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A Discourse Analysis on the Multi-Voicedness in a Sunday School Classroom

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This study was conducted in a Sunday School Classroom where verbal participations of a group of children saying goodbye to their two friends leaving for Korea permanently. Their interactions were made under the leading of a teacher. Because of its unique circumstances, the teacher and the students did not show much intensity over getting the control of the class. The teacher naturally tended to keep her script by controlling the flow of students' farewell talk and the students seemed to follow the teacher's guidance. However, from time to time, the students covertly attempted to create their own script as counterscript to teacher's script and the teacher did not deter their attempt and rather cooperate with them, even though she came back to her script shortly. This dynamics among the participants of this class showed an interesting nature of multi-voicedness in the classroom where the power relations are shaped along with the contributions from the participants. This is not a typical context where language learning occurs, but the pattern of interactions was led to meaningful results that can be applied in English education settings.

[classroom/multi-voicedness/power relations/knowledge construction/script]

I. INTRODUCTION

In the most of classrooms, what counts as learning and who has access to this learning is determined by the values of the local culture and larger society and by the particular beliefs and practices evident in the social spaces of the classroom. Everyday activity of classrooms, such as the face-to-face interaction of the classroom participants, shows how who gets to learn and what is learned is connected to the social relationship constructed in the classroom and how power lies in these constructed social relationships. It can be said that the classroom mirrors the large societal structures and power relationships (Arrnowitz &

Giroux, 1993; Freire & Macedo, 1987; Giroux, 1988).

The traditional metaphors for power in classrooms have named the teacher as autocratic ruler, drill sergeant, factory manager, leader in battle, while framing the students as subjects, recruits, laborers, soldiers. These metaphors look plausible in the classroom because it seems that the learning is initiated and facilitated by teachers most of the time. However, a different conception is derived. According to Foucault (1980), "Power is employed and exercised through a net-like organization and not only do individuals circulate between its threads; they are always in the position of simultaneously undergoing and exercising this power" (p. 98). This idea suggests the mutuality of the power relations of teacher and students, the extent to which they may at times agree, disagree, or be out of touch as to their goals, and the constant process of change and effort that is characteristic of classroom life. In a simpler way, it would be better to say that both teachers and students establish norms and expectations for realization of their roles and relationships as teachers and learners in the classroom.

This study, conducted in a classroom setting of a Sunday school, examines how the relationship between a teacher and a group of kids is locally shaped through the various configurations of talk and interaction in the classroom, and thus present a situated and dynamic notion of power. Furthermore, features of participation of the teacher and students are analyzed in terms of their power relations. It is not a typical setting for language learning, but the patterns of interactions among students were pretty interesting enough to look at. Especially this study pays attention to students' differentiation from teacher-dominated classroom discourse. The notion "underlife" that is referring to the range of activities people develop to distance themselves from the surrounding institutions (Goffman, 1961) is used in analyzing students' verbal behaviors that attempt to undercut the roles expected of participants in a situation (Brooke, 1987). It would be quite interesting to look at atypical classroom setting where teaching and learning are not the foci from a perspective of power relations.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Bakhtin's (1981) theories of dialogic meaning and social heteroglossia explain the nature of the classroom that is multi-voiced. In his analysis of a novel, Bakhtin reveals how an author speaks through the multiple voices of his characters. The author uses his voice to create the internal dialogic meaning of novel. Dialogue is not simply between people and languages, but within people and between the frames that people use to categorize experience. That is the concept of dialogization that is used to describe something more than simply dialogue. Bakhtin expanded his analysis to the role of the author in the

"heteroglossia of his epoch" (p. 285). Thus, the idea of social heteroglossia, or the inherently intertextual and interdiscursive nature or social interaction, is not only a feature of novelistic writing, but a feature of the world (Fairclough, 1992). In a classroom setting, both teacher's and students' internal dialogization become relevant when they occur together as part of heteroglossia.

In the classrooms, there are various social spaces that exemplify situations where power was distributed unevenly. Power is not unidirectional but dynamic. It emerges in complex and multiple ways. Power relations are perceived and become part of one's identity as one participates in the practices of particular communities (Foucault, 1977; Lave & Wenger, 1991). According to Gutierrez, Rymes & Larson (1995), classrooms are mutually informing but seemingly exclusive places where teacher and students reside and interact. They defined these as official and unofficial places within which the teacher "script" and student "counterscript" are constituted. The term "third space" is used to describe how these spaces intersect and create the potential for more authentic interaction and heteroglossia. That is, teacher's monologic script stifles dialogue and interaction, which reflects dominant cultural values while those who do not comply with the teacher's rules for participation form their own counterscript. In this context, members of classroom community are equipped with various expertise in the form of local knowledge, but rigidly built-in knowledge of the teacher and classroom tend to displace the local and culturally varied knowledge of the students. Naturally, the students create third space to develop their counterscript. The emergence of the conterscript reveals the multi-voiced and dialogic nature of any classroom.

In the face of a teacher script, students assert forms of local knowledge that are neither recognized nor included within the teacher script. Such forms of knowledge may be unacknowledged cultural references. These students' counterscripts develop in the space where underlife activities are under way. Goffman (1961) suggests two forms of activities: a disruptive form"where the realistic intentions of the participants are to abandon the organization or radically alter its structure" and a contained form in which the participants attempt to fit into "existing institutional structures without introducing pressure for radical change" (p. 199).

In most of classrooms, contained forms of underlife activities in which students work around the institution to assert their difference from the assigned role (Brooke, 1987). However, despite the inherent multi-voicedness of any classroom, student underlife generally maintains traditional classroom power relations. In this way, both students and teacher cooperate in maintaining distinct defensive spaces rather than challenging and ultimately transforming the dominant script (Gutierrez, Rymes & Larson, 1995). When a true dialogue between students and teacher occurs, rather than random associations between scripts, a less rigidly scripted space—the third space—is created. Within this

space, there is more of the teacher and student world views occur. “What counts as knowledge” (Freebody, Luke & Gilbert, 1991. p. 454) is negotiated between student and teacher. By departing from their own scripts, teacher and students let go, slightly, of their defensive hold on their exclusive cultures, and the interaction between their scripts creates a third space for unscripted improvisation, where the traditionally binary nature of the student and teacher script disrupted.

III. STUDY

1. Background and Participants

This set of data analyzed here is a transcript of an audio file recorded at a Sunday school class in a college town in the United States. Children of the class were bidding farewell to two of their friends leaving for Korea soon. This particular discourse community consists of 10 children aged between 9 and 13. They all live in the college town, and most of their parents have settled here to seek higher academic career at a state university or near colleges. Some of the children were born in the States and some others came when they were very young. All of them are bilinguals of Korean and English. Not everyone has native-like proficiency, but their choice is English when they get together, such as in Sunday school. It is definitely because the children feel the pressure that they need to speak English not to be left out from the community. The family of these two children leaving for Korea exemplifies a common case in this community where the children are American citizens while their parents are Korean citizens. The two siblings have never set foot on the country, this process of relocation causes much excitement and anxiety, and many reminiscences from the children who have visited or have come from Korea.

TABLE 1

Participants

Name	Age	Gender	English Proficiency Level
Brian	11	Male	Intermediate
Christina	13	Female	Native-like
Dan	10	Male	Beginner
Esther	12	Female	Native-like
Hope	10	Female	Intermediate
Kristin	10	Female	Native-like
Sarah	13	Female	Native-like
Timothy	9	Male	Native-like
Wenday	13	Female	Advanced
Yuri	9	Female	Advanced

The teacher in this Sunday school session is a female Korean-American, a graduate student of the state university in town. Even though she moved to the U.S. when she was very young, her Korean proficiency level is relatively high. However, her knowledge on Korea is not up-to-dated and sometimes, and generally she is not quite able to answer the questions about Korea from the students.

2. Data Collection and Analysis

Data was collected in a Sunday school class of a Korean church in a small American city considered a college town. The method used for the data collection is simple audio recording. Thanks to the small size of the classroom space, the utterances of the children and the teacher were clearly recorded. The recorded data was fully transcribed and analyzed.

The data was analyzed in terms of how the teacher's power in the classroom is maintained or challenged in the course of controlling the class. Generally, teacher's discourse tends to be monologic and such nature often deters dialogic interaction among students and becomes the primary script in the classroom. It was expected that, in the data, some students may contribute to and participate in the teacher script, those who do not comply with the teacher's control for participation may form their counterscript. The analysis was also carried out to find out if there existed the third space where the students and the teacher can bridge the various social spaces within classrooms.

IV. FINDINGS AND FURTHER DISCUSSION

1. Moderator and Controller: The Teacher Script

Being dedicated to her job as a controller the teacher tried her best to keep the students in the flow of group talk. Even though this was not carried out in the classroom and was not teaching and learning event, a conventional teacher's role seems to be fulfilled in this context.

<Excerpt 1> T=teacher, S=Sarah, D=Dan, W=Wendy, E=Everyone
T: So uh, since today is the last day for Timothy and Esther to be here.
I thought maybe you could say something nice...
S: If you say anything about going to the bathroom...
T: Okay, let's start...um... Who wants, who wants to go first?
W: Me...

D: Everybody's gonna start crying after~
E: ((mixture of mimicking-crying and unintelligible comments))
T: Okay. As soon as somebody starts, everyone has to listen. Shh.
W: Never mind 'cause I put in my pocket...
T: Okay, we'll go around.

The teacher's practice is due to the ways in which she had been socialized to understand the role of student and teacher through her own experience as a student and a teacher. Even though the class was about to begin, the students did not seem to be ready. However, the teacher was not distracted and rather kept her own script. It is clear that her rule for having decent verbal interaction in the classroom is controlling the students as followers of her script.

<Excerpt 2> T=Teacher, S=Sarah, W=Wendy, B=Brian
S: Can I have something to say?
W: And...h... God!
S: I'll say, ooh... oh
T: It's okay, just say it.
S: It's not going to be embarrassing 'cause if I have to...
W: [No, I'm gonna cry.
T: Brian, you wanna say something?
B: I don't know.
T: Say something.

This excerpt shows how rigid the teacher was in keeping her script to make this bidding farewell session go as planned. When Sarah showed her interest in saying something, she was interrupted twice by Wendy who was often perceived as her rival during the whole session. Sarah tried to contribute with teacher's encouragement but she seemed to fail to meet what the teacher wished. The teacher did not persist but pursued the participation from another student, Brian. Considering her intention to get the students as many as possible involved in this interaction, it can be said that the nature of this class seemed to be learner-centered one. However, the teacher was not patient enough to wait for Sarah's comment. She wanted to distribute the turn evenly among students. Sarah may had been able to continue her utterance even after Wendy's sabotage, but the teacher regarded her hesitation as a sign of ineptness of taking her turn. What the teacher did must have been an act of saving the class from being messed with ill-structured beginning. Her script was the norm for the whole class has to follow.

2. The Student Script as Counterscript

In the face of teacher's script, as depicted in the excerpts above, most of time students' utterances were within the teacher script. As it becomes obvious that there is not a valued role for students in this teacher script, a competing script emerges where a student voice, or new "key," is established. "Key signals" are clues at the micro-level of language use, which indicate the mode of current talk (Goffman, 1974).

<Excerpt 3> T=Teacher, B=Brian, C=Christina, E=Esther, Kristin
T: Brian, you wanna say something to Timothy?
B: Um, we'll miss you a lot and I hope you become popular in Korea.
And, um... um...
T: Don't you have anything to say to Esther?
'Cause you've been such a good friend with her, right?
C: Um, I'm sorry, if I've been a Esther-worshipper all this time.
T: What?
E: No, that's what they've been saying...like the other kids like...
C: And... I hope you, you know what, um, Sue said, no, Sujin said?
Over there? I hope that doesn't happen to you.
E: Me too.
T: What? What was that?
S: They said that like they the gangsters in Korea like beat up little
and then they make you bow...
E: [They put cigarettes on your face everyting...
S: [And then they make you bow...
E: [And then they pull your earrings.
K: There's pickpocket, too.
T: Oh, you wanna say something, Kristin?

The first student (Brian) contribution fully comply with teacher's script. All of sudden, a bold student (Christina) got a cue from a noun phrase, "good friend" in teacher's question to Brian, and confessed that she had been called Esther-worshipper. She re-keyed the teacher's script by taking the meaning of "good friend" in an extreme way, calling herself as "worshipper." The issue of Esther-worshiper became the main topic among the students. Christina, the trigger of re-keying, acted as another trigger for creating separate counterscript in which their multiple voices are raised. Moreover, Christina even raised another issue on "gangsters" which is a group of kids bullying other kids at school. Other students suddenly and competitively displayed their

knowledge on gangster kids in Korea. Student counterscript developed independently of the teacher's script and even caused a little disruption in teacher's monologic script. The teacher even joined student script and helped the new keyed interaction go further. It means that the students used teacher contributions to build the counterscript in the underlife. Excerpt 4 would show more on this.

<Excerpt 4> T=Teacher, H=Hope, D=Don, Y=Yuri, E=Esther
T: Hope?
H: I wish you have no trouble with fire.
D: Ha ha, no trouble with?
Y: I hope you're not gonna have trouble with talking in Korean,
because I think there is a lot of American people living there.
T: Okay. Don?
D: Well, I don't think there will be a lot of people like them
because... I think she was the first, um like person
who'll play with us, and like...
H: [I want you to meet my grandmother.
T: Who was?
D: Esther. And like, remember... your... um, she she pee-peed
on our kitchen.
E: Oh yeah
T: Who?
D: Fluffy
T: Oh, Fluffy, oh~
D: That was really fun time, yeah~
E: She was too young.
Y: [Who is Fluffy?
D: A dog, a poodle dog.
T: Poodles are very smart.
E: [Yeah, smart.
Y: Esther's dog?
E: [Yeah...
D: Sooooo Cute.
T: Anything Else?

It is shown in the Excerpt 4 that not all contributions are in the same "key." One student was concerned about fire and talked about meeting with her grand mother, issues unrelated or irrelevant to the theme of the class, and these statements were almost unacknowledged.

Hope appeared to keep her own contributions while others were cooperating with teacher's script or developing into their own script as a counterscript to that of teacher. Interestingly, Yuri got a cue from Hope's utterance "trouble" in following teacher's script as she worried about Esther and Timothy's new life in Korea. Don also actively cooperated with teacher's script but his stream of thought digressed and went into the mode of underlife. Don's reminiscent remark on Fluffy's pee-pee incident triggered other students' involvement. Yuri and Esther joined and continued their underlife activity together. The teacher never attempted to overtly silence the student script. She even cooperated with them and let 'Fluffy issue' go further. However, she did not lose her track of thinking and went back to her script at the end of this excerpt.

3. Construction of Power and Knowledge

As the data suggests, students' scripts/counterscripts seem to create the mode of freedom or contestation. It naturally leads into the issue of power construction in the classroom. Since the classroom is the place for intellectual exchange, regardless of its depth and intensity, the possession of knowledge on the regarding agenda decides the possession of power. In the analyzed data above, the power relation between the teacher and the students looks very dynamic. The teacher still has the control of the whole class, in an aspect she got new information from her students and the students nourished their topic of conversation among their peers. This power relation produced, reproduced, and transformed in collaborative relationships, shape identity and consciousness as participants seek to become members of particular cultural and social spheres or communities of practice.

The third space in this data can be seen the social space where counter-hegemonic activity, or contestation of dominant discourses, occurred for both students and teachers. The notion of the third space can be considered a framework for redefining what counts as effective classroom practice. Effective practice, in this sense, exists in contexts in which various cultures, discourses, and knowledge are made available to all classroom participants, and thus become resources for mediating learning. It is within this third space that students and teachers can bridge the various social spaces within classrooms. This bridge creates the potential to rewrite and contest extant texts and discursive practices. It becomes possible for both teacher and students to redefine what counts as knowledge.

V. CONCLUSIONS

In general classrooms, teacher's monologic script is so tight that students' underlife is not easily allowed to challenge its control. It is obvious that the teacher in this classroom setting is in charge of moderating students' farewell session. She wanted to evenly distribute turns to each student. Her idea of control was keeping the students remain in her script. The students seemed to be cooperative with teacher's script but they often tended to be digressed and created their own scripts as counterscripts. Both students and teacher were pretty competent within their own separate scripts but the members of this community did not have enough interactional experience in the third space to mediate participation. Both teacher and students quickly went back to where they were to avoid staying in unstable territory that was supposed to be stable as "third space." The teacher was quick to go back to her own script and the students were ready to be under teacher's control.

The students sometimes re-keyed the interaction with the teacher and sometimes went further to create their own scripts as counterscripts to that of teacher's. However, it is hard not to think that they seemed to seek either to develop spaces within the teacher-built structure in which they could act comfortably by following teacher's control, or to develop spaces in which the teacher had to act cooperatively with them. Because this was not 'learning-classroom' there was no overt or intentional attempt to upset the teacher's control of the class, but students' contributions to building their underlife interaction appear impossible for the teacher to stop. Regardless of whether the teacher sought to exercise sole control of classroom, or whether she actively intended to cooperate with their students, the students made their own contributions to the development of classroom power relations and show an unfaltering reality that classroom is the space for multi-voiced multiple scripts.

Whether they wanted or not, the teacher and students cooperated to construct a community in which both the teacher's and students' local knowledge is used to transform what counts as learning. As a pedagogical implication, in this way, the local knowledge of the community is integrated into the classroom curriculum, and the teacher and students use their local knowledge as the vehicle for the development of multiple kinds of literacy. Redefining curriculum as social practice forces the abandonment of monologic instruction and provides the social and cognitive rationale for including and constructing multiple forms of knowing. Through the joint participation in the third space, both teachers and students can take an opportunity to relinquish traditional notions of power and the need for rigid and structured power relations as prerequisites for learning. As a result, these new power arrangement would reveal the exclusiveness of existing contexts for learning for both teacher and students, triggering the beginning of the reformation.

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Examples in: English

Applicable Language: English

Applicable Levels: All Levels

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Effects of ESL Learners' Use of Subtitles on News Watching: No Subtitle, during Watching, and after Watching News[*]

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Choi, Yunju & Lee, Kang-Young (2018). Effects of ESL learners' use of subtitles on news watching: No subtitle, during watching, and after watching news. *English Language & Literature Teaching*, *24*(1), 13-34.

This study aims to examine effects of subtitles on English news watching among 45 ESL students with high intermediate level in an intensive English program in the States. It particularly focuses on the following three stages to see differences: (1) watching news without subtitles, (2) using subtitles during watching news, and (3) reading subtitles after watching news. The participants are chosen from high intermediate to advanced level at an ESL program of a US university and asked to take a general listening test. The listening materials for news are selected in consideration of content, length, accent of speakers since those factors play pivotal roles in the result of ESL/EFL listening comprehension. The statistical results disclose that the group provided with subtitles after viewing the news outperforms the other two groups - suggesting that using subtitles after watching news is far beneficial for ESL learners with the levels. On the other hand, being exposed to subtitles during news watch becomes distracting over listening comprehension. Identifying unclear words and expressions has also been a disturbingly burden over the phase of using subtitles during the news watching. Taking such findings into account, ESL/EFL listening pedagogy may benefit from a focus on employing appropriate listening techniques to accelerate listening proficiency especially for learners with high-intermediate to advanced level.

[news watching/subtitles/ESL listening/high-intermediate to advanced level/ cognitive overload]

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I. INTRODUCTION

For ESL/EFL learners, listening skill is one of the essential domains to meet communicative competency. With the current technological applications from the Internet, the learners can benefit such various authentic listening materials as news, entertainments, conferences, movies, reality shows, or various social networks simultaneously all over the world. These listening materials are considered as important learning sources since they all provide authentic communicative language environments to ESL/EFL learners. As Park (2007) notes in her study on ESL learners' cultural adaptation in Australia, watching TV or video is one of the most frequently used methods for them to learn English language and culture in ESL environments. Kim and Park (2008) also studied the development of English competence with a video-supported listening class and found that students' listening and speaking skills have been developed. They further concluded that the students learned more authentic expressions and showed more confidence in communicating with English speakers.

In addition, how to enhance ESL/EFL learners' listening competency by using verbal information, subtitles, and captions has been one of the sole interesting subjects while previously existing studies have brought contrasting results. In fact, many research studies have reported the positive effects on comprehension and vocabulary acquisition by using subtitles into visual information; however, there also have been concerns of cognitive overload, which becomes somehow distracting to the learners. ESL/EFL teachers have been situated to decide whether they should use visual materials or without it, in what language (i.e., English or local language) is used if being utilized, and which setting will be beneficial for their students' listening comprehension.

The purpose of the present study is to examine the effect of ESL learners' use of subtitles on English news listening. To get a more validity of the effect from this investigation, the current study has divided the participants into the following three different phases: (1) watching news without subtitles, (2) using subtitles during watching news, and (3) using subtitles after watching news.

The research questions for this study are:

1. Does watching news without subtitles affect on the listening comprehension compared to using subtitles while watching news?

2. Does using subtitles while watching news affect on the listening comprehension compared to using English subtitles after watching news?

3. Does using English subtitles after watching news affect on listening comprehension compared to watching news without subtitles?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. The Effects of Using Audiovisual Materials on ESL/EFL Listening Comprehension

Researchers notice the increasing use of visual media in ESL/EFL classrooms with emphasis of communicative competence. Many studies have revealed positive effects of using audiovisual materials in ESL/EFL settings. In Cakir's (2006) study, video shows the students how people talk and behave in the culture of target language by bringing a wide range of communicative situations into the classroom. For teachers, video watching is not only for fun and interest but for promoting students' comprehension level. The study argues for the positive effects of video watching on their listening skill development because it motivates learners, brings the real world into the classroom - "contextualizes language naturally and enables learners to experience authentic language in a controlled environment" (Cakir, 2006, p. 68). Katchen (2002) also states that when a video is "carefully selected and used," it will help learners to practice listening skill and to stimulate their speaking and writing ones. Indeed, when a video is used appropriately, it could be highly motivational and educational for both instructors and learners (as cited in Cakir, 2006, p. 71).

2.The Effects of Using Subtitles on ESL/EFL listening Comprehension

In addition to the positive effects of visual aids on the ESL/EFL listening, a large number of studies have investigated how and what degree subtitles could have an impact on improving learners' listening competency. From the studies, subtitles have brought about benefits on productive skills such as verbal recall and retention, reuse of vocabulary in the right context, and communicative performance of specific verbal and written tasks (Baltova, 1999; Borras & Lafayette, 1994; Garza, 1991; Hayati & Mohmedi, 2011; Neuman & Koskinen, 1992; Vanderplank, 1988, 1990).

Bird and Williams (2002) examine that whether captioning is beneficial for language learning by analyzing the new word acquisition through sound and text. The following three settings have been experimented: (1) text with sound, (2) text without sound, and (3) sound without text. The researchers find out that the text-with-sound group has shown a better recognition memory than the other two groups and conclude that the simultaneous exposure to the written and aural language can bring more effective and bigger results.

As a study with bilingual students, Neuman and Koskinen (1992) report that those who have viewed captioned videos perform significantly better on word identification, word

meaning, and content learning assessment than the students who have viewed the same videos without captions. Captioned television allows viewers to focus attention on both definitional and contextual information, to enhance word meaning by providing a semantically rich visual context that includes both printed words and pictorial images.

With 42 participants in high-intermediate level of French class, Borras and Lafayette (1994) investigate the effects of subtitles upon oral communicative performance as well as listening comprehension of the contents. This study is consistent with previous studies showing the usefulness of subtitles for bridging the gap between the L2 learners' competence in reading and listening. Further, the result shows that subtitles have potential value in helping the learners to produce comprehensible communicative output.

To test the effects of subtitles, researchers have designed different settings of subtitling; i.e., the participants' L1 subtitles vs. L2 subtitles and experiments have been conducted in many countries with the diverse L1 speakers in various L2 proficiency levels. Some studies have suggested that L1 subtitles help learners understand target language films better (Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999; Markham et al., 2001) while others have found that L2 subtitles are more beneficial (Baltova, 1999; Garza, 1991; Guichon & McLornan, 2008; Hayati & Mohmedi, 2011; Neuman & Koskinen, 1992; Stewart & Pertusa, 2004). Koolstra and Beentjes (1999) observed that Dutch-speaking elementary-age students improve their reading vocabulary knowledge after watching several Dutch-captioned English programs on TV in the home. Markham, Peter, and McCarthy (2001) examined the effects of using captions in listening to Spanish-language soundtrack to learners of Spanish as foreign language with one of three conditions: Spanish captions (target language), English captions (local language), or no captions. The English captions group outperformed the other two groups in summary in English and multiple choice questions. The Spanish captions group performed better than no captions group.

Guichon and McLornan (2008) conduct an experiment with French undergraduate students (N = 40), which has concluded that L2 subtitling is more beneficial than L1 because it causes "less lexical interference" (p. 85). Some other researchers also argue that "intralingual subtitles are superior than interlingual ones in facilitating content comprehension, vocabulary acquisition" (Bianchi & Ciabattoni, 2008; Bird & Williams, 2002; as cited in Birulés-Muntané & Soto-Faraco, 2016, p. 2). Birulés-Muntané and Soto-Faraco (2016) study potential learning effects of watching subtitled media with Spanish students at EFL intermediate level. One hour-long TV drama in English has been shown in the following three settings: without subtitle, with Spanish subtitles, and with English subtitles. The English subtitle group has scored best in listening skill test. Three groups have showed no reliable difference in the vocabulary test. In plot comprehension, the native Spanish subtitle group has outperformed the other two.

A study by Winke, Gass, and Sydorenko (2010) examines the effects of captioning video on listening comprehension in foreign language learning. They also have researched the ordering effects of captions: captioning during the first showing of the videos (captioning first) or captioning during the second showing of them (captioning second). The participants are Arabic, Chinese, Spanish, and Russian language learners as second language at a college. The analysis informs that captioning has been more effective than without captioning. For the Spanish and Russian learners, captioning first group shows better results than captioning second group. However, for the Arabic and Chinese learners, captioning second group has had a better score than captioning first group. According to the interview following the experiment, the various foreign language learners comment that they have used captions to increase their attention, improve processing, reinforce previous knowledge, and analyze language.

In Hayati and Mohmedi (2011)'s research, they investigate 90 students in intermediate level in Iran. They examined the effectiveness of subtitles with 6 episodes of documentary listening. The participants have been divided into three groups; English dialogue without subtitles, with Persian subtitles, and with English subtitles. After the data collection with the six-sets of multiple-choice test to check their listening comprehension, the English subtitles group shows higher level than the Persian subtitles group, next, the Persian subtitles group outperforms no subtitle group. The English subtitles group commented that they have referred to the subtitles when they need to confirm the meaning of some key words during DVD watching. It seems that they have done translation while they are watching subtitles. The Persian subtitles group reported that the Persian subtitles have distracted their attention and hindered the focus on the listening to the sound in some degree.

Taylor (2005) studies the effectiveness of using captioned video on listening comprehension with the beginning level Spanish class students. The experimental group has watched the video with captions and comparative group watched the same video without captions. In addition, the researcher compares the comprehension score between the first year students and third year students in both groups. The result indicates that the third year students in caption group outperformed the first year students in the same group. Contrarily, the without caption group did not show difference between the third and the first year students. The first year students responded to the interview that the three channels of video, audio and text have rather caused the distraction or confusion. However, third year students have commented that the better ability to use three channels. Generally, the participants have responded positively to the use of captions.

The results of these studies still show a controversy concerning the effective ways to present audiovisual materials with/-out subtitles or the provision of subtitles in the target language or native language.

3. Potential Cognitive Overload by Multiple Inputs

There are studies on cognitive overload using visual and verbal information simultaneously. Kalyuga, Chandler, and Sweller (1999) use the term "redundancy effect" to indicate learning situation in which "eliminating redundant materials result in better performance than when the redundant materials are included" (Kalyuga et al., 1999, as cited in Moreno & Mayer, 2002, p. 157). According to cognitive load theory, "when learners need to split their attention between simultaneous text and graphics, it overburdens their limited working-memory capacity" (Chandler & Sweller, 1991, as cited in Moreno & Mayer, 2002, p. 157).

Mayer and Moreno's (2003) study explores on how to use words and pictures to foster meaningful learning. The researchers conclude that written text is redundant when a multimedia presentation consists of simultaneous animation, narration, and written text. In their analysis, the potential for cognitive overload is a central challenge the designers face in multimedia using instruction in which the learner's intended cognitive processing exceeds the learner's available cognitive capacity (p. 43). Followings are the suggested solutions to avoid cognitive overload for learners. Students understand a multimedia explanation better when the words are presented as narration rather than as on-screen text and when it is presented in learner-controlled segments rather than as a continuous presentation. Students better understand multimedia narratives when expressed in narration rather than on-screen text and when presented in a learner-control segment rather than a continuous presentation. They also show a better understanding when they know the names and behaviors of the components in the system with the extraneous material excluded, and when it contains signals concerning how to process the material.

As an explanation for a cognitive overload, Plass, Chun, Mayer, and Leutner (2003) notice that visual annotation has become a redundancy factor for SL learners. The participants for their study are 152 college students in German language course. The results of this study show that multiple representations of information do not always help learning. That is, providing two options, visual and verbal annotation, is effective in addressing individual differences only when students can choose which information they would like to select and process.

Kalyuga, Chandler, and Sweller (2004) have combined the three different text conditions with the diagrams: printed text only, spoken text only, or printed and spoken text. They report that students in the spoken-text-only condition have outperformed those in both the printed-text-only and the printed-and-spoken-text conditions. They claim that concurrent presentation of identical auditory and visual technical text (without the presence of diagrams) is significantly less efficient in comparison with the auditory-only text.

Diao, Chandler, and Sweller's (2007) study the effects of simultaneous written presentations on EFL learners' comprehension of spoken English. They compare the learners' listening comprehension using three instructional formats: auditory materials only, with a full written script, and with simultaneous subtitled text – intending to see whether the written text accompanying the listening material is facilitating or interfering learners' listening skill development. For the result, the groups with a script and subtitles shows a better comprehension only to the scripted and subtitled passage, but pooler performance on a following auditory passage than auditory materials only group. Here, the use of a full script or subtitles has interfered with learners' listening skill development because the simultaneous written text while listening could impose an "unnecessary cognitive load" and might hinder "construction or automation of listening schemas" (p. 251).

From the current research analysis, there, however, has been the scant number of research studies on the effects of simultaneous or consecutive subtitles among ESL learners especially with intermediate to advanced levels. Thus, the present study conducts an experiment for the learners with focuses on the following three phases to see differences in listening comprehension: (1) watching news without subtitles, (2) using subtitles during watching news, and (3) using subtitles after watching news. The participants for this study have various first language backgrounds, so subtitling with their first language is ruled out in this study. It is also expected to investigate how using subtitles is related to the listening comprehension and which circumstances of using subtitles (i.e., simultaneous or consecutive) are more effective for it.

III. METHODOLOGY

1. Participants

The participants for this study are ESL college students with high intermediate to advanced levels. They have all enrolled in an intensive English program at a college in the United States. Students in this program take diagnostic tests in four language skills when they start it and they should demonstrate required task completion each semester to proceed to the next level.

45 students from the high-intermediate to advanced (300 level) are chosen for this study. Their first languages range from Arabic, Chinese, Korean, Malaysian, Spanish and Vietnamese. The ages are from early twenties to early forties. The ratio of gender is almost half and half. Before the experiment, participants get informed of this experiment and a consent form has been distributed. I, teaching high-intermediate listening-speaking classes, have conducted this experiment in three consecutive classes in a month.

2. Test Materials

The listening materials are selected in the respects of content, length, accent of speakers under guidance of the program instructors to minimize the other factors which may influence the result of listening comprehension. The participants have taken a pre-test to measure his/her general listening competency. The pre-test is intended to see the difference of listening competency among them. A CNN news clip titled “Energy Regulation Debate” in Culture & Society section has been used for pre-test. Immediately after watching the news without subtitle, a 20 multiple-choice listening comprehension test has been administered to the students.

Each of the listening materials for both pre and post-tests is about 2-3 minutes length, and they are chosen from various sections of CNN news such as “Secret Japanese-American Mission” in Politics, “The World Trade Organization in Seattle” in Business & Economy, and “Using Dogs to Sniff out Mold in Homes” in Science & Technology for three consecutive sessions of this experiment. Participants were included only if they declared not having watched the same news clips before.

3. Data Collection

As seen from TABLE 1, the current study divides the participants into three groups and provide them with the following three treatments: (1) Group 1 watches an English news without subtitles, (2) Group 2 watches the English news with subtitles at the same time, and (3) Group 3 watches the English news without subtitle, after then, subtitles are provided.

TABLE 1

Three groups with three different treatments

	News listening
Group 1	Without subtitles
Group 2	Using subtitles during listening
Group 3	Using subtitles after listening

For the experiment, the participants from three classes are instructed to watch the same CNN news clips. For three consecutive sessions of this experiment, three clips are chosen. These are, “Secret Japanese-American Mission” in Politics for the first week, “The World Trade Organization in Seattle” in Business & Economy for the second week, and “Using Dogs to Sniff out Mold in Homes” in Science & Technology for the third one. These are similar to the one used in the pre-test and they have answered three sets of the multiple-choice questions after viewing the news. The test composed of 20 questions is about word

choices, listening comprehension, and conclusion to check the effects of this experiment. The questions are designed to assess for main ideas, details, and inferences. The same procedure has been performed to each group for all 3 sessions (See appendix 2).

Then, the participants have been asked to answer a questionnaire about using subtitles for their news listening. It consists of 6 scale answer choices, and the respondents select an answer to express his/her opinion whether it is beneficial for them to view subtitles in news.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

TABLE 2 illustrates descriptive statistics on the participants' performance on the listening comprehension tests. Each student's test score is calculated as an average of 20 points after three weeks. A possible highest score is 20 and the lowest point is 0. The average score has been calculated in each group to compare. The group 1 who watch the news without subtitles have gained the lowest scores than those two other groups. The group 2, using subtitles during the news watching has just outperformed the group 1. On the other hand, the group 3 that has been provided with subtitles after viewing news has shown such distinctively highest average score (the mean value at 16.73 with the lowest Std. deviation at 1,100) than the other two groups.

TABLE 2

Descriptive statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Group 1 (without)	15	12.33	1.113	.287	11.72	12.95
Group 2 (during)	15	14.87	1.246	.322	14.18	15.56
Group 3 (after)	15	16.73	1.100	.284	16.12	17.34
Total	45	14.64	2.144	.320	14.00	15.29

TABLE 3 illustrates the results of the one-way ANOVA for the test results. The data from the between groups indicate the differences between the comparing groups. While the within groups investigates the differences among subjects in a same group because not every subject in a group performs equally on the test. Here, the differences from the between groups are much bigger than that from the within groups, so the within groups' differences are considered not to interfere with the result of this experiment. This proves that the three groups are homogenous and have similar backgrounds from the beginning of the study as there is no significant difference between the scores of the three groups as far

as their general proficiency is concerned. As observed, the significance value is 0.000 (i.e., p = .000), which is below 0.05, therefore, there is a significant difference among the performance of the three groups [F=54.867, p<0.05]. But we do not know which of the specific groups differs; a post hoc test (i.e., TABLE 4) has been performed to determine which group is better than the other group. The test is conducted to analyze data.

TABLE 3

ANOVA of the listening comprehension test

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	146.311	2	73.156	54.867	.000
Within groups	56.000	42	1.333		
Total	202.311	44			

TABLE 4

Post Hoc Tests. Multiple comparisons

					95% Confidence Interval	
(I) Var00002	(J) Var00002	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Group1	Group 2	-2.533	.422	.000	-3.38	-1.68
(No)	Group 3	-4.400	.422	.000	-5.25	-3.55
Group 2	Group 1	2.533	.422	.000	1.68	3.38
(During)	Group 3	-1.867	.422	.000	-2.72	-1.02
Group 3	Group 1	4.400	.422	.000	3.55	5.25
(After)	Group 2	1.867	.422	.000	1.02	2.72

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As shown in TABLE 4, the group 3 shows a better performance than the group 1 and the group 2. The level of significance is set at 0.05. In the mean difference section, the group 3, treated with the subtitles after watching news shows big differences – indicating that the group 3 shows a higher score than the group with the subtitles during watching news, next, the group with subtitles during watching outperforms the group with no subtitle.

Therefore, the participants with the subtitles after watching news show the highest listening comprehension proficiency among three groups. That group reports that the subtitles have helped his/her understanding of the news content. The test outcomes and the questionnaire suggest that under a similar circumstance, students who are treated with the script after watching news benefit more than the phase with watching news without subtitles, or with watching news and reading subtitles at the same time. According to the questionnaire, the no-subtitle group could not have chance to check out the words or expressions about their news watching, so their understanding has remained uncertain. And

the group with subtitles during watching news has expressed some distracting factors because they need to figure out many things at once, such as news report, screen, sound, and subtitles – indicating the cognitive overload among the participants, as reported from some previous research studies. In this case, subtitles cannot function to lead to a better/precise understanding of listening materials. Group 3, using the subtitles after watching news comments that the subtitles have improved the ability/skills to recognize, understand, and remember new English vocabularies.

V. CONCLUSION

With the ESL participants ranged from the high intermediate to advanced level, this study has compared the listening comprehension level of the participants in three different phases; watching news with no subtitle, watching news with subtitles, and watching news and then reading subtitles. The experiment has been statistically conducted with various first language ESL learners enrolled at a US university to see which phase of subtitling is an effective factor facilitating a greater listening comprehension.

Statistically, using subtitles after or during watching news have a positive effect on the listening comprehension proficiency of the participants. Specifically, using subtitles after watching news treatment is the most beneficial and effective for the high intermediate to advanced level ESL students. In the multiple comparison tests, participants who have used the subtitles after watching news perform significantly higher than those who have watched them without subtitles and using subtitles during watching. Subtitles provided during the viewing news are a distracting factor rather than a helping one for the learners' comprehension because there is a lot of simultaneous information such as visual aids, pictures, and sound effects running through the learners' brain. This, therefore, might have worn off the learners' concentration on the content: i.e., the topic and specific information. This result is accordance with the suggestions from Kalyuga et al. (1999), Mayer and Moreno (2003) and Plass et al. (2003) in respect of cognitive overload.

Pedagogically, the results from the present study could be an immediate attempt for improving EFL/ESL learners' competence in communicative/academic listening. It is recommended that carefully chosen reading materials (i.e., subtitles) in listening practice should be sought for the sake of the learners' proficiency level. Besides, how and when to apply subtitles should be determined depending on the learners' level or listening materials.

This study has also found a limitation. Since it focuses only on the high intermediate to advanced level students' listening comprehension with the three treatments of subtitles; no subtitle, during watching, after watching, the result cannot be generalized to the beginner or intermediate ESL/EFL students. To a beginner or intermediate level ESL/EFL,

examining the effects of subtitles in a similar setting with this study can be an area that needs further research due to their limited capability of English listening. Moreover, it is recommended to study with the other genre of listening materials, like movies, TV shows, or YouTube streaming with the same treatments. The movie or show has slower speed than news report and YouTube, and they contain a flow of story to follow, so it is interesting to compare effects of using subtitles between in news watching and movie/TV show watching.

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APPENDIX 1
Questionnaire

Group A. Without subtitles

1. The visual images (pictures, titles, subtitles) on the screen help me to understand the content of news.
2. I focus on watching the visual images.
3. I focus on listening to the news report.
4. I have difficulty to understand the contents of news.
5. I think the subtitle will be helpful if provided.
6. I think looking at subtitle during watching the news will be helpful for understanding the news content.
7. I think looking at subtitle after watching the news will be helpful for understanding the news content.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	N/A
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						

Group B. With subtitles during watching news

1. The visual images (pictures, titles, subtitles) on the screen help me to understand the content of news.
2. The subtitles help recognize the words what I do not understand clearly watching the news.
3. The subtitles help me recognize the expressions what I do not understand clearly watching the news.
4. The subtitles disturb me while I am watching the news.

5. I focus on listening to the report than reading the subtitles.
6. I focus on reading the subtitles than listening to the report.

Group C. With subtitles after watching news

1. The visual images (pictures, titles, subtitles) on the screen help me to understand the content of news.
2. The subtitles help me recognize the words what I did not understand clearly watching the news.
3. The subtitles help me recognize the expressions what I do not understand clearly watching the news.
4. I think the subtitle will be helpful if provided.
5. I think looking at subtitle during watching the news will be helpful for understanding the news content.
6. I think looking at subtitle after watching the news will be helpful for understanding the news content.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	N/A
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						

APPENDIX 2

Test Sample for Pre-test

"Energy Regulation Debate"

I. Word Choices (1-13)

1. competition: In an attempt to increase competition…
   a) two or more people or businesses trying to do better than each other
   b) control by the government
   c) the results of the regulators
   d) control by one company

2. regulators: In California, the regulators …
   a) people who measure length and width
   b) people who monitor activities according to rules
   c) who are elected as governors of states
   d) are "just regular guys"

3. utilities: In California, the regulators, the utilities…
   a) organizations that have been elected to run the government

b) organizations that sell hamburgers and hotdogs
c) organizations providing power services to consumers, such as electricity, other power, and water
d) useful department stores

4. to cap: … all want the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission to cap spot market prices.
a) to take away a limit on something
b) to sell something to someone
c) to buy something from someone
d) to establish a limit on something

5. outrageous: The Californians claim it will rein in outrageous prices.
a) excessive and unrestrained
b) calm and happy
c) generous
d) realistic

6. to hike : … power producers had the right to hike prices
a) to lower a tax or price
b) to keep something rigid and unchanging
c) to raise an amount suddenly and sharply
d) to cause to disappear or go away

7. to stabilize: … contracts between power producers and the utilities to stabilize prices.
a) to change something rapidly
b) to make angry or unpopular
c) to enable something to happen
d) to make something firm and unchanging

8. to take the helm: .... is soon to take the helm.
a) to take a long trip or vacation; to play
b) to buy up the available utilities
c) to lead; to steer or direct something
d) to disappear

9. In an attempt to increase _____, California deregulated its power industry.
a) intention
b) prices
c) regulations
d) competition

10. Many people in California want the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission _____ prices.
a) to raise
b) to hike

c) to cap
d) to skyrocket

11. Californians think the current prices for electricity are _____ .
a) stable
b) outrageous
c) calm
d) intention

12. Longer-term contracts might help _____ prices for electricity
a) to stabilize
b) to skyrocket
c) to hike
d) to raise

13. The commission says its _____ is to let supply and demand regulate the market.
a) dream
b) fear
c) intention
d) guess

II. Listening Comprehension (14-17)

14. According to the article, why was the California power industry de-regulate?
a) The Governor wanted it to happened.
b) The prices for electricity were too low.
c) To increase competition and keep prices low.
d) To make more rules for the power industry.

15. What do many people in California now want the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission to do about prices of electrical power?
a) People want the commission to raise prices.
b) People want the commission to cap prices.
c) People want the commission to hike prices.
d) People want the commission to deregulate the power industry.

16. According to the article, what do some energy experts think about temporary price caps?
a) Some energy experts think that the crisis will continue unless there are temporary price caps.
b) Some energy experts are quite uninterested in this issue.
c) Some energy experts that that they should be writing books about the subject.
d) Some energy experts think that this problem will go away on its own.

17. When did the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission issue the recent statement about its intention in refusing to re-regulate the power industry?
a) August 15, 2000

b) December 15, 2000
c) December 25,2000
d) January 1, 2001

III. Conclusion (18-20)

18. The expression, "they are living in an ivory tower", refers to people who are out of touch with the real world. In this article, who is the Governor referring to when he says this?
   a) Poor people in San Diego who are having to find the money to pay their electricity bills.
   b) Business owners who have had their costs increase dramatically.
   c) The Governor is referring to himself.
   d) The Federal Energy Regulatory Commission members who are not putting a cap on prices.

19. When Loretta Lynch says "..all of California was beating down the door of federal regulators…", what does she mean?
   a) There was a violent demonstration in front of the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission.
   b) Many people and groups were demanding that the Commission do something about prices.
   c) The doors of the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission building were very easily broken.
   d) The federal regulators are very popular.

20. To whom is this article referring when it says, "With an administration known to be friendly to free markets soon to take the helm…"
   a) President Clinton and Vice-President Gore.
   b) Governor Gray Davis of California.
   c) President-elect Bush and Vice-President-elect Cheney.
   d) There is not enough information to answer this question.

Test Sample for Post-test

"The World Trade Organization in Seattle"

I. Word Choices (1-12)

1. to stall
   a) to put animals in a barn for the night
   b) to stay in one place by one's own choice
   c) to bring to a standstill
   d) to shop for holiday presents

2. blockade
   a) the interruption of something
   b) the building of a friendship
   c) a celebration of joy

d) a security scare

3. obscure
   a) bright and active
   b) relatively unknown
   c) popular
   d) well-known celebrity

4. coalition
   a) coal company
   b) training place for colts and horses
   c) enemies; people who disagree about everything
   d) a union or combination

5. habitat
   a) employment
   b) place of entertainment and celebration
   c) place where plants and animals live; residence
   d) place of political power

6. agenda
   a) plan or outline of things to be done
   b) governmental action or discipline
   c) agency of action groups
   d) violence

7. self-avowed
   a) declared openly without shame
   b) simple and not complicated or hard to understand
   c) cordoned off
   d) disregarded

8. anarchists
   a) people who vote in every election
   b) people who are always against free trade
   c) people who rebel against authority or order
   d) people who like to travel around the worlds

9. to cordon off
   a) to cut into little pieces
   b) to invade
   c) to celebrate and enjoy
   d) to form a protective line or barrier

10. There were _____ moments in Seattle when delegates and protestors were near the convention center.

a) tense
b) temporary
c) obscure
d) preliminary

11. The protestors were_____ of farmers, labor gropus, and environmentalists.
a) a truce
b) a coalition
c) a delegation
d) tense

12. Protestors wanted _____the meetings of the WTO.
a) to celebrate
b) to obscure
c) to enjoy
d) to stall

Listening Comprehension (13-17)

13. Protestors wanted _____the meetings of the WTO.
a) to celebrate
b) to obscure
c) to enjoy
d) to stall

14. Why couldn't some WTO delegates get to their meetings on the first day of the trade talks?
a) Some overslept and missed the meeting.
b) A human chain of protestors blocked their way.
c) The police kept delegates away.
d) The weather was rainy in Seattle so that the traffic was terrible.

15. According to the article, why were labor groups, environmentalists, and farmers all there to protest?
a) They all fear that the WTO can "upset their world" and affect them in many ways.
b) Seattle is a good city to visit any time of the year.
c) The Seattle mayor had invited everyone to visit his city.
d) The politicians know that the meetings are important for the presidential race.

16. According to the article, why were some protestors arrested?
a) They irritated the mayor of Seattle.
b) The image of Seattle was damaged
c) They were peaceful.
d) They damaged property and looted storefronts.

17. How many protestors in Seattle demonstrated in a peaceful manner?
a) One hundred fifty.

b) Five million.
c) Tens of thousands.
d) Ten thousand.

Conclusion (18-20)

18. What does it mean that the violent protestors "stole the headlines"?
a) They stole newspapers from newstands and news boxes.
b) They got all the attention from newspapers and other media.
c) They were arrested for stealing.
d) They disrupted the meetings of the WTO.

19. What does it mean that the WTO was "such an obscure organization"?
a) It was a secret organization until the meeting in Seattle.
b) It was a group without any power.
c) It was a group that had not received a lot of world attention in the past.
d) It was a group that met only at night.

20. Why does the article conclude that U.S. presidential candidates will listen to the word "trade" in the future?
a) Protestors get arrested for violent demonstrations.
b) There might be more violent demonstrations.
c) There are people who think the issue of world trade is unimportant.
d) There are people in the United States who are concerned about issues of world trade.

Examples in: English

Applicable Language: English

Applicable Level: Secondary

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Perceptions of World English: Different Attitudes from Inner and Expanding Circles

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This paper reports on a survey study that asked native English speakers (NESs) and non-native English speakers (NNESs) about concepts and issues related to communication with speakers of World Englishes (WE). The purpose of the paper is to examine NESs' and NNESs' concepts of the English language and attitudes towards varieties of English, with the goal of raising awareness of the need for better education about WE. The population of NNESs now outnumbers that of NESs speakers. More, the English users in Asia alone are more than the total populations of the USA, the UK combined. This gap will keep increasing, which will lead to ever-greater variety and new forms of English with unique traits. Drawing on the notion of WE, NESs need to recognize the diversity that already exists, and develop the awareness and communicative skills needed for interacting with speakers of Englishes that are different from their own varieties. This paper argues that school curricula should include education about WE in order to better meet the needs of our rapidly changing societies and educators also need to be sensitive and appreciative of the existence of WE acting as guides to bring students to full awareness of WE.

[World Englishes/globalization/standard English/World English Agreement Factor/ WEAF]

I. INTRODUCTION

The power of English comes in part from its innate potential and diversity. However, as the language of globalization, it has become even stronger as it has added global features - features unique to the languages of the many speakers who use English across the world. English has cultural and regional varieties, which are distinguished by the specific features used by diverse speakers. The rapid progress of globalization and

internet technology has given English an international position. The worldwide expansion of English, in turn, has resulted in the diversification of its forms and functions, leading to the use of the term “World Englishes” (henceforth, WE). This term, WE, is based on Kachru’s (1986) early description of institutionalized varieties of English. In the present day, the population of non-native English speakers (NNESs) outnumbers that of native English speakers (NESs), and the gap continues to increase. Arguing over the language’s ownership seems rather outdated and old-fashioned; more to the point, we must accept the changes that our societies have already undergone, and educate ourselves to better fit these changed societies.

The English language is used as a means of communication, and communication is defined by Lippi-Green (1997, p. 1) as follows:

> In the light of the philosophy that communication is a shared effort and that not only the speaker of non-mainstream language but also the listener who speaks the ‘mainstream’ language must share communicative responsibility, it is necessary for Inner Circle native speakers to develop a positive attitude toward other WE speakers and skills in comprehending WE.

Many NNESs in countries where English is not the dominant language try hard to improve their communicative skills in English by taking lessons, hiring tutors, using online classes, and even going abroad. The desire to gain native-like English skills can become a burden for non-native speakers, who might devote a lifetime to trying to achieve native-like fluency. In the context of South Korea, the ability to speak like a native is taken as a symbol of cultural and social status, just like an expensive car. This obsession with English - wanting not just to be able to communicate in English but to be like a native speaker - has caused serious social problems in Korea. For example, “wild goose fathers” live alone, staying in Korea to work while their families go abroad so the children can learn English. Kim Seong-kon, a professor of English at Seoul National University and president of the American Studies Association of Korea, interpreted this phenomenon as a social problem, saying that “the unnatural phenomenon of wild geese daddies is a clear sign of something wrong in our society”(Goh-Grapes, 2009). Moreover, the term “Native Speaker Syndrome” indicates that being able to speak like native speakers is the top priority of the learners and they are in the enviable position of English learners just because they are native speakers (Park, 2009).

It is necessary for NESs to develop a positive attitude toward the diverse forms used by other speakers. Drawing on the notion of WE, NESs need to recognize the diversity that already exists, and develop the awareness and communicative skills needed for interacting with speakers of Englishes that are different from their own varieties. It is

quite evident that, in communication between NESs and NNESs, the need for one party to accommodate the other is imposed more on NNESs, who usually are considered responsible for any miscommunication. Such inequality leads to prejudices and discrimination against NNESs, as well as underestimation of their ability and potential in their fields. This problem is particularly pressing for our younger generations, who increasingly experience face to face communication with various WE speakers. This paper addresses this situation. It reports on a survey study that asked NESs and NNESs about concepts and issues related to communication with WE speakers. The purpose of the paper is to examine NESs' and NNESs' concepts of the English language and attitudes towards varieties of English, with the goal of raising awareness of the need for better education about WE.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1. The Concept of WE

In the era of globalization, the spread of English has brought about a proliferation of different varieties of English throughout the world. Scholars have described the current situation of English in many ways, including "World Englishes" (Kachru, 1985), "English as an intercultural language" (Sifakis, 2004), "World English" (Brutt-Griffler, 2002), "English as a lingua franca" (Seidlhofer, 2001), and "English as an international language" (Jenkins, 2000). Although these terms all indicate the pluralistic nature of English worldwide, each has slightly different connotations. With reference to English as a lingua franca (ELF), Seidlhofer (2001) claimed that ELF users are not interested in approximating native-speaker norms but are capable of developing their own norms and appropriating the language to suit their own needs. Jenkins's (2000) use of the singular form, "World English," claims the need for a common denominator for communication among world-wide English users. On the other hand, the term "World Englishes" reflects the wide-ranging forms and functions of Englishes based on their speakers' own locally relevant norms. However, the term is problematic in several ways. One of the central concepts of WE is the stratification of English in the world, in which three concentric English-speaking circles (the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle) represent the stratification of English based on historical, sociolinguistic, and literary contexts (Kachru, 1985). Yet the English-using population in Asia alone is far greater than the total populations of the USA, the UK, and Canada combined (Kachru, 1997). This is a definite indication that English no longer belongs only to the "native speakers" of the Inner Circle.

Park and Im (2016) also argued that it is questionable to say that pure NESs really exist in this globalized society. The term “native speaker” exists provided that English belongs to a specific group of people. However, the definition of the term varies depending on the scholars’ focus points. Another issue with this model is its connotation of a linguistic hierarchy. The model can be interpreted as implying the superiority of the center, in that it describes the Inner Circle as “norm-providing,” the Outer Circle as “norm-dependent,” and the Expanding Circle as “norm-developing.” For instance, Higgins (2003) argued that these terms imply that the Inner Circle varieties are the only legitimate and target varieties for Outer Circle or Expanding Circle speakers. Jenkins (2014) also argued that the term “Inner Circle” confers supremacy on native speakers of English by placing them at the center of the language. If the “norm-providing” Inner Circle is the center of all the varieties, then any form that does not follow the Inner Circle’s norms is subject to being regarded as an error or an element of an interlanguage that is striving to be like the language of the Inner Circle. With increased human mobility and interaction among people from different parts of the world, people face more communication difficulties. But these difficulties are not simply a problem caused by the people from the Outer and Expanding Circles; they can also be caused by mainstream English speakers’ intolerance toward Englishes that are different from a certain national norm. Even within the Inner Circle, hierarchies exist because the power of a country or a region is reflected in the power of its language. American English has had a strong influence on the language of many other Inner Circle countries, resulting in the Americanization of the English language. Trudgill (1998) points out that this trend is easily explained: “We learn new words readily and constantly, and it is a simple matter to pick up new items from what one reads, and from what one hears on radio, on television, and at the cinema” (p. 32). The general trend seems to be toward increasingly international use of originally American English. There are many words that were once specifically American such as radio, peanut, and soft drink, which now are of general use throughout the world. The Americanization of the English language is the result of the USA’s power and its role in the international hierarchy.

In human interaction, all the people participating should share the responsibility for successful communication. In communication between Inner Circle mainstream English speakers and other WE speakers, the accommodation should be mutual, with both parties exploring ways to establish effective communication. Establishing mutual accommodation as a communicative norm would be facilitated by mainstream English speakers’ understanding of facts about second language acquisition, which in turn would help them avoid judging others’ abilities and intelligence based on what forms of language they speak.

2. The Importance of WE in English Education

As the rising number of NNESs indicates, the Englishes of non-native speakers should not be ignored. WE already reflects the distinctive use of English around the world. There are, for instance, Indian English, Chinglish (Chinese English), and Japlish (Japanese English), all with distinctive features that are recognized more and more by the world. Because they have to accept all these various Englishes, NNESs would also benefit from having the background knowledge to understand other Englishes with distinctive features. Therefore, education about WE is important for English learners as well as for NESs. Education is the most powerful medium to raise people's awareness of the issues surrounding WE and to assist them in exploring ways to better communicate with WE speakers. Furthermore, the concepts and definitions of WE have changed over the years. Kachru's three-circle model has been criticized for its over-simplified representation of Englishes. Jenkins (2014) pointed out that the demarcation of the three circles is not always clear-cut; the categories become fuzzy at the edges in reality. To give a single example, some English speakers in Outer and Expanding Circles grow up multilingual these days. In other words, the model does not fit the current sociolinguistic realities of English.

In 2009, the Oxford Dictionary defined "World Englishes" as follows:

> Whereas the English-speaking world was formerly perceived as a hierarchy of parent (Britain) and children ("the colonies"), it is now seen rather as a family of varieties. The English of England, the original source of all the World Englishes, is now seen as one of the "family" of world English varieties, with its own peculiarities and its own distinctive vocabulary. (Oxford Dictionary, 2009)

This definition shows a perspective that respects the different characteristics of linguistic varieties, including them all as members of the English family. However, this definition is no longer offered by the same dictionary. In 2017, the Oxford Dictionary provided a new definition:

> A basic form of English, consisting of features common to all regional varieties, such as North American, Australian, New Zealand, and South African English. (Oxford Dictionary, 2017)

This definition seems rather simpler, yet it entails that WE is used for communication between people who care less about its identity in relation to the center or to its "original source." Every definition and concept related to language changes as people continue to

study and think about them. It is not necessarily the case that older or more formal definitions are wrong, but they are added to and updated to embrace more possibilities. As the new definition indicates, there are and will continue to be more NNESs communicating with other NNESs in English than NESs; thus, the purpose of learning English needs to change, and English education also needs to change to accommodate that purpose. Friedrich (2000) suggested that English educators and education institutions should consider learners' attitudes toward English to adjust to their needs, motivations, and preferences in regard to English as a world language. Nunan and Benson (2005) argued that what learners know about languages, along with their preferences and attitudes regarding languages, should be studied to inform better English education. Addressing this issue, this paper examines NESs' and NNESs' perceptions of and attitudes toward WE and shows that their beliefs about WE can be contradictory.

III. METHODOLOGY

1. Participants

This study employed two groups of participants: NESs from a norm-providing Inner Circle country, the USA, and NNESs from a norm-dependent Expanding Circle country, South Korea.

The first group consisted of 10 Americans living in Irvine, California, USA. The participants were in their thirties and forties, and all had university degrees. They were all married with at least one child and some sort of working experience. Five of them were monolingual; four were bilingual, and one was trilingual. Half of them had lived abroad and the other half had no experience of living in other countries. Half of them were Asians or Pacific Islanders and half Caucasians. All were born and raised in the USA.

The second group consisted of 28 Korean graduate students. They were in their twenties and thirties, and all had university degrees. None of them were married or had children, and most of them did not have working experience. Most of the people in this group were monolingual (95%) and only a few (5%) were bilingual. Twenty percent of them had lived abroad and the others (80%) had only lived in Korea. All of them were Korean by ethnicity and nationality.

2. Data

The survey contains four parts: personal background (Part A), concepts (Part B), tolerance and acceptance (Part C), and composition (Part D), which consisted of simple situational questions. Only Parts A, B, and C are examined for this study. The person who administered the survey went over each question with the participants to make sure the meaning of the questions was clear.

3. Data Collection and Analysis

The data from the first group were collected in the USA in the summer of 2016, and the data from the second group were collected in Korea in the fall of 2016.

Part A was a demographic questionnaire that primarily dealt with the participants' personal background, education, experience abroad, and ethnic background. Part B aimed at understanding their attitudes toward standard English and English varieties, with questions about ownership, standard English, and their experience of varieties of English. Part C was designed to assess the participants' tolerance and acceptance of local grammatical variation or errors. The participants read sentences, and then indicated their degree of understanding by marking a number:

5: I understand completely.
4: I'm fairly sure of its meaning.
3: I'm not sure but I think I get it.
2: I want to double check what I understood.
1: I don't understand.

They were then asked to indicate the degree to which they felt correction was needed, again by marking a number from 1 to 5:

5: It's perfect.
4: It's slightly different than I would say it.
3: It's bearable.
2: It bothers me a little.
1: It absolutely needs correction.

The intention of Part C was to investigate the possibility of a gap between the participants' level of understanding and their tolerance of variation. Any gap could then be compared and contrasted with their perceptions of WE to see whether there were

contradictions in their responses. In other words, the survey was designed to explore whether people who say they are open to WE are tolerant of what they perceive to be errors. Part D was consisted of four open-ended questions which were used as filter questions in the survey. Therefore, Part D was not used for the analysis in the study.

IV. FINDINGS

This section presents the study's findings in two sections. The first section addresses perceptions and attitudes toward WE and the second reports on the participants' tolerance of errors.

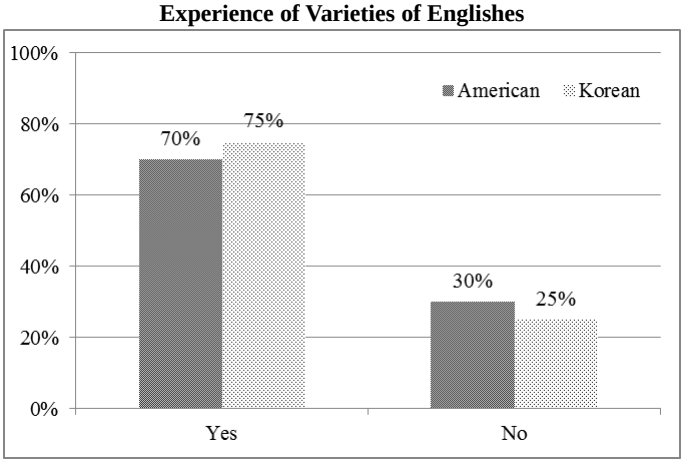
1. Perceptions and Attitudes toward WE

Figure 1, 2, and 3 show the respondents' experience with varieties of English and terms describing English. The survey did not attempt to define "experience," which might include direct or indirect experience. In all the figures, the lighter bar represents the NNES group and the darker bar represents the NES group.

Figure 1 shows the participants' experience of different varieties of Englishes.

FIGURE 1

Experience of Varieties of Englishes



A majority of the American participants had some experience of different varieties of Englishes. The town in which the participants lived is multicultural, so the presence of many varieties of English is to be expected. This finding indicates that many of the NES participants, having been exposed to different Englishes, are aware of Englishes that are

spoken with different forms.

The majority of the Korean participants also had experienced different varieties of Englishes. For this particular group, the high number of the students travels abroad during their breaks, which would allow them to experience varieties of Englishes.

FIGURE 2

Familiarity with the Terms for English

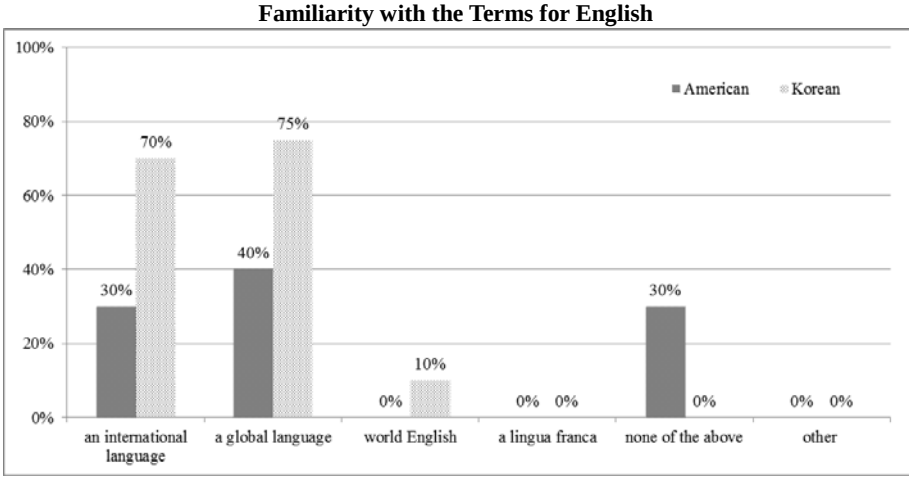


FIGURE 3

The Most Appropriate Term for English

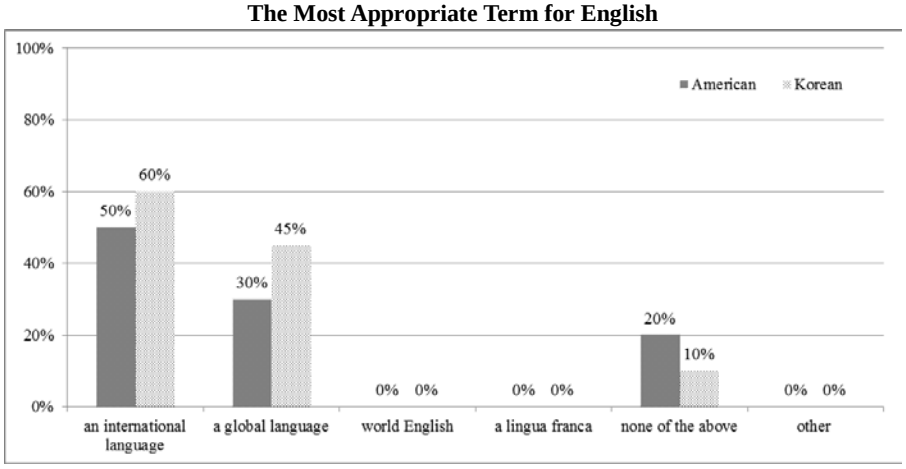


Figure 2 and 3 show the participants' familiarity with several terms referring to English, and whether they approve of the terms.

As Figure 2 shows, many of the American participants had heard English referred to by at least one of two terms, an international language or a global language, although a

third of this group answered that they had not heard of English being called by any of the names mentioned (i.e., international, global, world English, lingua franca).

As Figure 3 shows, at least some of the participants who had never heard any of the terms nevertheless felt that "international language" or "global language" would be appropriate ways of referring to English. Altogether, 80% of the participants accepted and recognized terms for English that describe it as a medium for people around the world to communicate, and are willing to give English a label that suggests mutual ownership.

The Korean participants' responses to these items contrasted with the Americans' responses. As Figure 2 shows, many more of the Korean participants had heard English referred to by at least one of three terms (i.e., an international language, a global language, and world English), and none of the Korean participants said they had heard none of the terms. As Figure 3 illustrates, most of the participants thought "international language" or "global language" was an appropriate term, although a few of them responded "none of the above" to this item. In sum, more Korean than American participants had heard terms describing English as something other than a language that belongs to specific countries, and more of them accepted the idea of English serving the purpose of everybody's communication method.

In summary, the two language groups were similar in that many of the participants had encountered the idea of different forms of English, but the Korean participants' responses show both more experience of English varieties and more openness to the idea of WE.

FIGURE 4

Ownership

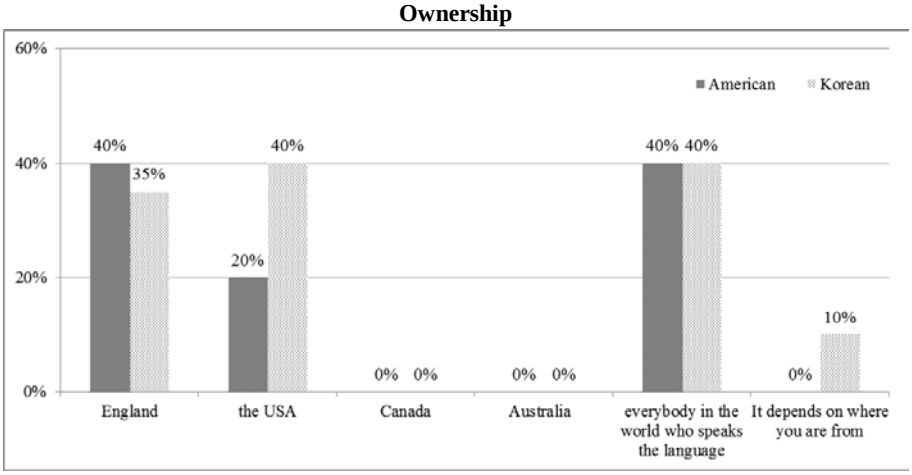


Figure 4, 5, and 6 show both groups' perceptions of English and its ownership. As Figure 4 shows, of the American group, just under half agreed that English belongs to England and a few agreed that it belongs to the USA, both Inner Circle countries. Paradoxically, no participant chose Canada or Australia, which are also considered part of the Inner Circle. This might be the result of the political and economic dominance of the UK and the USA, as mentioned by Jenkins (2014). Just less than half of the NES respondents agreed that English belongs to everybody in the world who speaks the language, which fits perfectly with the idea of WE. It is surprising to see that only a few of the Americans claimed that it belongs to America.

As Figure 4 also shows, of the Korean participants, less than half thought that the ownership of English belongs to the UK, and the USA, both Inner Circle countries; like the Americans, the Koreans did not choose Canada or Australia. The same proportions of Koreans and Americans agreed that English belongs to everybody in the world who speaks the language, and a few Koreans said it depends on where you are from, indicating that ownership varies by country.

To summarize, to some extent both groups shared the idea that English belongs to the two Inner Circle countries of the UK and the USA, but slightly more Korean participants had a perception of English ownership that fits the concept of WE.

FIGURE 5

Existence of a Standard English

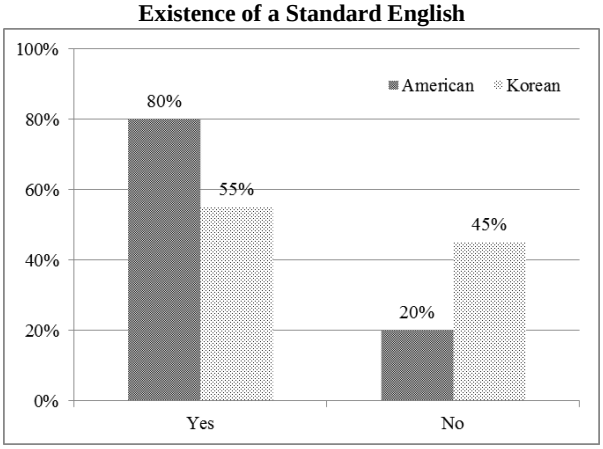


Figure 5 summarizes the participants' beliefs about the existence of a standard English. Figure 6-1 shows that some participants said they accept only some Englishes; these participants were asked to indicate which varieties they accepted on a given list, and Figure 6-2 presents these results.

FIGURE 6-1

Acceptance

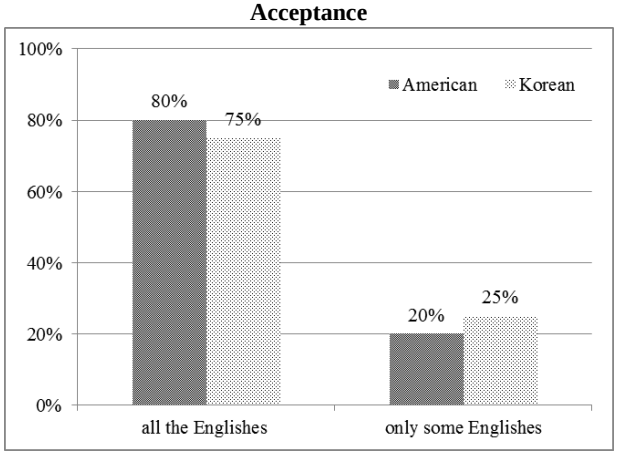
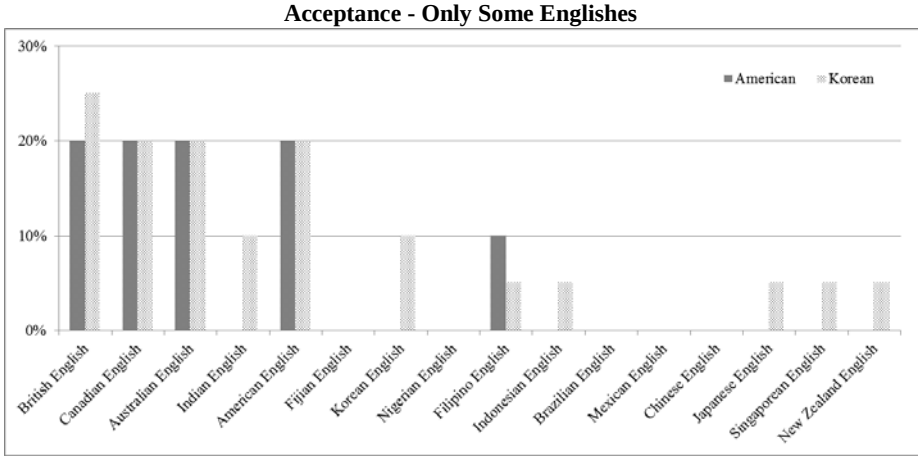


FIGURE 6-2

Acceptance - Only Some Englishes



As presented in Figure 5, a large majority of the American participants responded that they believe in the existence of a standard English. As Figure 6-1 and 6-2 show, the same number also reported that they accept all the Englishes. A minority of the NES participants said they accept only some Englishes, mostly but not entirely those of the Inner Circle countries: British, Canadian, Australian, American, and Filipino English. These results seem contradictory, because the NES participants seem very open minded about WE and willing to accept other forms of English, yet they also strongly believe in standard English, possibly because they are native English speakers themselves. Phillipson (1998) suggested that, for native speakers of mainstream English, who are privileged to be at the top of a global linguistic hierarchy of power, it is particularly

difficult to imagine a situation where one's own language is stigmatized and threatened, or a situation where English is appropriated to express a different world view.

The results of the Korean participants show some differences from those of the American participants. According to their responses, only just over half of the Korean participants believe in the existence of standard English, whereas just under half do not. Because the Korean participants are not native English speakers, they might have been confused by the concept of a "standard," while the Americans would have assumed that the language they naturally learned as their own was the standard. Next, as Figure 6-1 and 6-2 illustrate, most of the Koreans accept all the Englishes but, interestingly, about a quarter of the Korean respondents do not. This response needs to be given close attention. Of the Korean participants, 25% indicated that they accepted only some of the Englishes, among which were British, American, Canadian, Australian, Korean, Indian, Filipino, New Zealand, Indonesian, Japanese, and Singaporean English. Unlike the Americans, the Koreans who did not accept all Englishes still accepted a wide variety of Englishes, many from the Outer Circle (16.7%) and the Expanding Circle (14.3%); in other words, WE. In contrast, few of the American participants who did not accept all Englishes accepted any from outside the Inner Circle; 11% accepted Filipino English, which is from the Expanding Circle, and none accepted any English from the Outer Circle. Thus, from Figure 6-1, the Korean participants might seem less accepting or selectively accepting of Englishes, but Figure 6-2 shows that they are more open to a wider range of different Englishes.

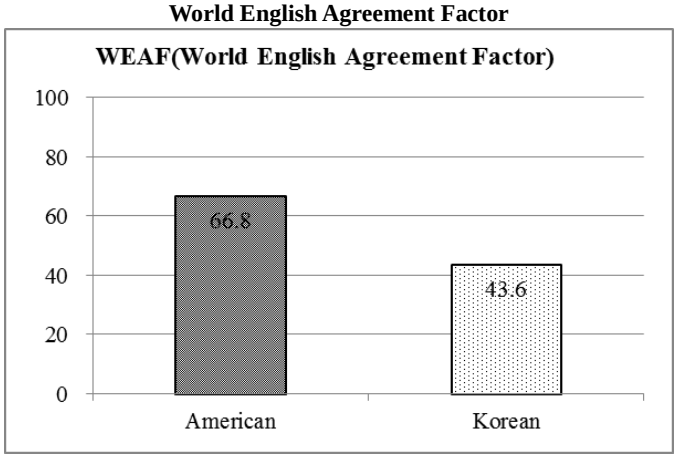
To sum up, the results of the survey's questions about the perception of English and its ownership, displayed in Figure 4, 5, and 6, are contradictory and paradoxical. Both language groups seem open-minded and willing to accept WE, but in response to specific questions about ownership and the existence of standard English, the two groups differed. More of the Korean participants showed readiness to embrace more of the different forms of English spoken by people around the world.

2. Tolerance of Errors

This section examines the two groups' tolerance and acceptance of local errors. The correlation between tolerance and acceptance of the errors shows how it matches the attitudes and perceptions of both groups.

FIGURE 7

World English Agreement Factor



Tolerance and acceptance of local errors are shown in Figure 7 in terms of what I have named the "World English Agreement Factor" (WEAF).

This result was obtained by calculating the root mean square (RMS) of the difference for degree of understanding and degree of necessity of correction, which the participants rated on 5-point scales. RMS is a mathematical formula used statistically to see the difference of two compared values. In this study, it is used to find the difference between the survey participants' ratings of their degree of understanding and their perception of the necessity of correction. I define the resulting value as the World English Agreement Factor (WEAF). The calculation used the following equation:

$$\mathrm{RMS} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(u_i - c_i)^2}{n}} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} u_i\text{: degree of understanding} \\ c_i\text{: necessity of correction} \\ n\text{: number of participants} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathrm{WEAF} = 100 - \mathrm{RMS} * 20$$

The resulting RMS value indicates the gap between the participants' understanding and their tolerance of local errors. The greater the RMS value, the less tolerant the participants were of local errors; thus, a high RMS indicates a feeling of discomfort or repulsion in regard to WE. The RMS value for the American participants is 1.6 and that for the Korean participants is 2.8. For clarity, I converted the value of WEAF into a 100-point system in Figure 7 where a higher WEAF value shows more tolerance and acceptance toward WE.

As Figure 7 indicates, the American participants were more accepting of local errors than the Korean participants. Interestingly, the degree of understanding and the degree of the necessity of correction of the American participants are parallel, whereas the Koreans'

responses show a large gap between the two. The current study's results show that Koreans are stricter about errors regardless of whether they can understand the utterance. This result is quite contradictory to their open-minded attitudes about WE.

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study presents findings regarding two main points. First, the American participants seemed to welcome different varieties of English and to have a positive attitude toward linguistic diversity. They were accepting of many of the Englishes that are used internationally, and they are aware of and agree with the use of some terms that describe English as a main communication method in the world, such as "an international language" or "a global language." They are also very tolerant toward grammatical errors as long as they understand an utterance's meaning. Paradoxically, however, while they seemed to accept all Englishes and be open to cultural/linguistic diversity, most of the American participants believed that there is a standard form of English. Furthermore, many Korean participants accepted more varieties of English, not just those of the Inner Circle, but also the Englishes from Expanding and Outer Circle countries. They were more open to other forms of English and indicated less belief in the existence of a standard English. The paradox that emerged in the Korean participants' responses is that although they seemed to accept many forms of English as legitimate, they also seemed less tolerant of grammar errors, which is inconsistent with their acceptance of WE. In other words, they might hold an ideal of English diversity, but when it comes to real practice, they become judgmental about accuracy.

Because of the small sample size, especially of the NES group, the study's results should not be generalized. In addition, the NES group for this study only represents one city in the USA (Irvine), so it does not represent all Americans. As for the NNES group, these participants were of a very similar demographic, all majoring in medicine at the same university, whereas the NES participants had various jobs and educational backgrounds. Moreover, although all of the participants completed the survey in a sincere manner, the two groups showed distinct attitudes toward the study. The Americans completed the survey in a spirit of interest, fun, and curiosity, whereas the Koreans completed it as if they were taking an English exam, being rather too serious and even in some cases becoming stressed about it. These unintentionally very different atmospheres might have affected the results for better or worse.

Overall, the results suggest that both groups have reasonably progressive ideas and concepts about WE. Both groups seemed open to the idea that English is for everybody, but there is still room for expanding their views. The study's findings indicate that both

NESs and NNESs are willing to accept diversity to some extent, but need to learn more about WE to fully understand the role of English in the world today. Thus, to effectively meet the needs of today's students, educators need to be sensitive and appreciative of the existence of diverse Englishes, and to act as guides to bring their students to full awareness of WE.

Education is power, and teachers are at the center of education. Educational innovation could help students by providing the right concepts needed to understand WE. We are still in the process of becoming more accepting and open to the pluricentric nature of English; as the results of this study show, both NESs and NNESs have prejudices against some ideas of WE and do not fully follow the concept of WE. The study's findings suggest that while participants from both groups acknowledged the existence of diversified Englishes, their attitudes toward WE contain contradictions: Most of the American participants believed in the existence of a standard English, and most of the Korean participants seemed to validate the linguistic structures of only the Inner Circle, even when understanding was not undermined.

Considering these results, it is crucial to educate people about the sociolinguistic evolution of English use and users, and to teach them to be more critical in their thinking about WE. The phenomenon of globalization entails that diverse societies must learn to live together; thus, various Englishes characterized by the regional users of English have arisen; however, in Korea, changes are desperately needed in people's views of English, because the world is not following the norms of the Inner Circle but instead creating and accepting their own ways of speaking, like Japlish and Chinglish.

As Yook and Ryu (2015) pointed out, English teaching practices in Korea have been very much dominated by so-called "American English." This situation is due to Korea's relationship of economic and socio-political subjugation to the USA. English learning materials and teaching theories have been adopted and framed in American English contexts. WE education would raise people's awareness of the pedagogical and ideological implications of WE.

This paper therefore presents two suggestions. The first is that English education in Korea needs to embrace the concept of WE beyond the realm of the Inner Circle. WE should be discussed and experienced more frequently so that Korean students will become more open minded. Education about WE must be ongoing, as the Englishes of the world themselves are changing and will keep changing. And while people seem quite open to the concept and ideas, many are skeptical about accepting it or do not fully understand it. Persistent education on WE is the solution to such problems. Second, educators need to embrace more varieties of English and should have more open attitudes toward the use of Konglish, or Korean English. It should be recognized and accepted as one of the World Englishes because English is an important asset to Koreans,

and it is taken seriously in our society.

The results of this study underscore the necessity of affirmative and persistent education on WE to develop Koreans' full understanding of the global spread of English. It takes time to get the concept right. The term "World English" was introduced approximately 30 years ago, but it has not yet been part of the school curriculum in Korea.

This study is an effort to address this gap and the needs of students and educators in English-speaking institutions, whose role it is to further refine, affirm, and correct the concept of WE. Only in this way will Korean English speakers come to share communicative responsibility with speakers of all varieties of WE. There needs to be further investigation into different perceptions and attitudes of people from Three Circles: Inner, Outer, and Expanding circles and examine the contrasting outcomes.

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APPENDIX

Survey on English

Personal Background

1. Sex:
   ☐ Male ☐ Female
2. Age:
   ☐ 20–30 ☐ 30–40 ☐ 40–50 ☐ 50–60
3. Education:
   ☐ Bachelor's ☐ Master's ☐ Doctor's

4. I am:
   ☐ monolingual ☐ bilingual ☐ trilingual ☐ multilingual
5. I have lived abroad.
   ☐ Yes ☐ No
   If yes, please specify the country or countries. _____
   For how long? _____
6. Ethnic background:
   ☐ Asian / Pacific Islander ☐ African-American / Black ☐ Caucasian
   ☐ Hispanic / Latino ☐ Others (please specify)
7. I am a citizen of _____

Concepts

1. English belongs to
   ☐ England ☐ the USA ☐ Canada ☐ Australia
   ☐ everybody in the world who speaks the language.
   ☐ It depends on where you are from.
2. I believe that standard English exists.
   ☐ Yes ☐ No
3. I have experienced different varieties of English.
   ☐ Yes ☐ No
4. I have heard English referred to as
   ☐ an international language ☐ a global language ☐ world English
   ☐ a lingua franca ☐ none of the above
   ☐other _____
5. I think the most appropriate term for the English language is
   ☐ an international language ☐ a global language ☐ world English
   ☐ a lingua franca ☐ none of above
   ☐ other _____
6. I accept
   ☐ all the Englishes (don't need to check the list below)
   ☐ only some Englishes (If yes, please check the list below)

☐ British English	☐ Korean English	☐ Mexican English
☐ Canadian English	☐ Nigerian English	☐ Chinese English
☐ Australian English	☐ Filipino English	☐ Japanese English
☐ Indian English	☐ Indonesian English	☐ Singaporean English
☐ American English	☐ Brazilian English	☐ New Zealand English
☐ Fijian English		

Tolerance and Acceptance (Part A, Part B)

< Degree of understanding >	< Necessity >
Indicate how well you think you understand each sentence below by marking a number: 5: 100% – I understand completely. 4: 80% – I'm fairly sure of its meaning. 3: 50% – I'm not sure but I think I get it. 2: 20% – I want to double check what I understood. 1: 0% – I don't understand.	Indicate how correct you think each sentence below is by marking a number: 5: It's perfect. 4: It's slightly different than I would say it. 3: It's bearable. 2: It bothers me a little. 1: It absolutely needs correction.

Part A (Please check the degree)

1. I have many homeworks, Mom!
   Degree of understanding: ☐ 5 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 ☐ 2 ☐ 1
   Necessity of correction: ☐ 5 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 ☐ 2 ☐ 1
2. Many doctors in Saint Mary's discussed about new viruses going around in the town.
   Degree of understanding: ☐ 5 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 ☐ 2 ☐ 1
   Necessity of correction: ☐ 5 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 ☐ 2 ☐ 1
3. I lived in France since 2003.
   Degree of understanding: ☐ 5 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 ☐ 2 ☐ 1
   Necessity of correction: ☐ 5 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 ☐ 2 ☐ 1
4. Why you are so mean to me?
   Degree of understanding: ☐ 5 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 ☐ 2 ☐ 1
   Necessity of correction: ☐ 5 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 ☐ 2 ☐ 1

Part B (Please check the degree)

1. Drive safe.
   Degree of understanding: ☐ 5 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 ☐ 2 ☐ 1
   Necessity of correction: ☐ 5 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 ☐ 2 ☐ 1
2. You did good.
   Degree of understanding: ☐ 5 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 ☐ 2 ☐ 1
   Necessity of correction: ☐ 5 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 ☐ 2 ☐ 1
3. I didn't eat nothing.
   Degree of understanding: ☐ 5 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 ☐ 2 ☐ 1

Necessity of correction: ☐ 5 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 ☐ 2 ☐ 1

4. How many children you have?
   Degree of understanding: ☐ 5 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 ☐ 2 ☐ 1
   Necessity of correction: ☐ 5 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 ☐ 2 ☐ 1

Part C (Check the one you think is the most appropriate.)

1. A: You can't watch this movie. It's rated R.
   B: Don't worry. I'm much older than you think.
   A: Really? _____
   ☐ What is your age? ☐ How old are you?
2. A: I need to get going. It's getting late.
   B: OK, I'll give you a ride home. _____
   ☐ Where do you live? ☐ Where is your home?
3. A: I can't believe I got a full scholarship this semester and a job offer at the same time.
   B: Only one out of a million would have that luck. _____
   ☐ I envy you. ☐ You are so lucky.
4. A: I'm sorry, but I think you are mistaking me for someone else. _____
   B: Don't be silly. It's me, John.
   ☐ Do I know you? ☐ Do you know me?

Part D (Please read the description of each situation and write down what you would say in that situation.)

1. You are having dinner with your friend's family. The food is delicious, and you want to ask your friend's mother/ father for more. What do you say?
   _____
   _____
   _____
2. You get on the bus home and you are carrying a lot of books. You are tired and you want to sit down. At first glance, it seems that there are no seats left, but then you notice that a student is taking up two seats. How do you ask this student to move over so you can sit down?
   _____
   _____
   _____
3. You go to the library to return a lot of books and your hands are full. There is a man who looks like a professor standing near the door of the library. How do you ask him to open the door for you?

_____
_____
_____

4. You are studying in your room and you hear loud music coming from a room down the hall. You don't know the student who lives there, but you want to ask him/her to turn the music down. What do you say?

_____
_____
_____

Tasks taken from Rose, K. (1994). On the validity of the discourse completion task in non-western contexts. *Applied Linguistics*, 15(1), 1-14.

Examples in: English
Applicable Language: English
Applicable Levels: All levels

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An Analysis of Korean University Students' Demotivation and Remotivation in the EFL Classroom

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This study investigated the demotivation and remotivation factors of English learning for Korean university students in EFL situations. The sample group totaled 175 university students who took various types of English courses. The data collection consisted of a survey with closed questions, and individual interviews with a randomly selected sample of the student population. The data was processed by frequency and correlation analysis as well as a one-way analysis of variance based on participants' TOEIC scores. The findings were split into three categories: remotivation methods, demotivation factors, and remotivation factors. The findings highlighted that low-level students lacked remotivation methods while high-level students used remotivation methods more frequently. The main demotivation factors were lack of basic language ability and the core focus on tests. The leading remotivational factors were triggered by receiving satisfactorily high test scores and future job prospects. Additional significantly different results by student level are noted.

[remotivating methods/remotivating factors/demotivating factors]

I. INTRODUCTION

The motivation of acquiring a second language has been the topic of countless studies. For decades, numerous academics have insisted that motivational factors play a major role in determining the success of second language acquisition (Dörnyei, 2001; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Williams, 1994). Especially, when students learn English in EFL (English as a foreign language) classrooms, motivation takes a core role in making English education achievements.

Dörnyei (2001) proposes that motivation in L2 learning is never static. It is a continuously changing process throughout the interactions with the learners' social and educational environment. Demotivation and remotivation factors affect the student to various degrees within themselves and according to their current situation while immersed in the second language (Dörnyei, 2001; Ushioda, 1998, 2001).

In accordance with previous research on motivation, the purpose of the study is to collect data on how university students perceive the cause of their demotivation and their subsequent attempt to remotivate themselves in their EFL courses. Due to globalization, a lot of pressure has been put on Korean society to acquire a communicative level of English. However, many students fall short of their English proficiency goals due to lack of motivation caused by many years of rote learning. The persistent dilemma for English educators is how to positively remotivate the university students effectively.

Considering the consensus on the findings till now, this research tries to provide information on what remotivates college students and in what ways can teachers positively influence demotivated students in their classrooms. This study investigates the following research questions:

1. Is there a relation between TOEIC score and students' remotivation method?
2. What are the significant demotivation factors by level?
3. What are the significant remotivation factors by level?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Motivation

Gardner and Lambert's (1972) epic 10-year study on SLA indicated that learners' level of foreign language realization was linked to their aspiration of assimilating with the linguistic-cultural group. However, identifying a specific group is skewed with English being used a lingua franca for communication (Lamb, 2007). Furthermore, employees who use a second language for personal gain may not interact with the target language group (Block & Cameron, 2002). With this information, we can separate motivation into instrumental and integrative. Integrative motivation would result in communication and amalgamation; while instrumental motivation would fill the requirements for getting a job or raise (Dörnyei, 1990).

Dörnyei modified his earlier research on the L2 self to account for the EFL learners' various types of motivation. The ideal L2 self contains the motivational factors

perceived for the successful acquisition of the L2 (Dörnyei, 2005). The additional two L2 selves are described in the following appropriate sections.

Presently, research in language learning motivation is altering perspective from what causes motivation to how it changes. The noticeable shifts in L2 leaner's motivation congeal with this new direction as language learning motivation is seen as volatile. In this view, motivation is a process which is prone to change and effects the learner through internal and external factors. Dörnyei (2001) encompasses this new direction with the process-oriented approach. The process-oriented approach takes into account how motivation is achieved and upheld, as well as the fluctuations it goes through during the L2 learning process (Ushioda, 1998, 2001; Williams & Burden, 1997).

2. Demotivation

The third category of the *L2 self* described by Dörnyei is labeled the *ought-to L2* (2005, 2009). The ought-to L2 is a stage where learners are experiencing effects from demotivational factors which makes them perceive that they are not achieving an adequate level of language proficiency. The level of motivation is calculated by subtracting demotivating factors from positive influences (Dörnyei, 2001). A learner's motivation can be decreased by numerous internal and external reasons. Internal factors include frustration and resistance to engage (Bacon & Finnemann, 1990). External factors include teacher aspects and syllabus requirements (Christophel & Gorham, 1995).

Demotivation aspects which have already taken a foothold of the students before they even stepped into the learning environment are referred to as antecedent conditions. Possible antecedent influences are attitude (Schunk, 1985), desire (Vernon, 1969), and self-perception (Bandura, 1981). Gorham and Christophel research findings which were derived from university surveys concluded that instructors can influence student motivation positively; however, the instructors have a greater possibility of preventing demotivation (1992).

Falout and Maruyama (2004) were concerned with demotivators between low and high level learners of English in university. To gather data, they used a questionnaire with six categories of question items: teachers, courses, attitude toward English speaking community, attitude toward English itself, self-confidence, and attitude of group members. The results indicated that reduced self-confidence, attitude toward an L2, courses, teachers, and attitude of group members turned out to be the sources of demotivation for low-level learners; while high-level learners tend to attribute their demotivation more to the learner factor, that is, reduced self-confidence. Falout and Maruyama (2004) also suggested that low-level learners had experienced negative attitudes toward the English language earlier than the other levels of learners. Kim and

Ma (2013) investigated Korean high school students demotivating factors in learning English dependent on their proficiency levels, revealing that difficulty of learning English, plus grades and test scores were primary and secondary sources of demotivation among learners. They also found that less proficient learners relatively encountered demotivating factors much more frequently than those who were not in an L2 learning context. Jung (2011) examined the motivation factors of Korean university students from their kindergarten to university period. His results followed that during the students' high school period, their demotivation occurred the most, and the most motivation occurred in elementary school as well as their college period.

3. Remotivation

Motivation in education simply stated is having the craving to learn. A learner, if not motivated, must have some degree of motivation in order for a decrease to occur in motivation which would lead to a state of demotivation (Dörnyei, 2001). At times the reasons and will-power seem lost. Remotivation is what can get a learner back in sync with their goals by increasing motivation. According to Ushioda's results, students can remotivate themselves by either ignoring demotivation events to promote self-esteem or by being proactive with their own techniques and strategies (1998, 2001).

Pertaining to remotivating or retaining motivation theories emerge from Dörnyei. Dörnyei surmises that a learner creates an L2 individual self which maintains their L2 learning motivation (2009). Therefore, remotivation is spurred by keeping in touch with L2 individual self. According to Dörnyei L2 learning experience category, which is a stage of creating an L2 self, the learner receives stimulus to continue forming an L2 *self identity* (2005, 2009).

Trang and Baldauf (2007), by analyzing stimulated recall essays from college students in Vietnam of Foreign Language learning experience, demonstrated that internal factors were significantly more effective to learners' overcoming demotivation than external ones in learning. Daif-Allah and Alsamani (2014) firstly set out specifying nine external demotivating factors, and secondly implemented a set of remotivating strategies in L2 instructional settings. To do this, they devised practical remotivating strategies which could stimulate intrinsic and external motivational components such as classroom atmosphere, the introduction of in-class work session, and class size. The findings obtained from the study were that these strategies ultimately provided the appropriate learning condition, which in turn might increase the levels of remotivation and interest to learn.

Cho and Chung (2014) investigated what were the demotivating and remotivating factors of Korean L2 learners in learning English depending on learners' proficiency

levels. Regarding demotives in learning English in general, the external factor was found to be the main cause of the learners' demotivation. The results also indicated that there existed statistically significant differences for the external and internal factors between two groups. In terms of the remotivating factors, the internal sources appeared to be more influential than the external ones in regaining learners' interest toward English learning between the two groups.

Based on the previous research on demotivation and remotivation, this research investigated the demotivation and remotivation factors by level. So far, most studies on the demotivation and remotivation of English learning were mainly investigated through quantitative research. In this study, qualitative research was also conducted through interviews to understand the specific reasons for demotivation and re-motivation, which are difficult to extract with quantitative research. Through analyzing the factors that affect students' past demotivation and remotivation, the study aims to provide suggestions for students to study English more successfully depend on their proficiency level.

III. RESEARCH METHOD

1. Participants

In this research, of the total 175 students who participated in the survey, 91 were male (52% of the total), and 84 were female (accounting for 48% of the total). Therefore, the men and women participants were nearly evenly distributed.

To divide students' level into high and low proficiency categories, their TOEIC scores were used. The data collected is depicted in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1
Students English Proficiency Level

TOEIC Score	Number	Percentage (%)
Under 400 (low)	79	45.1
400~700 (mid)	68	38.9
Over 700 (high)	28	16.1
Total	175	100

In the distribution of the students, the majority were in the low and mid proficiency group. As calculated in the previous table, there are 79 participants in low proficiency level, 68 participants in mid proficiency level, and the remaining 28 participants in high proficiency level.

TABLE 2
Studying Hours

Studying Hours	Number	Percentage (%)
0	61	(34.9%)
1~3	78	(44.6%)
4~7	21	(12.0%)
Over 8	15	(8.6%)

The amount of time that students spend on studying English per week is shown in Table 2. The percentage of students that do not study is 34%. The students who study 1 to 3 hours is 44.6%, 4 to 7 hours 12%, and over 8 hours 8.6%. The majority of the respondents stated that they study 1~3 hours. However, the second most common response at 34.9% was not to study English at all.

TABLE 3
Staying Abroad Experience

Experience	Number	Percentage (%)
No	138	(78.9%)
Yes	37	(21.1%)

The majority of students who participated in the questionnaire responded that they did not study abroad. According to the survey, 78.9% students have no experience studying abroad while 21.1% students studied abroad.

2. Instruments

This research paper collected data from a survey and selected follow-up interviews. Randomly selected students from three universities in South Korea participated in the

survey. Completed and returned surveys totaled 175: B University 72, H University 64, and D University 39. Note, the survey was written in Korean.

The survey was broken down into three sections. The first segment of the survey inquired about the students and their background information. Standard information included their major, gender, and TOEIC score. In addition, three more open-ended short answer questions were added to acquire data about students' study hours, study tools, and experience abroad. The second segment comprised of 17 demotivational statements. The third set of questions centered on 12 remotivation factors. All the tables used the Likert scale style of data collection.

Interviews were conducted one week after the questionnaire to obtain additional information for qualitative research. Four low-level students and three high-level students were interviewed. There were 14 interview questions which were related to demotivation and remotivation. Interviews were conducted in the classroom. Students were allotted 10 minutes per question. The interviews were recorded and then transcribed. Among them, the contents related to the hypothesis were extracted and summarized. Interview questions were the same regardless of their level. The results of the interviews are described in the research findings. On research findings, the researcher numbered the students and labeled high-level and low-level students as capital H and L, respectively.

The questionnaire and interview items of de-motivation and re-motivation were reconstructed according to the purpose of this study with reference to the questionnaire items of Yeo (2014) and Ma (2014).

IV. RESEARCH FINDINGS

The South Korean university students had previously participated in English courses. The findings of the research focused on English learning motivation factors and motivation recovering factors.

1. Remotivating Method

Table 4 below is the grouping of responses from the question about the kind of studying methods students use when they lose interest in study English.

TABLE 4

Remotivating Method

Learning Method	Number	Percentage (%)
English drama, movie	61	34.9
Pop song	13	7.4
Vocabulary studying	15	8.6
Contact foreigner (conversation)	11	6.3
Etc.	16	9.1
None	59	33.7
Total	175	100

Most students (34.9%) answered that they watch an English drama or movie in order to remotivate them to study English. Secondly, an unexpected result from 15 (8.6%) students who responded that they memorize vocabulary to bring their interest back to studying English. Thirdly, students listen to pop songs to regain an interest in studying English. Another 11 (6.3%) said they take a conversation class to have an opportunity to meet foreigners. There were other opinions such as playing English related games, taking a TOEIC test, and thinking about their future. However, 59 (33.7%) students said even though they lose interest in studying English, they do not try any remotivating method. Unfortunately, the students lacking the will to attempt any type of remotivation technique was the second highest ranking response and implies that a lot of students do not have any special method when they lose interest in studying English. The next analysis researched if there is any relation between remotivating method and TOEIC score. Check Table 5 below for an overview of the results.

TABLE 5

The Relationship of Remotivation Method and TOEIC Score

Learning Method	TOEIC Score			χ^2	p
	Under 400	400~700	Over 700		
English drama, movie	25 (31.6%)	20 (31.3%)	16 (50.5%)	3.957	.138
Pop song	6 (7.6%)	5 (7.8%)	2 (6.3%)	.082	.960
Vocabulary studying	7 (8.9%)	5 (7.8%)	3 (9.4%)	.082	.960
Contact foreigner (conversation)	1 (1.3%)	7 (10.9%)	3 (9.4%)	6.249	.044
Etc.	8 (10.1%)	5 (7.8%)	3 (9.4%)	.230	.891
None	32 (40.5%)	22 (34.4%)	5 (15.6%)	6.329	.042
Total	79 (100%)	64 (100%)	32 (100%)		

In the student low-level category, 40.5% indicated they do not have any remotivating method, which is the highest percentage among the three levels. A slight drop in the student mid-level category, with 34.4% of them, specifying they also do not have any remotivating method. In other words, more mid-level students use remotivating method then the low-level students. However, only 15.6% of high-level students said they do not have remotivating method which is significant spread from the mid and low level students.

Notable points are that the mid and high level students are attending native speaker conversation courses as a remotivation method at 10.9% and 9.4%, respectively, but only 1.3% at of the low-level students pick this method. This infers that conversation with native speakers is more of a burden to low-level students.

2. Demotivating Factors

The results of the survey on the demotivation of students are depicted in Table 6 below.

TABLE 6

Demotivation Factors for Learning English

Demotivation Factors	Number	Mean*	Standard Deviation
1	175	2.99	.837
2	175	2.55	.907
3	175	2.85	.871
4	175	2.87	.903
5	175	2.63	.900
6	175	2.93	.897
7	175	2.70	.911
8	175	2.30	.899
9	175	2.68	.831
10	175	2.58	.840
11	175	2.23	.914
12	175	2.43	.894
13	175	2.21	.899
14	175	2.84	.902
15	175	2.85	.979
16	175	1.70	.834
17	175	2.68	.965

* minimum value: 1, maximum value: 4

The survey was conducted with 175 students using a minimum value of 1 and a maximum value of 4. The highest average score was 2.99 on item 1: "I think that the reason for my demotivation when I study English is because of my lack of basic skills in English." Therefore, many students have lost interest in English due to their deficiency in the foundation of English. Kim (2012) also insisted that a main demotivation factor was difficulty of English learning due to student's deficiency in basic skills. The second highest average score was 2.93, which is item 6: 'I only concentrate on the lessons for the test and do not find the lessons useful in real life'. As the Korean English language education system is focused on tests, it can be seen that the students lose interest because of this. The third highest average score was on item 4 (2.87). Item 4 is 'Because I do not understand the difficult English grammar'. This indicates that even though the students have learned English grammar for a long time in class, they still feel the grammar is difficult and is a cause of demotivational degradation. The questions tied with fourth highest average are items 3 and 15 with an average of 2.85. The third item is 'I do not know how to study English by myself.' These results correspond with the question of 'remotivation learning' in Table 6 where has 33.7% of students answered that they have no special learning method. item 15 is 'Even if I studied English, I could not use it in my daily life'. This points out that the EFL English environment, which only uses Korean outside of class is a factor that deteriorates the motivation to learn English.

Other significant differences between motivation and remotivation factors were discovered dependent on student's level. First notice that nine items among the motivation factors for learning English by student level showed significant differences, which is close to half of the items. The results are shown in the next Table 7.

TABLE 7

Demotivation Factors by Level

Demotivation Factor	TOEIC Score	Students	Average	Standard Deviation	F	*p*
1	under 400	79	3.30	.774	17.764	.000
	400~700	68	2.90	.715		
	over 700	28	2.32	.863		
2	under 400	79	2.75	.854	8.368	.000
	400~700	68	2.57	.919		
	over 700	28	1.96	.793		
3	under 400	79	3.15	.786	19.302	.000
	400~700	68	2.82	.791		
	over 700	28	2.07	.813		

	under 400	79	3.06	.852		
4	400~700	68	2.84	.857	6.094	.003
	over 700	28	2.39	.994		
	under 400	79	2.71	.865		
5	400~700	68	2.68	.854	2.486	.086
	over 700	28	2.29	1.049		
	under 400	79	2.66	.846		
8	400~700	68	2.01	.855	13.302	.000
	over 700	28	1.96	.793		
	under 400	79	2.54	.917		
11	400~700	68	2.00	.792	9.121	.000
	over 700	28	1.93	.940		
	under 400	79	2.87	.838		
14	400~700	68	3.03	.880	7.341	.001
	over 700	28	2.29	.937		
	under 400	79	2.90	.955		
15	400~700	68	2.99	.938	4.463	.013
	over 700	28	2.36	1.026		
	under 400	79	2.81	.988		
17	400~700	68	2.72	.928	4.186	.017
	over 700	28	2.21	.876		

Among the learner factors items (Questions 1 to 5), items 1 to 4 had significant results. Since 4 out of the 5 learner factor items resulted in a significant difference among the levels, we can surmise this result is the fact that there are many demotivational factors that are caused by learners' factors according to the level of students. A more in-depth look at the items is outlined below.

Item 1 is that students' learning motivation is lowered because they do not have basic knowledge of English. The low-level students' average score 3.30 is close to 'very agree'. The high-level students' average score is 2.32 which is close to 'not quite so.' Here we see the lack of basic skills of low-level students leads to a decline in English learning motivation. There was a similar mention in the low-level group during the student interviews.

> *I do not have an English foundation, so it is difficult to understand the teacher's explanation. (L4)*

There are a lot of parts that I don't know in English, so I feel English is difficult. (L5)

Item 2 also shows a significant difference among the leveled groups. The item was 'the motivation to learn English was deteriorated because it was difficult to memorize English words or phrases'. The average of the high-level students was 1.96 while the average of mid-level students and low-level students were 2.57 and 2.75, respectively. This indicated that mid-level and low-level students are more likely to suffer from the difficulty of memorizing English words or phrases.

There was also a difference in the level of question that the motivation of learning decreased because they did not know how to do study English by themselves, item 3. In particular, by taking the difference between the high and low level averages gives 1.08, which was larger than the other items. The average of the low-level students is 3.15, which means that low-level students do not know how to study and their motivation decreases.

Item 4, 'students get demotivated because they can't understand difficult grammar' showed the difference among three groups was also notable. This implies that the lower the student level is the more serious demotivation the student gets due to the difficult English grammar. In the interviews, many low-level students also expressed the difficulty of English grammar.

The teacher did the lesson on the assumption that students knew basic grammar knowledge, but I did not understand it. Therefore, the lesson was difficult. (L1)

There is too much grammar in the English class, so it is hard to understand. (L3)

The next items 6 through to 12 represented teaching method factor statements for English learning demotivation. Among these items, only item 8 and 11 had significant difference by level. The 8th item is that 'The English class is too difficult to cause motivation deterioration'. This expresses that the lower the English level, the more difficult it is to learn English and the less interesting it is. The 11th is the item that 'The English sentences covered in the class cannot be understood'. The lower the English level, the higher the percentage of the difficulty of understanding English sentences. However, overall, students didn't feel it is as difficult as the 8th item.

The environmental factor questions of English learning demotivation were items 13 to 17. Among these items, items 14, 15 and 17 had significant difference by level. The highest average of the items was 15. Item 15 was 'even if you study English, you will not be able to use it in everyday life'. The average in the low-level was 2.90 and the average in the high-level was 2.36, which was higher than that of the 14th and 17th item. The low-

level students showed an average of 0.54 above the high-level students. This implies that as the student's level is lower if the student has more chances to use English in everyday life, it can be very helpful to enhance learning motivation. Item 14 is 'motivation deterioration occurs because students learn English for a long time without a goal', and item 17 is 'the motivation deterioration occurs because of the pressure to learn English unconditionally'. The average of item 14 and 17 was higher as the student's level decreases. The evaluation method and the early class time were not significant as the demotivational factors of English learning.

The results of this study are as follows: First, 4 items were significant among 5 items that involved learner factors, 2 items were significant among 7 items that are related to teaching method, and 3 items were significant among 5 items that are related to environmental factor. Therefore, the data results indicate that the factors that have the most influence on the demotivation for learning English by level are the learner factors, and the ones that have the least influence are the teaching method factors. Kikuchi and Sakai (2009) also argue that learning materials and grades were the main demotivation factors rather than teachers. In addition, the students' individual interviews revealed the following: the university students answered that they all had the least desire to study English during their high school stage.

> *I did not like high school English. At high school, teachers only focused on students who were good at SAT and ignored low-level students; hence, not encouraging us. (L1)*

> *High school English is too implicit. Because it is problem-oriented and problem-centered on SAT, It is mainly focused on mechanical learning and memorization. (H1)*

In their personal interview, students reported that they were least motivated to study English at high school during their school years regardless of their level. However, the reasons were slightly different. The high-level did not like the mechanical learning which mainly focuses on the university entrance exam, and the low-level students felt alienated because teachers only focused on top students in the school. Jung (2011) who surveyed 125 Korean college students claimed that demotivation occurred most frequently in high school. Therefore, a fundamental alternative to high school English education is needed. Students should be divided into classes according to their level properly and teachers should also pay attention to low-level students. In addition, high school English education which is centered on university entrance examination should be varied. Researchers confirm these students' sentiments on the stress induced by performing well on the university entrance exams (Kim, 2009; Lee & Kim, 2014)

3. Remotivating Factors

Item 16 received the lowest average score which was 1.70. Item 16 is 'I have classes early in the morning.' This expresses that early classes do not lead to a decrease in students' motivation to learn English. The next lowest average is item 13 with score of 2.21. Item 13 states ‘The students are not satisfied with the class evaluation method’. Therefore, teachers’ evaluation method is not a significant factor for students’ demotivation. A closer look at the results can be viewed in the following Table 8, which display the 12 remotivation items.

TABLE 8

Remotivation Factors for Learning English

Re-motivation Factors	Students	Mean*	Standard Deviation
1	175	2.97	.816
2	175	2.87	.903
3	175	2.97	.909
4	175	2.87	.932
5	175	2.27	.911
6	175	2.78	.896
7	175	2.56	.926
8	175	2.87	.907
9	175	2.16	.843
10	175	3.17	.754
11	175	2.15	.947
12	175	2.58	.899

* minimum value: 1, maximum value: 4

The remotivation factors can be categorized into two elements internal and external. The external elements comprise of items 2- 5, 9- 12 and 7; while 1, 6, 8 are internal in nature. Items 1 and 10 relate to scores, whereas items 2, 5 and 6 relate to teachers. Item 3 investigates social tool recognition. Item 4 is about real-life medium. The influence of friends corresponds to items 7 and 11. Item 8 is linked to English conversation. Item 9 is connected to a new learning environment, while Item 12 enquires about learning methods and strategies.

For remotivation, the highest average score was on item 10 with a mean score of 3.17, which was also the highest among all the motivational and remotivational criteria on the questionnaire. Item 10 "When I get good score in English, I want to study again", demonstrates that receiving high scores on English tests is a major motive restorative factor for the students. The second highest average score is 2.97 on item 3. The item stated that 'English is a necessary subject for obtaining employment, so even though I have difficulty, I will try again.' Obviously future graduates become remotivation due to having a strong interest in employment because most of the institutions require official English score when applying for a position. The third highest average is tied with item 2 and 4, both receiving a 2.87. Item 2 was 'If your teacher encourages you, you will want to study English again'. Students encouraged with positive stimulation seem to have a willingness to study again. Item 4 'I do not have enough chances to speak, but if I am showed visual stimuli like foreign films/images in class then I am interested in English again.' When the students responded to remotivation statements in Table 4, 34.9% of the students answered that they watch foreign movies or dramas in the majority of their classes. Nowadays, students are accustomed to various forms of media such as videos through mobile phones which can heighten their interest in learning English again through graphical content.

The lowest average score is item 11 with an average of 2.15. Item 11 was 'Group activities help English learning is interesting again'. Therefore, group activity is not remotivation factor. The second lowest item is the average of 2.16, item 9. Item 9 is 'I am interested in studying English again by supplementing the contents through the lecture of the Internet or institute'. This illustrates that the internet or institute's lectures are not a big factor to get interested in learning English again.

Table 9 examines the motivation factors of English learning remotivation by level, where 5 out of 12 items were found to be significant.

TABLE 9

Remotivation Factors for English Learning by Level

Remotivation Factor	TOEIC Score	Students	Average	Standard Deviation	F	*p*
5	under 400	79	1.90	.727	14.587	.000
	400~700	68	2.50	.938		
	over 700	28	2.75	.928		
7	under 400	79	2.24	.866	10.692	.000
	400~700	68	2.74	.874		
	over 700	28	3.04	.922		

	under 400	79	2.67	.858		
8	400~700	68	3.04	.888	3.733	.026
	over 700	28	3.04	.999		
	under 400	79	1.94	.722		
9	400~700	68	2.35	.894	5.323	.006
	over 700	28	2.32	.905		
	under 400	79	3.03	.784		
10	400~700	68	3.29	.692	2.762	.066
	over 700	28	3.29	.763		
	under 400	79	2.44	.828		
12	400~700	68	2.57	.935	3.577	.030
	over 700	28	2.96	.922		

The items with significant differences are items 5, 7, 8, 9 and 12. Among the items, the average difference of item 5 and 7 between the high and low level groups was relatively high.

The fifth item is that 'when you start classes in English or begin your classes in English, you will be interested in learning English again'. This item is an external factor and teacher factor. The average of the high-level students is 2.75, and the average of the low-level students is 1.90, which is 0.85 difference. Although the English speaking class and the English teaching method grew to be the remotivating factor for all the levels, the difference of ability between the high and low level students caused large mean disparities. Item 7 is an external factor and influence of friends. The item 7 question is "I think I should study English again if I see a friend who is good at English more than me concentrating on the lesson". The average of the high-level students was 0.8 higher than the average of the low-level students. It can be seen that the high-level students have a greater influence on English learning remotivation due to their friends than the low-level students.

Among the significant items, the items with the smallest difference between the high and low level students were items 8 and 9. Item 8 is that 'I take English class and study hard because I want to talk with a foreigner'. This is an internal factor and is an item related to English conversation. The average difference between the high and low level students was 0.37. This shows that the desire to communicate with foreigners is a remotivation factor, both for the high and low level students. In interviews, both high and low level students said that having conversations with foreigners motivates them to study English. In addition, a survey of 183 college students by Lee and Kim (2014) also

suggested that communication with foreigners is a factor in increasing the students' motivation during college.

I want to speak English well and talk to a foreigner. (L3)

I would like to express everything I want to say with foreigners in English. (H1)

I'm good at English. I want to make foreign friends and work in foreign countries. (H4)

Item 9 is an external factor, which is related to the new learning environment, as a question that the students are interested in learning English again if they catch up English through the lecture of online or institute. This was also the cause of remotivation for the high, mid, and low level students, but the average of the high-level students was 0.38 higher than the low-level students. So, the difference was not large.

Finally, a significant difference was also noted in question 12. Item 12 is 'when students learn how to solve problems and how to study English in class, they are interested in learning English again'. This is external factor and corresponds to learning methods and strategies. The average of the high-level students was 0.52 higher than the average of the low-level students. This indicates that learning English strategies for all levels of students is a remotivational factor. Ushida concludes students invigorate remotivation by being proactive with strategies (2001). Item 10 was $p = .066$, so which was close to the significant results. Item 10 is 'If the English score is good, I want to study English again'. It is an external factor and a score factor. Regardless of the level, the results show that the motivation of learning increases when the score gets better. Additional interview responses related to remotivation uncovered opinions that the low-level students shared in common.

When I am praised for knowing something, I want to study English again. (L4)

If teacher praises me, I want to study. (L2)

When the teacher kindly answers the questions and praises me, I want to study. (L3)

As such, the low-level students seem to be more motivated by the teacher's praise than the high-level students because they have had less confidence in their English ability and have been hurt by high-level student-focused classes. Teacher's encouragement would counteract the loss of confidence low-level students experience from fear of failure

which Dornyei discussed in his 2001 research. On the other hand, there were many opinions that high-level students had remotivation when the test results were good.

Comprehensively, the factors that showed significant difference of remotivation of English learning by level were the factors of strategy, influence of friends, English conversation, new learning environment, learning method, and teacher factor. Interestingly, when investigating factors of demotivation according to learners' level, teaching method had the least influence; but remotivation factors according to the level, teaching method showed a significant difference. Compiling with the contents of individual interviews, it can be seen that the praise and attention from the teacher to the low-level students and the lesson which is conducted in the English to the high-level students are the factors of the remotivation.

V. CONCLUSION AND LIMITATIONS

As a teacher, the ideal class is one with every student fully motivated. But in reality, teachers often face on a number of students who lose their interest. This research started from the curiosity of how the teachers can install motivation in the students again. The research found students' demotivation and remotivation factors as well as their motivation methods. Furthermore, additional analysis is giving the significant difference according to student's level of language proficiency.

First, the remotivation methods were examined. Six remotivation methods which are English drama, pop song, vocabulary studying, conversation with foreigner, or none, etc., were ranked. Among those methods, there were significant differences in a couple of items. First, mid and high level students were much more likely to use conversation with foreigner than low-level students as a remotivation method. Second, as the student's English level decreases they indicate an increase in the lack of use of a remotivaton learning method.

Second, the students' demotivation factors were surveyed. As a whole, the number one cause of students' demotivation reported, which averages 2.99, was that their basic language ability is not enough. The next highest response of demotivation factor was that the core focus of the class was on the test, i.e. not geared toward practical use (average 2.93). Followed by the third most cited response as a demotivational factor, they do not understand English grammar which averaged 2.87. When the demotivational data was crossed checked by group level, 9 items happened to have significant differences among the 17 items. Among the 17 items, items 1 to 5 are learner factors, items 6 to 12 are teaching method factors, and items 13 to 17 are environmental factors. Four of five items of learner factors, two of seven items of teaching method factors and

three items out of five items of the environmental factors showed significant difference by level. Therefore, it can be noted that the factors that have the most influence on the motivation factors of English learning motivation by level are the learner factors, and the ones with the least influence are the teaching method factors. It is observed that unlike the tendency of middle school learners who lose their motivation due to factors related to teachers (Choi & Kim 2013; Dornyei,1998), college students' motivation is further degraded by the difficulties experienced by the learners themselves.

Third, the students' remotivational factors were taken into consideration. Remotivation factors in the general population; the highest average is item 10 at 3.17, which is if they had a high test score they will study again. Item 3 gave remotivation due to future potential for job prospects which averaged at 2.97. Last, item 2 and 4 were tied at 2.87 which are teacher's encouragement and visual stimulation, respectively. As a result of examining the remotivation factors of English learning according to level, 5 out of 12 items were found to have significant differences. Among the five significant items, the following items are noteworthy. Item 5 was 'when you start classes in English or begin your classes in English, you will be interested in learning English again'. Item 5's average difference between the two groups was the biggest which was 0.85. Item 7, "I think I should study English again if I see a friend who is good at English more than me concentrating on the lesson". Item 7's high-level students' average was 0.8 higher than low-level students. Through this, it can be seen that the English class through English is the remotivation method for both the high and low level, but it is a higher remotivation method for the high-level due to the difference in ability. Furthermore, the high-level students are more influenced by their friends than the low-level students when it comes to remotivation occurrences. The smallest difference between high and low level students is item 8, and item 8 is that they try to listen to the English class earnestly because they want to talk with foreigners. In other words, both high and low level students have the desire to communicate with foreigners. In a study of motivation related research which was conducted by Lee and Kim (2014), the results of the questionnaire also suggested that instrumental factors such as communication with foreigners were a motivational factor for university students.

Suggestions based on the research are stated in four aspects. First, student should be separated by level properly. According to the research high-level students satisfying their need depends on the comparable grouping. Therefore, if the level is properly divided, low-level students can build up their fundamental knowledge more firmly, and high-level students can work harder by competing with similar-level students. These days, university classes attempt grouping on ability but not stringently. Second, during the interviews, the students with low-levels stated that teacher praise was the main factor in motivation recovery. Students with low-levels are often anxious and lack confidence,

so if teachers show more interests and give a lot of compliments, the students will acquire remotivation in English learning. Third, methods have to be developed to fulfill the low-level students' needs. Low-level students suffer from low basic ability so educators need to increase basic course and grammar practice to build their fundamental English knowledge. Furthermore, the low-level students lack self-study skills, so teachers should help the students develop their own study method. Fourth, expose mid and high level students to English through native English speaker's classes. The low-level students feel stress when communicating with native speakers. In contrast, interacting with native speakers was quite an important remotivation method for mid and high level students. Classes taught in English were also a way to remotivate the high-level students. Therefore, it would be helpful to increase the motivation of their English learning if many native English speaking classes are provided to the students who have good English language skills.

This study has limitations because the researcher examined only universities in Daejeon for one semester. Future research will reveal deeper insights into demotivation and remotivation factors if researchers study university students across the country and conduct more follow-up interviews over a longer period.

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APPENDIX A

Survey

안녕하세요. 아래의 문항들은 여러분의 학습동기 저하 요인과 회복 요인을 알아보기 위한 것입니다. 영어학습을 해오면서 생각하고 겪은 일을 솔직하게 대답해 주시면 됩니다. 답변한 내용은 개인정보 보호법 제 18 조에 따라 결코 다른 사람에게 공개되지 않으며 오직 연구의 목적으로만 사용할 것입니다. 감사합니다.

설문지

□ 학과:_____ □ 성별:_____ □ 토익점수:_____

□ 지난 학기동안 영어 수업 외에 일주일에 몇 시간 영어 학습을 했습니까? ___ 시간

□ 어학연수나 해외거주 경험이 있습니까?

□ 영어공부가 하기 싫어질 때 영어공부에 다시 흥미를 느끼려고 본인이 사용하는 방법은 무엇인가요?

※ 아래 문항에 대해 1, 2, 3, 4 중 해당되는 것에 O 표해 주세요.

<영어 학습 동기 저하 요인>

(1=전혀 그렇지 않다; 2=약간 그렇지 않다; 3=약간 그렇다; 4=매우 그렇다)

문항	1	2	3	4
1.영어에 대한 기본 실력이 부족하기 때문이다.				
2.영어 단어나 구문을 외우는 것이 어렵기 때문이다.				
3.영어 공부를 스스로 어떻게 해야 할지 모르기 때문이다.				
4.어려운 영어 문법을 이해하지 못하기 때문이다.				
5.영어 학습의 반복적인 실패 때문이다.				
6.시험을 위한 수업에만 집중하고 실생활에 유용한 수업을 하지 않기 때문이다.				
7.영어 수업이 교과서 내용에만 치중되어 있기 때문이다.				
8.대부분의 영어 수업이 수준에 맞지 않게 너무 어렵기 때문이다.				
9.대부분의 수업이 읽고 해석하는 것 중심이기 때문이다.				
10.대부분의 수업이 문법 중심 수업이기 때문이다.				
11.수업에서 다루는 영어문장을 이해할 수 없기 때문이다.				
12.수업 방식이 재미없기 때문이다.				
13.영어 성적 평가 방식에 만족하지 않기 때문이다.				
14.목표 없이 영어 학습을 장기적으로 하기 때문이다.				
15.영어 학습을 했다고 해도 일상에서 사용할 수 없기 때문이다.				
16.아침 일찍 수업을 하기 때문이다.				
17.영어를 무조건 배워야 한다는 압박감 때문이다.				

1~5: learner factor 6~12: teaching method factor 13~17: environmental factor

<영어 학습 동기 회복 요인>

(1=전혀 그렇지 않다; 2=약간 그렇지 않다; 3=약간 그렇다; 4=매우 그렇다)

문항	1	2	3	4
1.학점을 잘 받고 싶어서 수업을 다시 집중해서 열심히 듣는다.				
2.선생님이 격려해주면 다시 영어 공부하고 싶은 마음이 생긴다.				
3.영어는 취업에 필요한 과목이기 때문에, 어려워도 다시 도전해본다.				

4.말할 기회는 없지만, 수업시간에 외국 영화 같은 영상을 보여주면 다시 영어에 관심이 생긴다.				
5.영어로 수업하거나 영어인사로 수업을 시작하면, 다시 영어공부에 흥미가 생긴다.				
6.영어 선생님에 대한 좋은 감정을 가지고 있어서 다시 집중해본다.				
7.나보다 영어를 잘하는 친구가 수업에 집중하는 모습을 보면 다시 영어 공부 해보자는 생각이 든다.				
8.외국인과 대화하고 싶어서 될 수 있으면 영어수업을 열심히 들으려고 노력한다.				
9.인터넷 강의 또는 학원을 등록해서 따라가지 못한 내용을 보충하면 다시 영어공부에 흥미가 생긴다.				
10.영어점수가 잘 나오면 다시 공부하고 싶은 마음이 생긴다.				
11.조별활동은 영어학습을 다시 흥미롭게 한다고 생각한다.				
12.수업시간에 문제 풀이 전략이나 영어 공부하는 방법을 배웠을 때 다시 영어공부에 관심이 생긴다.				

1: score (internal)
10: score (external)
2, 5: teacher (external)
6: teacher (internal)
3: Social tool recognition (external)
4: A real-life medium (external)
7, 11: Influence of friends (external)
8: English conversation (internal)
9: new learning environment (external)
12: Learning methods and strategies (external)

APPENDIX B

Interview Questions

1. 영어를 언제 처음 배웠나요?
2. 영어 공부를 하는 이유는 무엇인가요?
3. 영어 학습을 할 때 동기 저하를 일으키는 요인은 무엇이라고 생각하십니까?
원인을 생각나는대로 열거해주세요.
4. 영어 수업을 들을 때 가장 여러분에게 영향을 주는 동기 저하 원인은 무엇입니까?
5. 영어 수업을 들을 때 가장 여러분에게 영향을 주는 재동기원인은 무엇입니까?
6. 시험성적이 동기 저하에 영향을 준다고 생각하십니까?
7. 초, 중, 고, 대학 중 영어 학습 동기저하가 된 때는 언제이고 이유는 무엇입니까?
8. 영어가 힘들어도 다시 공부하게 되는 이유는 무엇입니까?
9. 영어 공부 시 주로 사용하는 도구는?

10. 영어 공부에 미디어를 사용하는 것이 도움이 되나요? 그 이유는?
11. 외국인처럼 영어를 유창하게 말할 수 있게 된다면 무엇을 하고 싶나요?
12. 영어를 학습할 때 동기 저하의 경험이나 그것을 극복한 경우를 설명해주세요.
13. 졸업 후에도 영어공부를 계속 하고 싶은가요?
하고싶다면 말하기, 듣기, 읽기, 쓰기 중에서 어떤 영역을 하고 싶은가요?
14. 영어가 아닌 배우고 싶은 다른 언어가 있나요?

Examples in: English
Applicable Language: English
Applicable Level: University

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An Evaluation of the Linguistic and Cognitive Load Word-level Features of Elementary Reading Texts*

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This research explored the suitability of various English textbooks for beginning Korean EFL readers. Word-level characteristics of reading texts from several elementary-level textbooks were compared to determine whether the vocabulary displayed features that facilitated word recognition for beginning second-language readers. The texts were also weighed against each other to identify possible differences among them with respect to these vocabulary features. Results related to linguistic content show lack of decodability across textbooks and a large proportion of infrequent words in the texts. Interest variables reveal a relative lack of word imagibility, concreteness and meaningfulness for texts designed for beginning readers. Differences were also observed among texts with respect to cognitive load variables such as number of total and unique words as well as number of repeated words per text. Conclusions are that absence of key linguistic characteristics of vocabulary that promote word recognition may cause beginning readers to miss opportunities to efficiently develop their English reading proficiency. As well, discrepancies among the textbooks for cognitive load variables demonstrate their inconsistency in key indicators of their lexical difficulty. Therefore, textbook designers should also consider using tools like Coh-Metrix to easily analyze and fine-tune these key vocabulary features during textbook design.

[vocabulary characteristics/word recognition/beginning reading texts/Coh-metrix]

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I. INTRODUCTION

For the past several decades, English has had a prominent role in Korean public and private education because Koreans widely believe English to be a fundamental prerequisite to achieve their personal, academic and professional goals. Over the past decade, the demand for English has intensified into what has become known as “English Fever” (Park, 2009). The demand for English education has gone to increasingly younger learners with initial English instruction moving from middle schools to now beginning in the third grade of elementary school. Alongside this national push to learn English, there has also been considerable debate regarding the effectiveness and efficiency of current English teaching materials and instructional practices in Korea (Lee, 2011).

One area of specific concern is the instructional materials and in particular whether the textbooks used to teach learners are appropriately suited to the task (Joo & Lee, 2012; Kim, 2014). Korean teachers often rely heavily on textbooks as their primary materials in Korean English classes (Lee, 2016) so it is important that we have a clear understanding of the features of these textbooks and their potential impact on learners’ language learning. Text-level characteristics of reading texts like coherence and readability have rightly attracted research interest and as a consequence we have gained some valuable insights with regard to their effect on beginning reading (Kim & Yang, 2012). However, while certainly text-level features are important, word-level features of beginning reading texts need consideration because they also pose an equal if not greater challenge for L2 readers (Hiebert, Brown, Taitague, Fisher, & Adler, 2004).

Researchers have gained some important insights about the characteristics of beginning textbook vocabulary through the work of a number of early literacy advocates. Thus, we now recognize the importance of paying careful attention to the characteristics of textbooks used with beginning L2 readers because of the effect that these word features have on beginning reading. A few informative analyses have been conducted on beginning L2 reading texts (Lee, 2012, 2016). However, access to corpus analysis software like Coh-Metrix promises more fine-grained analyses that include important variables not addressed in existing research such as psychological variables like word imagibility. Also, texts can be statistically compared to each other to establish whether there are significant differences among them.

The present challenge is that not enough is known about important characteristics of the vocabulary used in reading texts for beginners in Korea. Therefore, a clearer and more complete understanding of word-level text characteristics that support word recognition in beginning reading elementary textbooks is vital for a number of reasons. First, inability to process word level features to decode a word is a major obstacle to its recognition (Birch, 2008). Secondly, much of the extant research has been conducted with L1 beginning

reading texts so additional investigation is necessary to establish that beginner texts for L2 readers contain word-level features that facilitate word recognition. Lastly, research has been relatively limited in the kinds of features that have received attention so some characteristics such as the psychological aspects of words have thus far been relatively overlooked. Careful scrutiny of the materials used to develop beginning learners' English literacy and general proficiency in Korea is needed to ensure that they are being exposed to materials that can facilitate their L2 development.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Linguistic Content Variables

A number of scholars have identified word-level features of beginning reading texts that make them more or less readable for beginning readers (Hiebert, 2010; Hiebert, Martin, & Menon, 2005). They did this for the purpose of investigating "…how particular features of the individual and collective body of words within a text or set of texts influence beginning and struggling readers' automatic word recognition and simultaneous recognition of a word's meaning" (Heibert & Fisher, 2005, p. 445). The relevant research findings for each of these features will be elaborated upon below.

1) Decodability

Text decodability has been characterized as the "proportion of words with phonically regular relationships between letters and sounds, and a degree of match between the relationships represented in text and those that the reader has been taught" (Mesmer, 2005, p. 62-63). The role of phonics and decodable text in beginning L1 and L2 reading has received some research attention. L2 reading development is argued to be particularly challenging because learners do not often have a strong command of the target language when they attempt to learn how to read and write in it (Perfetti & Dunlap, 2007). This limited command of the target language poses these difficulties for L2 reading development because learners require L2 phonological and morphological processing skills to effectively identify words, read the L2 and learn new vocabulary (Birch, 2008; Koda, 2005). Another related challenge for L2 readers as opposed to L1 leaders has to do with the nature of the differences between their L1 and the target language. As Hedgecock and Ferris (2009) point out, "depending on the distance between the L1 and L2 systems, the L2 reader may have to learn an entirely new way of processing visual information, as

predicted by the Orthographic Depth Hypothesis…" (p. 80). Thus, L1 literacy impacts L2 literacy in various ways.

2) Decodable Texts

The bulk of the research into text decodability for beginning readers has been conducted with first-language materials. An analysis of various first-grade basal readers revealed that the decoding demands are easier at the early levels than at the higher levels (Hoffman, Sailors & Patterson, 2002). Other research from a computer-based analysis indicated that prospective decodability differed across six first-grade basal readers produced by various publishers (Foorman, Francis, Davidson, Harm, & Griffin, 2004). As well, a study of at-risk 1st graders who received tutoring from texts with varying levels of decodability showed no effect of text decodability on their reading performance. This finding raises some doubts regarding whether decodable texts are helpful in L1 beginning reading instruction (Jenkins, Peyton, Sanders, & Vadasy, 2004).

In contrast to these results, Mesmer (2005) noted that, given the same phonics instruction, readers with knowledge of the alphabetic principle apply it more in a highly decodable context. They will also feel more empowered at being able to do this. Knowledge of familiar orthographic and phonological patterns affects beginners' word recognition as they extrapolate their understanding of these patterns to new texts they read (Hiebert & Martin, 2007). Text decodability also has been found to affect passage-reading fluency (Compton, Appleton, & Hosp, 2004).

Regarding the decodability of beginning L2 reading texts in Korea, Lee (2016) investigated fifth and sixth grade English textbooks and found them to be rather difficult for that age group. Reasons offered for their mismatch between texts and learners included the texts' complicated vowel patterns and insufficient word repetition. Likewise, Lee (2016) reported that grade five texts were not likely created to be decodable. She also advised that "…more emphasis needs to be placed on the degree of match between phonics elements covered and decodability levels of words in reading texts within the same textbook set" (p. 149).

3) Mean Word Frequency

A second element of beginning reading text vocabulary that has received research attention is the frequency of the vocabulary in these texts. High frequency vocabulary are those words can be found in most texts. They typically have unusual letter-sound patterns and unclear meaning (Cunningham & Allington, 2003). Examples, of such words include "does" or "said". Word frequency is thought to be important in beginning reading because

it "…indicates the likelihood that a word is new or has appeared previously in texts for beginning and struggling readers. The more frequent the word, the more opportunities students have had to encounter the word and to figure it out" (Hiebert & Fisher, 2005, p. 446).

Research into word frequency has been conducted on both first and second language texts. L1 studies reveal that high frequency words are acquired more readily than low frequency words (Hiebert & Martin, 2007). As well, the effect of word frequency depends upon the level of concreteness of words such that more concrete and high-frequency words are easier to recall (Miller & Roodenrys, 2009). Texts with a high proportion of high frequency words aid struggling readers better than texts with numerous rare words (Hiebert, 2005). These kinds of texts also facilitate L1 reading accuracy and fluency (Compton et al., 2004; Cunningham & Allington, 2003; Hiebert & Fisher, 2005). Limited existing second language research indicates that a substantial proportion of rare vocabulary may negatively impact learners' fluency development with the more common words from those texts (Hiebert & Fisher, 2005). Lee's (2016) analysis of the frequency of vocabulary in Korean English textbooks revealed that while these texts had an appropriate proportion of high-frequency vocabulary, there was an inadequate number of repetitions of those words to foster automaticity of future word identification. Therefore, texts used with beginning L2 readers should contain a large proportion of high frequency words that are repeated a sufficient number of times to ensure in their acquisition.

4) Interest

Heibert et al. (2004) include interest with linguistic content variables investigated in the text. "High-interest" words have been described as those with the features of high imagibility, concreteness and meaningfulness. Imagibility refers to how easy it is to create a word's visual representation in the mind (i.e., a mental picture)(Strain, Patterson, & Seidenberg, 2002). Research into imagibility for L1 learners has demonstrated that high imagery words can be learned in isolation with minimal context and need less repetition to be learned (Hargis, Terhaar-Yonkers, Williams, & Reed, 1988). Word identification is also faster for highly imageable words (Schwanenflugel & Akin, 1994).

Young L1 learners have been found to acquire high-imagery vocabulary more rapidly (Kolker & Terwilliger, 1981; Laing & Hulme, 1999). Their lexical decisions appeared to be based more upon imaginal information than adults and older children's. This result suggests a developmental change in the semantic characteristics that readers draw upon for word identification (Schwanenflugel & Akin, 1994). As well, proficient L1 readers can identify highly imageable words faster than less imageable words. Thus, imagibility

probably allows proficient L1 readers to compensate for confusing phoneme- grapheme patterns or uncommon vocabulary (Raman & Baluch, 2001).

Research related to imagibility and vocabulary acquisition in L2 contexts demonstrates that the more imageble a word was the less likely learners are to use language learning strategies to learn it presumably because they could easily visualize the word so they did not need to (Fan, 2015). Additionally, as bilingual readers' L2 reading proficiency improves, the mental imagery they use is increasingly similar to when they read in their L1 (Krasny & Sadoski, 2008). Therefore, since readers clearly draw upon imagery when processing vocabulary and texts, we should consider instructional methods that can harness the visual comprehension strategies of novice L2 learners (Krasny & Sadoski, 2008).

A considerable amount of psycholinguistic research has been conducted to demonstrate the impact that word concreteness has on vocabulary learning. In general, results demonstrate that concrete vocabulary is recognized more rapidly than abstract (Altarriba & Basnight-Brown, 2011; Palmer, MacGregor, & Havelka, 2013). The meanings of concrete words signifying less abstract concepts are learned more easily by L2 learners (Crossley, Salsbury & McNamara, 2009; Elgort & Warren, 2014; Kaushanskaya & Rechtzigel, 2012). However, abstract L2 words are easier to learn if they are connected to emotion than concrete words (Ferré, Ventura, Comesaña & Fraga, 2015). It is also much easier for foreign language learners to learn concrete words and to retain them across time (De Groot & Keijzer, 2000). Within connected texts, unfamiliar text with abstract vocabulary is less comprehensible (Sadowski, 2000) and the degree of concreteness of words in a text affects L2 lexical development from reading (Elgort & Warren, 2014).

Meaningfulness has been defined as the strength of association a word has with other words (Graesser, McNamara, Louwerse, & Cai, 2004). It is essential in paired associative learning (PAL) when learners attempt to create mental connections between words they know and words they are learning through using flashcards (Ellis & Beaton, 1993). Salsbury, Crossley and McNamara (2011) studied adult ESL learners and found that those with greater L2 proficiency used words with fewer connections to other words in their lexicon. This result led them to contend that a word's meaningfulness is connected to how challenging it is to learn because less meaningful vocabulary is less readily linked to other known words. Thus, proficient language users can access vocabulary that is less connected to other words in their lexicon despite the fact that their lexicon generally has a larger number of words with richer associations among them. Word meaningfulness has also been negatively correlated with learners' vocabulary learning strategies in that those who learned more meaningful words used fewer learning strategies (Fan, 2015).

2. Cognitive Load Variables

"'Cognitive load' refers to the amount of different linguistic information a text requires beginning readers to apply" (Hiebert, et al., 2004, p. 11). A number of variables that have typically been associated with cognitive load include the proportion of new to total words as well as number of word repetitions (Gray et al., 1956 cited in Hiebert et al., 2004).

1) Tokens

Research has been conducted on the number of tokens (total number of words) found in beginning reading books. Hiebert's (2005) analysis of grade one texts used with native English beginning readers revealed that the texts varied from 83 to 124 tokens in length with a mean of 100 tokens per text. Similarly, Foorman et al. (2004) observed that the total number of words in texts varied among six different first-grade reading programs. Hoffman et al., (2002) also measured the total words found in L1 basal programs and discovered that they ranged widely. These findings suggest that texts for beginning L1 readers tend to be quite wide-ranging in the number of words that they contain. In the Korean EFL context, Lee (2016) reported that the number of tokens in English textbooks for grade five students were as low as 566 to as high as 955. In general, it appears that variability exists with respect to the total number of words in texts for beginning L1 and L2 readers.

2) Types

As with the research into tokens, Foorman et al. (2004) noted that the number of unique words (i.e., types) was different depending on the text used in the six first-grade reading textbooks that they analyzed. Hiebert (2005) also found that grade one entry reading texts contained 19 to 21 new, unique words per 100 words with a mean of 21. That is, approximately 20% of the words in the readers used with beginning L1 readers had not been previously used in the textbook. Hoffman et al. (2002) measured total unique words per text in L1 basal readers and found they ranged considerably. The average number of unique words per text rose significantly across levels as well. Lee (2016) reported differences in total number of unique word types ranging from 190 to 248 contingent upon the textbook. Nevertheless, based on the results for tokens and types, Lee (2016) concluded that "the number of types and tokens of the four textbooks may not pose great challenges for grade 5 students" (p. 145). That is, the differences among the various texts were not cause for concern. Taken together, these results suggest that there may be some disagreement in the extant literature with respect to whether beginning reading texts

contain comparable amounts of unique vocabulary. Additional investigation can reveal whether this is the case.

3) Number of Words Repeated

A third important variable related to the cognitive load of texts is the number of word that are repeated in the text. Despite the importance of this topic, reading researchers have lamented the rather scarce research on the repetition of words in novice reading textbooks (Hiebert & Martin, 2007) or the number of word repetitions necessary for beginning readers to acquire new vocabulary (Hiebert et al., 2004). Huckin and Coady (1999) highlight that no definitive number of word repetitions ensures learning, but five to 20 repetitions to learn an unfamiliar word appears to be supported by research (de Groot, 2006; Nation, 2001). Ehri (2002) points out that word repetition is necessary in order for decoding skills to become automatized. Repeated decoding of words enables learners to make phoneme grapheme connections necessary for unfamiliar vocabulary to eventually become recognizable on sight.

In the limited extant research, findings from Foorman et al.'s (2004) L1 study indicate that texts across six L1 programs varied in their amount of word repetition and most of the vocabulary only had one occurrence in each six-week instructional period. Summarizing findings for grade one beginning reading textbooks from six different publishers, Hiebert (2005) notes that "…about one in every 10 words will be a new word that, once figured out, will not appear again in either the text or unit" (p. 259). This observation demonstrates that unfamiliar new words do not get enough repetition.

As with L1 research, there also seems to be a dearth of studies investigating word repetitions in second language texts. L2 research explored the relationship between various types of reading texts and the recycling of vocabulary. After analyzing authentic children's beginning reading materials, Gardner (2008) concluded that authentic informational materials has more vocabulary recycling than authentic fiction materials. Another analysis of a widely-used ELT course book revealed that the text offered exposure to common vocabulary through spaced repetition (Matsuoka & Hirsh, 2010). Unfortunately, the study did not compare the textbook with any others.

At least two studies compared textbooks in terms of their vocabulary repetition in a somewhat circumscribed way. Lee (2016) reported the percentage of unique words that were repeated 3 or more times was low across all of the texts analyzed. As well, almost half of all words only appeared once in most texts and the majority of commonly repeated words were function words like "the," "it" and so forth. Therefore, Lee (2016) concludes that "…students are not given enough chances to encounter the same words repeatedly in reading texts of the textbooks" (p. 147). Although she correctly points out the lack of

sufficient repetition of vocabulary in the various textbooks, she neglected to discuss the substantial differences in numbers of words repeated among the various textbooks surveyed. Similarly, elementary school English textbooks were found to be difficult relative to learner's reading proficiency partly because they had low numbers of word repetitions (Lee, 2016). Furthermore, in comparing the textbooks to each other, Lee (2016) notes that although the four textbooks differed slightly, the repetition rate of each textbook was very low and became even lower as the grade increased.

3. Gap Statement

While there has been some research with word-level features of beginning L2 reading texts (Y. Lee, 2016, Y. A. Lee, 2016), there appears to be limited analysis of a number of other word-level textbook features that may facilitate beginning L2 readers' reading development. Furthermore, "…only scant attention has been paid to how various aspects of elementary English textbooks facilitate or hinder students' progress in learning to decode" (Y. A. Lee, 2016, p. 130).

Thus, there are a number of unique contributions to the research literature that this study stands to give. For instance, as yet, analyses of many of the word-level features of beginning L2 reading texts have not included statistical comparisons of the differences between various aspects of the ease of has not been conducted. Statistical comparisons allows researchers to decide on the likelihood observed group differences did not occur merely by chance (Trochim, 2001). Secondly, the present analysis builds upon previous findings on word-level features of beginning L2 reading texts by including analysis of other important word characteristics such as imagibility, concreteness and meaningfulness whose relevance to beginning L2 reading texts has received limited attention. Inclusion of these elements can provide additional insight into psychological characteristics of the vocabulary of beginning L2 reading texts that has been demonstrated to impact lexical recognition, learning and recall. Lastly, unlike previous studies of word-level features of beginning reading texts for L1 and L2 learners, the present research brings the resources of the Coh-Metrix computerized text analysis software to bear on analyzing these texts. The use of such a tool enables rapid and reliable analysis of vocabulary characteristics avoiding the higher risk of error typically associated with human analysis.

Based upon these identified oversights in prior research discussed above, the main purpose of the present investigation is to examine elementary Korean English textbooks in wide circulation to ascertain whether they have included vocabulary features that support beginning English Language Learners' reading acquisition.

III. METHODS

1. Materials

TABLE 1
Elementary English Textbooks Analyzed

Textbook	Publisher	Grade	Sections (Number of texts)
A	F	5	Let's Read (12)
B	G	5	Reading Around Us (13)
C	H	5	Let's Read (14)
D	H	5	Let's Read (14)
E	H	5	Let's Read (13)

Five textbooks from three different Korean publishers were chosen for this study. Published in 2014, these books were based upon the most recent National English Curriculum for fifth grade English learners in Korea. The texts used in this analysis were selected from the fifth grade because they were the first intact and stand-alone texts used in the curriculum and thus are often the primary means by which many beginning L2 readers initially learn to read in English. Thus, these texts should contain features that facilitate beginning reading development and promote enjoyment of reading. The main reading text from each lesson was used because it was typically the only coherent and complete text beyond the sentence level in the lesson. As can be seen in table 1 above, 12 texts were included in the analysis from textbook A, 13 from B, 14 from C and D, and 13 from E comprising 66 texts total. Upon selecting texts for the investigation, they were inputted into computer text files for analysis.

2. Textbook Analysis Procedures

This analysis compared the reading lesson texts from four different textbooks in terms of their word-level features related to both the linguistic content of the text as well as the cognitive load. The analysis explored whether there were differences among the various texts in terms of these vocabulary features in order to establish the suitability of these to support beginning L2 reading development

3. Linguistic Content

The construct of linguistic content was further subdivided into three components which are high-interest words (i.e., imaginable and meaningful), high-frequency words and

phonetically regular words (Heibert at al., 2004). High-Interest words was comprised of three indicators of vocabulary knowledge which included word imagibility, word meaningfulness, and word concreteness. Results for all of these indices were taken from the results of the Coh-Metrix analysis of the main reading texts found in each of the textbooks analyzed. All of these indices were all on a scale from 100 to 700 with higher scores representing more of the aspect of vocabulary knowledge. All of the indexes were originally based upon a 7-point scale that Coh-Metrix multiplied by 100 and rounded to integers (Coh-Metrix Website, 2017).

The index for "meaningfulness" is based upon ratings from Toglia and Battig's (1978) corpus. It is a measure of how closely words were associated in their meaning. For example, the word "people" (612) is more meaningful than "abbess" (218) (Cohmetrix, n.d.). The "imagery" index is an indicator of the ease with which a word aroused a mental image taken from the ratings of the Medical Research Council (MRC) Psycholinguistic Database (Colthart, 1981). Low imagery ratings for these texts indicate that many of the words in them are not easily imaginable by beginning readers. Children typically learn to read high imagery words faster than low imagery words so this is an important consideration for beginning reading texts (Hiebert et al., 2004). Also taken from the MRC database, Coh-Metrix supplies an index of the average ratings for content words in a text that gives the Concreteness of a word. The rating represents the tangibility of the word and its ability to be experienced by the senses (Gilhooly & Logie, 1980).

Mean CELEX word frequency for all words were calculated using Coh-Metrix. The software provides word frequencies from the CELEX corpus (based on written and spoken texts). Coh-Metrix computes a mean logarithm (to a base of 10) for all the word tokens in the text that are also found in the CELEX database (Crossley, Salsbury, Titak & McNamara, 2014). The index used in this research was "word frequency for all words". When interpreting the word frequency results, Coh-Metrix uses a logarithm to produce a mean ranging from 0-6 for each text (Green, 2012, p. 62). A lower word frequency value represents less frequent words and higher values designate more frequent words… "Thus a sample text that reports a logarithmic mean frequency value of 2.504 contains less frequent words than a sample text that reports a logarithmic mean frequency value of 2.699" (Crossley, Cobb, & McNamara, 2013, p. 970).

The decodability of the vocabulary in the text was established by replicating the processes and scale developed by Menon and Hiebert (1999) and Martin and Hiebert (1999). All of the individual words from each text were categorized on a scale from 1 (most decodable – e.g., consonant/vowel words) to 8 (least decodable – e.g., unconventionally spelled and multisyllabic words). These decodability ratings were then averaged to determine the overall word decodability for each text.

4. Cognitive Load

The construct of cognitive load was primarily represented by the number of different words and number of repetitions per word (Hiebert et al., 2004). The total number of different words in each text (regardless of how often they are repeated) or "tokens" was calculated. The total of unique words per text or "types" was also calculated using the Lextutor software (Cobb, 2008) to perform both of these calculations. The number of repetitions per word was also computed by using the Text Analyzer software (Adamovic, 2009).

The results of these totals for both the linguistic (interest, frequency and decodability) and cognitive load variables (i.e., tokens, types and repetitions) were then compared among the textbooks through a series of ANOVAs using the R statistical analysis software (R Core Team, 2013). The aim of these comparisons was to establish whether there were any significant differences among the textbooks on these key word-level features of the vocabulary in the texts.

IV. RESULTS

TABLE 2

Descriptive Statistics for Linguistic Content Variables

		A		B		C		D		E	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Decodability		4.03	0.463	4.35	0.479	4.29	0.835	3.89	0.337	4.55	0.660
Mean word frequency		2.72	0.398	2.41	0.383	2.53	0.224	2.47	0.288	2.36	0.279
Interest	Imagibility	442	41.6	445	33.3	450	27.5	432	47.0	457	50.4
	Concreteness	388	49.6	399	39.3	409	24.7	397	53.0	416	57.5
	Meaningful.	441	28.5	440	22.3	440	24.9	437	19.4	445	25.4

Results of the descriptive statistics for the linguistic content variables are located in Table 2. In terms of the linguistic content of the words in the text, the analysis showed that there were no statistically significant differences among the texts according to the five criteria that were evaluated.

With respect to word decodability, on a scale from one to seven, the majority of texts contain words that are above 4.0 which appears to be high for beginning reading texts. As well, there was not a significant effect of textbook for decodability at the $p<.05$ level for the five conditions $F(4,61) = 2.50$, $p = 0.051$. Word frequency ranged from 2.36 to 2.72 which indicates that the average frequency of the words in these texts is rather high. In general, considering the word frequency scale ranges from 0 to 6, these values appear to be

a bit high for beginning-level texts. As well, there was no significant effect of textbook for word frequency at the $p<.05$ level for the five conditions $F(4,61) = 2.37$, $p = 0.062$.

The next group of variables related to linguistic content were those associated with learner interest. These were imagibility, concreteness and meaningfulness. The mean imagibility values for content words ranged from 432 to 457 on a 700 point scale. This result indicates that the vocabulary in the texts were not particularly high in imagibility. No significant effect of textbook for level of imagibility was found at the $p<.05$ level for the five conditions $F(4,61) = 0.633$, $p = 0.641$. Values for mean concreteness for content words fall within a 388 to 416 range on a 700 point scale with higher values indicating more concreteness. Here as well, words are not very concrete. No significant effect of textbook was observed for level of concreteness at the $p<.05$ level for the five conditions $F(4,61) = 0.714$, $p = 0.585$. Average meaningfulness for content words fell between 437 to 445 on a 700 point scale. Higher values indicating more meaningfulness. Thus, while vocabulary scores tended toward more meaningfulness, they were not as high as might be expected for vocabulary in a beginning reading text. Comparisons across textbooks revealed that a significant effect was not found on textbook for level of meaningfulness at the $p<.05$ level for the five conditions $F(4,61) = 0.177$, $p = 0.950$.

TABLE 3

Descriptive Statistics for Cognitive Load Variables

	A		B		C		D		E	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Tokens	43.5	8.92	43.5	8.31	44.3	8.33	35.3	5.37	34.6	9.03
Types	25.7	4.55	30.3	5.18	25.1	5.31	23.0	3.38	22.8	5.86
# of words repeated	8.38	2.47	7.93	2.70	11.14	3.63	6.17	2.79	6.23	3.70

Results for cognitive criteria can be seen in table 3. Mean number of tokens per text in each textbook ranged from 34.6 to 44.3. Comparisons across textbooks demonstrated statistically significant differences in the mean number of tokens per text depending on the textbook at the $p<.05$ level for the five conditions $F(4, 61) = 4.56$, $p = 0.003$. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that there were statistically significant differences in the mean score for the B textbook (M = 43.5, SD = 8.31) and the E textbook (M = 34.6, SD = 9.03). As well, there were significant differences between the C textbook (M = 44.3, SD = 8.33) and E. Conversely, the A textbook (M = 3.60, SD = 0.89) did not significantly differ from the B, C, E or D (M = 35.3, SD = 5.37) textbooks. The B did not contrast from C or D. C was not different than D nor was D significantly different than E.

Comparisons of the mean number of unique words (i.e., types) per text found in each textbook demonstrated a range of 22.8 to 30.3 across the various textbooks used in the

analysis. There was a significant effect of textbook type on unique words in the reading passages at the $p<.05$ level for the five textbooks $F(4, 61) = 5.03$, $p = 0.001$. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test showed that the mean score for the B textbook (M = 30.3, SD = 5.18) was significantly different than both the D textbook (M = 23.0, SD = 3.38) and the E textbook (M = 22.8, SD = 5.86). However, no other significant differences in textbooks were observed among these and the other textbooks including the A (M = 25.7, SD = 4.55) and C (M = 25.1, SD = 5.31) books.

Number of words repeated in the various textbooks went from a mean as low as 6.17 to as high as 11.14. A statistically significant effect was detected for textbook type on the number words repeated at the $p<.05$ level for the five different textbooks $F(4, 61) = 5.72$, $p < .001$. Post hoc comparisons conducted with the Tukey HSD test revealed that the number of words repeated for the C textbook (M = 11.14, SD = 3.63) was significantly different than the D (M = 6.17, SD = 2.79) and E (M = 6.23, SD = 3.70) textbook. Nevertheless, the C textbook did not significantly differ from the A (M = 8.38, SD = 2.47) or B textbooks (M = 7.93, SD = 2.70). No other words repeated results significantly differed among the textbooks.

V. DISCUSSION

1. Linguistic Variables

Findings indicate that the majority of textbooks require substantial decoding skills for texts that are to be used with beginning L2 readers. This result corroborates others that beginning second-language reading texts are often overly demanding for L2 learners (Lee, 2012, 2016). In fact, Lee (2012) observed that both series she analyzed were less decodable than reading materials for beginning L1 readers. Based upon her analysis of Korean textbooks, Y. A. Lee (2016) concluded that grade five texts were not likely created to be decodable. These findings are unsettling given our current understanding that knowledge of sound letter relationships aids beginning readers' word recognition (Hiebert & Martin, 2007; Mesmer, 2005) and text-reading fluency (Compton et al, 2004).

There was no significant difference found here among the textbooks with respect to their level of decodability. Y. A. Lee (2016) noted similar results to those reported here. However, she did not record whether there were any significant differences among the textbooks. Y. Lee's (2012) results for fourth through sixth grade textbooks were also generally similar across two publishers. He found high decodability for fifth grade textbooks which indicates that the two textbooks are generally similar. These findings for L2 beginning reading texts contrast with those in L1 studies where there appears to be

greater variability in decodability across programs for L1 texts (Foorman et al., 2002; Hoffman et al., 2002).

Word frequency results showed that words were less frequent than might be expected in beginning L2 reading texts and differences existed among some of the textbooks in terms of their word frequency. Most of the previous research that investigated word frequency in texts did not compare levels of frequency among various textbook publishers. Nevertheless, extant findings suggest that infrequent vocabulary begins to appear in as early as first-grade L1 readings (Hiebert & Fisher, 2005). In contrast, results from a Korean study of L2 texts were that a high proportion of words in the reading texts were high-frequency words. However, texts were not compared to each other to establish whether differences existed among them (Y. A. Lee, 2016).

Inclusion of too many low frequency words is problematic for a number of reasons. First, the proportion of high frequency vocabulary in reading passages predicts the accuracy with which they are read (Compton et al., 2004). In addition to its impact on accuracy, word frequency also impacts reading fluency (Compton et al., 2004; Cunningham & Allington, 2003) particularly if unfamiliar vocabulary is not repeated in the text (Hiebert & Fisher, 2005). Thirdly, a significant presence of low frequency words impedes comprehension because processing capacity spent decoding those words could be used to comprehend the text (Rasinski, 1999). The results of the present research tell us is that the proportion of high-frequency words is a bit low and there is some inconsistency among the textbooks with regard to their word frequency content. This lack of consistency is potentially troubling because the texts are all supposed to be closely tied to the same national curriculum.

The vocabulary in the texts were not particularly high in imagibility and there were no differences among the various textbooks' levels of imagibility. While no research compared imagibility across textbooks, prior studies did show that the imagibility of vocabulary has benefits for beginning L1 (Kolker & Terwilliger, 1981; Laing & Hulme, 1999) and L2 (Fan, 2015) readers such as being easier to learn. Readers also use mental imagery as they process texts (Krasny & Sadoski, 2008) and it may help them to compensate when they meet undecodable words or uncommon vocabulary (Raman & Baluch, 2001). Given these previous research findings demonstrating the value of incorporating high imagibility vocabulary, the relatively low imagibility apparent in the texts is not encouraging.

Similar to their lack of imagibility, words from the textbooks were not especially concrete nor were there any significant differences among the textbooks with respect to their level of concreteness. These findings are somewhat discouraging because first-language students recognize concrete vocabulary more rapidly (Altarriba & Basnight-Brown, 2011; Palmer et al., 2013) and learn it more readily (Crossley et al., 2009; Elgort &

Warren, 2014; Ellis & Beaton, 1993). The same is also true for language learners (De Groot & Keijzer, 2000) and bilinguals (Kaushanskaya & Rechtzigel, 2012) unless the words are connected to emotion (Ferré et al., 2015). Similarly, unfamiliar text with abstract vocabulary is less comprehensible (Sadowski, 2000) and vocabulary concreteness in a text affects L2 word learning from reading (Elgort & Warren, 2014). Bearing all of this in mind, it seems that textbook designers are missing an opportunity to boost learners' word recognition, comprehension, acquisition, and retention by failing to include a sufficient amount of concrete vocabulary in these texts.

Unlike imagibility and concreteness, average meaningfulness scores were rather high indicating that words tend to be more meaningful. As well, no significant differences were found among the five textbooks in terms of the meaningfulness of their vocabulary. The meaningfulness of the textbooks' vocabulary is promising given the importance of this vocabulary characteristic for word learning. That is, more meaningful words are typically learned more readily (Ellis & Beaton, 1993; Salsbury et al., 2011). Additionally, students learning meaningful words do not have to rely on as many language learning strategies and their use of more self-initiated strategies such as accessing meaningful contextualized vocabulary through authentic input (Fan, 2015).

2. Cognitive Load Variables

There were significant differences between two pairs of textbooks with respect to the number of tokens they had. First language texts beginning L1 readers vary considerably in the total number of words found therein (Foorman et al., 2004; Hiebert, 2005; Hoffman et al., 2002). Similar findings were reported for textbooks used in Korea (Y. Lee, 2016). Thus, findings from the present study agree with others that sizable inconsistencies exist among beginning reading textbooks with respect to the number of unique words present in the different texts. These results are troubling because they demonstrate inconsistencies in the amount of exposure to new vocabulary that learners receive. These discrepancies in vocabulary exposure may in turn lead to varied outcomes for vocabulary acquisition and L2 development which run contrary to the aims of the curriculum.

Statistically significant differences were present in the number of unique words in some of the textbooks. Findings from previous research on L1 textbooks illuminated how the number of unique words differed depending on the text (Foorman et al., 2004) and increased across levels (Hoffman et al., 2002). In the second-language literature, Y. A. Lee (2016) also reported moderate differences in the number of unique word types depending on the textbook. Therefore, the findings reported here are in agreement with the other research in that inconsistencies are apparent in the number of unique words per text in both first and second language beginning reading texts.

The mean number of words repeated in each text was rather low and there were also significant differences in the number words repeated among the five textbooks. These findings generally conformed with previous research in that L1 beginning reading texts varied in their amount of word repetition (Foorman et al., 2004) and new vocabulary is not repeated enough (Hiebert, 2005). The same was true with L2 textbooks where the percentage of word repetitions was low and many new words only appeared once (Y. Lee, 2016) making elementary school English textbooks more difficult for learners to understand (Y. A. Lee, 2016).

Ⅵ. CONCLUSION

Even though these textbooks account for many text features that are important to initial second language literacy development, they also appear to overlook some linguistic content and cognitive load features that are necessary for beginning language learners. In general, the texts were quite similar in terms of many of their linguistic features such as decodability, imagibility, concreteness and meaningfulness. Regrettably, while the texts were the same, the majority of these variables were at unacceptable levels. That is, many of the texts require unrealistic decoding skills for beginning L2 readers. Likewise, the vocabulary was not particularly imageable or concrete making it more difficult to recognize, learn and remember than it could be. On the other hand, the textbooks are less similar with respect to average word frequency. As well, even though the average meaningfulness scores were similar across the textbooks they were also rather high indicating that words tend to be more meaningful and therefore easier to learn.

With respect to cognitive load variables, the mean number of tokens was low in general but the mean number of types seemed slightly high in proportion to the number of tokens in each textbook. As well, the mean number of words repeated in each text was rather low. No similarities among the textbooks were apparent with regard to cognitive load variables. That is, differences were found between some textbooks for number of tokens, number of types as well as the number words repeated within each textbook. These results suggest that the textbooks are rather varied in terms of the characteristics of their vocabulary that affect the ease with which the words in the texts are processed by the reader. This excessive cognitive is cause for concern because it contributes to the unanticipated difficulty of these texts for their target audience of beginning readers.

These findings help to provide a better understanding of important issues with regard to linguistic and cognitive load characteristics of the vocabulary in beginning reading texts. First, the findings help us to more clearly establish whether there are differences among commonly used textbooks with respect to key features of word identification used by L2

readers. Second, this research demonstrates how corpus analysis tools like Coh Metrix can aid careful investigation of important features of beginning English reading texts in Korea and provide a more nuanced and sophisticated understanding of vocabulary in these texts. Lastly, this research illuminates the importance of previously unexplored vocabulary characteristics such as meaningfulness, concreteness and imagibility. Textbook designers and users should take these factors into consideration because of their contribution to beginning reading word identification (Heibert et al., 2004).

This study is not without some potential limitations that should be acknowledged. The first is that while care was taken to include widely-used textbooks in the research, the five that were ultimately selected do not necessarily represent all English textbooks used in Korean public schools. As well, the Coh-metrix text analysis tool has a lot of potential as a text analysis tool but it has limitations that must be recognized. Mainly, as the developers point out, “the scores are often subject to the output of third party parsers, lexicons, and word frequency databases, all of which are outside of the control of Coh-Metrix” (McNamara, Louwerse, Cai, & Graesser, 2013, Preliminary Information section, para. 1).

Some implications also follow from these findings. Findings of variability in these key characteristics of beginning reading textbook vocabulary can encourage textbook users (i.e., teachers and policy makers) to reflect on the presence of these differences and the potentials consequences of this variability in classrooms when these texts are being used to instantiate a common national curriculum. Textbooks designers should also pay more attention to previously overlooked linguistic variables such as meaningfulness, concreteness and imagibility when creating texts for beginning English readers because of the potential impact of these variables on learner recognition, learning and long term recall of text vocabulary. Designers can use the multiple indicators of word identifiability afforded by Coh-Metrix to analyze their texts to obtain a more refined awareness of vocabulary characteristics and their effect on word identification. Accordingly, through using this tool, we can productively supplement more intuitive approaches to determining the ease with which words can be identified in beginning reading texts

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Examples in : English
Applicable Language : English
Applicable Level : Elementary

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편집위원회 규정

제1장 총 칙

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

제2장 구 성

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

제3장 기 능

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

제4장 회 의

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

제5장 논문 심사 기준

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

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

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

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

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

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

제6장 논문 심사 절차

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

제7장 논문 투고 규정

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

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

제3조 원고 제출

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

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

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

제6조 게재가로 결정된 원고의 교정은 필자의 책임 하에 행한다.

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

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

제8조 게재된 논문은 필자에게 학술지 2부를 증정한다.

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

제10조 투고자는 논문 게재시 소정의 게재료를 납부해야 한다.

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

제8장 논문 작성 요령 (국어 논문)

제1조 논문은 “MS-Word 2003 이상”으로 작성한다.

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

제3조 논문 서두에 관한 사항

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

제4조 번호 체계, 줄 간격 및 기타 사항

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

1) 논문 전체의 작성 체제

영어어문교육 *제11권* 1호 2005년 봄
(2줄 띄움)

학습자 오류에 대한 교사의 오류 수정 방식

[바탕체 14, 진하게]
[2줄 띄움]

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

[1줄 띄움]

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

[1줄 띄움]

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

[1줄 띄움]

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

[2줄 띄움]

Ⅰ. 서론 [돋움 12, 진하게; 왼쪽 정렬]

[1줄 띄움]

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

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* 제1저자 ** 제2저자

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

[2줄 띄움]

Ⅱ. 연구 방법 [돋움 12, 진하게; 왼쪽 정렬]

[1줄 띄움]

1. 연구대상 [돋움 11, 보통; 왼쪽 정렬]

[1줄 띄움]

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

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

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

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

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

[1줄 띄움]
…
[2줄 띄움]

참고문헌[돋움 11, 보통; 가운데]

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

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

…
[2줄 띄움]

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

		글자 크기	글자 모양	줄간격	들여쓰기	정렬방식	비고
논문 제목		**14**	**바탕체진**	14.5pt	하지 않음	가운데	장평 100% 자간 좁게 (0.1pt)
장 제목: I		12□	**돋움 진**		하지 않음	왼쪽	
절 제목: 1.		11□	돋움 보통		하지 않음		
소 제목: 1)		10□	돋움 보통		하지 않음		
세부 제목:(1)							
미세 제목:①							
본문		10□	바탕체 보통		1 자	양쪽혼합	
참고 문헌□	**제목**	11	돋움 보통	14.5pt	하지 않음	가운데	
	내용	10□	바탕체 보통		첫 줄 3 자 내어쓰기	양쪽혼합	
표/ 그림□	**제목**	**10**	**바탕체 진**	10pt	하지 않음	가운데	
	내용	9	바탕체 보통				
각주		9□	바탕체 보통	10pt	하지 않음	양쪽혼합	
초 록□	**제목**	**9**	**바탕체 진**	12.5pt	하지 않고 좌우여백 2.5 자	양쪽혼합	
	내용		바탕체 보통				
□□□		**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]
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Hankuk University
120-1, Yejang-dong, Chung-gu
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Email:

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

4. Other Important Regulations

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

5. Style Guidelines

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

1) Text Citation

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

2) Reference List

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

(1) A Journal Article

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

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

(2) A Book

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

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

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

(3) An Article or Chapter in an Edited Book

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

(4) A Magazine or Newspaper Article

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

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

(5) A Report

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

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

(6) Proceedings of Meetings Symposia

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

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

(7) A Doctoral Dissertation or Master's Thesis

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

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

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

(8) Internet Resources

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

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

3) Tables and Figures

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

TABLE 3

Subjects' Age Groups and Their Scores

FIGURE 3

Model of Second Language Learning

윤리위원회 규정

제1장 총 칙

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

제2장 구성 및 운영

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

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

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

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

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

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

제3장 윤리 헌장

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

제4장 표절 규정

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

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

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

제3조 (심사주체)

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

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

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

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

영어어문교육

발 행 인 이 현 구

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