취수준 A의 비율의 경우 2013학년도부터 2016학년도까지 지속적으로 1학기보다 2학기가 다소 높았다. 또한 중학교 1학년과 마찬가지로 2학년에서도 성취수준 A의 비율은 학기별로 1학기와 2학기 모두 매년 지속적으로 상승하였다. 반면 중학교 2학년 영어교과 성취수준 E 비율의 경우, 1학기와 2학기의 차이 측면에서는 특정한 경향을 보이지 않았으나, 학기별로는 매년 그 비율이 지속적으로 감소하는 경향을 보였다.

2014학년도부터 2016학년도에 해당하는 중학교 3학년 학생들의 영어교과 성취수준별 분포 비율을 분석한 결과는 <표 10>과 같다.

표 10

중학교 3학년 영어교과 성취수준별 분포비율

성취 수준	2014학년도		2015학년도		2016학년도	
	1학기	2학기	1학기	2학기	1학기	2학기
A	19.3	19.8	21.6	23.3	22.3	22.1
E	36.6	38.6	34.1	34.4	33.4	34.8

중학교 3학년의 2014학년도부터 2016학년도의 성취수준 A 비율은 1학년과 2학년과 마찬가지로 학기별로 볼 때 대체적으로 매년 증가하였으나, 2016학년도 2학기의 경우, 2015학년 2학기 대비 1.2%p 가량 감소하는 특이점을 보였다. 또한 성취수준 A 비율의 1학기와 2학기 간 차이를 살펴보면, 2014학년도와 2105학년도에는 2학기의 비율이 1학기에 비해 다소 높았으나, 2016학년도에서는 2학기의 비율이 1학기에 비해 0.2%p 감소하였다. 성취수준 E의 비율은 1학년과

2학년과 마찬가지로 학기별로 볼 때 대체적으로 매년 감소하였으나, 2016학년도 2학기의 경우, 2015학년 2학기 대비 0.4%p 증가하는 하는 특이점을 나타냈다. 성취수준 E의 비율은 2014학년부터 2016학년도까지 매해 1학기보다 2학기가 높은 경향을 보였다.

2) 시·도별 성취수준 분포 비율

2012학년도부터 2016학년도까지 중학교 1학년 학생들의 영어교과 성취수준 A와 E 비율을 시·도별로 분석한 결과는 <표 11>과 같다.

표 11

시·도별 중학교 1학년 영어교과 성취수준별 분포비율

	2012학년도		2013학년도				2014학년도				2015학년도				2016학년도			
시·도	2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기	
	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E
서울	24.7	29.4	26.9	25.8	24.5	29.2	30.5	23.3	26.6	27.6	32.9	21.2	28.9	26.7	32.0	22.1	-	-
부산	26.2	24.4	29.6	21.5	27.9	24.2	33.1	19.0	31.5	22.3	35.6	18.1	32.0	21.8	37.0	17.9	-	-
대구	23.3	25.3	24.4	21.9	23.6	25.5	25.5	23.7	25.0	27.5	27.5	23.6	-	-	27.1	24.3	-	-
인천	19.2	34.9	24.9	25.6	23.1	28.8	27.4	24.0	26.5	26.8	30.0	24.1	27.1	26.7	30.7	23.1	-	-
광주	20.0	30.7	22.7	28.7	22.9	31.5	27.3	26.6	26.8	29.3	32.1	24.0	-	-	34.7	23.5	-	-
대전	24.4	27.1	26.5	25.0	25.4	27.2	28.1	24.6	27.0	27.2	29.7	23.1	28.2	25.8	30.8	22.5	-	-
울산	19.3	31.0	25.1	26.3	24.8	29.2	29.7	23.2	27.3	25.4	31.8	21.5	31.3	24.1	34.1	21.4	-	-
세종	21.0	30.3	20.7	33.4	20.3	41.4	25.4	28.2	27.6	28.8	33.3	22.4	-	-	33.2	21.4	-	-
경기	21.6	33.1	24.9	29.7	24.1	32.3	26.9	28.0	27.3	29.7	30.8	25.5	29.2	29.5	31.5	25.2	-	-
강원	21.3	35.3	19.2	34.9	20.6	35.6	20.5	33.0	21.1	35.8	26.3	30.2	-	-	27.5	32.3	-	-
충북	19.8	30.3	23.4	26.1	21.4	28.7	22.0	28.2	22.2	31.4	24.4	29.0	28.0	28.9	25.2	30.3	-	-
충남	20.1	33.9	19.7	32.0	20.4	35.1	21.4	31.2	20.5	36.1	24.9	27.2	28.0	28.5	26.4	29.7	-	-
전북	18.3	35.0	20.2	32.4	19.8	35.7	20.4	32.9	21.7	35.7	24.4	31.0	24.5	32.4	28.5	31.2	-	-
전남	19.9	31.1	21.0	29.9	20.4	32.8	20.5	29.0	21.4	30.7	23.1	28.0	22.3	29.5	27.0	29.6	-	-
경북	22.2	26.9	22.1	27.1	22.6	28.3	23.9	27.8	26.6	29.6	28.3	22.6	-	-	30.5	27.3	-	-
경남	18.1	35.6	20.2	35.3	20.1	36.4	20.5	34.5	22.1	35.7	25.4	29.8	25.8	29.0	26.9	30.9	-	-
제주	20.6	29.7	23.6	28.2	24.8	28.6	27.3	26.4	-	-	31.7	23.2	-	-	33.9	20.1	-	-
최고	26.2	35.6	29.6	35.3	27.9	41.4	33.1	34.5	31.5	36.1	35.6	31.0	32.0	32.4	37.0	32.3	-	-
최저	18.1	24.4	19.2	21.5	19.8	24.2	20.4	19.0	20.5	22.3	23.1	18.1	22.3	21.8	25.2	17.9	-	-
차이	8.1	11.2	10.4	13.8	8.1	17.2	12.7	15.5	11.0	13.8	12.5	12.9	9.7	10.6	11.8	14.4	-	-

성취수준 A 비율은 부산이 타 시·도에 비해 상당히 높은 경향을 보였다. 성취수준 A의 비율 변화 경향을 살펴보면, 해마다 1학기와 2학기 각각 최고와 최

저 비율이 모두 지속적으로 상승하는 것으로 나타났다. 성취수준 E 비율은 강원과 경남이 타 시·도에 비해 높은 경향을 보인 반면, 부산과 대구 및 울산이 낮은 경향을 보였다. 특히 부산의 경우 매해 성취수준 E 비율이 전국 최저인 것으로 나타났다. 성취수준 E의 학기별 최고와 최저 비율은 지속적으로 감소하는 경향을 보였다. 또한 영어교과의 최고-최저 시·도 간 차이는 성취수준 A 비율보다 성취수준 E의 비율에서 더 크게 나타났다.

2013학년도부터 2016학년도까지 중학교 2학년 학생들의 영어교과 성취수준 A와 E 비율을 시·도별로 분석한 결과는 <표 12>와 같다.

표 12

시·도별 중학교 2학년 영어교과 성취수준별 분포비율

시·도	2013학년도				2014학년도				2015학년도				2016학년도			
	1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기	
	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E
서울	21.6	33.4	21.6	34.0	23.1	31.4	25.0	30.6	25.8	29.1	26.8	29.7	26.1	28.9	27.3	29.0
부산	22.2	29.9	23.3	30.1	24.1	27.3	24.5	29.0	29.0	23.8	29.3	24.3	32.1	21.9	31.8	23.7
대구	21.0	29.4	22.5	28.0	20.2	29.6	20.7	32.1	23.2	29.4	24.8	29.1	23.8	29.2	24.7	30.0
인천	21.9	32.9	21.7	32.7	22.0	29.4	21.7	32.6	24.5	29.2	26.5	29.3	26.2	30.3	27.1	30.3
광주	18.5	34.9	19.6	36.8	21.6	32.6	24.4	32.1	26.4	30.4	26.2	30.8	28.7	28.7	30.5	29.1
대전	22.4	32.0	23.6	31.2	23.0	30.3	23.1	31.8	26.4	28.3	28.3	27.5	26.4	27.9	26.7	29.6
울산	20.7	33.4	22.3	32.4	20.3	32.6	22.5	31.5	23.9	28.9	26.5	28.2	27.3	28.7	29.0	27.3
세종	16.1	34.8	16.0	41.7	22.3	36.4	22.0	35.9	26.3	25.9	31.7	23.8	28.3	27.4	31.1	25.8
경기	20.6	36.5	21.8	36.7	21.8	35.3	22.8	35.3	26.3	31.4	27.4	31.5	27.5	30.3	29.5	30.7
강원	17.8	40.5	20.0	38.0	18.8	38.6	18.7	39.5	20.6	36.6	21.8	37.4	23.9	39.1	24.1	36.2
충북	17.7	34.6	19.0	34.3	19.6	33.3	19.4	35.2	21.1	34.9	21.6	34.3	22.5	34.6	22.2	34.8
충남	16.9	39.3	19.4	37.2	19.2	37.4	19.0	38.2	23.3	35.3	23.8	34.7	24.3	34.2	24.5	32.3
전북	16.1	39.5	17.5	39.1	17.5	39.8	18.4	40.0	20.0	37.9	22.3	36.2	25.2	35.0	24.7	32.8
전남	18.1	34.3	19.1	34.4	18.8	34.8	18.2	35.2	20.2	33.5	20.7	33.2	22.2	34.2	22.3	31.6
경북	18.9	32.6	21.5	31.7	19.5	31.9	21.9	31.8	25.9	30.8	26.8	30.7	27.8	31.7	26.7	29.3
경남	17.3	40.9	18.6	40.0	17.0	39.8	17.0	41.2	22.2	36.3	23.7	35.7	24.0	35.1	24.0	34.7
제주	21.9	31.2	22.8	31.4	21.2	31.6	24.2	29.6	28.9	27.1	32.1	26.7	31.8	25.8	33.5	26.3
최고	22.4	40.9	23.6	41.7	24.1	39.8	25.0	41.2	29.0	37.9	32.1	37.4	32.1	39.1	33.5	36.2
최저	16.1	29.4	16.0	28.0	17.0	27.3	17.0	29.0	20.0	23.8	20.7	23.8	22.2	21.9	22.2	23.7
차이	6.3	11.5	7.6	13.7	7.1	12.5	8.0	12.2	9.0	14.1	11.4	13.6	9.9	17.2	11.3	12.5

성취수준 A 비율은 부산과 제주에서 지속적으로 높게 나타났다. 성취수준 A의 비율 변화 경향을 살펴보면, 해마다 1학기와 2학기 각각 최고와 최저 비율이 모두 지속적으로 상승하는 것으로 나타났다. 시·도별 최고와 최저 비율의

차이는 중학교 1학년과는 달리 2학기가 1학기보다 더 큰 것으로 나타났다. 성취수준 E 비율은 강원과 경남 및 전남 지역이 타 시·도에 비해 높은 경향을 보인 반면, 부산이 낮은 경향을 보였다. 성취수준 E의 학기별 최고와 최저 비율은 지속적으로 감소하는 경향을 보였다. 또한 중학교 2학년 영어교과의 최고-최저 시·도 간 차이는 중학교 1학년과 마찬가지로 성취수준 A 비율보다 성취수준 E의 비율에서 더 크게 나타났다. 또한 중학교 2학년 영어교과의 시·도별 성취수준 A 비율과 성취수준 E 비율의 최고-최저 차이는 대체적으로 해마다 증가하는 경향을 보였는데, 다만 2학기에 대한 성취수준 E 비율의 최고-최저 차이는 뚜렷한 경향성을 보이지 않았다.

2014학년도부터 2016학년도까지 중학교 3학년 학생들의 영어교과 성취수준 A와 E 비율을 시·도별로 분석 결과는 <표 13>과 같다.

표 13

시·도별 중학교 3학년 영어교과 성취수준별 분포비율

시·도	2014학년도				2015학년도				2016학년도			
	1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기	
	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E
서울	20.8	36.1	21.5	36.7	23.7	31.9	23.1	33.3	23.5	31.4	22.1	34.0
부산	22.5	31.5	23.1	32.8	25.8	28.2	25.8	28.8	27.7	26.2	27.0	27.3
대구	19.7	32.3	19.2	35.3	21.8	31.4	22.3	31.3	21.5	31.3	20.3	33.3
인천	20.5	32.3	18.8	36.1	20.2	32.4	21.3	32.4	20.0	32.9	19.3	33.3
광주	21.9	34.7	19.0	38.9	24.4	31.5	24.0	33.7	26.9	30.4	24.2	33.1
대전	21.1	33.7	20.7	37.1	21.9	30.7	22.4	32.1	22.0	31.5	20.7	34.2
울산	19.5	35.3	19.7	35.6	21.3	33.0	19.8	33.5	23.0	29.4	21.9	31.1
세종	17.3	36.7	19.3	37.3	23.9	31.2	29.1	31.2	24.1	32.1	24.6	33.3
경기	20.4	37.2	20.7	39.2	22.0	35.2	23.3	36.0	23.1	33.6	22.8	35.9
강원	18.7	40.5	19.6	42.1	19.3	38.7	22.7	38.3	20.7	39.7	19.4	38.2
충북	17.1	35.6	17.8	38.5	20.7	32.4	24.2	33.3	21.1	36.1	19.9	38.4
충남	18.5	39.4	19.7	40.3	21.3	33.5	24.4	33.6	23.2	35.2	24.6	34.4
전북	15.7	42.1	15.0	47.0	19.4	40.0	18.5	40.7	21.8	37.2	17.7	38.3
전남	18.6	35.5	19.3	36.9	19.7	36.1	23.7	35.5	21.2	35.2	21.4	33.5
경북	19.2	33.2	20.6	36.5	22.4	30.9	25.1	30.8	26.2	34.3	24.1	34.4
경남	15.9	42.8	18.4	42.5	18.9	39.3	22.9	37.3	20.2	39.4	20.7	38.4
제주	22.4	31.5	24.4	31.8	26.4	27.7	31.0	27.8	29.4	28.5	28.9	27.8
최고	22.5	42.8	24.4	47.0	26.4	40.0	31.0	40.7	29.4	39.7	28.9	38.4
최저	15.7	31.5	15.0	31.8	18.9	27.7	18.5	27.8	20.0	26.2	17.7	27.3
차이	6.8	11.3	9.4	15.2	7.5	12.3	12.5	12.9	9.4	13.5	11.2	11.1

성취수준 A 비율은 제주와 부산에서 지속적으로 높게 나타났는데, 특히 제주의 경우 2014학년도 1학기를 제외하고 매 학기 전국 최고 비율을 나타냈었다. 성취수준 A의 비율 변화 경향을 살펴보면, 대체적으로 해마다 1학기와 2학기 각각 최고와 최저 비율이 모두 지속적으로 상승하는 것으로 나타났으나, 2016학년도 2학기의 경우 2015학년도 2학기 대비 최고와 최저 비율이 각각 2.1%p와 0.8%p 감소하였다. 시·도별 최고와 최저 비율의 차이는 중학교 2학년과 마찬가지로 2학기가 1학기보다 더 큰 것으로 나타났다. 성취수준 E 비율은 강원과 경남 및 전북 지역이 타 시·도에 비해 높은 경향을 보인 반면, 부산과 제주가 낮은 경향을 보였다. 성취수준 E의 학기별 최고와 최저 비율은 지속적으로 감소하는 경향을 보였다. 또한 시·도별 성취수준 A와 성취수준 E의 최고-최저 차이는 대체적으로 해마다 증가하는 경향을 보였으나 2학기 성취수준 E 비율의 최고-최저 차이는 매년 감소하는 경향을 보였다.

2) 학교 유형별 성취수준 분포 비율

2012학년도부터 2016학년도에 해당하는 중학교 학생들의 영어교과 성취수준 A와 E의 비율을 학교설립 유형에 따라 분석한 결과는 <표 14>와 같다.

표 14

학교설립 유형에 따른 중학교 영어교과 성취수준별 분포비율

학년	설립유형	2012학년도 2학기		2013학년도 1학기		2013학년도 2학기		2014학년도 1학기		2014학년도 2학기		2015학년도 1학기		2015학년도 2학기		2016학년도 1학기		2016학년도 2학기	
		A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E
1학년	국·공립	21.4	31.3	23.6	28.6	22.9	31.3	25.4	27.6	25.2	30.4	28.9	25.2	27.3	28.2	30.4	26.1	-	-
	사립	21.4	31.4	22.6	29.4	22.3	31.5	24.0	28.4	24.5	30.5	27.6	26.1	27.4	27.7	28.5	26.8	-	-
2학년	국·공립	-	-	19.7	35.2	20.8	34.9	20.8	34.0	21.4	34.6	24.4	31.7	25.5	31.6	26.3	31.3	26.7	30.7
	사립	-	-	18.5	36.2	20.3	35.5	19.4	35.0	20.7	35.1	23.6	32.3	25.2	32.1	25.2	31.4	26.2	31.3
3학년	국·공립	-	-	-	-	-	-	19.4	36.4	19.9	38.4	21.7	34.1	23.3	34.3	23.0	34.0	22.1	34.8
	사립		-	-	-	-	-	19.0	37.3	19.4	39.1	21.5	34.2	23.0	34.9	23.1	33.6	21.9	35.2

분석 결과, 중학교 전 학년에서 설립유형에 따른 성취수준 비율 차이는 크지 않지만, 중학교 전 학년에서 성취수준 A 비율은 국공립학교가, 성취수준 E 비율은 사립학교가 높은 경향성이 나타났다. 중학교 1학년의 경우 국공립 학교와 사립학교의 성취수준 A 비율의 차이는 0.0%p~1.9%p 이고, 성취수준 E 비율의 차이는 0.1%p~0.9%p로, 학교설립에 따른 차이가 크지 않았다. 중학교 2학년의 경우 국공립학교와 사립학교의 성취수준 A 비율의 차이는 0.3%p~1.4%p 이고, 성취수준 E 비율의 차이는 0.1%p~1.0%p로 나타났다. 중학교 3학년의 경우 국

공립학교와 사립학교의 성취수준 A 비율의 차이는 0.1%p~0.5%p 이고, 성취수준 E 비율의 차이는 0.1%p~0.9%p로, 1학년 및 2학년과 마찬가지로 학교설립 유형에 따른 차이는 미미하였다.

2012학년도부터 2016학년도에 해당하는 중학생들의 학교성별 유형에 따른 영어교과 성취수준 A와 E의 비율을 분석한 결과는 <표 15>와 같다.

표 15

학교성별 유형에 따른 중학교 영어교과 성취수준별 분포비율

학년	학교 성별	2012학년도		2013학년도				2014학년도				2015학년도				2016학년도			
		2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기		1학기		2학기	
		A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E
1학년	남학교	21.4	33.1	23.1	30.8	22.8	32.6	25.5	29.9	25.2	32.3	29.2	27.6	28.1	29.9	29.1	28.0	-	-
	여학교	23.9	29.3	26.2	25.6	25.7	28.2	27.1	25.3	27.9	27.5	30.9	23.0	29.2	25.5	30.7	23.4	-	-
	남녀공학	21.0	31.3	23.0	29.0	22.3	31.5	24.8	27.7	24.6	30.5	28.2	25.3	26.9	28.2	28.7	25.3	-	-
2학년	남학교			18.9	37.4	19.5	37.9	19.5	36.3	19.9	37.2	24.1	34.1	25.2	34.1	24.8	33.4	25.9	33.6
	여학교			22.4	32.5	23.8	31.8	22.9	30.7	24.0	31.4	26.5	28.9	28.0	28.8	27.7	28.1	29.4	28.4
	남녀공학			19.1	35.5	20.5	35.1	20.3	34.3	21.1	34.8	24.0	31.9	25.0	31.8	24.9	30.4	26.4	30.7
3학년	남학교							18.2	40.1	18.3	42.0	20.7	37.0	21.7	37.9	21.9	36.0	21.1	38.3
	여학교							21.9	33.5	22.4	35.2	24.5	30.7	26.1	30.9	23.9	30.8	24.3	31.9
	남녀공학							19.1	36.5	19.7	38.5	21.4	34.1	23.1	34.3	22.1	33.3	21.9	34.7

분석 결과, 성취수준 A의 비율은 전 학년에서 여학교가 가장 높았으며, 성취수준 E의 비율은 전 학년에서 남학교>남녀공학>여학교의 순으로 높았다. 또한 학년이 높아질수록 성취수준 A와 E의 학교성별에 따른 비율 차이가 증가하는 경향이 나타났다. 우선 중학교 1학년의 성취수준 A와 E의 비율의 학교성별 차이를 살펴보면, 성취수준 A의 경우 여학교와 남학교의 차이는 1.1~3.1%p, 남학교와 남녀공학의 차이는 0.1~1.2%p, 여학교와 남녀공학의 차이는 2.0~3.4%p 수준으로 나타났다. 성취수준 E의 경우 여학교와 남학교의 차이는 3.8~5.2%p, 남학교와 남녀공학의 차이는 1.1~2.7%p, 여학교와 남녀공학의 차이는 1.9~3.4%p 수준으로 나타났다. 성취수준 A의 경우 여학교>남학교>남녀공학 순으로 비율이 높았으며, 성취수준 E의 경우 남학교>남녀공학>여학교의 순으로 비율이 높았다. 중학교 2학년의 성취수준 A와 E의 비율의 학교성별 차이를 살펴보면, 성취수준 A의 경우 여학교와 남학교의 차이는 2.4~4.3%p, 남학교와 남녀공학의 차이는 0.2~1.2%p, 여학교와 남녀공학의 차이는 2.5~3.3%p 수준으로 나타났다. 성취수준 E의 경우 여학교와 남학교의 차이는 4.9~6.1%p, 남학교와 남녀공학의 차이는 1.9~3.0%p, 여학교와 남녀공학의 차이는 2.3~3.6%p 수준으로 나타났다. 성취수준 A의 경우

2013~2014학년도에서는 여학교>남녀공학>남학교의 순으로 비율이 높았으나, 2014~2015학년도에서는 여학교>남녀공학 또는 남학교의 순으로 비율이 높았다. 성취수준 E의 경우 매해 남학교>남녀공학>여학교의 순으로 비율이 높았다. 마지막으로 중학교 3학년의 성취수준 A와 E의 비율의 학교성별 차이를 살펴보면, 성취수준 A의 경우 여학교와 남학교의 차이는 2.0~4.1%p, 남학교와 남녀공학의 차이는 0.2~1.4%p, 여학교와 남녀공학의 차이는 1.8~3.1%p 수준으로 나타났다. 성취수준 E의 경우 여학교와 남학교의 차이는 5.2~7.0%p, 남학교와 남녀공학의 차이는 2.7~3.6%p, 여학교와 남녀공학의 차이는 2.5~3.4%p 수준으로 나타났다. 성취수준 A의 경우 매년 여학교>남녀공학>남학교의 순으로 비율이 높았으며, 성취수준 E의 경우 매해 남학교>남녀공학>여학교의 순으로 비율이 높았다.

V. 결론 및 논의

본 연구는 영어교과에 대한 중학교 성취평가제의 시행의 전반적 실태를 살펴보기 위해 대단위 정보공시 자료에 근거하여 2012학년도에서 2016학년도에 걸친 성취평가제 결과를 학년별, 시·도별, 학교 유형별로 그 추이를 분석 하였다. 본 연구의 분석 결과 중 향후 추가적인 논의가 필요한 사항을 선별하여 제시하면 다음과 같다.

첫째, 중학교 전체 및 학년별 경향성을 살펴보면 중학교 전 학년에서 평균 점수 및 성취수준 A의 비율은 매년 증가한 반면 성취수준 E 비율은 매년 감소하는 경향성이 나타났다. 반면 아래 <표 16>과 같이 학년이 올라감에 따라 영어 평균 점수가 낮아지고 성취수준 A 비율 역시 감소하는 반면 성취수준 E 비율은 증가하는 특징 또한 발견되었다. 따라서 영어교과의 경우 학년별로 평균 점수 및 성취수준 A 비율이 감소하고 성취수준 E 비율이 증가하는 것이 영어교과에 대한 학습 내용의 난이도 상승에 의한 것인지, 학년별 평가 방식의 차이에 의한 것인지 그 원인에 대해 살펴보는 것은 향후 영어 교과에 대한 성취평가제의 안정적인 시행을 위해 주요한 시사점을 제공해 줄 수 있을 것으로 기대된다.

표 16

2014~2016학년도 중학교 영어교과의 학년별 성취수준 A와 E 비율(%)

성취수준	학년	2014학년도		2015학년도		2016학년도	
		1학기	2학기	1학기	2학기	1학기	2학기
A	중1	25.1	25.1	28.7	27.4	29.0	-
	중2	20.5	21.3	24.3	25.4	25.2	26.6
	중3	19.3	19.8	21.6	23.3	22.3	22.1

	중1	27.7	30.4	25.4	28.1	25.5	-
E	중2	34.2	34.7	31.9	31.7	30.5	30.8
	중3	36.6	38.6	34.1	34.4	33.4	34.8

둘째, 시·도별 평균 점수 및 성취수준 비율 분포를 살펴보면, 중학교 전 학년에서 시·도별 평균 점수와 성취수준 비율의 경향성이 유사하게 나타났다. 우선 평균 점수의 경우 부산과 제주가 높고, 강원과 경남이 낮았으며, 시·도별 평균 점수의 최고와 최저의 차이는 매년 증가하는 경향을 보였는데, 이러한 경향은 특히 1학기에서 더 뚜렷하게 나타났다. 성취수준 비율의 시·도별 차이 역시 평균 점수와 유사한 것으로 나타났는데, 특히 부산의 경우 중학교 전 학년에서 성취수준 A의 비율이 타 시·도 대비 가장 높고 성취수준 E의 비율은 가장 낮았다. 제주의 경우 중학교 2학년과 2학년 성취수준 A의 비율이 높았으며, 강원과 경남의 경우 전 학년에서 성취수준 E 비율이 지속적으로 높았다. 시·도별 성취수준 비율의 최고-최저의 차이는 성취수준 A보다 성취수준 E에서 더 큰 것으로 나타났다. 또한 시·도별 성취수준의 최고-최저 차이는 해마다 증가하는 경향을 보였는데, 이는 특히 성취수준 A에서 두드러지게 나타났다. 평균 점수와 성취수준 A와 E 비율이 시·도별로 차이가 있으며, 이러한 차이가 특정 시·도에서 지속적으로 나타나는 것이 영어교과에 대한 시·도별 학업 능력 차이와 연계되어 있는지, 혹은 시·도별 성취평가제의 운영 방법의 차이와 연계되어 있는지에 대한 추가적인 연구가 필요하다. 또한 성취수준 E 비율에 대한 시·도별 격차가 보다 뚜렷하고, 그 차이가 점차 증가하고 있는데, 이는 영어교과에 대한 기초학력 보장의 차원에서 그 원인과 해소 방안에 대한 보다 면밀한 검토가 필요하다.

셋째, 학교설립 유형별 평균 점수 및 성취수준 비율 분포를 살펴보면, 중학교 전 학년에서 국·공립학교의 평균점수가 사립학교 대비 대체적으로 다소 높게 나타났으나, 그 차이가 미미하고 경향성도 뚜렷하지 않았다. 학교 설립유형에 따른 성취수준 A 비율의 차이는 전 학년에서 2%p 미만, 성취수준 E 비율의 차이는 전 학년에서 1%p 이하로 나타났으며, 전반적으로 성취수준 A 비율은 국·공립학교가, 성취수준 E 비율은 사립학교가 높은 것으로 나타났다. 영어교과의 경우 평균점수와 성취수준 A 및 E 비율의 중학교 설립유형에 따른 차이는 크지 않으므로, 학교설립 유형은 성취평가제 운영에 큰 영향을 미치지 않는 것으로 판단된다.

넷째, 학교성별 유형에 따른 평균 점수 및 성취수준 비율 분포를 살펴보면, 중학교 전 학년에서 평균 점수는 매년 여학교>남녀공학>남학교의 순으로 높았으며, 학년이 올라갈수록 여학교와 남학교의 평균점수 차이가 증가하는 경향성을 보였다. 전 학년에서 지속적으로 성취수준 A 비율은 여학교가 남녀공학이나 남학교에 비해 높은 반면, 성취수준 E 비율은 남학교>남녀공학>여학교의 순서로 높았다. 특히 학년이 높아질수록 성취수준 A와 E의 학교 성별에 따른 비율

차이가 증가하는 경향이 나타났는데, 그 중에서도 성취수준 E 비율 차이의 증가가 더욱 뚜렷하게 나타났다.

본 연구는 한계점은 다음과 같다. 우선 본 연구의 분석은 대단위 정보공시 자료에 근거하여 기술 통계를 중심으로 이루어졌기 때문에 개별 단위학교 차원에서 성취수준 설정을 포함한 평가 계획 수립이나 평가 도구 제작 등과 같은 실제적인 측면에서의 성취평가제 시행 실태에 대해 시사하는 바가 적으며, 따라서 이에 대한 추가적인 연구가 필요하다. 또한 앞서 제시한 시·도별 성취평가제 결과 차이와 관련하여, 교육청 차원에서 단위학교에 대한 성취 평가제 관리 및 시행 지침에 차이가 있는지에 대해서도 질적 차원에서의 추가적인 분석이 필요하다. 이러한 연구의 한계점에도 불구하고 본 연구는 우리나라 전체 중학교를 대상으로 영어교과에 대한 2012~2016학년도 중학교 성취평가제 시행 결과의 전반적인 추이를 분석하여 그 결과를 제공하였으며, 결과와 관련하여 향후 추가적인 분석이 필요한 연구 문제를 발굴하였다는 점에서 의의를 찾을 수 있을 것이다.

참고문헌

김석우. (2014). 성취평가제에 대한 중학교 교사의 관심수준 분석. *水産海洋敎育硏究 26*(1), 81-97.

김슬기. (2016). *역사과 성취평가제에 대한 고등학교 역사교사들의 인식*. 석사학위논문. 고려대학교 대학원: 서울.

교육과학기술부. (2011, 12. 13). 창의·인성교육 강화를 위한 '중등학교 학사관리 선진화 방안 - 고교 석차 9등급제 평가를 성취평가제로 전환' 보도자료.

박은아, 박선화, 손민정, 이채희, 서민희, 김지영, 윤노아. (2013). *성취 평가제의 고등학교 적용 방안*. 연구보고 RRE 2013-9. 한국교육과정 평가원.

배원희 & 신상근. (2016). 중등학교 영어과 성취평가제 운영 실태 및 교사 인식 연구. *중등교육연구 64*(3), 611-634.

성태제. (2009). 교육평가의 기초. 서울: 학지사.

송재환 & 고호경. (2018). 수학과 성취평가제에 관한 고등학교 수학교사의 인식. *교육문화연구 24* (1), 213-231.

유미나. (2014). *성취평가제에 따른 중학교 수행평가에 대한 교사와 학생의 인식 연구*. 석사학위논문. 경희대학교 교육대학원: 서울.

이명규, 이태수, 성태모, & 정대근. (2015). 성취평가제의 대입전형 활용에 대한 한국사 교사의 인식 연구 - 광주, 전남 지역을 중심으로. *현대사회과학연구 19*, 105-133.

이용순 & 김종욱. (2013). 특성화고, 마이스터고 전문교과 성취평가제 운영에 대한 현장 컨설팅 교원의 인식 분석. *한국직업교육학회 32*(3), 25-47.

장세은. (2013). *성취평가제 운영에 관한 고등학교 영어교사들의 인식 연구*. 석사학위논문. 인하대학교 교육대학원: 인천.

장재혁, 김석우, & 김승배. (2015). 특성화 고등학교 교사의 성취평가제 관심도 및 실행도 분석. *교육과정평가연구 18*(2), 105-129.

장재혁, 김석우, 김승배, & 김성숙. (2015). 성취평가제에 관한 고등학교 교사의 관심도 및 실행도 분석. *교육평가연구 28*(4), 1255-1276.

최숙기 (2016). 국어 교사의 성취평가제에 대한 인식 양상 분석 : 국어 평가 시행에 관한 국어 교사의 인식을 중심으로. *교육과정평가연구 19*(2), 171-198.

한국교육과정평가원. (2013). *문답식으로 알아보는 성취평가제 - 중학교* (홍보자료 PIM 2013-12).

한국교육과정평가원. (2014). *문답식으로 알아보는 성취평가제 - 고등학교* 보통교과 (홍보자료 PIM 2014-9).

Brown, J. D., & Hudson, T. (2002). *Criterion-referenced language testing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Griffin, P., McGaw, B., & Care, E. (Eds.). (2012). *Assessment and teaching of 21st century skills*. New York: Springer.

Miller, M.D., Linn, R. L., & Gronlund, N. E. (2012). *Measurement and assessment in teaching* (10th Ed). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

OECD (2005). *The Definition and Selection of Key Competencies: Executive summary*. Retrieved February 10, 2018 from the World Wide Web: https://www.oecd.org/pisa/35070367.pdf.

Popham, W. (1978). *Criterion-referenced measurement*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

The Partnership for 21st Century Skills (2009). *P21 Framework Definitions*. Retrieved February 10, 2018 from the World Wide Web: http://www.p21.org/storage/documents/P21_Framework_Definitions.pdf.

World Economic Forum. (2015). *New Vision for Education-Unlocking the Potential of Technology.* Retrieved February 10, 2018 from the World Wide Web: http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEFUSA_NewVisionfor Education_Report 2015.pdf.

예시언어(Examples in): Korean
적용가능 언어(Applicable Language): English
적용가능 수준(Applicable Level): Secondary

박지선
충북 진천군 교학로 8
한국교육과정평가원
Email: jspark@kice.re.kr

김인숙
충북 진천군 교학로 8
한국교육과정평가원
Email: insukkim@kice.re.kr

Received in April 14th, 2018
Reviewed in May 26th, 2018
Revised version received in June 5th, 2018

영어어문교육 *제24권* 2호 2018년 여름

학습자 영어 수준과 듣기 문항 유형의 차이에 따른 고등학생들의 영어 듣기 전략 사용

원 혜 주*
(한양대학교)
김 성 연**
(한양대학교)

Won, Hye Ju & Kim, Sung Yeon (2018). Korean high school students' listening strategy according to their English proficiency and listening item type. ***English Language & Literature Teaching, 24*****(2), 177-199**

This study examined if Korean high school students'use of English listening strategy would vary according to their proficiency and listening item type. For data collection, 136 high school students were asked to respond to a background information questionnaire, a strategy inventory for listening, an open-ended questionnaire with different types of listening items, and a Likert scale measuring item-specific strategy use. Ten English listening items were taken from three mock SATs and each item type was presented with the questionnaires. The students were asked to solve the questions and then respond to the questionnaires after completing each question. The most frequently used strategy was found to be a compensation strategy. Their strategy use, however, differed according to item types. For questions that measured factual comprehension, they tended to use the compensation strategy. In contrast, for questions asking for inferential comprehension, they used a memory strategy, with which they focused on core information in the listening input. It is notable that they used a cognitive strategy for a question that required some computation. The learner strategy use was also found to be different according to their proficiency level. Learners in the high proficiency group were found to use memory and cognitive strategy more frequently than their counterparts. These findings imply the need for encouraging students to use more varied types of strategies while listening.

[English listening test/strategy use/listening item type/learner proficiency, 영어 듣기 평가/전략 사용/듣기 문항 유형/학습자 능숙도]

---

* 제1저자, ** 교신저자

I. 서론

1994년부터 영어과 수학능력시험에 듣기평가가 반영되기 시작했는데 이후에 교육과정이 의사소통 중심의 영어 교육을 지향함에 따라 듣기의 중요성은 더욱 강조되었다. 그 결과 듣기 영역의 문항 수도 증가하였고, 다양한 유형의 듣기 지문과 문제가 출제되고 있다. 이와 같은 변화 속에서 고부담 평가인 수능 시험에서 고득점을 하기 위해서는 듣기 능력 신장이 매우 중요하다.

듣기 능력 향상을 위해 여러 가지 방법이 있지만 노력을 통해 변화 가능하다는 점에서 전략의 역할이 중요하다. Oxford(2011)는 학습자의 학습 태도나 전략이 외국어 학습의 성패를 좌우한다고 주장하였다. 학습자의 능동적, 주도적 전략 사용이 문제 해결 과정 및 시험 결과에 영향을 주기 때문이다(Cohen, 2000). Cohen은 시험 상황에서 학생들이 의식적으로 전략을 사용하는 경우 긍정적인 시험 결과를 얻을 수 있기 때문에 잠재력을 발휘하기 위해 자신감을 가지고 다양한 전략들을 알아야 한다고 강조하였다. 듣기와 관련해서는 O'Malley, Chamot과 Kupper(1989)가 다양한 전략 사용을 통해 듣기 능력이 향상된다고 보고하였고, 듣기 전략 교수의 효과는 많은 연구들을 통해 확인되었다(Guan, 2014; Imhof, 2001).

영어학습에서 듣기의 중요성과 듣기 전략의 필요성이 강조된 가운데, 우리나라의 학교 현장에서도 수능 영어 듣기 평가에 대비하여 듣기 수업을 정규 교과 과정에 편성하여 진행해오고 있다. 그러나 아직까지 학교 현장에서의 영어 학습은 수능시험에서 출제 비중이 더 큰 독해 위주로 진행되고 있는 것이 현실이다(Kim, 2006). 즉, 학습자 중심의 자기주도적 학습을 강조하는 추세 속에서 전략의 역할이 중요함에도 불구하고 학교 현장에서는 이를 체계적으로 접근하지 못하고 있는 것이다. 이러한 이유로 대다수의 학습자들은 다양한 듣기 상황에 대처하는 구체적인 방법을 알지 못한 채, 수동적인 자세로 듣기 과업을 수행하고 있다. 이는 학습자 관점에서 영어 듣기에 대한 부담을 가중시킬 뿐 아니라, 실제 듣기 상황이나 시험 상황에서 적극적, 능동적으로 듣기 활동을 수행하기 어렵게 한다. 특히 듣기 능력이 부족하거나 자신감이 부족한 학생들의 경우에는 영어 듣기가 어려운 과제로 인식되어 포기의 대상이 되고 있다(Lee, 2011).

이와 같은 이유로 학생들이 듣기 문제를 풀 때 어떤 전략을 살펴보는지 파악하고 이에 대한 이해를 통해 학생들이 효과적으로 전략을 사용할 수 있도록 지원하는 방안을 마련하는 것이 절대적으로 필요하다. 그럼에도 불구하고 기존에 이루어진 많은 전략 연구들은 일반적인 학습 전략이나 언어 기능별(읽기, 듣기 등) 전략 사용에 대한 연구들이 주를 이루고 있어 제한적이다(박상태, 2010; 차미현, 2011; Guan, 2014; Lee, 2011; Lim & Cha, 2007; Makarchuk, 2017; Pressley, 2000; Vandergrift, 1997, 2003). 무엇보다도 기존 연구들의 문제점은 학습자 자신의 인식에 기반한 설문조사(self-

reported questionnaire)에 근거하고 있어 타당도가 낮은데(Brown, 2014), 이는 설문 조사 결과만으로는 학생들의 실제 전략 사용을 정확하게 파악하기 어렵기 때문이다.

또한 문항 유형별 학습자 전략 사용을 고찰한 문헌이 있기는 하지만 읽기 평가 문항 유형과 관련된 전략에 관한 것이고(Kim & Chon, 2014; Nam, 2015), 듣기 문항 유형별 전략 사용을 조사한 연구는 거의 전무하다. 수능과 토플 시험의 듣기 평가에서 사용한 전략을 비교한 연구로 Ko(2016)가 있으나 적은 수(n=36)의 학생들을 대상으로 했으며 수능과 토플 시험에 사용된 전략의 비교에 국한되어 있다는 점에서 제한적이다.

따라서 본 연구는 학생들이 듣기 문항 유형별로 실제 어떤 전략을 사용하는지 조사하고자 한다. 단순히 학생들의 인식에 기반한 설문조사가 아니라 학생들이 실제 듣기 문항을 풀고 난 후 문제 풀이에 적용한 전략을 분석했다는 점에서 기존 연구와 차별화된다. 요약하면, 영어과 듣기 영역의 문제를 풀 때 학생들이 전반적으로 사용하는 시험 전략이 무엇인지 파악하고, 학생들의 전략 사용은 문항 유형별, 수준별로 차이가 있는지 분석하고자 한다.

II. 이론적 배경

언어 학습에서 중요한 듣기의 성공적인 학습을 위해 전략 사용에 대한 논의가 많이 이루어져 왔다. 예를 들어 Murphy(1987)는 ESL 학생들의 전략 사용이 듣기 능숙도에 따라 차이가 있다고 보고하였다. 구체적으로 듣기 능력 수준이 높은 학생들이 낮은 학생들보다 다양하고 구체적인 전략을 사용하는 것으로 나타났다. Chao(1997)와 O'Malley 외 2인(1989)등의 연구에서도 유사한 결과가 발견되었는데 듣기 능력이 높은 학생들이 낮은 학생들보다 더 적극적으로 전략을 사용하는 것으로 나타났다. 즉, 성공적인 학습자가 다양하고 광범위한 학습 전략을 보유하고 있으며 이를 학습에 적용하여 언어 능력을 향상시킨다는 것이다.

한편, 캐나다 고등학교의 불어 학습자들을 대상으로 사고구술 기법을 통해 수준별 전략 사용을 비교한 Vandergrift(1997)는 학생들의 전략 사용이 전략 유형에 따라 다르다는 사실을 발견하였다. 구체적으로 인지 전략의 경우는 수준에 관계없이 사용되는데 반해, 초인지 전략은 상위 수준의 학생들이 더 많이 사용하는 것을 발견하였다. 즉, 청해 감시(comprehension monitoring), 문제 인지(problem identification) 등과 같은 초인지 전략의 사용이 상위 수준과 하위 수준을 구별하는 요인임을 확인하였다.

학습 전략 연구는 1990년대에 이르러 이론적 틀을 갖추기 시작했고 전략의 유형별 분류도 체계화되기 시작했는데 대표적 연구로 O'Malley와 Chamot (1990), Oxford(1990) 등이 있다. 여러 전략 이론과 분류 체계를 비교 분석

한 Hsiao와 Oxford(2002)는 Oxford(1990)의 전략 분류 시스템이 다양하고 널리 통용된다는 점에서 우월하다고 평가하였다. Oxford는 학습 전략을 크게 직접 전략(direct strategy)과 간접 전략(indirect strategy)으로 구분한 후 직접 전략은 기억 전략(memory strategy), 인지 전략(cognitive strategy), 보상 전략(compensation strategy)으로 분류하였고 간접 전략은 초인지 전략(metacognitive strategy), 정의적 전략(affective strategy), 사회적 전략(social strategy)으로 분류하였다.

Oxford(1990)의 전략 분류 중 문제 풀이와 직접적으로 관련 있는 전략은 직접 전략인데 그 하위 유형을 살펴보면 기억 전략은 학습자가 습득한 정보를 저장하고 재생하는 것을 도와준다. 또한 새롭게 배운 내용과 기존의 지식을 연관시키거나, 이미지를 활용하여 어휘를 암기할 수 있도록 도와준다. 한편, 인지 전략은 학습자가 각자 다양한 방법을 이용하여 언어를 이해하고 사용할 수 있도록 돕는 전략으로서 추론하기, 분석하기, 반복하기, 메모하기, 음성·문자 체계 연습하기 등이 있다. 한편, 보상 전략은 학습자가 이해하지 못하거나 놓친 내용을 언어적·비언어적 단서를 활용하여 보완하는 전략이다.

학습 전략의 중요성이 강조됨에 따라 듣기 지도에서도 전략 사용에 대한 관심이 증가했고 이러한 추세를 반영하여 국내에서도 다양한 연구가 수행되었다. 그 예로 Kang(1997)은 우리 나라 농촌 지역에 있는 중학교 1, 2, 3학년 학생 60명을 대상으로 회상 면담과 구술사고 기법을 통해 영어 어휘, 듣기, 쓰기 학습 전략 사용을 조사하였다. 그 결과 학년이 높아질수록 학생들의 인지 전략, 초인지 전략 사용이 증가하는 것을 발견하였으며, 3학년 그룹의 경우 상위 수준의 학생들이 하위 수준의 학생들보다 전략을 더 많이 사용하는 것을 확인하였다. 학생들이 사용한 전략은 언어 영역별로 차이가 있었는데, 듣기의 경우 보상 전략과 상위 인지 전략이 많이 사용되는 것으로 나타났다. 또한, 대학생들의 전략 사용에 대한 연구에서도 듣기 능숙도가 높은 학생들이 훨씬 다양한 전략들을 사용한다는 것이 보고되었다(Chung, 2006).

학생들의 듣기 전략과 실제 듣기 능력 간의 상관관계를 조사한 연구들도 많이 진행되었는데 그 결과 듣기 능숙도와 전략 사용 간에 유의한 상관 관계가 있음을 확인하였다(Kim, 1999; Lim & Cha, 2007). 한편, 전략 훈련에 대한 연구들도 수행되었는데, 박봉현(2001)은 보상 전략과 인지 전략 훈련이 듣기 이해에 어떠한 영향을 주는지 조사하였다. 자료 분석 결과, 보상 전략은 듣기 상황과 관련된 배경 지식을 활성화하고 주제를 파악하는 데 도움을 주며, 인지 전략은 학생들이 듣기 내용을 정확하게 이해하는 데 긍정적 영향을 미친다는 사실을 발견하였다. 또한, 학습자 수준에 알맞은 듣기 학습 전략 훈련이 영어 듣기 능력 향상에 어떠한 영향을 미치는지 분석한 결과 영어 청해력이 높은 학생들이 그렇지 않은 학생들보다 듣기 전략(특히, 초인지 전략)을 많이 사용한다는 사실을 발견하였다(Moon, 2005).

그밖에도 학습자 수준에 따른 듣기 전략 사용을 비교 분석한 차미현(2011)

은 상위 수준의 학습자들이 듣기 학습 전략을 더욱 적극적으로 사용하며, 인지 전략, 보상 전략, 초인지 전략, 사회 전략의 순으로 전략을 사용하였음을 확인하였다. 흥미롭게도 상위 수준 학습자가 하위 수준 학습자보다 보상 전략과 초인지 전략을 유의미한 수준에서 더 많이 사용하는 것으로 나타났다. 중학생(n=104)들을 대상으로 듣기 능력과 전략 간의 관계를 조사한 Lee(2011)의 연구에서도 듣기 능력 수준에 따라 전략 사용이 달라지는 것으로 나타났다. 구체적으로 듣기 성취도가 높은 학생들이 낮은 학생들보다 기억, 인지, 보상 전략을 더 적극적으로 사용하는 것으로 나타났다.

듣기 전략뿐 아니라 정의적 변인인 불안을 함께 분석한 연구들도 진행되었는데, 박상태(2010)는 학생들이 주로 사용하는 듣기 전략과 불안을 조사하고 이 변인들이 듣기 성적에 미치는 영향을 연구하였다. 그 결과, 학생들이 영어 듣기를 할 때 상위 인지 전략, 인지 전략, 기억 전략, 보상 전략, 사회·정의적 전략의 순으로 전략을 사용하는 것을 발견하였다. 또한 듣기 전략을 많이 사용하는 학생일수록 시험에서 불안감을 느끼는 정도가 낮았으며 상위 학습자들이 연습하기, 예측하기, 추론하기 등의 전략을 많이 사용하는 것을 발견하였다.

요약하면 과거에 이루어진 선행연구들은 일반적인 학습전략이나 읽기, 듣기 등의 특정 언어 기능과 관련된 학습 전략에 초점을 두고 이루어졌음을 알 수 있다(박상태, 2010; 차미현, 2011; Lee, 2011; Lim & Cha, 2007; Makarchuk, 2017; Vandergrift, 2003). 이에 반해, 학생들이 실제 문제 풀이 과정에서 어떤 전략을 사용하는지 고찰한 연구는 거의 전무하다. 시험 상황에서의 전략 사용을 조사한 연구들이 있기는 하지만 읽기 평가와 관련된 전략 연구들이거나(Nam, 2015) 듣기 평가와 관련된 연구의 경우 토플 평가와 수능시험에서의 전략 사용을 비교하는 데 초점을 두고 있고 표본이 적어 한계가 있다(Ko, 2016). 따라서 본 연구를 통해 학생들이 다양한 유형의 듣기 문항을 풀면서 실제로 어떤 전략을 사용하는지 조사, 분석하고자 한다.

Ⅲ. 연구방법

1. 연구질문

본 연구는 한국 고등학교 학생들이 듣기 시험 상황에서 어떤 전략을 사용하며, 전략 사용은 듣기 문항 유형별, 학습자 수준별로 차이가 있는지 조사, 분석하고자 한다. 연구 질문은 다음과 같다.

1) 학생들은 영어과 모의고사 듣기영역을 풀며 어떤 전략을 사용하는가?

2) 학생들의 전략 사용이 듣기 문항 유형별로 차이가 있는가?
3) 학생들의 전략 사용은 학습자 수준에 따라 차이가 있는가?

2. 연구대상

본 연구에는 서울, 경기 지역의 인문계 고등학교와 외국어고등학교의 1~3학년 학생 136명이 참여하였는데 이들 중 71명은 서울 소재 인문계고와 외국어고의 학생들이었고 65명은 경지 지역 학교의 학생들이었다. 전체 학생의 성별 분포를 살펴보면 여학생(n=97)이 남학생(n=39)보다 많았다. 설문에 참여한 학생들 중 46.3%가 영어 모의고사 성적 향상을 위해 매일 1시간~3시간의 시간을 투자한다고 답하여 학구열이 비교적 높은 편이었다. 또한, 영어 성적 분포를 보았을 때 내신 81점~100점(56.7%), 모의고사 85점~100점(47.8%) 구간에 해당하는 학생 비율이 높은 것으로 나타났다.

수준별 전략 사용을 비교하기 위해 2015년 3월 모의고사 등급에 따라 학생들을 2개의 수준(상위, 하위)으로 나누었는데, 그 결과 상위 수준(1~3 등급)에 해당하는 학생들은 73명, 하위 수준(4~8 등급)에 해당하는 학생들은 63명이었다. 한편, 영어 듣기 전략을 학습한 경험이 있다고 응답한 학생의 수는 32명(23.5%)에 그치는 것으로 나타났다. 또한 전체 참여자 중 99명(72.8%)의 학생들이 영어권 국가에 거주한 경험이 없는 것으로 나타났다.

3. 연구도구

본 연구는 학생들이 모의고사를 볼 때 사용하는 전략이 무엇인지 파악하기 위하여 설문 조사를 실시하였다. 이를 위해 학생들의 듣기 학습에 대한 배경 정보 설문지, 전반적 듣기 시험 전략 설문지, 문항 유형별 전략 사용에 대한 설문지 등의 검사지를 개발하였는데 구체적으로 살펴보면 다음과 같다.

1) 학습자 배경 정보 설문지

학습자 개인 배경 정보를 조사하기 위해 박경례(2006)의 학습자 배경 설문지 내용을 참조하여 설문지를 구성하였다. 학습 배경 설문지는 개방형과 선택형 문항으로 구성되었는데 세부 내용을 살펴보면 개방형 문항에는 영어 모의고사 성적, 해외 유학 및 연수 경험, 영어 듣기 문제를 풀 때 불편하거나 어려운 점에 대한 내용이 포함되었다. 한편, 선택형 문항에는 평소 영어 공부 시간, 영어 학습 방법, 영어 듣기 향상을 위한 학습 방법 등에 대한 내용이 포함되었다.

2) 전반적 듣기 시험 전략 설문지

전반적 듣기 시험 전략에 관한 설문지는 Oxford(1990)의 직접 전략(direct strategy) 중 기억, 인지, 보상 전략들의 세부 전략들 중에서 시험 상황과 관련된 문항들로 구성되었다.

표 1
전반적 듣기 시험 전략 문항

전략 영역	질문 내용
기억 전략	1. 대화 내용이나 상황을 마음속으로 상상하기
	2. 핵심 사항에 집중하기
	3. 대화 상황과 개인적인 경험을 연관 지어보기
인지 전략	4. 답이 아니라고 생각되는 선택지 제거하기
	5. 중요하다고 생각되는 것을 메모하거나 요약하기
	6. 대화 내용을 한국어로 번역하며 듣기
	7. 다음 내용이 무엇일지 예측하며 듣기
보상 전략	8. 이해되지 않는 부분을 건너 뛰고 다음 문장에 집중하기
	9. 대화 상황을 통하여 대화 내용 유추하기
	10. 개별 단어에 집중하지 않고 전체 대화 내용 이해해보기
	11. 주어진 자료를 보고 내용 추측하기
	12. 모르는 단어가 나왔을 때 대화 상황을 통하여 유추하기

또한, 선행 연구(정혜진, 2002; 차미현, 2011)의 설문 문항 구성을 참고하여 한국 고등학생들의 시험 상황과 연계하여 설문 문항을 수정, 보완하였다. 한편 시험 상황과 관련된 소거하기 전략은 인지 전략의 유형으로 새롭게 추가되었다. 요약하면 기억 전략 3문항, 인지 전략 4문항, 보상 전략 5문항(총 12문항)으로 구성되었는데 문항별로 세부 내용을 살펴보면 표 1과 같다. 설문지 문항들은 전혀 아니다(1점)에서 매우 그렇다(5점)까지 5점 리커트 척도(Likert-type Scale)로 제시되었다. 설문지의 내적 일관성(internal consistency)을 나타내는 신뢰도 계수(Cronbach's Alpha)를 구한 결과 .876이 산출되었다.

3) 영어 듣기 문항 유형별 전략 사용에 대한 설문지

이 설문은 학생들이 영어 듣기 문항 유형별로 전략을 어떻게 사용하는지 보다 구체적으로 조사하기 위해 듣기 문항과 연계하여 제작되었다는 점에서

기존 검사지와 차별화된다. 검사지를 구성하기 위해 모의고사에서 출제된 문제를 왼쪽에 배치하고, 개방형과 선택형 설문 문항을 오른쪽에 제시하였다. 2014년에 실시된 영어과 모의고사 듣기영역에서 문항 종류별로 한 문항씩 발췌하여 총 10개의 문항을 구성하였다. 검사지는 사실적 이해(1번, 3번, 4번, 5번, 6번, 10번)를 측정하는 6개 문항과 추론적 이해(2번, 7번, 8번, 9번)를 평가하는 4개 문항 등 총 10개 문항으로 구성되었다(표 2).

표 2

듣기 문항 유형별 전략 사용 검사지: 듣기 문항 유형 및 내용

	문항 내용	분류	문항 출처
1번	대화를 듣고, 그림에서 대화의 내용과 일치하지 않는 것을 고르시오.	사실	2014년 6월 고2 전국연합학력평가 7번
2번	다음을 듣고, 남자가 하는 말의 목적으로 가장 적절한 것을 고르시오.	추론	2014년 6월 고2 전국연합학력평가 3번
3번	대화를 듣고, 남자가 여자에게 부탁한 일로 가장 적절한 것을 고르시오.	사실	2014년 6월 고2 전국연합학력평가 9번
4번	대화를 듣고, 인턴십 프로그램에 관해 두 사람이 언급하지 <u>않은</u> 것을 고르시오.	사실	2014년 9월 고2 전국연합학력평가 10번
5번	Art Center Video Contest에 관한 다음 내용을 듣고, 일치하지 <u>않는</u> 것을 고르시오.	사실	2014년 9월 고2 전국연합학력평가 11번
6번	대화를 듣고, 남자가 지불할 금액을 고르시오.	사실	2014년 9월 고2 전국연합학력평가 9번
7번	대화를 듣고, 여자가 사용하던 휴대전화를 바꾼 이유를 고르시오.	추론	2014년 9월 고2 전국연합학력평가 8번
8번	대화를 듣고, 두 사람이 하는 말의 주제로 가장 적절한 것을 고르시오.	추론	2014년 11월 고2 전국연합학력평가 4번
9번	대화를 듣고, 두 사람의 관계를 가장 잘 나타낸 것을 고르시오.	추론	2014년 11월 고2 전국연합학력평가 5번
10번	다음 표를 보면서 대화를 듣고, 두 사람이 선택할 워크숍을 고르시오.	사실	2014년 6월 고2 전국연합학력평가 12번

각각의 설문지는 2단계에 걸쳐 실시되었는데, 1단계에 사용한 개방형 설문지를 예시하면 그림 1과 같다. 즉, 설문 상단에 예를 제시한 후, 왼쪽에는 듣기 문제를 배치하였고 오른쪽에는 해당 문제 풀이에 사용한 전략을 적을 수 있도록 개방형 문항을 제시하였다.

그림 1
문항 유형별 전략 사용 설문지 (1단계, 개방형)

문제	답을 맞추기 위해 내가 쓴 나만의 노하우
1. 대화를 듣고, 여자의 주장으로 가장 적절한 것을 고르시오. ① 식사하는 시간을 지켜야 한다. ② 가능한 한 전기를 아껴야 한다. ③ 정기적으로 시력검사를 받아야 한다. ④ 건강하려면 과일을 많이 먹어야 한다. ⑤ 컴퓨터 게임을 너무 오래 하지 않아야 한다.	모르는 단어가 많이 나오긴 했지만 알아들을 수 있는 표현을 모아서 최대한 내용을 이해해보려고 했고, 중요한 단서 같은 것은 따로 필기해서 듣기를 끝내고 문제를 풀 때 활용했다.

문제	답을 맞추기 위해 내가 쓴 나만의 노하우
1. 대화를 듣고, 그림에서 대화의 내용과 일치하지 않는 것을 고르시오. 	

설문 2단계에는 선택형 설문지(그림 2)가 제시되었는데 학생들은 1단계에서 녹음된 내용을 들으며 문제를 풀었던 경험을 회상하며 설문에 응답하였다. 선택형 설문지는 인지 전략 2문항(1번, 2번), 기억 전략 2문항(3번, 4번), 보상 전략 2문항(5번, 6번)으로 구성되었다. 기억, 인지, 보상 전략과 관련된 6개의 설문 문항은 10개 듣기 문항들과 함께 제시되었으며 각 문항의 응답의 범위는 전혀 아니다(1점)에서 매우 그렇다(5점)까지 5점 리커트 척도(Likert scale)로 제시되었다. 설문 문항별 신뢰도 계수는 문항별로 근소한 차이가 있었는데 구체적으로 살펴보면 1번(.66), 2번(.64), 3번(.77), 4번(.73), 5번(.72), 6번(.68), 7번(.69), 8번(.75), 9번(.76), 10번(.61)으로 나타났다.

그림 2
문항유형별 전략 사용 설문지 (2단계, 선택형)

문제	설문 문항	해당 질문의 답번에 체크해주세요.				
		전혀 아니다	아니다	보통이다	그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 대화를 듣고, 그림에서 대화의 내용과 일치하지 않는 것을 고르시오. 	1. 나는 답이 아니라고 생각되는 선택지를 하나씩 제거하며 문제를 풀었다.					
	2. 나는 중요하다고 생각되는 것을 메모하거나 요약하며 문제를 풀었다.					
	3. 나는 대화 내용을 **더 잘 기억하기 위하여** 핵심 사항이라고 생각되는 것에 집중하며 문제를 풀었다.					
	4. 나는 대화 내용을 **더 잘 기억하기 위해** 대화 상황을 마음속에 상상하며 문제를 풀었다.					
	5. 나는 대화 상황을 통하여 대화자들이 어떤 이야기를 하는지 유추했다.					
	6. 나는 못 들은 문장에 집착하지 않고, 빨리 다음 문장에 주의를 기울였다.					
	☞1번 문제를 풀기 위해 자신이 사용한 특별한 방법이나 요령이 있다면 적어주세요.					

4. 자료 수집 절차 및 자료 분석

본 연구는 자료 수집을 위해 3차에 걸쳐 설문을 실시하였는데 이를 구체적으로 살펴보면 표 3과 같다.

표 3
설문 절차

설문 순서	설문지
1일차	영어학습 배경 설문, 전반적 영어 듣기 시험 전략 설문 문항별 시험 전략 사용 설문(1단계 개방형) 1번~5번
2일차	문항별 시험 전략 사용 설문(1단계 개방형) 6번~10번
3일차	문항별 시험 전략 사용 설문지(2단계 선택형) 1번~10번

자료 수집을 위해 우선 영어 학습 배경 설문과 전반적 듣기 시험 전략 검사를 실시하였다. 문항 유형별 전략 사용을 조사하는 설문지의 경우 학생들의 성의 있는 답변을 확보하기 위해 10개의 듣기 평가 문항을 다섯 문항씩 나누어 이틀에 걸쳐 검사를 실시하였다. 학생들은 매 문항의 풀이가 끝날 때마다 각 문항에 대한 답을 문항별 답지에 표시했다가 평가가 완료되었을 때, 답지 전체를 제출하였다.

또한, 학생들은 매 듣기 문항이 끝났을 때마다 30초 동안 개방형 설문에 대한 답으로 문제 풀이에 사용한 시험 전략을 기술하였다. 이틀에 걸쳐 실시된 개방형 설문이 끝나고 3일차에 선택형 설문 조사를 실시하였는데 이때 학생들이 좌측에 제시된 문제를 확인하고 풀이 과정을 회상하며 설문에 응답하도록 안내하였다. 선택형 설문 문항 하단에 여백을 마련하여 학생들이 자신이 사용한 전략을 추가로 기술할 수 있는 기회를 제공하였다. 한편, 자료 분석을 위해 설문 문항에 대한 응답값의 빈도, 평균, 표준편차 등을 제시하는 기술통계 분석을 실시하였으며 학습자 수준에 따른 전략 사용의 차이를 조사하기 위해 독립표본 t-검정을 실시하였다. 문항별로 제시된 개방형 질문에 대한 학습자 답변은 전략 유형별로 분류한 후 코딩 하였다.

Ⅳ. 연구결과

1. 학생들의 전반적 듣기 시험 전략

연구에 참여한 고등학생들이 듣기 시험 상황에서 사용하는 전략과 관련하

여 유형별로(표 1참조) 기술 통계 값을 구한 결과, 보상 전략의 평균값이 3.47로 가장 높았고 기억 전략(3.17), 인지 전략(3.11)의 순으로 나타났다. 전략 유형별 평균 점수 값의 분포를 통해 기억 전략과 인지 전략의 점수 값은 근소한 차이를 보였던데 반해 보상전략의 점수 값은 상대적으로 높았다. 이를 통해 학생들이 모의고사 상황에서 가장 많이 사용하는 전략이 보상 전략이었음을 알 수 있는데, 이와 같은 내용은 김은이(2014), 정혜진(2002)의 연구 결과와도 일치한다.

전략 유형별로 세부 문항의 내용에 대해 동의한 비율(응답 범위 중 4 또는 5를 선택한 경우)을 분석했을 때 기억 전략과 관련해서는 “듣기 내용을 더 잘 기억하기 위하여 핵심 사항에 집중하기”에 동의한 응답자 비율(62.5%)이 가장 높게 나타났다. 한편, 인지 전략의 세부 문항들 중에서는 “답이 아니라고 생각되는 선택지를 제거하기”에 동의한 학생들의 비율이 66.9%로 매우 높게 나타났다. 보상 전략과 관련된 세부 문항에서는 전반적으로 동의율이 높았는데 유추하기와 관련된 문항들에 대한 동의 비율이 높은 것으로 나타났다. 구체적으로 “대화 상황을 통하여 대화 내용 유추하기”(61%), “모르는 단어가 나왔을 때 대화 상황을 통하여 유추하기”(60%) 문항에 대한 동의율이 높게 나타났다. 이와 같이 보상 전략의 활용 빈도가 높은 것은 다른 선행연구들의 연구 결과와도 일치한다(박봉현, 2001; 정혜진, 2002; 차미현, 2011; Kang, 1997).

2. 학생들의 듣기 문항별 시험 전략

듣기 문항별로 학생들이 사용하는 시험 전략을 조사하기 위해 전략 관련 설문 문항에 대한 응답값의 빈도, 평균, 표준편차를 구하였다. 응답자가 해당 문항에 대해 4 또는 5를 선택한 경우를 동의한 것으로 간주하여 빈도를 집계하였다. 학생들은 1단계 개방형 설문에서는 문제 풀이 직후 문제 풀이 비법을 서술하였고, 2단계 선택형 설문에서는 기억, 인지, 보상 전략 설문 문항(6개 항목)을 읽고 5점 척도로 동의 정도를 표시하였다.

학생들이 각 문항에서 활용한 전략을 분석한 결과 평가 영역(사실적 이해, 추론적 이해)별로 일관된 패턴이 있는 것으로 나타났다. 이에 문제 풀이에 사용된 전략들을 평가 영역별로 나누어 살펴보면 다음과 같다.

1) 사실적 이해 평가 문항

듣기 1번 문제는 대화문을 듣고 그림에서 대화 내용과 일치하지 않는 것을 골라야 하는 것으로 사실적 이해를 측정하는 문항이다. 이 문항을 푼 후 학생들은 1단계 개방형 설문에서 인지 전략과 보상 전략을 가장 많이 사용한다고 응답하였다. 응답자들은 인지 전략에 해당하는 소거하기 전략을 가장 많

이 사용하는 것으로 나타났다(47.8%). 구체적으로 학생들은 “답을 하나씩 지워가며 풀었다,” “그림과 해당되는 문장을 하나씩 비교하여 답이 아닌 것을 지웠다,” “맞는 사실을 제외시켰다” 등의 답변을 서술하였다.

이와 같은 양상은 2단계 선택형 설문에서도 확인할 수 있었다. 표 4에 제시된 선택형 설문 결과를 논의하기에 앞서 전략 유형을 구체적으로 살펴보면 인지 전략1(답이 아니라고 생각되는 선택지를 하나씩 제거하기)과 인지 전략2(중요하다고 생각되는 것을 메모하거나 요약하기)는 직접 전략으로서 학습자가 듣기를 하면서 답이 아니라고 생각한 것을 소거하거나, 중요하다고 판단되는 내용을 요약, 메모하는 경우를 의미한다. 한편, 기억 전략1(대화 내용을 더 잘 기억하기 위하여 핵심 사항이라고 생각되는 것에 집중하기)과 기억 전략2(대화 내용을 더 잘 기억하기 위해 대화 상황을 마음속에 상상하기)는 듣기 입력 중 핵심 사항에 주의를 기울이거나, 정보를 자기만의 방식으로 구체화하여 이를 문제 풀이에 활용하는 전략이다. 학생들의 전략 사용 응답률을 조사한 결과, 대화를 듣고 그림을 고르는 사실적 이해 문항(듣기 1번)에서 가장 비중이 높았던 전략은 보상 전략2(집중하기)로 나타났고(55.9%), 근소한 차이로 인지 전략1(소거하기)이 두 번째로 높았다(53.7%).

표 4

2차 선택형 설문-1번 문항의 전략 사용 분석

전략 구분	문항 세부 내용	1	2	3	4	5	M (SD)
기억1	대화 내용을 더 잘 기억하기 위하여 핵심 사항이라고 생각되는 것에 집중하기	10.3	15.4	31.6	33.1	9.6	3.2 (1.1)
기억2	대화 내용을 더 잘 기억하기 위해 대화 상황을 마음속에 상상하기	8.1	20.5	37.5	22.1	11.8	3.1 (1.1)
인지1	답이 아니라고 생각되는 선택지를 하나씩 제거하기	0.7	8.8	36.8	27.2	26.5	3.7 (.98)
인지2	중요하다고 생각되는 것을 메모하거나 요약하기	1.4	36.8	33.8	22.1	5.9	2.9 (.94)
보상1	대화 상황을 통하여 대화자들이 어떤 이야기를 하는지 유추하기	4.4	27.9	19.9	31.6	16.2	3.3 (1.2)
보상2	못 들은 문장에 집착하지 않고, 다음 문장에 주의 기울이기	1.5	2.2	40.4	32.4	23.5	3.7 (.89)

1: 전혀 아니다, 2: 아니다, 3: 보통이다, 4: 그렇다, 5: 매우 그렇다;
각 셀의 숫자는 응답 비율; M (SD): 평균(표준편차)

1단계 개방형 설문과 2단계 선택형 설문에서 오답 소거하기 전략이 일관되게 높게 나와 학생들이 많이 사용하는 것을 알 수 있었다. 보상 전략 2는 학생들의 서술에서 부각되지는 않았지만 선택형 문항에서는 응답률이 높았는데

이는 듣기 자료의 특성상 듣다가 놓친 부분에 집착하지 않고 다음 문장에 집중하는 것이 중요하기 때문으로 이해된다. 한편, 기억 전략2(33.9%)와 인지 전략2(28%)는 상대적으로 활용 정도가 낮은 것으로 나타났다. 이는 1번 문항의 경우 그림이라는 단서가 추가로 제공되기에 대화를 들으면서 문제 해결에 필요한 부분을 그림에서 파악하여 답을 찾아낼 수 있기 때문인 것으로 해석된다. 이러한 문항 특성을 고려했을 때, 학습자들이 들은 내용을 메모하거나 중요한 점을 요약해야 할 필요 없이, 그림을 바로 비교하면서 정답을 찾았던 것으로 이해된다.

듣기 4번 문제(대화를 듣고, 인턴십 프로그램에 관해 대화자가 언급하지 않은 내용을 고르시오)도 사실적 이해를 측정하는 유형이었는데, 흥미롭게도 개방형 설문 결과, 이 문항에서도 인지 전략 중 하나인 소거하기(37.5%) 전략이 많이 사용되는 것을 알 수 있었다. 학생들이 서술한 답변 내용을 구체적으로 예시하면 “보기에 하나씩 표시하면서 듣는다,” “언급한 것만 지워가면서 답을 찾았다” 등이 있었다. 이와 같은 양상은 2단계 설문에서도 일관되게 나타났는데, 학생들은 소거하기와 관련된 인지 전략(52.2%), 이해되지 않는 문장에 집착하지 않고 다음 문장에 주의를 기울이는 보상 전략(50.7%), 핵심 사항에 집중하는 기억 전략(47.1%) 등에 대해 설문 1, 2 단계에서 모두 높은 동의율을 보였다. 이는 듣기의 특성상 주의 집중이 중요하며 오답을 제거하는 소거 전략은 시험 전략으로서 많이 강조, 교육되기 때문인 것으로 이해된다. 듣기 4번 문항은 내용 전체를 올바르게 이해해야 풀 수 있는데 듣기 자료의 세부 정보가 순차적으로 제시되기 때문에, 학생들이 선택지와 비교하면서 인지 전략(소거하기)을 적극적으로 사용했던 것으로 해석된다.

듣기 5번 문항(Lewis Art Center Video Contest에 관한 다음 내용을 듣고, 일치하지 않는 것을 고르시오)도 사실적 이해를 측정하는 유형이었는데, 4번 문항에서와 같이 학생들은 1단계 설문에서 인지 전략에 해당하는 소거하기 전략(56.6%)을 가장 많이 사용한다고 답하였다. 2단계 설문에서도 유사한 양상이 나타났는데, 학생들의 응답률이 가장 높았던 것은 소거하기와 관련된 인지 전략1(58.9%)이었으며 핵심 사항에 집중하는 기억 전략1(56.6%)의 사용 비율도 높은 것으로 나타났다. 이에 반해 상상하기와 관련된 기억 전략2(43.4%)은 상대적으로 낮게 나타났다.

이를 통해 사실적 이해 문항 중 1, 4, 5번 문항에서 학생들의 응답이 1, 2단계에 걸쳐 일관된 양상을 보였음을 알 수 있다. 우선 1단계 설문을 통해 소거하기 전략을 전반적으로 많이 사용하는 것을 알 수 있었다. 2단계 척도형 설문에서도 일관된 양상을 보였는데 학생들은 소거하기, 핵심 사항에 집중하기, 주의 집중하기 등의 전략을 많이 사용하는 것으로 나타났다. 특히, 듣기 4, 5번과 같이 세부 사항이나 내용 일치를 묻는 문항들의 특성상 순차적으로 제시되는 내용을 들으면서 일치하지 않는 부분을 답에서 찾아야 하고 대화 내용에서 핵심 사항에 집중하는 것이 중요하기 때문에 기억 전략1의 사

용 비율이 높았던 것으로 이해된다.

한편, 대화 내용을 듣고 세부 사항에 대한 이해를 바탕으로 문제를 풀어야 하는 듣기 3번 문항(대화를 듣고, 남자가 여자에게 부탁한 일로 가장 적절한 것을 고르시오)과 관련해서는 기억하기 전략의 역할이 중요한 것으로 나타났다. 구체적으로 1단계 개방형 설문에서 응답자들이 가장 많이 기술한 전략은 기억 전략에 해당하는 핵심 사항 기억하기인 것으로 나타났다(31.8%). 학생들이 응답한 내용을 예시하면 “필요 없는 앞의 내용은 대충 흘려 버리고,” “could you~ 등의 권유의 표현이 나온 곳에 더 집중해서 대화 내용을 이해했다.”“남자가 말한 중요한 단어를 계속 기억하면서 들었다” 등이 있었다.

선택형 설문에서는 보상 전략1(56.6%)과 보상 전략2(52.2%)의 비중이 가장 높은 것으로 나타났다. 이는 듣기 자료의 특성상 주의 집중은 문항 유형에 관계없이 중요하게 작용했던 것으로 이해되며 세부사항 파악 여부를 측정하는 3번 문항의 경우 사실적 이해뿐 아니라 추론 능력도 중요하게 관여했기 때문인 것으로 해석된다. 세부사항 파악 능력을 측정하는 3번 문항의 특성상 핵심 사항을 기억하거나(46.3%) 대화 상황을 마음에 상상하기(49.2%) 등의 기억 전략을 사용하는 비율도 높은 것으로 나타났다. 이에 반해 중요하다고 생각되는 것을 메모, 요약하는 인지 전략2(41.9%)의 비중은 상대적으로 낮게 나타났다.

한편, 계산을 요하는 사실적 이해 문항(대화를 듣고 남자가 지불할 금액을 고르시오) 6번에 대해 1단계 설문에서 응답자들이 가장 많이 기술한 전략은 인지 전략 중 하나인 메모하기 전략(62.6%)인 것으로 나타났다. 학생들의 응답을 구체적으로 예시하면 “대화에 나오는 요금을 써가면서 문제를 풀었음,” “대화 내용을 요약해서 중요한 것만 필기하였다,”“금액을 받아 적고 남자의 말과 여자의 말에 적용하며 풀었음” 등이 있었다. 이와 같은 결과는 2단계 설문에서도 확인되었는데, 학생들이 가장 많이 사용한 전략은 메모, 요약하기와 관련된 인지 전략2(61.1%)로 나타났다. 이와 함께 핵심 사항에 집중하는 기억 전략1(56.7%)의 비중도 높게 나타났다. 흥미롭게도 이 문항의 경우 소거하기와 관련된 인지 전략1(44.1%)의 사용 비율은 가장 낮은 것으로 나타났다. 이는 듣기 자료에 제시된 숫자를 단순히 선택지와 비교하는 것이 아니라 주어진 정보를 가지고 계산할 것을 요구하는 6번 문항의 특성 때문이다. 학습자 관점에서 핵심 정보를 선택적으로 듣는 능력이 필요하기 때문에 들은 내용을 메모하고 요약하는 인지 전략2(61.1%)와 핵심 내용 파악에 필요한 기억 전략1(56.7%)의 활용이 중요하게 작용했던 것으로 이해된다.

문항 10번(다음 표를 보면서 대화를 듣고, 두 사람이 선택할 워크숍을 고르시오)도 사실적 이해 문항인데, 개방형 설문 실시 결과 1번(그림 보고 고르기)에서와 같이 학생들이 소거하기 전략(45.6%)을 가장 많이 사용한 것으로 나타났다. 학생들이 서술한 답변을 인용하면 “표를 보고 대화 내용에서 안 나온 것을 지우면서 풀었다.”“표에서 나온 순서대로 대화가 진행되었기

때문에 대화랑 비교하면서 아닌 것을 지웠다" 등의 응답이 있었다. 이와 같은 결과는 2단계 선택형 설문 결과에서도 관찰되었는데, 구체적으로 소거하기와 관련된 인지 전략1(57.3%)을 사용한다는 응답 비율이 가장 높았다. 또한 유추와 관련된 보상 전략1(55.1%), 주의 집중과 관련된 보상 전략2(54.4%), 핵심 사항에 집중하기와 관련된 기억 전략1(52.9%)의 사용 비율도 높은 것으로 나타났다. 이와 같은 결과는 한눈에 들어오도록 시각적으로 제시된 그림(1번 문항)과는 달리 표에 들어가 있는 정보를 이해하고 이를 대화 내용과 비교하면서 답을 찾아야 하는 10번 문항의 특성 때문인 것으로 이해된다. 즉, 대화를 듣고 표를 참조하여 답을 유추하기 위해서는 핵심 사항에 집중하기, 주의 집중하기, 유추하기, 소거하기 등의 다양한 전략을 종합적으로 활용해야 했던 것으로 이해된다.

2) 추론적 이해 평가 문항

대화를 듣고 발화의 목적을 추론하는 듣기 2번 문항(다음을 듣고, 남자가 하는 말의 목적으로 가장 적절한 것을 고르시오)과 관련하여 1단계 설문에서 응답자들은 기억 전략에 해당하는 핵심 사항 기억하기(27.9%)를 사용한다고 보고하였다. 학생들이 개방형 설문에서 기술한 내용을 구체적으로 살펴보면 "중요한 단어에 집중하면서 문제를 풀었다." "남자가 언급한 단어 중에서 중요한 것을 기억해 문제를 풀었다" 등이 있었다.

표 5

2차 선택형 설문-2번 문항의 전략 사용 분석

전략 구분	문항 세부 내용	1	2	3	4	5	M (SD)
기억 1	대화 내용을 더 잘 기억하기 위하여 핵심 사항이라고 생각되는 것에 집중하기	4.4	10.3	38.2	30.9	16.2	3.4 (1.0)
기억 2	대화 내용을 더 잘 기억하기 위해 대화 상황을 마음속에 상상하기	8.1	36	27.9	24.3	3.7	2.79 (1.0)
인지 1	답이 아니라고 생각되는 선택지를 하나씩 제거하기	9.6	19.1	30.1	22.1	19.1	3.2 (1.2)
인지 2	중요하다고 생각되는 것을 메모하거나 요약하기	9.6	20.6	30.1	22.8	16.9	3.2 (1.2)
보상 1	대화 상황을 통하여 대화자들이 어떤 이야기를 하는지 유추하기	5.9	11.8	29.4	33.8	19.1	3.5 (1.1)
보상 2	못 들은 문장에 집착하지 않고, 다음 문장에 주의 기울이기	3.6	12.5	29.4	32.4	22.1	3.5 (1.1)

1: 전혀 아니다, 2: 아니다, 3: 보통이다, 4: 그렇다, 5: 매우 그렇다;
각 셀의 숫자는 응답 비율; M (SD): 평균(표준편차)

반면 2단계 선택형 설문 조사에서는 대화 상황을 통하여 대화자들이 어떤 이야기를 하는지 유추하기(54.5%)와 못 들은 문장에 집착하지 않고 다음 문장에 주의 기울이기(52.9%) 등과 같은 보상 전략에 대한 응답률이 높게 나타났다. 이와 같은 결과는 1단계 개방형 설문에서 기억 전략이 가장 높은 응답률을 보였던 것과는 다소 차이가 있다. 그러나 듣기 입력의 특성상 주의 집중이 중요하고 추론적 이해를 묻는 문항이기에 유추하기 전략이 중요하게 작용했던 것으로 이해된다.

2번 문항에서와 같은 양상이 7번 문항(대화를 듣고, 여자가 사용하던 휴대전화를 바꾼 이유를 고르시오)에서도 나타났는데, 우선 1단계 설문에서 응답자들이 가장 많이 기술한 전략은 핵심 사항에 집중하는 기억 전략1(23.5%)로 나타났다. 학생들이 기술한 내용을 예시하면 “여자가 하는 말이 더 중요한 것 같아서 여자가 하는 말을 계속 기억하며 들었다,” “privacy에 관한 말을 하는 것 같아서 비슷한 단어들에 집중했다” 등이 있었다. 이와 같은 응답 패턴은 2단계 설문에서도 나타났는데, 구체적으로 핵심 사항에 집중하는 기억 전략1(54.4%)에 대한 동의율이 높게 나타났다. 또한, 추론적 이해를 측정하는 문항의 특성상 유추하기와 관련된 보상 전략1(59.6%)의 활용 비율이 가장 높은 것으로 나타났다. 흥미롭게도 소거하기와 관련된 인지 전략1(38.2%)의 활용률은 가장 낮은 것으로 나타났다. 이는 7번 문항이 대화의 세부 내용뿐 아니라 전체적 흐름과 분위기를 파악하여 정답을 선택하는 문제 유형이기 때문인 것으로 이해된다. 때문에 소거하기보다는 유추하기, 핵심사항 파악하기 등과 관련된 보상 전략, 기억 전략이 중요하게 작용했던 것으로 이해된다.

대화를 듣고 주제를 파악하는 8번 문제(대화를 듣고, 두 사람이 하는 말의 주제로 가장 적절한 것을 고르시오)도 추론적 이해 문항인데 전략 사용과 관련하여 학생들의 응답이 7번 문제를 풀고 답했을 때와 유사한 양상을 보였다. 즉, 1단계 개방형 설문 실시 결과, 핵심 사항에 집중하는 기억 전략1(29.4%)이 가장 많이 사용되는 것으로 나타났다. 학생들이 기술한 내용을 살펴보면 “honey bee와 fruit라는 단어를 계속 기억했다가 듣기 내용을 다 들은 후에 선택지에서 답을 골랐다,” “반복되는 문장이 중요한 것 같아서 계속 그 부분에 집중하여 듣기를 이해했다” 등이 있었다. 한편, 2단계 선택형 설문에서는 핵심 사항을 기억하는 기억 전략1(47.8%)의 비율도 높았지만 유추하기와 관련된 보상 전략1(52.3%)과 주의 집중과 관련된 보상 전략2(49.3%)를 사용했다고 답한 응답자 비율이 훨씬 높았다. 이에 반해 상상하기와 관련된 기억 전략2(39.7%)의 활용도는 상대적으로 낮은 것으로 나타났다. 이는 전반적 대화 내용에 대한 이해를 통해 정답을 추론할 것을 요구하는 8번 문항의 특성과 무관해 보이지 않는다. 즉, 문항의 특성상 유추하기와 관련된 보상 전략1(52.3%)과 집중과 관련된 보상 전략2(49.3%)가 중요하게 작용했던 것으로 이해된다. 또한, 주제를 추론하는 과정에서 필요한 핵심 정보를 인식해야 하기에 이를 위해 기억 전략1(47.8%)과 메모하기와 관련된 인지 전략2(45.6%)

도 대체로 많이 사용했음을 알 수 있다.

주제 추론 문항(8번)에서와 같이 화자들의 관계를 추론하는 9번 문항(대화를 듣고, 두 사람의 관계를 가장 잘 나타낸 것을 고르시오)에서도 핵심 사항에 집중하는 기억 전략(25.7%)이 많이 사용되는 것으로 나타났다. 구체적인 응답 내용을 예시하면 “orchestra라는 단어와 interview라는 단어를 기억하여 대화 내용을 이해했다,” “직업과 관련된 단어를 기억해서 답을 골랐다” 등이 있었다. 추론 문항이기 때문에 2단계 설문 결과 유추하기와 관련된 보상전략1(56.6%)이 많이 사용된 것을 확인할 수 있었다. 흥미롭게도, 8번과 9번 문항 모두 추론 문항이지만 주제를 추론하는 8번 문항에서 유추하기와 집중하기 전략이 많이 사용되었던데 반해, 9번 문항에서는 핵심 사항에 집중하는 기억 전략1(53.6%)과 상상하기와 관련된 기억 전략2(52.3%)의 활용도가 높은 것으로 나타났다. 이는 대화자 간의 관계를 추론하는 9번 문항의 풀이를 위해서 학생들이 대화문에서 제시된 어휘를 활용하여 화자들의 관계를 상상했기 때문인 것으로 해석된다.

요약하면 추론적 이해를 측정하는 4개의 문항(2, 7, 8, 9번)에서 학생들은 핵심사항 기억하기 전략을 많이 사용한 것으로 나타났다. 핵심 사항 기억하기 전략은 2단계 선택형 설문 결과에서도 확인되었는데 그 외에도 유추하기, 집중하기 등의 전략을 많이 사용한 것을 알 수 있었다. 다만, 화자 간의 관계를 추론하는 9번 문항에서는 상상하기 전략도 사용하는 것으로 나타났다. 이를 통해 추론적 이해를 측정하는 문항들의 성격과 내용은 다르지만 학습자의 전략 사용 양상은 유사했음을 알 수 있다.

3. 학습자 수준에 따른 전략의 차이

학습자 수준별로 전략 사용에 있어 차이가 있는지 비교한 결과 보상 전략의 경우 상위, 하위 집단 간 유의한 차이가 없는 것으로 발견되었다. 이는 수준에 관계없이 모든 학생들이 보상 전략, 특히 소거하기 전략을 적극적으로 활용했기 때문인 것으로 이해된다. 반면에 인지 전략과 기억 전략 측면에서는 집단 간 유의한 차이가 있는 것으로 나타났고 구체적으로 상위 수준의 학생들이 하위 수준의 학생들보다 인지, 기억 전략을 많이 활용하는 것으로 나타났다. 사실적 이해와 추론적 이해를 측정하는 문항들 중 학습자 수준에 따른 전략 사용의 차이를 보여주는 문항을 예시하면 표 6, 표 7와 같다. 우선, 세부 사항을 파악하는 사실적 이해 문항(4번)의 풀이에 사용된 전략을 학습자 수준에 따라 비교한 결과(표 6 참조), 상위 수준의 학생들이 하위 수준의 학생들보다 메모/요약하기(인지전략2), 핵심 사항에 집중하기(기억전략1) 전략을 더 많이 사용하는 것을 알 수 있다.

표 6
학습자 수준별 전략 사용 (사실적 이해, 4번 문항)

전략 구분	집단	N	평균	t	유의확률 (양쪽)
인지전략2	상위집단	73	3.59	2.823	.005*
	하위집단	63	3.11		
기억전략1	상위집단	73	3.62	2.273	.027*
	하위집단	63	3.16		

한편, 화자 간의 관계를 유추하는 추론적 이해 문항(9번)의 풀이에 사용된 전략을 학습자 수준에 따라 비교한 결과(표 7 참조), 상위 수준의 학생들이 하위 수준의 학생들보다 메모/요약하기(인지전략2), 상상하기(기억전략2) 전략을 더 많이 사용하는 것을 알 수 있었다. 학습자 수준별 전략 사용에 대한 결과를 통해 수준에 관계없이 학생들은 보상 전략을 많이 사용했던 것을 알 수 있다. 이에 반해 기억, 인지 전략의 경우 상위 수준의 학생들이 하위 수준의 학생들보다 더 적극적으로 사용한 것으로 나타났다. 특히, 평가 영역(사실적 이해, 추론적 이해)에 관계없이 상위 수준의 학생들은 하위 수준의 학생들보다 메모하기 전략을 많이 사용하는 것으로 나타났다.

표 7
학습자 수준별 전략 사용 (추론적 이해, 9번 문항)

전략 구분	집단	N	평균	t	유의확률 (양쪽)
인지전략2	상위집단	73	3.56	3.693	.000*
	하위집단	63	2.81		
기억전략2	상위집단	73	3.55	2.028	.047*
	하위집단	63	3.11		

평가 영역별로 학습자 전략 사용의 차이를 수준별로 비교하면 사실적 이해 문항에서는 상위 수준의 학생들이 핵심 사항에 집중하기 전략을 더 많이 사용했던데 반해, 추론적 이해 문항에서는 상상하기 전략을 더 많이 사용했던 것을 알 수 있다. 기억, 인지 전략은 학생들이 듣기 입력 자료를 통해 파악한 정보를 나름의 방법으로 재구성하여 이해하기 쉽게 한다는 점에서 공통점이 있다. 따라서, 기억, 인지 전략을 상대적으로 많이 사용했던 상위 수준의 학습자들이 하위 수준의 학습자들보다 좀 더 적극적으로 듣기에 임했던 것으로 해석된다.

V. 결론

본 연구는 한국의 고등학생들이 영어과 모의고사 듣기 영역에서 전반적으로 어떤 시험 전략을 사용하며, 전략 사용은 문항 유형 및 학습자 수준에 따라 차이가 있는지 조사, 분석하였다. 이를 위해 서울시와 경기도에 소재한 고등학교에 재학 중인 학생 136명을 대상으로 영어학습 배경, 전반적 듣기 시험 전략, 문항별 전략 사용을 묻는 설문조사를 실시하였다.

학생들의 응답을 분석한 결과, 학생들은 듣기 시험 상황에서 대화 상황을 유추하는 전략을 가장 많이 사용하는 것으로 나타났다. 그 외에도 핵심 사항에 집중하기나, 답이 아니라고 생각되는 선택지 제거하기 등의 전략을 사용하는 비율도 비교적 높은 것으로 나타났다. 학생들의 전략 사용은 문항 유형별, 수준별로 차이가 있었는데, 구체적으로 살펴보면 사실적 이해를 측정하는 문항에서는 선택지 제거하기 전략과 함께 대화를 기억하기 위해 핵심 사항에 집중하거나 못 들은 문장에 집착하지 않고 다음 문장에 집중하는 전략을 많이 사용하는 것으로 나타났다.

대화를 듣고 그림을 골라야 하는 1번 문항의 경우 선택지 제거하기, 다음 문장에 집중하기 등의 전략을 사용했던데 반해 대화를 들으며 표의 정보를 처리하고 답을 골라야 했던 10번 문항의 경우에는 선택지 제거하기, 대화 상황 유추하기, 다음 문장에 집중하기, 핵심 사항에 집중하기 등 다양한 전략을 사용하는 것을 알 수 있었다. 흥미롭게도 계산을 요구하는 문항의 경우에는 메모, 요약하기 전략과 핵심 사항에 집중하기 등의 전략을 사용하는 것으로 나타났다. 한편, 추론적 이해를 요구하는 문항들에 대해서는 대화를 더 잘 기억하기 위해 핵심 사항에 집중하거나 대화자들이 어떤 이야기를 하는지 유추하기 등의 전략을 많이 사용하는 것으로 나타났다.

수준별 전략 사용과 관련해서는 학생들이 수준에 관계없이 답이 아니라고 생각되는 선택지를 제거하는 전략을 공통적으로 많이 사용하고 있었다. 반면에 수준에 따른 전략 사용의 차이도 있었는데, 상위 수준의 학생들은 하위 수준의 학생들보다 기억, 인지 전략을 많이 사용하고 있었으며, 평가 영역(사실적 이해, 추론적 이해)에 관계없이 메모/요약하기 전략을 많이 사용하는 것으로 나타났다. 평가 영역별로 살펴보면, 사실적 이해 문항에서 상위 수준의 학생들은 하위 수준의 학생들보다 핵심 사항에 집중하거나 메모/요약하는 전략을 더 많이 사용한다고 응답했다. 한편, 추론적 이해를 측정하는 문항에서는 상위 수준의 학생들이 대화를 기억하기 위해 상황을 마음 속에 상상하거나 메모/요약하는 전략을 더 많이 사용하는 것으로 나타났다.

본 연구는 영어과 모의고사 듣기 영역에서 문항 유형별로 학생들이 어떤 전략을 사용하는지 그 양상을 실제 듣기 평가와 연계하여 설문조사 형태로 조사, 분석했다는 점에서 의의가 있다. 그러나 10개의 문항이 듣기 평가 문항 전체를 대표하기 어렵고, 전략 사용을 조사하기 위한 설문 항목의 수도 6

개로 제한되어 있는 점은 아쉽다. 이와 같은 한계점을 보완하기 위해 더 많은 유형의 듣기 문항을 포함하는 평가지와 다양한 형태의 전략을 측정하는 설문지를 개발하고 이를 바탕으로 후속연구가 이루어진다면 연구의 타당도가 높아질 것으로 기대한다.

본 연구의 결과는 영어 듣기 지도와 관련하여 다음과 같은 교육적 함의를 시사한다. 우선, 학생들에게 듣기 전략을 교수하는 것이 필요해 보이는데 이는 학생들이 듣기 전략을 학습한 경험이 부족하고 제한된 범위의 전략만 활용하는 것으로 나타났기 때문이다. 학생들의 학습 배경 설문 결과, 듣기 전략 학습 경험이 있다고 답한 응답자 비율이 23.5%에 그쳤기 때문에 전략을 학습할 수 있는 기회를 제공하는 것이 필요해 보인다. 뿐만 아니라 학생들의 전략 사용에 대한 설문조사 실시 결과, 학생들이 특정 전략(답이 아니라고 생각되는 선택지를 제거하기, 대화 상황 유추하기 등)에 치우쳐 전략을 사용하는 것을 알 수 있었다.

따라서, 교사들은 영어 수업 시간에 듣기를 지도할 때 학생들이 활용하면 효과적인 전략들을 소개하고 이를 문제 풀이에 적용할 수 있는 기회를 제공해야 할 것이다. 특히, 학생들이 제한된 범위의 전략을 사용하고 있는 문제점을 해결하기 위해 문항 유형별로 효과적인 전략들을 다양한 형태로 소개해야 할 것이다. 이를 위해 교사들은 대화/담화의 종류 및 문항 유형과 전략들을 연계하여 듣기 수업을 설계해야 할 것이다. 또한 학생들의 전략 사용 후에 이를 평가, 성찰할 수 있는 시간을 제공함으로써 학생들이 자신의 전략 사용과 그 효과를 인식할 수 있도록 지원해야 할 것이다. 교재 집필자 또한 교재를 개발할 때 다양한 듣기 전략을 소개하고 구체적인 예시와 함께 이를 실제 연습할 수 있도록 활동을 구안, 제시해야 할 것이다. 이와 같이 교재와 교실 수업에 전략 기반의 교수(strategy-based instruction)를 반영한다면 학생들은 어휘, 문법 등의 언어적 지식, 화제(topic)에 대한 지식과 함께 전략적 지식의 활성화를 통해 능동적인 자세로 듣기의 과정을 즐기며 듣기에 대한 자신감을 가질 수 있을 것으로 기대된다.

참고문헌

김은이. (2014). *한국 중학교 학생들의 영어 듣기 전략 및 듣기 성취도와 과업 선호도*. 석사학위논문. 한양대학교, 서울.

박경례. (2006). *학습자 불안과 전략이 영어 듣기·읽기 능력에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구*. 석사학위논문. 한양대학교, 서울.

박봉현. (2001). *보상전략과 인지전략이 영어 듣기이해 과정에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구*. 석사학위논문. 이화여자대학교, 서울.

박상태. (2010). *듣기 평가 성적과 듣기 전략 및 불안과의 상관관계에 관한*

연구. 석사학위논문. 전북대학교, 전주.

정혜진. (2002). *한국인 영어 학습자의 듣기 학습전략 사용과 듣기 능력향상에 관한 연구*. 박사학위논문. 한양대학교, 서울.

차미현. (2011). *고등학생의 듣기 능숙도에 따른 수준별 영어 듣기 전략 사용 연구*. 석사학위논문. 연세대학교, 서울.

Brown, H. D. (2014). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (6th ed.). White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.

Chao, J. (1997). *The influence of strategy use on comprehension and recall of authentic listening texts by Chinese EFL students in Taiwan*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Minnesota, Twin Cities.

Chung, H. J. (2006). A study of English listening proficiency and listening strategy use. *English Language Teaching, 18*(3), 253-277.

Cohen, A. D. (2000). Strategies-based instruction for learners of a second language. *NASSP Bulletin, 84*(612), 10-18.

Guan, Y. (2014). *The effects of explicit listening strategy instruction on the listening comprehension of English as second language (ESL) community college students*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of San Francisco, San Francisco.

Hsiao, T. Y., & Oxford, R. L. (2002). Comparing theories of language learning strategies: A confirmatory factor analysis. *Modern Language Journal, 86*(3), 318-383.

Imhof, M. (2001) How to listen more efficiently: Self-monitoring strategies in listening. *International Journal of Listening, 15*(1), 2-19

Kang, D. H. (1997). *Assessing Korean middle school students' language learning strategies in input-poor environments*. ERIC Document Reproduction Services No. ED 413778

Kim, D. (1999). Listening comprehension strategies and their relationship with students' performance on the TOEIC listening test. *Korean Journal of Applied Linguistics, 15*(2), 39-64

Kim, Y. (2006). The current state and efficient suggestions to improve on English education of the secondary school. *English Language Education, 33*, 37-65.

Ko, H. (2016). Listening strategies in the CSAT English and the TOEFL: Focusing on test types and listening proficiency. *Journal of the Korea English Education Society, 15*(1), 23-51.

Lee, J. S. (2011). Listening strategy use of Korean EFL middle school students. *English Language & Literature Teaching, 17*(1), 165-190.

Lim, M. K., & Cha, K. A. (2007). A study of listening strategy use by Korean university students. *Korean Journal of English Language and Linguistics, 7*(1), 103-128.

Makarchuk, D. (2017). Variations in learning strategy use among good, average and poor EFL learners. *English Teaching, 72*(1), 25-47.

Moon, J. H. (2005). A study on effective level-based listening strategy of high school students. *Studies in English Education, 10*(2), 135-162.

Murphy, J. M. (1987). The listening strategies of English as a second language college students. *Research & Teaching in Developmental Education, 4*(1), 27-46.

Nam, Y. K. (2015). Korean EFL students' strategy use in gap-filling inference items. *English Teaching, 70*(4), 81-107.

O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Strategies used by second language learners*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., & Kupper, L. (1989). Listening comprehension strategies in second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics, 10*(4), 418-437.

Oxford, R. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. New York: Newbury House.

Oxford, R. (2011). Strategies for learning a second or foreign language. *Language Teaching, 44*(2), 167-180.

Preseley, M. (2000). What comprehension instruction be the instruction of? In M.L. Kamil, P.B. Mosenthal, P.D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research*, Vol. 3 (pp. 545-561). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Vandergrift, L. (1997). The comprehension strategies of second language (French) listeners: A descriptive study. *Foreign Language Annals, 30*(3), 387-409.

Vandergrift, L. (2003). Orchestrating strategy use: Toward a model of the skilled second language listener. *Language Learning, 53*(3), 463-496.

예시언어(Examples in): English

적용가능 언어(Applicable Language): English

적용가능 수준(Applicable Levels): Secondary, Tertiary

원혜주
서울 동대문구 장안벚꽃로 201
동국대학교 사범대학 부속중학교
E-mail: hellojess@hanmail.net

김성연
서울 성동구 왕십리로 222
한양대학교 사범대학 영어교육과
E-mail: sungkim@hanyang.ac.kr

Received in April 14th, 2018
Reviewed in May 26th, 2018
Revised version received in June 5th, 2018

영어어문교육 *제24권* 2호 2018년 여름

STAD 협동 독해수업에 대한 학습효과*

황 선 유
(서원대학교)

Hwang, Seon-Yoo (2018). The effectiveness of STAD cooperative learning in a college English reading class. *English Language & Literature Teaching, 24*(2), 201-225.

The current study aimed to investigate class effectiveness on college students' reading ability and their affective factors when applying a STAD cooperative learning method to an English reading class. The 47 participants taking English reading level 1 took pre- and post- reading tests to compare their reading ability. Of 47 students, 25 who took part in the STAD class completed two different kinds of questionnaire assessing students' perception of STAD and class effectiveness including class participation, class satisfaction, students' interest, and usefulness. The results said the STAD cooperative class was more effective than teacher-led class for improving students' English reading ablity. In details, it made a significant difference in reading scores rather than vocabulary. Also, the more proficient students showed higher levels of class participation, academic interest, and usefulness, while the less proficient were more satisfied with the cooperative learning. The correlation analysis indicated that their satisfaction levels with the cooperative learning were related to usefulness and suitability of the method. According to the follow-up interview, the method brought about a closer relationship among students in a team and they performed their cooperative task successfully in a variety of ways, depending on their learning styles.

[cooperative learning/STAD cooperative learning/peer feedback/affective factors/English reading, 협동학습/STAD 협동학습/동료피드백/정의적 요인/영어독해]

I. 서론

영어독해는 단순히 문자와 문장의 뜻을 파악하고 이해하는 해독과정

* 이 논문은 2016년 대한민국 교육부와 한국연구재단의 지원을 받아 수행된 연구임 (NRF-2016S1A5A8017465)

(decoding)이라기 보기보다는 지문에 제시된 언어와 독자가 가지고 있는 배경지식, 인지발달, 언어능력을 포함한 독자요인 간의 상호작용이라고 본다(Goodman, 1970). 이는 독자가 지문을 읽어나가면서 자신이 이미 알고 있는 선험적지식과 연관 지어 지문에 의미를 부여하고 이후 전개될 내용을 예측해 보고 독자의 예측을 검증하고 확인한 후 의미가 적합하지 않을 경우 수정하는 단계를 계속 반복함으로 이해과정을 완성해 간다는 의미이다. 이 때 실제 관련된 독해과정은 한 과정에서 다른 과정으로 수시로 이동하기도하고 여러 과정들이 동시다발적으로 발생하기도 한다. 그러나 교사주도적인 일방적인 설명과 해석에 의존하는 독해수업에서는 학생들이 독자의 선험적 지식과 같은 독자적 요인을 발휘하여 지문을 이해할 만한 시간이 주어지기 힘들고, 따라서 학습자의 학습동기를 유발하기 어려우며, 결과적으로 독해학습으로 언어능력이 향상된다고 기대하기도 어려운 상황이다. 그러므로 이런 학습 환경에서 학습을 촉진하고 독해능력을 발달시킬 것으로 기대되는 소그룹 협동독해학습에 대한 연구와 논의가 계속되고 있다(이남미, 2013; 이명관, 2012; 표경현, 2015; Bejarano, 1987; Dornyei, 1997; Dornyei, Clement & Noels, 1994; Hahn, 2003; Oxford, 1997; Soh, 2000).

외국어 학습자가 직면한 어려운 점은 오랫동안 꾸준한 언어입력이 이루어지더라도 학습자의 내면적인 언어구조 안에 새로운 언어체계가 자리 잡고 목표언어를 활용할 수 있기까지는 많은 시간이 걸린다는 점이다. 외국어 학습환경에서 학생들의 영어실력이 학습에 투자한 시간과 에너지에 정확하게 비례하지 않는 것이다. 특히, 우리나라의 고등학교 교육은 대학입시에 맞추어진 수능시험위주의 준비과정으로 지문을 읽고 내용을 이해해야 하는 독해수업에서 학생들이 정해진 시간 안에 많은 지문을 이해하고 문제를 해결해야 하는 상황이다 보니, 교사의 일방적인 설명으로 이루어질 수밖에 없어서 지문에 대한 학생들의 자율학습능력이 떨어질 수밖에 없다. 뿐만 아니라 교사주도적인 지문을 읽고 해석해주고 답 맞추기식의 수업은 정해진 시간에 많은 지문을 대할 수 있다는 장점이 있어서 동기수준이 높고 학습의욕이 뛰어난 일부 우수 학생들에게는 효과적일 수 있으나, 다수의 교육대상자인 중하위권 학생들은 그러한 교육에서 철저하게 배제될 수 밖에 없다. 따라서 대학에 입학한 중하위권 학생들은 교사중심의 전통적인 교육방식 즉 일방적으로 지문을 읽고 해석해 주는 독해수업에서 이미 영어 학습동기 수준이 떨어지고 영어공부에 대한 흥미도도 낮은 상태이다. 이렇게 저하된 학습동기와 흥미를 가진 학생들에게 기존 교사중심의 교육방식으로 독해수업을 진행한다는 것은 그들의 영어능력의 향상을 기대하기 어려운 것은 물론이고, 학생 개인과 대학에 엄청난 시간적 그리고 경제적인 손실을 끼칠 수밖에 없다.

따라서 기존의 학습법과는 구별되는, 학습자 중심의 자기 주도적 학습방법, 즉 학습자가 독해과정에 소외되지 않고 적극적으로 참여하여 스스로 독해문제를 해결할 수 있도록 학습자의 참여를 극대화할 수 있는 교수학습법이 필

요하게 되었다. 이에 90년대에 들어오면서 협동학습이 자기효능감이 낮은 학생들에게 학업성취도를 향상시키는데 효과적이라는 연구결과들이 나오게 되었다(윤인숙, 2001, 이명관, 2012; 임채수, 2001; Aronson & Patnoe, 1997; Bajarano, 1987; Garrett, 1998; Potthast, 1999; Ravenscroft, 1997; Rivera, 1996; Shim, 2009).

협동학습이란 학생들이 경쟁적이고 개별적으로 학습하는 것이 아니라 동료들과 학습하는 방법이다. 소그룹 협동학습에는 여러 가지 모형이 있는데 그 중에서 Student Teams Achievement Divisions(STAD) 모형은 각 소그룹에 공동의 과제가 주어질 뿐 아니라 개인적인 과제도 주어져서 학습자들의 적극적이고 능동적인 수업참여를 가능케 한다. 절차도 단순해서 다인수 수업에서 활용가능하며 과제가 어렵더라도 서로의 지식과 정보를 활용하여 그룹에게 주어진 과제를 성공적으로 수행할 수 있게 된다(Ghith & Bouzeineddine, 2003; Johnson & Johnson, 1989; Johnshon, Johnson & Holubec, 1994; Peterson & Miller, 2004). STAD 협동학습은 능력이 각기 다른 학생들이 동일한 학습목표를 이루기 위해 소그룹내에서 활동하는 수업방법이다(Slavin, 1995)으로 이때 '전체는 개인을 위하여(all-for-one), 개인은 전체를 위하여(one-for-all)' 라는 태도를 가지고 성공적인 목표달성을 위하여 서로를 격려하고 도와주며 팀웍을 다지게 된다. 비슷한 학습수준이나 성격을 지닌 동질소그룹뿐 아니라 학습수준이나 성별이나 학습스타일이 다른 학습자를 무작위로 편성하는 이질소그룹이 가능하다는 점에서, 다양한 영어수준과 학습스타일을 가진 다양한 학습자를 가진 실제 교육현장에서 실행가능한 팀구성으로 효율적인 방식이라고 볼 수 있다(김정렬, 권영선, 2004; 이남미, 2013; Cohen, 1994; Good & Marshall, 1984; Johnson & Johnson, 1989). 따라서 본 연구는 대학 영어독해수업에서 STAD 협동학습을 적용했을 경우 그 효과를 분석하기 위한 연구문제는 다음과 같다.

1. STAD 협동 독해수업을 통해 전반적인 독해능력과 어휘능력이 향상되었는 지를 분석한다.
2. STAD 협동 독해수업을 통해 협동학습에 대한 어려운점, 장단점에 대한 학습자의 인식은 어떠한지 분석한다.
3. STAD 협동 독해수업을 통해 영어수준에 따라 협동학습에 대한 정의적 영역(참여도, 흥미도, 만족도)과 효율성과 적합성에서 차이가 나타나는 지를 살펴본다.
4. STAD 협동 독해수업에 대한 인터뷰를 통하여 STAD 의 효과와 장단점을 분석한다.

Ⅱ. 이론적 배경

1. 협동학습

협동학습은 공동의 학습목표를 가지고 구성원들인 학습자가 서로 도움을 주고 받는 상호의존을 바탕으로 학습과제를 성공적으로 수행하고 그에 대한 결과를 함께 나누게 됨으로 추가적인 상호의존관계가 형성되도록 설계한 교수학습방법이다. 이와 같이 협동학습은 그룹내에서 상호작용을 통해서 자신의 학습에 대해 책임을 지는 것은 물론이고 같은 팀에 속한 다른 구성원들의 학습도 증진시킬 수 있는 동기를 제공함으로 학습을 극대화시킬 수 있는 교수학습방법으로 여겨진다(Cohen, 1994; Olsen & Kagan, 1992).

협동학습의 대표적인 기본원리는 네 가지로 볼 수 있다. 첫째는 긍정적인 상호작용(positive interdependence)으로 한 학생의 성취가 다른 학생의 성취와 밀접한 관계가 있다는 원리이고, 둘째로는 학생들간의 학습과제를 분배하여 점검하고 책임지는 개인적인 책임(individual accountability)이 부과되며, 과제수행을 위한 균등한 참여(equal participation), 그리고 참여의 기회를 증가시킬 수 있는 동시다발적인 상호작용(simultaneous interaction) 원리를 고려하여 한 순간에 많은 학생들이 능동적으로 참여하도록 협동학습을 구성해야 한다.

2. STAD (Student Teams-Achievement Divisions)

협동학습의 유형은 집단 간 경쟁을 택하느냐 집단 간 협동을 택하느냐에 따라 학생팀학생(Student Team Learning: STL) 과 협동적 프로젝트(Cooperative Project: CP)로 분류한다. STAD는 STL 유형 중 하나로 협동학습 가운데 가장 오래되었고 간단해서 가장 널리 사용되고 있는 방법 중 하나이다. STAD는 STL 유형이 가지는 공통적인 집단보상, 개별적 책무성, 균등한 성공기회의 세 가지 중요한 개념이 포함되어 있다(Slavin, 1983).

집단보상은 개인의 목표가 각 집단의 공동목표를 달성함으로 보상을 받기 때문에 집단의 목표달성을 위해 동료를 도와주고 도움을 받으려는 활발한 긍정적인 상호작용이 발생한다는 특징이 있다. 개별적인 책무성이란 협동학습에서 집단구성원 개개인은 다른 구성원에 대해 개인적인 의무와 책임을 가지고 있다는 말이다. 이를 위해 개인이 얻은 점수를 집단점수에 반영하는 방식과 집단이 수행해야할 학습과제를 분리해서 사용한다. 소그룹에게 주어지는 팀별 과제뿐 아니라 개인과제도 주어기지 때문에 모든 구성원들이 적극적이고 능동적인 자세로 학습에 임하게 되는 긍정적인 효과가 있다. 마지막으로 균등한 성공기회란 집단 구성원 개개인의 기본적인 능력에 관계없이 구성원 누구나 집단의 성취에 기여할 수 있는 기회가 주어지도록 하는 방식으로 구성된다.

이는 기존 소그룹 팀과제활동에서는 영어수준이 높은 학습자는 과제를 주도적으로 독점하고 자신들의 우수한 결과를 우수하지 못한 학습자가 무임승차한다는 생각을 하게 되는 반면에, 수준이 낮은 학생들은 과제활동에서 자신들의 부적한 능력으로 주눅이 들어 있거나 창피함을 느껴 팀활동에 소극적이고 배제되는 경우가 많다(이현아, 2002; 정희원, 2002)는 점을 고려해 볼 때, 팀내 개별적인 책무를 부여해서 잡단목표달성을 위한 개개인의 역할을 주고 구성원에게 균등한 성공기회를 제공하는 것은 학습에 중요한 의미를 가질 수 있고 효율적인 학습방식이라고 볼 수 있다.

3. 협동학습에 관한 선행연구

협동학습의 학습효과로 먼저 학업성취도와 관련된 연구들이 있다. 대학생을 대상으로 영어독해 수업을 협동학습으로 진행한 연구에서 협동학습의 영어성취도가 더 많이 향상되어 영어능력 향상에 효과가 있는 것으로 밝혀졌다(강현숙, 2006; 이남미, 2013, 이명관, 2012, 정지원, 김지영, 정동빈, 2010; Shim, 2009). Pica와 Doughty(1985)는 학습자들이 교사지도형 수업에서 보다 협동수업에서 언어를 연습할 수 있는 기회가 더 많이 주어지기 때문에 언어능력이 향상된다고 보았다. Slavin(1995)은 이러한 긍정적인 학습효과는 협동학습을 통해 동료에게 알려주고 가르치고 시범을 보이기도 하고 동료와 훈련하고 성취를 평가해 주고 수정하는 활동을 하기 때문이라고 한다. 또한 공동의 목표를 위한 적극적인 상호작용, 개별적인 책무성, 대면적 상호작용으로 인한 학습효과인 것으로 보기도 한다(강홍숙, 강만철, 2006). 이는 관계의 견고성과 그룹의 수행에 긍정적인 관계 (Evans & Dion, 1991; Johnson & Johnson, 1989)가 있어서 팀원간의 친밀한 관계가 이루어짐으로 과제수행에 긍정적인 영향을 미치게 됨으로 친밀한 관계형성이 협동학습에서 필수적이다(Hahn, 2003). 협동학습은 동기유발적이며 실제 의사소통상황과 관련이 있으며 언어 발달 상 적절하고 풍부한 피드백을 제공하는 환경을 제공한다고 볼 수 있다(Kagan, 1985).

인지적인 영역뿐 아니라 정의적영역인 만족도, 흥미도, 학습태도에도 긍정적인 영향을 미치는 것으로 연구되었다. 이남미, 강용구, 송해성(2012) 연구에서는 과업중심의 협동학습을 통해 학습능력이 향상되었을 뿐 아니라 적극적인 수업참여와 문제해결능력을 보여주고 서로 협력하고 격려하는 긍정적인 학습분의기를 가져다 주었다는 점을 언급했다. STAD 소집단 협동학습을 활용한 집단의 학습자의 학습태도가 긍정적으로 나타났고 영어학습에 대한 자신감, 흥미도, 참여도에도 효과적이었다(이남미, 2013, 이영경, 2018). 이명관(2012) 연구에서는 학습자의 학습스타일별로 수업만족도를 분석한 결과 협동형과 참여형 학습자가 협동수업에 가장 만족하게 과제수행을 해나가고 있는 것으로 밝혀졌다.

Ⅲ. 연구 방법

1. 연구내용

1) 연구대상

본 연구를 위해 충청도 지역 4년제 대학에서 교양과목으로 초급 영어독해를 수강하는 학생을 대상으로 선정하였다. 대상 강좌는 교양선택 과목으로, 학년과 전공에 상관없이 수강할 수 있는 과목이라 실험반과 통제반 모두 인문계, 사범계열, 공학계열, 이과계열을 포함하여 다양한 전공을 가진 학생들로 구성되어 있었다. 해당강좌는 2학점으로 2시간을 연속으로 강의가 진행되었고 수강대상자는 영어에 대한 기초적인 문법지식과 어휘지식이 부족한 학생들이다. 강의목표는 대학생들이 관심있어 하는 여러 가지 주제를 다양한 문맥 안에서 이해할 수 있는 기회를 가짐으로 기본적인 문장, 문단부터 시작해서 지문의 전체적인 내용을 이해하고 요지를 파악하도록 수업을 운영하고 있다.

학생들의 수강신청으로 구성된 2개의 분반을 그대로 연구대상으로 하여서, 연구초반 대상인원은 각각 30명이었으나 불규칙한 출석으로 연구에 참여가 저조한 학생들과 자료 수집과정에 꾸준히 참여하지 못한 학생을 대상에서 제외하여 최종적으로 실험반 학생 22명과 통제반 학생은 25명으로 연구를 마무리하였다. 연구에서 계획한대로 실험반은 STAD 협동학습을 통해 독해수업을 실시한 반면, 통제반은 교수자 중심의 강의위주의 교수학습형의 수업을 실시하여 STAD 협동학습의 효과를 비교분석하고자 하였다.

2) 수업절차

(1) 독해 전 활동

독해 전 활동은 지문에 관한 배경지식을 알도록 하거나 이미 알고 있던 배경지식을 학생들이 머릿속으로 정리해보고 다른 사람들의 의견을 들어보고 자신의 생각을 정리하는 시간을 갖게 되는 것이다. 이는 내용에 대한 선험지식(content schemata)을 위한 것으로 지문의 내용에 관한 문화적 지식이나 그 분야의 개인적인 경험 등을 포함한다. 일반적인 독해 수업과 마찬가지로 전체 학생을 대상으로 본문의 주제에 관련된 아이디어를 자유롭게 떠올려 보기 위한 시간으로 개인적인 생각을 나눔으로 시작하였다. 교수자가 전체학생을 대상으로 자유롭게 논의하는 시간으로 통제반과 별반 다르지 않을 것으로 보인다. 이러한 활동은 다음에 나오게 될 본문의 내용을 짐작하고 예견해 보는 시간을 가지는 것이다.

(2) 독해 중 활동

독해 중 활동에서 STAD 소그룹 협동학습을 구성하였는데 협동독해학습의 중요한 그룹과제는 어휘과제와 본문독해과제이다. 매주 주어진 지문에 대한 두가지 과제를 위해 4인을 한 조로 편성하여 STAD 협동학습을 진행했다. 초반에는 타과 학생과는 서먹한 상태라서 같은 전공의 학생들을 같은 조에 편성하였고 2-3회를 지나면서는 무작위 조편성프로그램을 활용하여 조편성을 하였고 수업에 들어오기 전에 학생들에게 공지가 나가서 처음부터 팀별로 자리를 앉아 전체수업과 협동수업을 진행했다.

어휘과제는 지문에 나오게 될 단어 중 8-10개의 단어를 중심어휘로 선정하여 학습하도록 구성되어 있기 때문에, 교재에 제시된 어휘설명과 문제를 팀별과제로 해결하게 하였다. 우선 각 조에서 조원들끼리 목표단어에 대한 영어설명이나 문장안에서 사용된 문맥을 이해하면서 단어의 의미를 유추해보고 이해하는 과제이다. 이때 연구대상자가 초급수준의 학습자라서 생소한 단어를 보게되면 한영사전에 의존해서 단어의 정확한 의미를 이해하고 싶어했지만, 사전에 의존하지 않고 문맥 안에서 혹은 단어에 대한 영어설명에만 의존하여 단어의 의미를 최대한 파악하도록 팀원들끼리 논의하도록 격려하였다. 그리고 어휘문제는 단어가 들어갈 주어진 문장의 의미를 해석해 보고 이전에 학습한 단어 가운데 적절한 단어를 삽입하는 과제이다. 이 경우 빈칸에 해당되는 단어를 삽입하면서 주어진 문장에서 어떤 단어나 문맥이 clue로 작용해서 목표단어를 유추했는지도 조원들끼리 이야기 하도록 했다. STAD 협동학습은 팀별과제뿐 아니라 개별과제를 포함하고 있는 특징이 있어서 어휘과제를 팀별과제로 해결하고 난 후 한 주 후에 온라인상에서 각자 어휘시험을 보는 개별과제를 하고 개별어휘점수를 합산하여 인원수로 나눈 그룹어휘점수를 팀별과제점수에 반영하여 과제점수로 환산한다는 점을 학생들에게 공지하였다.

독해과제는 독해 중 활동에서 지문을 읽고 이해하는 과제이다. 협동학습에 익숙하지 않은 학습자를 위해서 독해 중 활동에서 조원 한사람이 담당할 역할을 세분화해서 제시해 주었다. 우선 독해과제를 해결하기 위해 필요한 역할은

① 문장을 구성하는 생소한 단어의 의미를 찾는 역할(단어검색자),
② 문장이 의미단위로 어떻게 구성되어 있는지 파악하는 역할(문장쪼갬이),
③ 세분화된 구문을 한국말로 의미를 정리하는 역할(의미정리자),
④ 팀별 과제를 이클라스에 올리고 발표하는 역할이다(기록자)

4인으로 구성된 조에서 각각 누가 어떤 역할을 할 것인지를 조원이 합의하여 정하고 맡은 역할을 담당하도록 하였다. 수업시에 실제로 관찰해 본 결과 학생들은 협의 하에 정하기도 하고 가위바위보 방식으로 정하기도 했다. 역할을 정할 시 매주 반복되는 역할을 맡는 일이 없도록 하고 새로운 역할이나

도전적인 역할을 맡도록 격려했다. 특히, 영어에 자신이 없는 학생들이 단어만 찾는 지루하고 기계적인 역할만 해서 독해실력에는 도움이 되지 못하는 사례가 없도록 지도하였다. 이는 일반적으로 영어수준이 낮은 학생들은 자신의 영어수준이 드러날까봐 혹은 자신이 독해과제에서 중요한 역할을 하게 되면 다른 조원들이 기다리고 답답해 하기 때문에 피해를 준다고 생각해서 가장 간단하고 쉬운 단어검색자 역할을 반복하는 경우가 있는데, 이러한 단어검색자 역할만을 계속 한다면 영어독해 실력이 향상된다고 기대하기 어려울 것으로 보았기 때문이다. 오히려 영어를 잘하는 학생들이 단어를 찾고 영어수준이 낮은 학생들이 문장의 구성을 살펴보고 구문이 어떻게 구성되었는지를 살피거나 한국말로 의미를 만들어 보고 무슨 뜻인지를 고민하는 역할에 참여하도록 하였다.

(3) 독해 후 활동

본문을 정확하게 이해했는지를 점검하거나 지문의 내용이해를 기초로 확장되는 과제를 수행하는 단계로 이 단계에서도 협동학습을 수행하였다. 교재에 제시된 다지 선다형 문제, 주관식 문제를 해결하게 하거나, 해당지문을 요약정리하거나, 도표로 그리거나, 그림으로 나타내어서 제대로 지문을 이해했는지를 파악하는 과제를 수행하는 이해중심의 과제가 이에 포함된다. 또한 문장을 연결하는 연결 부사를 찾거나 목표 문법에 주의를 기울이도록 하는 등 지문에 따라 다양한 문법과제를 제공하여 팀별로 해결하였다.

3) 연구도구

(1) 교재

연구를 위한 강좌의 독해교재로는 여러 대학에서 교재로 채택하고 있는 Oxford 출판사의 Q: Skills for Success Reading and Writing 2 를 사용하였다. 성인학습자를 대상으로 하고 있는 본 교재는 대학생들이 흥미롭게 생각하는 주제인 Marketing, Psychology, Social Psychology, Sociology, Business, Information Technology, Environmental Studies, 그리고 Public Health를 단원의 주제로 다루고 있다. 원래는 독해와 쓰기를 통합적으로 교육하도록 구성된 교재이기는 하지만, 대상 강좌는 영어 초급학습자들이 주당 2시간 안에 독해와 쓰기를 모두 학습하기에는 무리가 있다고 판단되어 독해수업만을 진행하는 교재로 사용하였고, 출판사에서 제공하는 온라인 자료 중 어휘나 문법사항을 활용하여 독해지문을 이해하는 데 도움을 받을 수 있는 보조 자료로 활용하였다.

(2) 영어독해시험지

본 연구의 대상자들의 영어독해능력을 측정하는 검사지로 타 출판사 교재

가운데 지문의 의미를 이해 점검하는 문제 가운데 문항을 선정하였다. 중간고사나 기말시험을 독해능력 성취도에 사용할 수 있으나 연구자의 주관적인 교수방법을 반영한 문제출제가 가능하고 또한 실험집단만의 협동독해 수업에 유리한 결과가 도출될 수 있기 때문에 평가의 객관성을 유지하기 위해 학습자의 수준에 맞는 난이도의 지문을 선정하여 독해문제를 구성하였다. 사전독해검사지로 간단한 4개의 독립된 지문을 읽고 답하는 방식으로 16개의 문항을 준비하였다. 사후 독해시험도 지문을 읽고 중심내용과 구체적인 정보를 파악하는 독해문제 8 문항과 어휘를 파악하는 8개의 문항을 포함하는 16문항으로 구성된 검사지이다. 사전사후 독해 검사지의 신뢰도는 각각 Cronbach's Alpha 0.80, 0.86로 객관적인 평가에 사용하기에 적절한 것으로 판단하여 사전사후검사지로 활용하였다.

(3) STAD협동학습에 관한 학습자의 인식검사지

협동독해학습에 대한 학습자의 인식을 조사하기 위해서 설문지를 사용하였다. 설문문항은 정지원, 김지영 과 정동빈(2010)에서 사용한 협동활동 설문지 문항을 참고로 해서 몇 개의 문항을 삽입하고 나머지는 연구자가 개발한 것으로 학생들에게 개방식 질문을 한 후에 학생들의 응답 문항을 정리 한 것으로 구성하였다. 협동독해학습의 만족감(4문항)과 어려움(3문항), 장단점(각 4문항)을 포함하여 15문항으로 구성되어 있다.

(4) 수업효율성

협동수업에 관한 수업효율성을 조사하기 위해 5단계의 Likert scale을 사용한 설문지를 사용하였다. 수업효율성은 수업에 대한 참여도, 흥미도, 수업만족도, 적합성, 그리고 유용성을 포함하는 항목으로 구성되어 있다. 기존 설문에 영어독해수업에 적합한 항목을 삽입하여 수정 변형하여 사용하였다. 영어 독해의 각 영역 즉 문법, 어휘, 독해 부분으로 나누어 흥미도, 만족도, 유용성을 세분화했고, STAD 협동학습으로 동료간의 상호작용과 협동이 활발하게 진행될 것으로 예상하기 때문에 학생들 간의 피드백과 도움에 대한 설문을 포함하였다.

(5) 학습스타일 검사지

본 연구에서 STAD 협동학습에 참여한 학생들의 학습스타일을 측정하기 위해 사용한 도구는 Reichmann과 Grasha(1974)의 학습스타일 검사이다. 이 검사는 학습스타일을 3차원, 6개의 학습스타일인 독립적-의존적, 협동적-경쟁적, 참여적-회피적 학습스타일로 분류한다. 이 검사는 독립적 학습스타일은 6문항, 의존적 학습스타일 5문항, 협동적 학습스타일 9문항, 경쟁적 학습스타일 7문항, 참여적 학습스타일 10문항, 회피적 학습스타일 9문항으로 구성되어 있다. 각 문항은 5단계의 Likert scale로 이루어져 있으며 높은 점수를

받을수록 해당 학습스타일 경향을 나타내는 것으로 볼 수 있다. 학습스타일 검사는 수업상황에서 학습자가 어떻게 배우고 적용하는지를 설명해주고 가장 잘 학습할 수 있는 조건을 제시해 준다.

(6) 인터뷰질문

질적자료를 위해 중간고사 점수를 기준으로 영어수준을 상, 중, 하로 나누어 학습자 각각 2명씩 무작위로 선정하여 각 학습자별로 약 30분씩 3시간 정도의 대면 인터뷰를 실시하였다. 협동독해수업에 관해 미리 준비한 질문은 다음과 같다.

① STAD 협동학습의 경험이 있는지?
② STAD 협동학습의 그룹편성방식은 만족했는가?
③ STAD 협동학습의 역할 중 가장 선호했던 역할은 어떤 것인가?
④ STAD 협동학습의 역할 중 가장 쉽다고 생각하는 역할은 어떤 것인가?
⑤ 협동수업에서 조장의 역할가운데 가장 중요하다고 보는 것은 어떤 것인가?
⑥ 그룹 안에 의사소통이 되지 않을 경우 어떻게 해결했는가?
⑦ 영어독해수업으로 STAD 협동학습이 적합하다고 보는가?
⑧ STAD 협동학습이 본인의 영어성적에 도움이 되었다고 생각하는가?

우선 주어진 8개의 질문에 대한 의견을 들어보고 협동학습에 관한 전반적인 장단점에 대한 학생들의 자유로운 의견을 들어보았다. 인터뷰조사는 해당 강좌에 대한 구체적인 활동뿐 아니라 전반적인 영어독해학습에 관한 의견을 들어봄으로 설문조사에서 밝혀지지 않은 부분들을 살펴보고 설문조사의 분석결과를 좀 더 심층적으로 이해할 수 있는 자료로 활용하기 위한 것이다.

4) 연구절차 및 자료분석

본 연구는 2016년 8월 30일부터 12월 13일까지 15주 동안 이루어졌으나, 첫수업은 강의전반에 관한 개괄적인 설명과 교재를 소개한 시간이었고 중간 기말시험을 치룬 2주를 제외하면 실질적으로 STAD 협동독해학습으로 수업을 진행한 기간은 12주이다. 2주차에는 독해능력을 측정하기 위한 사전시험이 이루어졌고 이후 곧바로 STAD 협동독해학습이 시작되어 진행되었다. 5주차에 학습스타일에 관한 설문지조사를 실시하여서 각 학습자의 학습스타일을 분석하기 위한 자료를 수집하였다. 10주차에는 협동독해학습의 수업 효율성과 협동학습에 대한 학습자인식을 조사하기 위한 설문지가 배포되었고 수업 후 작성해서 제출토록 했다. 14주차에 사후 독해능력 향상도를 측정하기 위해 수업교재나 진도에 상관없는 사후독해 시험을 시행하였다.

12주간의 연구를 마친 후 실험집단과 통제집단의 그룹 간 유의미한 차이를 검증하기 위해 독해시험점수를 t-test를 통해 비교 분석하였다. 협동독해수업에 대한 인식정도, 수업효율성을 영어수준에 따라 비교 분석하기 위해 t-test를 사용하였고 수업효율성에 포함된 참여도, 흥미도, 만족도, 유용성, 적합성 변수들 간 상관관계 분석을 통해 관계를 분석하였다. 질적 분석으로는 각 영어수준별로 상, 중, 하 각 2명의 학생을 선정하여 심층인터뷰함으로 STAD 협동학습의 효과와 장단점을 구체적으로 들어보고 항목별로 정리하여 분석하였다.

Ⅳ. 연구 결과 및 논의

1. 영어독해능력

실험연구 전 각 반의 영어능력을 측정하기 위해 사전시험을 실시하였는데 실험반은 평균 12.86 점 통제반은 14.12점으로 통제반의 점수가 약간 높은 편으로 나타났으나 이러한 점수 차이가 통계적으로 유의미하지 않기 때문에 두 그룹은 동질한 그룹으로 실험연구를 진행할 수 있었다.

표 1
사전영어독해능력

		평균	표준편차	유의도
사전영어점수 (16점 만점)	실험반	12.86	2.64	.161
	통제반	14.12	3.31	

12주의 STAD 협동독해수업을 마치고 학생들의 영어능력을 측정하기 위해 사후 검사를 실시하고 결과를 분석하였다. 분석결과 총점은 실험반 12.16 통제반 9.63으로 실험반이 통제반보다 높은 점수를 받았고 이 점수 차이는 통계적으로 유의미한 차이로 실험반의 협동독해수업이 영어 지문독해능력을 향상시키는 데 효과적이었다고 볼 수 있다.

사후 영어시험은 어휘를 파악하는 부분과 지문을 읽고 지문의 중심 내용를 파악하는 문제와 상세한 정보를 파악하는 문제를 포함하고 있어서, 세분화해서 어휘점수와 독해점수로 분류해서 분석하였다. 분석결과 단어시험은 협동수업반이 7.16이고 통제반이 6.61로 STAD 협동수업반이 우세하기는 하나 통계적으로 유의미한 차이는 나타나지 않았다. 따라서 어휘능력에서는 두 그룹 간 차이가 없는 것으로 분석하였다. 그러나 지문을 이해하는 독해능력에서는 실험반이 5.00 이며 통제반은 3.05로 현격한 차이가 있으며 이는 두 그룹 간 유의미한 차이가 있는 것으로 어휘보다는 지문을 이해하는 지문이해능력에

있어서는 STAD 협동독해수업방식이 효과적이었다고 볼 수 있다. 이는 중 협동학습을 통해 자기 팀안에서 팀원끼리 의미를 이해하려는 노력을 기울였고 팀원간의 의미를 조정하고 의미를 협의하는 과정을 거침으로 서로간에 학습하는 기회를 가졌던 것으로 Slavin(1995)의 설명을 지지해 주는 결과이다.

표 2
사후영어독해능력

사후영어능력		평균	표준편차	유의도
총점(16점)	실험반	12.16	3.44	.001**
	통제반	9.63	3.26	
단어점수(8점)	실험반	7.16	1.94	.266
	통제반	6.61	2.37	
독해점수(8점)	실험반	5.00	1.90	.000**
	통제반	3.05	1.75	

*p<.05, **p<.01

2. 협동독해학습에 관한 학습자 인식

STAD 협동독해수업을 수강한 학생들을 대상으로 학습자인식 설문조사한 것에 의하면, 협동독해학습에서 가장 만족스럽다고 느낄 때는 독해내용에 대해 팀원과 의사소통이 잘 될 때가 가장 만족스럽게 생각하는 것으로 나타났다. 이는 STAD 협동학습의 특성상 협동과제가 주어지고 팀목표가 생기다 보니 목표를 성취하기 위해 구성원들의 협의를 위한 의사소통이 중요한 요인이 되기 때문인 것으로 보인다. 일반적으로 독해과제를 개별적으로 수행하는 경우에는 지문에서 나오는 단어, 난이도, 지문에 대한 흥미도가 중요한 변수이나, 팀별과제일 경우는 단어수준, 지문난이도, 흥미도보다 조원간의 의사소통이 만족스럽게 이루어졌을 경우 과제를 성공적으로 수행했다고 인식했고 만족도도 높게 나타났다.

표 3
STAD 협동독해학습에 관한 학습자인식

설문문항			평균	표준편차
만족스러운 점	1	지문에서 아는 단어가 많을 때	2.41	.80
	2	독해내용에 대해 조원과 의사소통이 잘 될 때	3.30	1.18
	3	독해내용이 재미있을 때	2.18	.91

	4	쉬운 독해지문을 대할 때	2.10	1.19
어려운 점	1	모르는 단어가 나왔을 때	2.59	.96
	2	문법을 이해하지 못할 때	2.86	.77
	3	문장구조를 파악하지 못할 때	3.30	.74
장점	1	모르는 것을 서로 알려줄 수 있다.	3.35	.94
	2	정보를 교환하는 것이 좋았다.	2.68	.99
	3	독해에 대한 두려움이 감소되었다.	1.91	.81
	4	혼자하는 것보다 재미있었다.	2.10	1.19
단점	1	무임승차	3.27	1.08
	2	시간이 부족할 때	2.43	1.12
	3	의견이 충돌할 때	1.86	.94
	4	정보교환의 한계가 있을 때	2.50	1.10

반면에 가장 어려웠던 점은 지문에서 문장의 구조가 어떻게 되어있는지를 파악하는 것이 가장 어려운 과제였다. 영어지문의 의미를 이해하는 독해과정을 보면, 단어는 사전을 찾아서 쉽게 해결할 수 있었을 것이고 문법의 경우는 초급수준의 독해교재라서 의미이해를 좌우하는 특정문법사항이 많이 나오는 것이 아니라 수월하게 해결할 수 있는 반면에, 문장을 의미단위로 나누는 과정에서 어려움을 느꼈던 것으로 보인다. 일반적으로 언어사용자가 입력된 영어를 의미단위별로 나누어서 이해하고 기억하는데(Nation, 2001) 이런 과정에서 어려움이 있었다면 조원간에 많은 정보들이 공유하였을 것이고 그러는 가운데 의미단위를 나누는 연습이 되었던 것으로 보인다.

협동독해수업에서 좋았던 점은 모르는 것을 자유롭게 팀원들 서로 서로에게 물어볼 수 있다는 점인데, 이러한 의사소통 연대성을 통해 팀원들이 서로에게 혹은 팀원간의 연결된는 관계의 견고성을 의미하는 그룹친화도(cohesion)가 실현될 수 있으며 집단의 만족도나 집단성과에도 긍정적인 영향을 미치는 것으로 알려져 있다(이종법, 양재생, 2005; Evans & Dion, 1991; Johsnon & Johnson, 1989; Oetzel, 2001). 다시말하면, 교수학습의 맥락에서 본다면 집단성취는 학생들의 학업성취를 의미하기 때문에 그룹친화도가 학업성취에 영향을 미칠 수 있다는 말이다. 또한 그룹 친화력은 학습의 불안감을 낮추고 구성원들의 학습동기를 촉진시킬 수 있는 중요한 요소로 작용했을 수 있다. 이는 Jonhson, Johnson과 Smith(1998)가 언급한 협동학습의 장점 중 긍정적인 대인관계와 심리적인 건강과도 관련이 있다. 협동학습이 학업성취도를 높일 뿐 아니라 수업에서 친사회적인 기술을 형성하게 하다는 대인관계의 중요한 효과(Slavin, 1995)를 말한 것과도 부합되는 결과가 나왔다.

한편 단점으로는 조원가운데 무임승차(free-rider)하는 조원이 있다고 응답했는데, 이는 대부분의 협동수업에서 예상할 수 있는 문제점(Johnson &

Johnson, 1994; McWhaw, Schnackenberg, Sclater, & Abrami, 2003)이라 연구 초반에 동료평가표를 활용하였다. 팀별로 동료평가표를 사용했으나 학생들이 대분분 조원 모두에게 균등한 기여 점수를 주는 현상이 나타나서 의도했던 대로 의미있는 자료가 되지 못할 것으로 판단하고 연구분석에 활용하지 않기로 결정했다. 동료평가표를 객관성있고 타당한 자료가 되지 못한 원인은 참여점수가 학점에 영향을 미친다는 점을 사전에 학생들에게 공지했기 때문에 학생들이 서로 간에 눈치를 보면서 동료평가를 어려워했고 실제적인 평가결과가 팀별활동에 대한 참여나 기여한 정도를 정확하게 반영하지 못한 것으로 보인다. 또 다른 요인으로는 수업이 진행되면서 친밀해지고 가까워지게 되니 제대로 참여하지 않은 학생이 있더라도 객관적으로 마이너스 점수를 주기가 어려웠던 것으로 짐작된다.

한편 협동독해학습에 관한 학습자 인식설문지를 영어수준별로 나누어 분석한 결과, 대부분의 항목에서 집단 간 차이가 없으나 집단 간 유의미한 차이를 보인 점은 '정보를 교환하는 것이 좋았다'라는 항목에 대해 하위집단이 긍정적으로 높게 평가했다. 다시 말하면 언어적 지식이나 정보가 부족한 학생들이 이를 위해 능동적으로 활동했음을 보여주고 있다. 소그룹활동에서 집단 내 친화감이 생겨남으로 영어가 능숙하지 못한 학생들이 가지는 학습불안이 해소되고 학습동기가 형성되면서 자신의 학습에 적극적으로 질문하고 참여하고 활발하게 의사소통 한 것으로 협동독해수업의 효과라고 볼 수 있다.

3. 수업효율성에 관한 분석

협동학습의 수업효율성은 참여도, 흥미도, 수업만족도와 유용성의 4가지 영역을 포함한다.

1) 협동수업 참여도

수업참여도는 수업에 대한 긍정적인 태도로 수업에 대한 열의, 헌신, 몰두를 함축한 의미로 수업에 대해 노력과 시간을 투입하는 정도라고 할 수 있다(류춘호, 이정호, 2006; 조한익, 이현아, 2010). 수업참여도를 분석해 보면 STAD 협동독해수업이 전반적으로 평균이상의 높은 참여를 이끌어 낸 것으로 보이고 전반적으로 중위집단의 참여도(m=4.13, m=4.22)가 높은 수준이다. 학업적 자기효능감(academic self-efficay)이란 어떠한 결과를 얻기 위해 필요한 행동을 조직하고 수행할 수 있는 개인의 능력에 대한 자신감과 믿음을 의미하는데(Bandura, 1977), 일반적으로 영어수준이 높은 집단이 자기효능감이 높은 편이다. 참여도는 영어능숙도 향상에 유의미한 상관관계를 보이고 있고 자율학습능력에도 긍정적인 영향(노복동, 2013; Long, 1991)을 미치고 있어서 꾸준한 학습이 필요한 영어학습에서 학습을 계속 유지할 수 있는 중요한

결과로 높은 참여도는 학습에 대한 긍정적인 신호로 해석할 수 있다.

중위집단(m=4.13)이 전체 수업에 적극적으로 참여한 것으로 응답하고 있으나, 독해 과제수행에 있어서는 집단간 유의미한 차이가 없으나 하위집단(m=3.58)도 조금 높은 수준의 참여도를 보이고 있다. 이러한 결과는 과제수행에서는 서로 다른 영어능력을 가진 학습자들이 활발하게 상호작용했음을 보여주고 이와 같이 협동과제에 참여하려는 욕구가 협동학습의 성공을 이끄는 변인이라고 볼 수 있다(Cushing & Kerrins, 1991). 개별학습자는 동료 학습자로부터 질문과 피드백을 받음으로 학습에 도움을 받고 있다는 연구결과(Long & Porter, 1985)로 비추어 볼 때, 중의집단 학생들이 수업시간에 적극적으로 참여한 점이나 하위집단 학생들이 수업 중 동료에게 질문한 것으로 보아 동료 학습자로부터 피드백을 받아 학습에 도움을 받은 것으로 평가할 수 있다.

표 4
수업참여도

설문항목	수준	평균	표준편차	유의도
나는 수업시간에 적극적으로 참여하였다.	중	4.13	1.01	.022*
	하	3.25	1.06	
나는 수업시간의 협동과제활동에 적극적으로 참여하였다	중	4.22	.95	.083
	하	3.58	1.08	
나는 수업시간에 모르는 내용이나 궁금한 점에 대해 질문하였다.	중	3.74	1.21	.256
	하	3.25	1.14	
협동과제활동 중 모르는 내용은 언제든 친구들에게 물어볼 수 있었다.	중	3.39	1.07	.497
	하	3.18	1.56	

*p<.05, **p<.01

2) 협동수업에 대한 흥미도와 만족도

연구결과를 보면 전반적으로 만족도보다는 흥미도가 높은 편으로 나타났고 이를 수준별로 나누어 분석해 보면, 중위집단은 독해(m=3.74), 전반적인 영어(m=3.70), 문법(m=3.57) 순으로 나타냈고 하위집단과는 통계적으로 유의미한 차이를 보여주고 있다. 어휘에서는 흥미도 수준이 두 집단간 차이를 나타내지 않았고 다른 영어능력에 비해 높은 편이 아닌데 이는 문맥안에서 실마리를 발견하고 어휘과제를 해결하고 학습하는 방식이 기존의 단순암기방식보다 학습자에게 새롭게 다가가고 효과가 있을 것으로 예상했으나 그렇지 못했다. 이후 인터뷰에서 드러나 바에 의하면 학습자가 문맥중심의 어휘학습방법

이 익숙하지 않아서 적응하기 힘들었다고 응답한 것으로 미루어 보아 새로운 어휘학습방법에 적응하는데 어려움이 있던 것으로 보인다. 특이한 점을 들자면, 과제수행에서는 하위집단이 더 높은 수준의 흥미를(m=3.42) 보이고 있는 것으로 자신들의 부족한 영어실력에도 불구하고 협동과제를 흥미롭게 수행했고 참여했던 것으로 분석할 수 있다.

표 5
흥미도와 만족도

설문항목	수준	평균	표준편차	유의도
이번 영어수업을 통해 영어에 대한 흥미가 생겼다.	중	3.70	.93	.011*
	하	2.83	.83	
이번 영어수업을 통해 문법공부하는 것이 재미있었다.	중	3.57	.84	.011*
	하	2.75	.87	
이번 영어수업을 통해 어휘공부하는 것이 재미있었다.	중	3.35	.98	.307
	하	3.00	.85	
이번 영어수업을 통해 독해를 하는 것이 재미있었다.	중	3.74	.96	.022*
	하	3.00	.60	
이번 영어수업을 통해 과제수행이 재미있었다.	중	3.30	1.11	.757
	하	3.42	.79	
나는 협동학습 과제방식에 대해 만족스럽게 생각한다.	중	3.00	1.20	.623
	하	3.22	1.28	
나는 앞으로도 협동학습 방식으로 영어공부를 하고 싶다.	중	3.04	1.19	.638
	하	3.25	1.29	
다른 학생들에게 협동학습 방식을 권하고 싶다.	중	3.00	1.13	.257
	하	3.50	1.38	

*p<.05, **p<.01

수업만족도란 학생들이 인식하고 있는 배움에 대한 충족의 정도를 의미하며 학습자에게 필요하다고 여겨지는 학습내용이 제공되고 있는 정도를 말한다(김승현, 정옥분, 1997). 흥미도와 달리 만족도에 있어서는, 하위집단이 높은 점수를 보이고 있다. 이러한 두 집단 간 점수 차가 통계적으로 유의미한 정도는 아니지만, 학생들은 수강신청을 하면서 배우려고 기대했던 학습욕구들이 어느정도 충족되었다고 판단한 것으로 보여 긍정적인 결과로 볼 수 있다.

3) 협동수업의 유용성

STAD 협동독해 수업이 학생들의 영어실력 향상에 얼마나 도움이 되었는지를 분석한 결과, 중위집단은 전반적인 영어실력 향상에 도움이 되었다고 응답했으며 이러한 차이는 하위집단에 비해 유의미한 차이를 나타났다. 문법, 어휘, 독해능력에 있어서는 중위권 집단이 약간 높은 수준이나 두 집단간 유의미한 차이는 없었다. 하위집단 학생들이 다른 영역보다 어휘학습이 어려웠지만 도움을 받은 것으로 응답했다.

표 6
협동수업의 유용성

설문항목	수준	평균	표준편차	유의도
이번 영어수업이 영어실력에 도움이 되었다고 생각한다.	중	3.96	.77	.043*
	하	3.17	1.47	
이번 영어수업이 영어문법능력 향상에 도움이 되었다고 생각한다.	중	3.61	.84	.224
	하	3.17	1.27	
이번 영어수업이 어휘능력향상에 도움이 되었다고 생각한다.	중	3.70	.93	.591
	하	3.50	1.17	
이번 영어수업이 독해능력 향상에 도움이 되었다고 생각한다.	중	3.83	.78	.061
	하	3.00	1.13	

*p<.05, **p<.01

4) 수업효율성 간의 상관관계

협동학습에 대한 수업효율성 간 상관관계 분석을 보면 영어수준과 다른 요인들과는 상관관계가 높지 않으며 흥미도를 기준으로 볼 때 참여도, 유용성, 만족도 순으로 유의미한 상관관계를 보이고 있다. 흥미도가 높은 학생들이 참여도가 높고 실력향상에 도움이 되었다고 응답했다. 협동 수업에 대한 만족도는 유용성, 흥미도, 참여도에 관계가 있는 것으로 볼 수 있다. 협동수업이 영어독해 수업에 적합한지에 대한 응답은 흥미도, 유용성, 만족도가 유의미한 상관관계를 나타냈는데 그 가운데 수업만족도와 가장 높은 상관관계가 나타나 수업에 만족한 학생일수록 협동수업이 영어독해 수업으로 적합하다고 대답한 것을 알 수 있다. 상관관계 분석에서 대부분의 요인들은 정적인 상관관계를 보인 반면, 유의미한 수준은 아니지만 영어수준과 협동수업 적합성만 부적의 상관관계를 보이고 있어서 영어수준이 높은 학생들보다는 낮은 학생들이 협동수업이 더 적합하다고 생각하고 긍정적으로 평가했다.

표 7
상관관계

	영어수준	흥미도	유용성	참여도	만족도	적합성
영어수준	1		.34*	.39**	.08	-0.6
흥미도	.42*	1	.59**	.58**	.60**	.44**
유용성	.34*	.59**	1	.45**	.71**	.53**
참여도	.38*	.60**	.45**	1	.32*	.22
만족도	.08	.43**	.71**	.33*	1	.83**
적합성	-.06		.53**	.22	.83**	1

*p<.05, **p<.01

5) 인터뷰

심층적인 학습효과를 분석하기 위해 면대면 인터뷰를 실시하였다. 학생들의 영어수준에 따라 상,중,하 수준의 학생 중 2명씩을 선정하였는데 선정된 학생들의 학습스타일을 조사한 결과는 다음과 같다.

표 8
인터뷰 학생의 학습스타일

인터뷰 대상학생	성별	영어수준	학습스타일
학생1	여	상	독립적/참여적
학생2	여	상	협동적
학생3	남	중	의존적/참여적
학생4	남	중	독립적/경쟁적
학생5	남	하	협동적
학생6	남	하	의존적/협동적

준비한 8개의 인터뷰 질문에 대해서, 6명의 학생 중 5명은 협동독해 수업에 대한 경험이 없고 1명만이 경험이 있다고 응답했다. 협동과제 중 문장 해석하기와 요약하기 활동이 재미있다고 응답했으며 대부분의 학생들이 단어 찾는 활동이 가장 쉬운 활동이라고 응답했다. 조장의 역할 가운데 중요한 역할로 언급한 것은 타인의 말을 경청하는 의사소통기술이 가장 중요하다고 보았고, 다음으로는 우선순위를 정하고 대안을 선택하는 의사결정능력과 관리능력이 중요하다고 보았다. 한편, 영어수준이 낮은 의존적-협동적 남학생인 학생6는 영어독해수업에서 협동학습이 별로 유용하지 않음을 언급했고 차라리 혼자서 하는 것이 시간도 절약되고 효율적이라는 의견이었다. 그래서인지

수업에 적극적으로 참여하지 않았고 학습효과도 없었다고 평가하고 영어실력도 향상되지 않았다고 부정적인 응답을 했는데 이 학생이 유일하게 협동학습의 경험이 있는 학생이었고 예전에도 그런 느낌이었다고 대답했다.

한편 의사소통이 잘 진행되지 않았을 경우 어떻게 했는지에 대해 질문했는데, 협동적인 학습스타일이 강한 여학생인 학생2는 모든 구성원들이 돌아가면서 각자의 생각을 말하게 한 뒤 서로 맞춰간다고 말했는데 이는 협동형 학습스타일을 가진 학습자들이 나타내는 전형적인 특성을 보여준 것으로 보인다. 즉 협동적인 학습자는 동료학생과 협력하며 서로 어울려 공부하기를 좋아할 뿐 아니라 자신이 가지고 있는 지식이나 창의성을 교환함으로 학습효과가 있다고 생각하는 경향이 있다(Reimann & Grasha, 1974). 독립적-참여적인 남학생 학생3은 자신이 조장이더라도 구성원의 의견을 따라간다고 응답했는데 필요한 경우에 다른 학습자의 아이디어에도 귀를 기울이고 있어서 많은 동료학생들이 참여해야 한다고 생각하고 있었다. 독립적-경쟁적인 성향의 학생4는 협조하지 않는 조원을 제외하고 단호한 결정을 한 적이 있다고 보고하고 있어서 그룹의 과제달성을 이루기 위해 단호한 모습을 보이고 있었다. 따라서 면대면 면접결과 학습자들은 자신들의 학습스타일이 있지만, 협동수업에서 주어진 과제를 수행하고 보상을 받겠다는 목표하에 자신의 학습스타일에 맞는 다양한 방식대로 과제를 수행하는 모습을 볼 수 있어서 협동독해수업이 어떤 특정한 유형의 학습스타일에게만 적합한 방식이라고 하기보다는 각자의 학습스타일에 맞추어 다양한 방식으로 과제수행에 접근해 간다고 분석할 수 있었다.

STAD 협동수업의 장단점에 대해 질문했을 때 교수자가 관찰한 것만으로 파악하기 어려웠던 문제들을 지적하기도 했는데 몇 가지 부정적인 면 혹은 어려운 점은 동료학생들끼리 팀별과제참여를 격려하기에는 한계점이 있는 것으로 답변했고 단어시험에 관한 사항은 운영상 주의를 기울일 필요가 있다는 점을 상기시켜주었다. 한편 학생들은 인터뷰에서 여러가지로 긍정적인 점들을 언급하기도 했다. 주로 단기적인 학습효과보다도 수업을 듣는 학생들끼리 동료의식을 갖게 되고 친해지게 되었다는 것과 설문지 분석에서 나타나기도 했지만 동료학생들에게 질문하고 피드백을 주면서 함께 배워 간다는 점을 다시 확인할 수 있었다. 뿐만 아니라 설문지에서는 다루어지지 않았지만 학습이 힘들지만 흥미로왔다는 점이 상당히 의미있는 인식의 변화를 가져올 수 있다는 답변이었다. 교수자 중심의 수업방식이 학생들 입장에서는 특별하게 주어진 과제가 없다보니 편하고 쉽게 느껴져서 좋을 수 있으나 수업과정이 지루하고 나태해져서 자신이 수업에 참여해야 한다던지 참여하고 싶다는 의식조차도 들지 않는 경우가 많다는 것이다. 이런 수업환경이라면 진정한 학습효과를 기대하기 어려운 상황이라고 학습자들도 판단하고 있는 것으로 보인다.

표 9
인터뷰 결과분석

긍정적인 응답	부정적인 응답
“영어수업에서 이런 수업은 처음이었어요. 일단은 교수님이 읽고 해석해 주는 방식이 아니라서 새로웠어요.” “학생들과 친해질 수 있는 시간이 되었어요” “전 영어도 못하고 고등학교 때는 주로 엎드려서 자고 그랬는데 과제를 하느라 힘들었지만 수업시간이 지겹지는 않았어요” “모르는 걸 애들한테 물어보니까 좋았어요.” “다른 학과 애들과도 같은 그룹을 하게 되니까 친해진 것 같아요” “온라인 단어시험도 좋았던 것 같아요”	“팀별로 협조하지 않는 학생들을 참여시키기가 힘들었어요.” “같은 학과의 선배가 있는 경우 후배가 조장이 되면 제대로 자신의 역할을 해주지 않아 어려웠어요. 교수님이 개입하실 때만 하는 척하고 실제로는 협동학습에 거의 안했어요.” “기존 수업보다 효율성이 떨어져서 혼자 하는 편이 더 나은 것 같아요.” “컴퓨터실에서 단어시험 볼 때 시험화면에서 내가 정답표시하면 뒷사람이 화면에 정답을 보고 푸는 경우가 있는 것 같아서 불공평해요”

V. 요약 및 결론

본 연구는 대학에서 가장 널리 개설 되어있는 영문독해 수업에 대하여 영어능력이 우수하지 못한 중하위권 학생들을 대상으로 상호작용 접근법을 기초로 한 STAD 협동학습을 적용하였고 그에 따른 학습효과를 영어능력과 협동학습에 대한 학습자의 인식, 수업효율성으로 분류하여 효과을 분석하였다. 연구결과의 분석에 의하면, 우선 영어능력에서는 기존의 교수자 중심의 수업보다 독해능력과 어휘능력이 더 우수하게 나타났으나 독해능력에서만 집단간 유의미한 차이가 드러났다. 이는 지문안에서 의미를 파악하고 요약하는 독해과정에서 동료 학습자간 서로 도움을 주고 받는 상호작용이 발생하였고 이를 통해 그룹친화력이 생기고 친해짐으로 상호작용이 더욱 활발해 지는 선순환이 발생하게 되었을 것이다. 이때 학습자간에 의미협의를 위한 논의가 있었을 것이고 이러한 의미협의 과정을 통해 독해과정이 연습되고 활성화됨으로 영어능력이 향상된 것으로 볼 수 있다.

협동독해수업에 대한 효율성 영역 가운데는 수업참여도가 가장 높은 수준을 보여주었고 특히 중위권 학습자들이 활발하게 참여했는데 이는 학습에 대한 긍정적인 태도를 나타내는 지표이다. 학생들과의 인식조사에서 나타난 무임승차 문제를 줄이고 효과적인 참여를 늘리기 위한 다양한 전략을 협동수업

에서 잘 활용한다면 우려되는 협동수업의 부정적인 요인을 감소시킬 수 있을 것이다(Johnson & Johsnon, 1994; McWhaw et al, 2003). 중위집단의 흥미도는 하위집단과 유의미한 차이를 보일 정도로 높은 수준을 나타냈고 특히 영어독해에 대한 높은 수준의 흥미를 보였다. 반면에, 만족도는 하위집단에서 높은 수준으로 나타나서 학습자들이 기대했던 학습욕구가 협동독해 수업을 통해 어느 정도 만족되었다고 해석할 수 있다. 학습유용성에서도 중위집단 학습자가 전반적인 영어능력, 어휘, 문법, 독해능력 향상이 도움이 되었다고 응답했고 특히 전반적인 영어능력에서 하위집단과 구별되는 유의미한 차이가 나타났다. 일반적으로 하위집단은 참여도, 흥미도, 만족도에서 중위집다보다는 낮은 수준이지만 과제수행에 적극적으로 참여하였고 새로운 어휘학습방법이 어려웠지만 어휘학습에 도움을 받았다고 응답한 점이 특이하다. 또한 학습스타일이 다양한 학습자를 대상으로 인터뷰한 결과, 각자의 학습스타일에 따라 협동과제를 다양한 방식으로 수행하는 것을 알 수 있었다. 이는 협동학습이 사회적이고 참여적인 학습자에게만 효과가 있는 것이 아니며 학습자가 집단 안에서 각자 구체적인 역할을 담당하고 책임을 지게 됨으로 각자의 스타일에 맞도록 과제를 효율적으로 수행하고 있는 것으로 보인다.

이러한 연구결과는 12주의 단기적인 시행과 47명의 인원을 대상으로 한 연구에서 비롯된 것으로 결과를 보편화, 일반화시키기에 제한이 있을 수 있으나, 영어독해수업에서 실제 학습대상자의 특성을 고려하여 협동학습을 다양한 방식으로 활용한다면, 학습자의 영어능력을 향상시키는 것은 물론 동료학습자간 서로 학습을 격려하고 특히 실력이 부족한 하위 학습자가 동료에게서 영어에 관한 지식과 정보를 적극적으로 구하는 방식으로 자신의 학습에 적극적으로 참여하는 태도를 가지게 되며 자율학습능력을 향상시킬 것을 제안하는 데 기여할 것으로 기대된다.

참고문헌

김승현, 정옥분. (1997). 제6차 중학교 가정과 교육과정에 대한 인식도와 학습만족도 및 주관적 학습효과연구. *한국가정교육학화지, 9*(2), 47-67.

김정렬, 권영선. (2004). 모둠구성차이에 따른 ICT 활용과제기반 중학교 영어수업의 효과. *한국영어교육학회, 11*(4). 319-342.

노복동. (2013). 한국어 학습자의 정의적 요인이 자율학습능력에 미치는 영향. *한국언어문화학, 10*(2), 49-70.

류춘호, 이정호. (2006). 대학의 강의평가에 영향을 미치는 교수관련 요인에 관한 연구. *KBR, 9*(1). 249-279.

윤인숙. (2001). *소집단 협동학습을 통한 영어의사소통능력의 신장.* 박사학위논

문, 경남대학교, 창원.
이남미. (2013). STAD 모형과소집단편성방법이 대학생들의 읽기능력에 미치는 영향. *영어어문교육, 19*(2), 269-290.
이명관. (2012). STAD 협동학습을 통한 토익독해수업의 효과. *현대영어교육, 13*(3), 125-148.
이영경. (2018). *대학교양영어 읽기수업에서 소집단 협동학습이 영어읽기능력에 미치는 영향*. 석사학위논문, 순천향대학교.
이종법, 양재생. (2005). 집단응집력과 조직유효성의 관계에 관한 연구. *인적자원관리연구, 12*(2), 5-31.
이현아. (2002). *협동학습을 통한 수학학습부진아 지도방안에 관한 연구*. 석사학위논문, 동국대학교 교육대학원
임채수. (2001). *협동학습 수업전략의 학습효과에 대한 메타분석*. 박사학위논문, 경남대학교, 창원.
정지원, 김지영, 정동빈. (2010). 독해전략지도(RSBI)와 협동학습법(CLM)을 통한 대학 교양영어 독해력 증진의 효과. *응용언어학, Vol. 26*, No.2.
정희원. (2002). *소집단 협동학습을 통한 수학학습부진아 지도에 관한 연구*. 석사학위논문, 아주대학교 교육대학원.
조한익, 이현아. (2010). 완벽주의와 학업소진 및 학업열의와의 관계에 있어서 성취목표의 매개효과. *청소년연구, 17*(12). 131-154.
표경현. (2015). 소그룹활동에 대한 대학생들의 만족도 영향변인연구. *Studies in Linguistics 37*, 321-347.
Aronson, E., & Patnoe, S. (1997). *The jigsaw classroom: Building cooperation on the classroom.* New York: Longman.
Bandura, A. (1977). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control.* New York: W/ H. Freeman and Company.
Cohen, E. G. (1994). Restructuring the classroom: Conditions for productive small groups. *Review of Educational Research, 64*(1), 1-35.
Dornyei, Z. (1997). Psychological processes in cooperative language learning: Group dynamics and motivation. *The Modern Language Journal 18*(4), 482-493.
Dornyei, Z, Clement, R.,& Noels, K. A. (1994). Motivation, self confidence, and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language Learning, 44*(3), 417-448.
Evans, C. R., & Dion, K. F. (1991). Group cohesion and performance: A meta analysis. *Small Group Research, 22*, 175-186.
Garret, K. J. (1998). Cooperative learning in social work research coursee: Helping students hope one another. *Journal of Social Work Education, 34,* 237-246.

Ghith, G. M., & Bouzeineddine, A. R. (2003). Relationship between reading attitudes, achievement, and learners' perceptions of their jigsaw experience. *Reading Psychology, 24*(2), 105-122

Good, T. L., & Marshall, S. (1984). Students learn more in heterogeneous or homogeneous groups. In P. L. Wilkneson & M, Hallinam (Eds.) *The social contest of instruction: Group organization and group processes* (pp.15-28). Orlando, FL: Acadmic Press.

Goodman, (1970). Reading: A psycholinguistic guessing game. In H., singer & R. B. Ruddel (Eds.) *Theoretical model and processes of reading.* New York: International Reading Association.

Hahn, H-R. (2003). Small group work in lower-level adult classroom: A study of the inner mechanism. *English Teaching, 58*(2), 249-272.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1989). *Cooperation and competition: Theory and research.* Edina MN: Interaction Book.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1994). An overview of cooperative learning. In J. Thousand, A Vila & a Nevin (Eds.). *Creativity and collaborative learning.* Baltimore, MD: Baltimore Brookes Press.

Johnshon, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Holubec, E. J.(1994). *New cycles of learning: Cooperation in the classroom and school.* Alexandria VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Johnson, D. W., R. T. Johnson, & K. Smith. (1998). Cooperative learning returns to college what evidence is there that it works?. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning, 30*(4), 26-35.

Long, H. B. (1991). College Students; Self-directed Learning Readiness and Educational Achievement. In H. B. Long and Associates, *Self-directed Learning: Consensus & Conflict*. Norman: Oklahoma Research Center for Continuing Professional and Higher Education of the University of Oklahoma

Long, M. H., & Porter, P. (1985). Group work, interlanguage talk, and second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly, 19*(2), 19-34.

McWhaw, K., Schnackernberg, H., Sclater, J., & Abrami, P. C. (2003). From cooperation to collaboration: Helping students become collaborative learners. In R., M. Gillies & A. F. Ashman (Eds.) *Cooperative learning; The social and intellectual outcomes of learning in groups* (pp 69-86). New York: RoutledgeFalmer.

Nation, I. S. P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: CUP.

Oetzel, J. G. (2001). Self-construlas, communication process, and group

outcomes in homogeneous and heterogeneous groups. *Small Group Research, 32*(1), 19-54.

Olsen, R. E. & Kagan, S. (1992). About cooperative learning. In C, Kessler (Ed.), Cooperative learning strategy. *American Educational Research Journal, 20*(4), 687-696.

Oxford, R. (1997). Cooperative learning, collaborative learning and interaction: three communicative strands in a Japanese language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal, 81*(4), 443-456.

Peterson, S. E., & Miller, J. A. (2004). Comparing the quality of students' experiences during cooperative learning and large-group instruction. *The Journal of Educational Research, 97*(3), 123-133.

Pica, T., Doughty, C. (1985). The role of group work in classroom second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 7*, 233-248.

Potthast, M. J. (1999). Outcomes of using small-group cooperatvie learning experience in introductory statistics courses. *College Student Journal, 33*, 34-42.

Ravenscroft, S. P. (1997). In support of cooperative learning. *Accounting Eduction, 12,* 187-190.

Reichmann, S. W., & Grasha, A. F. (1974). A rational approach to developing and assessing the construct validity of a student learning style scales instrument. *Journal of Psychology, 87*, 213-223.

Rivera, D. P. (1996). Using cooperative learning to teach mathematics to sutdents with learning disabilities. *Forum, 21,* 29-33.

Shim, Y. S. (2009). Cooerative reading in a university EFL classroom. *English Language Teaching, 21*(4), 149-167.

Slavin, R. E. (1983). *Student team learning: An overview and practice guide.* Washington, DC: National Educational Association.

Slavin, R. E. (1995). *Cooperative learning*. MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Soh, Y-H. (2000). Small group dynamics in learning English: What matters? *English Teaching, 55*(4), 269-293.

예시언어(Examples in): English
적용가능 언어(Applicable Language): English
적용가능 수준(Applicable Level): Tertiary

황선유
서원대학교 교양대학
28674 충북 청주시 서원구 무심서로 377-3(모충동)
Email: syoohw@seowon.ac.kr

Received in April 14th, 2018
Reviewed in May 26th, 2018
Revised version received in June 5th, 2018

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]

---

* 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
Email: hkkim123@hankuk.ac.kr

Received in January, 2007
Reviewed in February, 2007
Revised version received in March, 2007

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
Seoul 100-100, Korea
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) <u>One Work by a Single Author</u>: 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

발 행 인 이 현 구

발 행 처 **한국영어어문교육학회**

연 락 처 충남 공주시 공주대학로 56
공주대학교 사범대학 영어교육과(32588)
Tel (041) 850-8190
Fax (041) 856-8190

E-mail etakn@hanmail.net(원은석 총무이사)
hak113@kongju.ac.kr(학회 사무실)

학회구좌 농협(351-0261-5617-23)
예금주: 한국영어어문교육학회

*2005년 한국연구재단 등재 학술지

발 행 일 2018년 6월 30일

제 작 도서출판 보성
Tel (042) 673-1511 / Fax (042) 635-1511
E-mail: bspco@hanmail.net

ISSN 1226-2889