

**The Linguistic Proficiency of
Korean English Teachers:
an investigation of self-assessment procedures
and self-directed learning tasks using video**

By

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ABSTRACT

The issue of non-native speaker language teachers' linguistic proficiency has been of interest to many parties concerned with language teaching and learning. Nevertheless, very little research has been carried out into teachers' linguistic proficiency in general, and into their spoken proficiency in particular.

The current study is intended to answer the question 'how proficient do Korean English teachers perceive themselves to be in English, and is there a way of helping these teachers improve their English without having to attend classes?'. First of all, teachers' linguistic proficiency was measured principally by self-assessment tests, since self-assessment is less threatening to teachers and useful in that it can help teachers become aware of their own weaknesses and eventually lead them to try to overcome those weaknesses. Data was gathered on the teachers' self-assessed linguistic proficiency, their confidence in using English, the proportion of time they spent using English in class, and the major factors influencing these. The major focus was on spoken proficiency, and so data was gathered by means of language tests, which was then compared with teachers' self-assessment results. The need and motivation for improvements in linguistic proficiency were confirmed. Techniques for improving linguistic proficiency were investigated, including teachers' reactions to various techniques.

Materials based on video were prepared for use in case studies for the purpose of improving teachers' spoken language proficiency. Video materials were judged to be a practical alternative to stays in an English speaking country because they can expose teachers to recorded instances of the target language usage. The video materials were used over a semester to improve the teachers' language either directly, or indirectly through their preparing the materials for use in class. The effect of the video materials on the teachers' English was then investigated by comparing self-assessment and other test scores for spoken proficiency, before beginning to use the video materials, and after they had finished using the materials.

The survey results showed that most teachers rated their English proficiency as not high with more than half of the respondents showing their lack of confidence in using English, and about 70 % stating that they used English less than 50% of the time in class. The results of using video materials indicated that video materials could help improve the teachers' proficiency in the spoken language with higher post-test scores than pre-test scores.

This study has implications for practical applications in language teaching and learning, and teacher training. The results also suggest that video materials can be effective in language

classes, for self-study, and on teacher training courses. In addition, the results suggest that further larger scale investigations into teachers' language improvement will be worth carrying out. Further investigation into the importance of improving the linguistic proficiency of trainee teachers in teacher training will also be worthwhile.

AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I declare that the material and research contained in this thesis is entirely my own work.

Mihye Harker

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This study is concerned with Korean English teachers' linguistic proficiency, and is intended to answer the question, 'how proficient in English do Korean English teachers perceive themselves to be and is there a way of helping these teachers improve their English without having to attend classes?'. The teachers in the study include secondary school English teachers (who will be referred to as 'secondary school level teachers' throughout this thesis), university lecturers who are teaching English as a foreign language (as opposed to English literature or linguistics), and teachers teaching at private language schools for adults. Both university lecturers and teachers at private language schools will be referred to as university level teachers because these two types of teachers have similar qualifications and many university lecturers also work part time at private language schools (see 3.3.1).

This chapter sets out 1) the background to the study, 2) the purposes of the study, 3) the significance of the study, 4) the limitations of the study, and 5) the structure of the thesis.

1.2 THE BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

As Barnes (1996) points out, language teaching requires 'extensive and careful use of the target language in order for the teacher to act as a linguistic model, and the linguistic inspiration for the pupils. This requires 'both confidence and competence' (58) in the target language in the teacher, which are unequivocally the most essential qualification for the job, but these are qualities that do not seem to be easy to acquire. Most Korean English teachers seem to have competence in the target language on paper, but their spoken proficiency remains unpractised or unproven. Therefore, these Korean English teachers' proficiency in the spoken language needs to be identified, as knowing the teachers' proficiency level can help to give an idea of how to help the teachers.

In this section, some points will be made in connection with the interests of the study. First of all, short discussion of English language teaching in Korea will be presented along with its implications for English teachers in Korea. Then the linguistic difficulty non-native speaker teachers including Korean English teachers face will be pointed out. Some comments will be made regarding what linguistic proficiency is. Furthermore, as a means of identifying the teachers' proficiency self-assessment will be suggested, with emphasis on the prospective value of self-assessment for Korean English teachers. Finally, using video as a means of improving spoken language proficiency will be suggested.

1.2.1 English Language Teaching in Korea

English is a core module for all secondary school students in Korea and one of the most important subjects in terms of its status in exams. However, English in secondary schools focuses only on the teaching of grammar and reading skills, and language teaching in most Korean classrooms (in particular, in secondary schools) has been carried out by the so-called traditional methods with their focus on passing examinations at the expense of the skills needed for oral communication, as recounted by several researchers. Park & Oxford (1998) describe the teacher-centred learning process they observed in Korean classrooms, where teachers act as ‘the primary source of action and linguistic input’(107). Park (1997) reports that the focus of learning in Korean secondary schools has been on vocabulary, grammar, and reading skills, and, as a result, speaking, listening, and writing skills have been ignored, although the situation can vary more at university level. Li (1998) also reports large class sizes and the use of traditional methods such as the grammar-translation method, the audiolingual method, or a combination of the two in class, as well as the exam orientation of the Korean educational system, as pointed out by Korean teachers in his study.

This however does not mean that innovations do not take place or that the South Korean Ministry of Education have not tried to introduce policies to promote the oral communication skills of secondary school students (the Ministry of Education does not decide on policies on the curricula of university level institutions). Indeed, *the Sixth and Seventh National Curriculum for Middle Schools and for High Schools* introduced (or initiated in the case of *the Seventh Curriculum*) by the Korean Ministry of Education in 1992 and 1996 clearly stated that the new curricula emphasised communicative language teaching (CLT) encouraging communicative activities and tasks in class along with provision of a variety of new textbooks incorporating a communicative perspective. These innovations have nevertheless encountered a number of obstacles.

Among the factors that have hindered the implementation of those innovations are the teachers’ deficiency in spoken English, their deficiency in strategic and sociolinguistic competence in English, their lack of training in the new methods, and lack of opportunities for retraining in communicative language teaching, and their misconceptions about the methods, and lack of time and expertise for developing communicative materials (Li 1998). In addition, the constraints imposed by the educational system as a result of ‘large classes, grammar-based examinations, insufficient funding, and lack of professional, administrative, and collegial support’ (Ibid.: 693) present major obstacles to these innovations. In particular, in a situation where gaining a high grade in the University Entrance Exam is the ultimate goal of most secondary school students, the unchanged grammar-based exams act as a demotivating force as

does the lack of alternative effective and efficient assessment instruments, and the difficulty of adapting new curriculum to suit particular teaching contexts.

The implications of these initiatives by the Ministry seem to be that more pressure will be placed on teachers. Especially as opportunities for training or retraining in CLT are few and far between and there is a lack of professional, administrative, and collegial support for the innovations (Li 1998; From undated meeting minutes in 2001 on *the 7th National Curriculum* from *The National Association of English Teachers*), the burden of actual implementation of the innovations is on teachers. The policy of encouraging the use of English as a medium of instruction places even more pressure on them because it requires a high level of spoken language proficiency. In addition, in a situation where there are still large class sizes and the grammar-based examinations teachers are bound to get caught in the middle between student needs and the educational policies that are imposed upon them.

In the researcher's experience initially as a student and later as a teacher, English classes at university level are not specifically directed by the Ministry of Education but by the respective institution or the (liberal) English department in the institution. For example, the Ministry of Education does not set curricula for university level English courses. This also means that any type of teacher training at university level is totally dependent upon the respective institution. In some cases, there is no teacher training at all (which seems to be the case with many university level teachers as seen in the current study survey results in 4.3.3.12). The types of classes are, unlike secondary schools, varied according to the goals of the classes. For example, there are classes focusing on conversational skills, listening skills, composition skills, reading skills, or even for exam preparation such as TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) or TOEIC (Test of English as an International Communication) (cf. the curriculum of the Pagoda Foreign Language Institute <http://www.pagoda21.com/pagoda.asp>; and the curriculum of the English Department at Hanyang University http://www.hanyang.ac.kr/prg_html/H3HLAA/eDepartmentCurriculum.html). At university level English is still important, but in most cases, continuing with English is optional as long as students complete a few nominal core modules in their first year (cf. the curriculum of the Department of Theatre and Cinema at Hanyang University http://www.hanyang.ac.kr/prg_html/H3HLRA/eDepartmentCurriculum.html)

Unlike secondary school teachers, university EFL teachers can have a variety of qualifications. To teach at secondary school, teachers should possess a teaching certificate that is awarded to those who successfully complete a four-year university course (first degree) in English with an additional focus on education. On the other hand, to be qualified to teach EFL at university,

teachers should have a postgraduate degree in an English-related area either from Korea or preferably from an English speaking country. In some cases, teachers who studied other than an English related subject teach EFL at a university or at a private language school for adults as long as the degree was gained in an English speaking country (this has been confirmed by the current study survey in 4.3.3.8).

Since the globalisation policy by a former president in 1994

(<http://www.chammalo.com/mboard...>; http://www.vanchosun.com/focus/focus_b.php; <http://user.collian.net/~ecx/col/col47.html>) which also provided the theory underlying the 5th Curriculum, a huge emphasis has been placed on the ability to carry out oral communication in English (<http://www.chammalo.com/mboard...>). English classes focusing on oral communication skills have grown in importance since the number of students wanting to improve these skills has increased. This also has greatly influenced how English classes have been conducted. As a result, emphasis has been laid on the use of English as the medium of instruction for the teachers. In spite of having experience of living and studying in English speaking countries, however, the majority of the teachers the researcher met felt there is still room for an improvement in their oral/aural English skills (which has been confirmed by the university level teachers' SA scores and confidence level in the current study in 4.2 and 4.3.1).

1.2.2 Language Proficiency and Confidence as a Language Teacher

A majority of English teachers in the world are non-native speakers of the language and, as Medgyes (1994) asserts, this native/non-native distinction exists 'in the minds of millions of teachers' (introduction ix). This non-nativeness of the language they teach puts these teachers in a more difficult position than native speaker teachers. Medgyes (1994), observing the difficulties a non-native speaker teacher of English frequently has to cope with, describes the inferiority complex and stress non-native speaker teachers often suffer from.

As Duff (1988) points out, most English teachers all over the world are non-natives and are teaching monolingual groups of learners. In particular, in Korea the so-called privilege of having native English teachers is not available to every school, even if the number of native teachers in school is on the increase. Therefore, it can be said that most Korean students are being taught English only by their non-native speaker teachers, and that these teachers have a pivotal role on Korean English education. As Bolitho (1988), Cullen (1994), Murdoch (1994), and Parrot (1988) indicate, most non-native teachers tend to be insecure about the language they are teaching. Lee (1991) observes the widely perceived notion that Korean English teachers lack proficiency and confidence in their spoken English.

It is clear that language teacher's proficiency in the language they teach is important. In addition, it is worth noting that teachers' proficiency is closely related to their confidence. Teacher confidence is a major factor in successful teaching, as indicated by research evidence (Burns 1982; Combes 1965; Lawrence 1996; 1999; Williams & Burden 1997). As has been pointed out in various studies, language competence plays an instrumental part in promoting language teacher confidence. Thomas (1987) sees language competence as the pre-requisite for language teacher confidence, and Berry (1990) maintains that language improvement should be seen as a valid aim in teacher training because it increases teacher confidence. Cullen (1994) also claims that a poor or rusty command of English on the part of the teacher 'undermines the teacher's confidence in the classroom, affects his or her self-esteem and professional status' (165). Murdoch (1994) reports that 89 % of the trainees in a teacher training programme regarded a teacher's own degree of language competence as the most important factor in teacher confidence. Therefore, language proficiency can be said to be a major element composed of language teacher confidence.

In today's language classroom, both teachers and students seem to believe that language learning should necessarily involve 'genuine language use through the medium of the [target] language' (Brumfit 1986: 59). Opinion is moving away from textbooks which only contain controlled practice activities in favour of textbooks which provide flexible authentic supplementary materials (Medgyes 1986), and the teacher is increasingly expected to encourage real interaction between herself and her students, and between students themselves.

As Marton (1988) indicates, this kind of approach requires teachers of a high level of proficiency 'to be prepared for any linguistic emergency' (47) without resorting to the linguistic safety offered by the textbook. In short, communicative materials and methodology 'demand of the teacher a higher level of proficiency in English than in the past, and the confidence to use it over an extended period in the classroom' (Cullen 1994: 165). In other words, proficiency in the spoken language is a pre-requisite if the teacher is to operate effectively in the communicative classroom (see 2.2.2.2).

Therefore, teachers need to be proficient in the language they teach. However most Korean English teachers' proficiency in the spoken language does not seem to be high (Lee 1991; *The Korea Herald* 19/6/2001). Lee (1991) attributes this to historical reasons:

As Korea was developing in the post-war decades, the supply of well-trained English teachers simply could not meet the huge demand, because the priority of the policy was given to other areas such as defence and economic development. The inadequacy of teacher education was perpetuated. The teachers of English who were trained in mainly grammar and reading almost invariably taught English in the conventional 'grammar-translation method'. Students

who were taught in this way are most likely to teach in the same way they learnt when they in turn become teachers (45-6).

A recent survey conducted by the Seoul Metropolitan Board of Education confirmed this widespread belief. According to the survey result which was administered to elementary, and secondary school level teachers, only eight teachers out of 100 are capable of giving lectures in English (*Cho-sun Ilbo* 14/10/2001).

It is believed that the teachers' knowledge of grammar or reading skills is high since this has been the focus of the lessons the teachers have taken and that they teach. Teachers were required to be tested in these skills to become qualified teachers. It is their spoken proficiency that is being questioned. In addition, teachers did not have to try to improve their spoken English, because it was not necessary in the situation where classes were not instructed in English and spoken proficiency is not tested (Lee 1991), although the situations are changing with the introduction of *the 6th and 7th National Curriculum*. The exams that the teachers took to become qualified teachers also ignored spoken proficiency.

Therefore, Korean English teachers' proficiency in the target language needs to be identified as a first step toward helping them overcome their proficiency-related problems.

1.2.3 The Nature of Language Proficiency

In order to investigate the Korean English teachers' language proficiency, it is necessary to look at what language proficiency means. Language proficiency has been discussed in many cases in relation to 'communicative competence'. The use of the term 'competence' goes back to Chomsky (1965) who distinguished it from 'performance'. However, his definition of the term 'competence' meant knowledge of a language or grammar, and did not include ability to use a language. Later, Hymes (1972) used the term 'communicative competence' to include sociolinguistic contexts within competence. As Taylor (1988) observes, a lot of investigators have often included the concept of 'ability' within competence, 'thus equating it with 'proficiency' (148). Taylor (1988) goes on to claim that if competence is 'a static concept, having to do with structure, state, or form' and absolute in character', as Chomsky (1965) claimed, proficiency is 'essentially a dynamic concept, having to do with process and function' and so 'a relative notion' (166). Consequently, Taylor (1988) claims that the term 'communicative proficiency' should be employed instead of the overused and confusing term 'communicative competence' to refer to language proficiency.

Harley et al (1990) observe that the definition of competence in a language has been developed, expanded, and refined from Chomsky's (1965) (linguistic or grammatical) competence or Hymes's

(1972) communicative competence, to cover more sub-components of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence as defined by Canale & Swain (1980). Since Canale & Swain (1980), many researchers have been developing and refining their multi-componential model of language competence. Bachman (1990) refers to his model as communicative language ability (CLA) which was developed from the model of language competence of Canale & Swain (1980) and Canale (1983). Bachman (1990; 1996) divides it into grammatical, textual, illocutionary, and sociolinguistic competence, and puts strategic competence and psychophysiological mechanisms alongside language competence. These models of language competence have affected the design of language tests, and been employed in various language testing contexts.

It seems that, recently, the term ‘language/linguistic proficiency’ has generally been employed to avoid the confusion the term ‘competence’ has caused.

1.2.4 Assessing Language Proficiency and Self-assessment

As pointed out above, Korean English teachers’ language proficiency needs to be identified, ideally by means of an appropriate language test based on sound theories. However, it is not considered practical to uncover the teachers’ proficiency by persuading them to take language tests. The main reason for this is the special position that teachers occupy in Korean society. Ho & Crookall (1995) highlight the importance of face saving and respect for authority in societies influenced by Chinese culture. Teachers in these societies are regarded as the authority figure in the classroom, and authority is highly respected. This respect for authority is closely related to the pre-occupation with face-saving of the people in these societies (Chang & Holt 1994; Ho & Crookall 1995). In addition, students have ‘a great respect for and wish to maintain their teachers’ face’, and with similar concern for face, the teacher ‘is also reluctant to admit any inadequacies on his/her part’ (Ho & Crookall 1995: 237). Therefore, nobody is willing to openly question teachers’ knowledge or capacity. In return, teachers are expected to be good at what they are teaching.

In the researcher’s experience, however, Korean English teachers have a seemingly contradictory attitude towards their own target language proficiency. Many of them tend to be reluctant to be tested for fear of losing face. On the other hand, they aspire to improve their language proficiency and are willing to improve it. Therefore, as a way of accommodating their fear of testing, whilst meeting the need to identify their level of proficiency, self-assessment seems to be less threatening to these teachers and useful in that it can play a significant role in increasing their motivation by means of raising their awareness of their own language level and learning objectives (Dickinson

1987; Holec 1977; Oskarsson 1978; 1984). Therefore, it is hoped that using self-assessment will help teachers become more aware of their own weaknesses and eventually lead them to try to overcome these weaknesses.

In the case of teacher learners, self-assessment can be even more invaluable. In my own experience, teacher learners seem to turn to self-directed learning rather than taking formal language classes. Consequently, the opportunities for them to be involved in formal tests are few and far between. Therefore, self-evaluation cannot but become an inevitable and practical option. In addition, as pointed out earlier, self-assessment can help the teachers become aware of their own levels, which can benefit the teachers. This self-awareness of one's own level is very important because this can be the very first step in self-directed learning. In self-directed learning, learners take responsibility for their own learning, which means taking charge of all the decisions in all the aspects of learning, from determining the learning objectives to evaluating what was learned (Holec 1979). In other words, the teachers can identify their own weaknesses through self-assessment, set overcoming the weaknesses as their learning objectives in their self-directed learning, and finally self-evaluate how well the objectives were achieved by means of another self-assessment.

In addition, as much research shows, self-assessment seems to be fairly reliable as compared to the proficiency measured by language tests. Since the increased interest in individualism and individualistic learning (Holec 1979) in the late 1970s, a number of experiments and investigations into self-assessment, carried out in second and foreign language learning contexts and compared to the test results in many cases, have found it to be highly reliable in many situations, as can be seen in Bachman & Palmer (1981, 1989), LeBlanc & Painchaud (1985), Oskarsson (1978, 1981, 1984, 1989), and von Elek (1985),.

1.2.5 Video as a Means of Improving Spoken Language Proficiency

The need to improve Korean teachers' proficiency in the spoken language has already been mentioned. It is therefore necessary to identify how they can improve their proficiency. The ways of improving their language proficiency are numerous as seen in various suggestions (Berry 1990; Kennedy 1983; Lange 1990; Johnson 1990; Richards & Nunan 1990). However, according to the results of the researcher's pilot study, teachers with higher levels of perceived (and possibly actual) proficiency tend to have spent more time abroad and so are likely to have been more exposed to actual uses of the target language. In addition, there are some research results about the positive effects on students' or teachers' proficiency of spending a substantial amount of time abroad (Davie 1996; Meara 1994; Weidmann Koop 1995). Going abroad and staying there for a year or longer,

therefore, seems to be a very good way of improving their spoken language proficiency, even though it is not always possible because of the time and expense involved. A practical alternative to immersion in the target language is likely to be exposure to recorded instances of the target language use such as video. As Allan (1985) points out, video can be 'a good means of bringing slices of living language into the classroom' by putting before learners 'the ways people communicate visually as well as verbally' (48).

The advantages of video as a medium for language learning have frequently been identified. Allan (1985), Lonergan (1983), and Sheerin (1983) pointed out that video can provide learners with the target language input in a meaningful context. The authenticity and rich cultural experience video can provide were also noted by Lonergan (1983), Sheerin (1983), Stempleski (1991), and Stoller (1991). Video can also stimulate learners' interest and motivate them, according to Allan (1985), Kennedy (1983), Stempleski & Tomalin (1990), Stoller (1991). In addition, many research findings point to the effectiveness of video as a medium for language learning (Ramsay 1991; Rifkin 2000; Secules et al. 1992)

Other than the advantages mentioned above, the two considerable advantages of video are its availability and accessibility, particularly in Korea. There are a lot of people who do not have a computer, but a large number of Korean people have a video player at home. Besides, in contrast to expensive computer software, with video there is no need to buy expensive ELT videos because, as learners can use virtually any types of English programmes for their study, they do not particularly need to buy expensive programmes designed for language learning. All they need do is record some of the English programmes available on TV. Another advantage of video is its familiarity as a medium. Video has been around for several decades and most people are experienced in its use. With computers there is a serious lack of technical knowledge. With video, however, the handling problem is hardly mentioned and using video is considered to be comparatively easier.

1.3 THE PURPOSES OF THE STUDY

This study is intended to answer the question of 'how proficient do Korean English teachers perceive themselves to be in English and is there a way of helping Korean teachers improve their English without having to attend classes?'. In order to answer the question, the study will investigate: 1) what is the nature of Korean teachers' perception of their own language proficiency as non-native speakers of English?; 2) what is the relationship between Korean teachers' perception of spoken language proficiency and other measures of proficiency?; 3) is there the need for and are there ways of boosting teachers' proficiency in the target language?; 4) what is the effect of video on the teachers' spoken linguistic proficiency?.

It is expected that the data gathered will show Korean English teachers' self-image as language teachers, what has influenced this perception, and their confidence in using the target language, and finally identify effective ways of improving the teachers' current situations.

1.4 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Most research in second/foreign language testing is concerned with language learners' linguistic proficiency in the target language. Research into self-assessed proficiency in the target language also focuses on students. Accordingly, research into teachers' linguistic proficiency in the target language and into their learning is hard to find with a few exceptions such as Elder (2001), Grant (1997), Spezzini & Oxford (1998). Even these studies do not exactly match the interest of the current study because they address either prospective teachers or foreign languages other than English.

The situation also applies in English Language Teaching (ELT) in Korea, as practically no extensive research has been conducted into Korean non-native speaker (NNS) teachers' perception of their own language proficiency, although there has been a wide-spread belief that the teachers do not have sufficient command of spoken English, as pointed out in 1.2.2.

In spite of the doubts about the English teachers' spoken proficiency in Korea, teachers do not wish to admit to their weaknesses, and cultural factors make it difficult to ask teachers to provide proof of a high level of spoken proficiency in the form of language tests. Consequently, a clear picture of Korean English teachers' spoken proficiency is not available. Therefore, there is a need for research into Korean English language teachers' spoken language proficiency. In particular, it seems valuable to investigate the teachers' self-assessment of their own target language proficiency in the situation where other measures of their proficiency are hard to obtain. In addition, self-assessment can benefit the teachers by helping them become aware of their weaknesses and by leading them to learn more in an effort to overcome the weaknesses.

There have been encouragement by the Ministry of Education of giving English-only lessons in English classes in Korea as mentioned earlier, which inevitably drew the public's attention to teachers' proficiency in the spoken language. As the survey result indicates in 1.2.2, however, the majority of the teachers need to improve their proficiency in the spoken language. As a means of improving the teachers' proficiency in the spoken language, using video will be investigated in the current study for the reasons mentioned in 1.2.5. There seems to be some research into the effect of using video with students (see 2.5.7 and 2.5.8), but no research into its effect on language teachers'

language improvement is found. Therefore, it seems worthwhile to investigate how using video can affect teachers' language proficiency.

1.5 THE LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study is designed with care to achieve all those purposes stated, but it is not free of limitations.

First of all, the study is concerned with the teachers in Seoul only. Therefore, the results of the study may not be generalised to the other areas of Korea, especially not the rural village areas, where educational environments, such as the availability of educational technology, are different from Seoul. However, given that almost one quarter of the whole population lives in or around Seoul, this study can benefit a large number of people.

Secondly, the study is dependent on teachers' self-assessment for the information of the teachers' linguistic proficiency. Therefore, there may be inaccurate reports of teachers' proficiency. However, a lot of research results indicate that self-assessment is mostly reliable especially when the subjects do not gain anything from their own high self-assessment scores (see 2.4.1.2), which is the case with the subject in the study.

In addition, the number of subjects who took the language test or participated in the case studies may be too small to generalise the results.

In the case of classroom observation, it is possible that tape-recording the class and/or the presence of the researcher in class as an observer may have affected the teachers' performance. Nonetheless, in order to make everything less visible, the observer sat in an unobtrusive position, with minimal recording equipment.

1.6 THE STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

This thesis consists of 6 chapters. In this chapter, the outline of the study was discussed. In particular, the purposes of the study were outlined, the significance of the study was explained, and the limitations of the study were noted. The rest of the chapters are (1) literature review; (2) methodology; (3) the results of the study; (4) discussion of the results; (5) conclusion.

The literature review chapter will examine the available literature that focuses on the specific research interests of the current study: non-native speaker teachers and their need for language

improvement; what linguistic proficiency is; self-assessment of linguistic proficiency; how to improve teachers' language proficiency.

The methodology chapter will then be presented with research questions and hypotheses, research methods, and procedures. After that, the research findings will be presented in the same order as the research questions. Discussion of the results will follow. Finally, conclusions will be drawn and some implications for practical applications of the study findings and for further studies will be indicated.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will review the available literature that focuses on the specific research interests of the current study. First of all, non-native speaker language teachers' language improvement needs will be discussed. Then various issues about linguistic proficiency will be discussed from Canale & Swain (1980) to Bachman's (1990) communicative language ability (CLA). The theories and practice of self-assessment will also be presented in connection with language testing. Finally, the methods of improving the teachers' proficiency will also be discussed, and the use of video as a means of improving the target language will be explored with some previous research findings.

2.2 NON-NATIVE SPEAKER TEACHERS AND THEIR NEED FOR LANGUAGE IMPROVEMENT

2.2.1 Section Introduction

The current study focuses on non-native speaker teachers, and in particular on non-native speaker English teachers in Korea where English is considered to be the most important foreign language. Not only for those Korean teachers but also for those non-native speaker teachers working in all corners of the world, it may be beneficial to set out the general problems they might face in their teaching situations, and to identify possible solutions to their problems.

In the world of ESL or EFL, non-native speaker teachers greatly outnumber native speaker teachers, as has frequently been pointed out during at least the past two decades (Duff 1988; Medgyes 1994; Willis 1981). And there seem to be 'obvious differences between native speaker teachers (NS) and non-native speaker (NNS) teachers' (Reves & Medgyes 1994: 364). As non-native speakers, teachers seem to have a number of difficulties which native speaker teachers may not face, leading them to find their situations more daunting and hard to deal with. Nevertheless, in spite of a great deal of research into language teaching and learning, there seems to be very little on the market to address and to help (Medgyes 1994; Willis 1981) these NNS teachers' problems.

One significant problem these non-native speaker English teachers perceive is their own language proficiency, and the loss of self-confidence their perceived language proficiency may result in. The close relationship between a language teacher's language proficiency and confidence has been pointed out by several researchers (Burns 1982; Combes 1965; Reves & Medgyes 1994). Thus, Reves & Medgyes (1994) suggest taking two steps in order to deal with problems caused by the non-native speaker teachers' self-perception. The first step is to openly

acknowledge and legitimise the differences between non-native speaker teachers' language proficiency and that of native speaker teachers so that the non-native speaker teachers are not discriminated against. Then, the second step is to make an effort to improve their language proficiency, which may help boost their confidence as well as bring about real language improvement.

In order to identify the situations non-native speaker teachers find themselves in and the self-image they have, this section will address non-native speaker teachers' confidence and language competence. In order to address the issue of non-native speaker teachers' confidence, first of all, differences between native and non-native speakers will be investigated. The effect communicative language teaching might have on non-native speaker teachers will then be discussed, focusing on the teachers' role and responsibility, and what the communicative approach means to non-native speaker teachers in terms of their own language proficiency. The relationship between teachers' perceived language proficiency and teacher confidence will then be discussed. The most important needs of non-native speaker teachers will also be clarified. Finally, interest in teacher talk will be discussed in terms of research interests in language teaching.

2.2.2 Non-native Speaker Teachers' Confidence and Language Needs

As mentioned above, non-native speaker teachers' situations are not the same as native speaker teachers'. Because non-native speaker teachers themselves have been learners of the language they teach, their attitude towards the language may not be the same as that of native speaker teachers who acquired the language as their first language. Although there are some advantages of non-native speaker teachers such as '[providing] a good learner model for imitation, [teaching] language learning strategies more effectively, [supplying] learners with more information about the English language, [anticipating] and [preventing] language difficulties better, [being] more empathetic to the needs and problems of learners, and [making] use of the learners' mother tongue' (Medgyes 1994: 51), there is a major disadvantage to being a non-native speaker teacher. After all, as compared to native speakers who are potentially more accomplished users of English, it is likely that non-native speaker teachers find themselves much less accomplished in the language they have to teach. And their own real or perceived proficiency in the language may affect their confidence as teachers and their teaching behaviour.

2.2.2.1 Distinction between native and non-native speakers of English

The division of speakers into native and non-native has been employed in many and varied contexts by many people involved in different language related disciplines, in spite of the now

widespread dissatisfaction with this categorisation. Mainly because of its haziness and elusiveness, the concept of native and non-native speakers has come in for serious criticism.

Rampton (1990) pinpoints five assumptions related to the idea of a native speaker of a language:

1. A particular language is inherited, either through genetic endowment or through birth into the social group stereotypically associated with it.
2. Inheriting a language means being able to speak it well.
3. People either are or are not native/mother-tongue speakers.
4. Being a native speaker involves the comprehensive grasp of a language.
5. Just as people are usually citizens of one country, people are native speakers of one mother tongue. (p. 97)

All of these assumptions are being heavily attacked for their rigidity and resulting inappropriateness. Rampton (1990) interprets the problems related to the above assumptions as a concoction of the different concepts. He suggests, for example, that the biological factor is overemphasised at the expense of the social factor and that language as an instrument of communication is mixed up with language as a symbol of social identification. Among many theorists assaulting the inconsistencies in the concept, Ferguson (1982) went so far as to claim that ‘the whole mystique of native speaker and mother tongue should probably be quietly dropped from the linguist’s set of professional myths about language’ (vii).

Therefore, many attempts to coin new terms to replace the unsatisfactory concept of a native speaker have been made, suggesting varying terms such as ‘more or less accomplished’ (Edge 1988) or ‘proficient users of English’ (Paikeday 1985), ‘English-using speech fellowships’ (Kachru 1985), ‘expert as accomplished users’ (Rampton 1990), and so on. Nevertheless, these ‘well-sounding terms are no less spurious than the weathered terms, native/non-native speakers’ (Medgyes 1992; 1994: 10). In spite of the widely disapproved validity of the division, the dichotomy of native and non-native speakers has frequently been used and is actively being used, as seen in many and varied references in related areas. In my opinion, the dichotomy seems to be deeply engraved in the heart of most non-native speakers with the painful perception of their linguistic deficit in the target language. As a result, it seems that all those efforts to discredit or modify the terms of native and non native speakers ‘just end up testifying indirectly to their power’ (Rampton 1990: 97). For non-natives the distinction seems to show that they cannot ever reach native-speakers’ level of linguistic proficiency.

2.2.2.2 Non-native speaker teachers in communicative language teaching

With increased attention to communicative competence (see 2.3 for explanations), the so-called communicative approach to language teaching and learning has been emphasised. Savignon (1983) summarised discussions of communicative approaches to language learning as three approaches. People taking the first approach have the ‘sequential view of language learning,

proceeding from habit-formation structure drilling to the creative use of language [for communication]'(Ibid.: 29). An alternative view is that 'grammar should not be the initial focus at all' (24). In other words, the experience of communication 'may lead, in turn, to a structural or functional analysis of the language' and language acquisition is seen as 'proceeding from meaning to surface structure' (24-5). A third approach is to focus on the 'specification of context within which the learner will use the L2' (25) instead of learning process. A syllabus based on this approach is called the notional syllabus, which is associated with various language functions. In addition to the three approaches, there are other approaches under the name of the communicative approach, which are based upon several theoretical frameworks of communicative competence.

Therefore, it is hard to define the communicative approach to language teaching in a sentence. However, there are 2 main principles various approaches to communicative language teaching share. One of them involves 'genuine language use through the medium of the second language' in the classroom (Brumfit 1986: 59).

Another principle of communicative classroom is learner-centred classroom. Prior to the communicative approach, the teacher's role was easily defined and grasped. She was expected to have authority or control over, and responsibility for, the classroom. The teacher did not share the responsibility for the learners' learning with the learners. Like other subject teachers, the English teacher was considered to be a subject teacher (Medgyes 1986). Her main job was to impart knowledge about the target language quite mechanically through 'the well-defined subject matter'(Medgyes 1986: 109). In addition, the textbook ensured 'a great deal of linguistic safety'(Medgyes 1986: 110) for the non-native speaker English teachers through providing them with language resources they can depend on.

On the contrary, in the communicative classroom, the teacher is not the one controlling everything related to learning. Communicative teachers armed with the communicative approach to language teaching and learning are expected to play quite different roles in the learner-centred classroom from their traditional ones. As Harmer (1983) indicated, teachers are required to relax their grip on the class as controllers, to resort to gentle correction as assessors, to set activities in motion and then stand aside as organisers, to perform with discretion as prompters, to play second fiddle as participants, and as resources to offer help only when requested. Understanding and catering for her students' needs both as a group and as individuals are also emphasised as among crucial roles of the communicative teacher (Medgyes 1986). In sum, communicative teachers are expected to take on more subtle and complicated roles, keeping a low profile but not 'relinquishing control over the class' (Medgyes 1986: 109).

Furthermore, Brumfit (1986) pinpointed eight demands made on the communicative teacher, which were: (1) liking her students, (2) serious consideration of the relationship between student needs and pedagogical practice, (3) proper beliefs about language learning and teaching, (4) having openness in discussion, (5) being professionally well-informed, (6) taking a principled but flexible approach, (7) constantly trying to improve, and (8) being humble (58-64).

As a result, the arguments against the textbook full of controlled practice increased in favour of flexible authentic supplementary materials (Medgyes 1986). Cullen (1994) points out that recently introduced new communicative textbooks 'have arguably placed more pressure on teachers than in the past to use English easily and fluently in the classroom'(165). And the teacher is expected to encourage real interaction between herself and her students, and between students themselves. As a result, as Marton (1988) indicates, the communicative approach requires teachers of a high level of proficiency 'to be prepared for any linguistic emergency' (47) without resorting to the textbook. In short, communicative materials and methodology 'demand of the teacher a higher level of proficiency in English than in the past, and the confidence to use it over an extended period in the classroom'(Cullen 1994: 165).

As a result, the communicative approach puts much more responsibility on the teacher than any other approaches did, requiring the teacher to fulfil various roles, while at the same time requiring her to keep a low profile. The above extensive list of new roles required of the teacher may be daunting enough for even native speakers. For non-native speaker English teachers, however, things may be even worse, as in addition to all those roles, it is very likely that they will have to cope with their own language deficiencies (Cullen 1994; Medgyes 1986).

2.2.2.3 Teacher confidence through language competence

The importance of confidence in teaching and learning cannot be over-emphasised. Reves & Medgyes (1994) assert that 'self-confidence is a necessary ingredient of successful teaching'(364), and Williams & Burden (1997) point out that it is crucial for successful learning that 'teachers establish in their classrooms a climate where confidence is built up'(73). There is research evidence showing a positive correlation between students' confidence and teacher confidence (Burns 1982; Combes 1965). Lawrence (1996; 1999) also claims that one main factor to enhance students' confidence is teacher confidence. It therefore seems to be important to ask what teacher confidence is and what the important factors are which make non-native speaker language teachers confident.

2.2.2.3.1 What is Teacher Confidence?

Lawrence (1996; 1999) explains confidence in the school context through employing various terms such as self-image, ideal self, self-esteem. According to him, everybody goes through the process of developing a self-image taking in numerous experiences. More specifically, self-image is defined as what the person is; the ideal self is what the person would like to be; and what the person feels about the discrepancy between what he/she is and what he/she would like to be is referred to as self-esteem (Lawrence 1996). Self-esteem, for practical purposes, can be 'simply defined as confidence'(Lawrence 1999: 2). Through encouraging a positive self-image, self-esteem or self-confidence, it is said that 'a feeling of "I can", or "I am capable of doing this"', that is, a sense of competence can be fostered (Williams & Burden 1997: 72). A sense of competence is defined as the feeling that people 'are capable of coping successfully with any particular task with which they are faced'(Williams & Burden 1997: 72), and it is a crucial factor leading to successful accomplishment of the given task.

It is clear that perceived competence (which is a major construct of self-confidence (Clement 1986)) is not necessarily equal to real competence. Markus et al.(1990) maintain that 'competence in a domain requires both some ability in the domain and a self-schema for this ability'(206), and that 'the structures of self-knowledge that represent one's important attributes or abilities are called core self-structures, salient identities, or self-schemas'(Ibid.). However, felt or perceived competence is 'an essential aspect of actual competence'(Markus et al. 1990: 206). Therefore, boosting perceived competence or confidence could positively affect actual competence.

As mentioned earlier, teacher confidence plays a central role in successful teaching.

Nonetheless, the discrepancy between the teacher's self-image and ideal self is 'widening as the demands on the profession are increasing'(Lawrence 1999: 91). And this is the case with foreign language teachers because demands and pressures on them have been increasing in the communicative approach, as discussed above. As a result, the end product could be teachers who blame themselves for not satisfactorily coping with the demands of the job, and so 'put their self-esteem at risk'(Ibid.). Dunham (1984) also indicated that 'increasing demands or more rapid changes or a greater degree of role uncertainty about how a role should be enacted may initiate the arousal of higher levels of anxiety. These may be unproductive in the sense that a teacher's ability to make decisions is impaired or his ability to concentrate is reduced'(88). In other words, teachers come to suffer from stress, which is defined as 'a perceived substantial imbalance between demand and response capability, under conditions where failure to meet demand has important perceived consequences'(Lawrence 1996: 104; McGrath 1970). There

may also be 'a sharp loss of confidence in teaching skills'(Dunham 1984: 88) on the part of the teacher as a result of his or her perceived failure to accomplish all those heavy tasks.

On the other hand, teacher confidence seems to be inseparable from learner confidence. Brumfit (1986) maintained that without building up teacher confidence, learner confidence is unlikely to develop. Lawrence (1996) also points out that there is clear evidence to show the positive relationship between confident teachers with high self-esteem and the confidence of learners in their care. Therefore, teacher confidence does not only affect the teacher himself/herself, but seems to affect learners' learning including their confidence, and this is why teacher confidence should be considered as one of the most significant factors in learners' learning.

2.2.2.3.2 What are the Factors that Affect Teachers' Confidence?

The next question should therefore be what the factors are which have an influence on teacher confidence. To be more specific, what are the most crucial factors affecting non-native speaker English teachers? Conceivably, there must be many and varied factors which influence these non-native speaker language teachers' confidence, but many consider the most important factor in non-native speaker language teacher confidence is language competence. Thomas (1987) saw language competence as the pre-requisite of language teacher competence, and Berry (1990) maintains that language improvement should be one valid aim in teacher training because it increases teacher confidence. Cullen (1994) also claims that a poor or rusty command of English on the part of the teacher 'undermines the teacher's confidence in the classroom, [and] affects his or her self-esteem and professional status'(165). Reves & Medgyes (1994) point out that 'a constant realisation of their limitation in the use of English may lead to a poorer self-image, which may further [detract from] language performance, and in turn may lead to a cumulatively stronger feeling of inferiority'(364). Murdoch (1994) reports trainees' responses in a teacher training programme to the question about the teacher's own language level. 89% of the trainees in his study agreed that 'a teacher's confidence is most dependent on his or her own degree of language competence'(258).

Duff (1987) observes a fairly common situation in Egyptian schools where those non-native speaker teachers' own level of English barely exceeded that of the lesson they were teaching. It is not difficult to find similar situations elsewhere in the world. After all, it is highly unlikely that advanced language competence in all language skills will be accomplished through only one means: i.e., the classroom learning (Lange 1990), which is most non-native speakers' main, and frequently their only, method of learning the target language. The non-native speaker teachers themselves seem to be well aware of their linguistic and cultural handicap in the target

language, and even to suffer from an inferiority complex in relation to the native speaker or other more proficient non-native speaker teachers (Medgyes 1994). Nevertheless, they have to appear to be well-informed about the target language and culture in the classroom.

Therefore, it seems natural that the non-native speaker teachers feel vulnerable because of their language deficiencies. However, admitting to the deficiencies or having them exposed in public will be one of their worst recurring nightmares (Medgyes 1994). Bolitho (1988) also reports that non-native speaker teachers do not like to admit ‘gaps in their knowledge in a public forum, yet they are naturally insecure about many aspects of the language they teach’(73). Consequently, these non-native speaker teachers can be ‘extremely sensitive and defensive’(Berry 1990: 100) about their language proficiency.

This sensitivity and defensiveness of non-native speaker teachers seems to greatly influence their teaching behaviours. They tend to teach ‘unfamiliar language elements in a context-poor environment or in isolation’(Reves & Medgyes 1994: 361). Since they have their own language difficulties and so find spontaneous language use extremely difficult, they tend to lean towards more controlled and cautious pedagogic approaches (Reves & Medgyes 1994) and lean very much on the textbook or other supplementary materials (Willis 1981) for safety. Inevitably, these NNS teachers’ language use has the characteristics of foreigner talk which involves frequent switches to the mother tongue and direct translation from their mother tongue, and a slow and hesitant approach to speaking for fear of making mistakes (Spolsky 1989). In addition, the NNS teachers seem to focus more on linguistic accuracy rather than on fluency. They show less tolerance about errors the learners make than the NS teachers. Also their perceptions of error gravity are observed to be different from those of NS teachers (Sheorey 1986).

2.2.2.4 Teachers’ need for target language improvement

Because of their language deficiencies, a substantial number of non-native speaker teachers seem to feel an ‘overwhelming desire’(Cullen 1994) to improve their own language proficiency. Cullen (1994) points out that the main concern of the teachers is to improve their own command of the target language so that they can use it more fluently and more confidently. Britten (1985) also reports on trainee teachers’ common need for target language improvement in the teacher training programme he was involved in. Spezzini & Oxford (1998), who researched foreign language teacher candidates, report that the teacher candidates ‘placed a higher degree of importance on developing their language skills as future teachers than they had before as foreign language students’(74). All this indication of the non-native speaker teachers’ language needs is

reminiscent of the claim Strevens (1968) made about the need for teachers to improve their own English far back in the 1960s.

In other words, it is likely that non-native speaker teachers have been well aware of their linguistic deficiencies and have had a desperate need to improve their own language proficiency since they first started teaching the target language. Berry's (1990) questionnaire administered to two groups of Polish teachers of English provides evidence of the teachers' awareness of and need for their own language improvement. The teachers were asked to rank the three components on training courses in order of their perceived importance: they placed language improvement first, methodology came in second place, and theory came a poor third. Reves & Medgyes (1994) report on the results of their questionnaire, administered to teachers in 10 different countries, where 182 non-native teachers out of 198 admitted having various language difficulties. Spezzini & Oxford (1998) report that 69 % of their foreign language teaching candidate subjects' responses were negative or tentative to the question, 'do you feel that your current level of the target language is adequate for you to perform effectively as a teacher intern?'.

In short, the awareness of and need for language improvement on the part of non-native speaker teachers seems to be widespread. The next step therefore is to make efforts 'to improve the non-native speaker teachers' command of English to the utmost, to minimise the deficiencies so as to approximate their proficiency, as much as possible, to that of the native speaker teachers'(Reves & Medgyes 1994: 364).

2.2.3 Interest in Teacher Talk

Along with non-native speaker teachers' need for target language improvement, the teachers' use of the first and target language in class has been a research interest. There has always been interest in teacher talk and in its importance as language input in the classroom but at the same time concerns about large amounts of teacher talk in class have coexisted. Nunan (1998) observes that 'normative statements sometimes appear that teacher talk is "bad", and while it can be argued that excessive teacher talk is to be avoided, determining what is or is not "excessive" will always be a matter of judgement'(190). In addition, it can also be argued that 'in many foreign language classrooms, teacher talk is important in providing learners with the only substantial live target language input they are likely to receive' (Ibid.). Like it or not, as Allwright & Bailey (1991) point out, teacher talk amounts to one half to three quarters of all classroom talk, a finding which is consistent in observations of many different classrooms. In addition, the importance of teacher talk in the classroom cannot be overemphasised because talk

is 'one of the major ways that teachers convey information to learners and it is also one of the primary means of controlling learner behaviour' (Allwright & Bailey 1991: 139).

Interest in teacher talk has produced much research focusing on teachers' linguistic modification (Chaudron 1983; Gaies's 1977; Long & Sato 1983), teacher questions (Nunan 1998), and teachers' provision of feedback on learner performance (Brophy 1981; Nunan 1998).

Classroom talk has been one of the major interests in the discourse analysis field as part of spoken discourse. Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) observed the structure of discourse in school classrooms and found 'a rigid pattern, where teachers and pupils spoke according to very fixed perceptions of their roles and where the talk could be seen to conform to highly structured sequences' (McCarthy 1991: 12). The teacher is found to give the students a signal which clearly indicates the beginning and the end of a mini lesson by using the words '*now then*' and '*right*' in a particular way with falling intonation and a short pause afterwards, which was labelled 'framing move' (Sinclair & Coulthard 1975), putting the sequence of questions and answers between the two framing moves together into one mini-lesson. The sequence of questions and answers was labelled as an exchange by Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) and this was seen as a three-part exchange made up of an opening move, an answering move, and a follow-up move. Sinclair & Brazil (1982) attached slightly different names to these same three moves: initiation, response and follow-up, which are widely used now. According to this three-part exchange, an opening move or initiation is normally carried out by the teacher mostly in the form of question or command, and a pupil is nominated or volunteers to answer the question or respond to the command. Then, the teacher comments on the pupil's performance as follow-up.

McCarthy (1991) emphasises the difference of the follow-up move between the classroom and any other situations by saying that the follow-up move 'fulfils the vital role of telling the pupils whether they have done what the teacher wanted them to; in other situations it may be an act of politeness' (16). McCarthy (1991) points out the importance of the follow-up move in the classroom situation by claiming that 'the teacher's role as evaluator...makes the follow-up move very important in classrooms where the follow-up move is withheld, the pupils are likely to suspect that something is wrong, that they have not given the answer the teacher wants' (17). Therefore, in normal classroom talk the teacher is expected to perform the two parts of the exchange, initiation and follow-up, and the pupils are restricted to the response part only.

Unlike previous discourse analysis researchers who did not differentiate content classrooms from language classrooms, Willis (1992) focuses on the distinctive characteristics of language classrooms, and so Willis (1992) sets up another model for language classrooms called the Inner

and Outer model. Willis's (1992) Inner and Outer model departs from Sinclair & Coulthard's (1975) model of classroom discourse, observing that there is "the two-level structure" in the language classroom, where language 'serves both as the subject matter of the lesson, and as the medium of instruction' (162). She claims that Sinclair & Coulthard's (1975) model 'does not handle the two-level structure of the mainstream language classroom' even though it 'can be used to analyse most typical "content" classrooms' (Willis 1992: 162). Willis (1992) adopted the terms Outer and Inner to explain the so-called two-level structure of the language classroom. The Outer structure 'provides the framework of the lesson, the language used to socialise, organise, explain and check, and generally to enable the pedagogic activities to take place', the Inner comprises 'the target forms of the language that the teacher has selected as learning goals' (Willis 1992: 163), and the three-part exchange explained above occurs throughout. Therefore, Inner language is very much structured and prepared for pedagogical purposes whereas Outer is natural language by comparison. In this sense, because Outer language is natural language the teacher uses for genuine communication in class, not memorised or read from the textbook or other teaching materials, it was thought that closely looking at the Outer language can show something about the non-native teacher's spoken proficiency.

The quantity of and the pattern of target language use on the part of the teachers have been an area of interest in the language learning and teaching field. Furthermore, as Dickson (1996) maintains, there has been little dispute 'concerned with foreign language education over the principle that learners in school should be exposed as much as possible to the target language in use' (1). It has often been claimed that the more target language the teacher uses in the classroom, the better it would be for the pupils. There is some theoretical and empirical justification for the assumption that 'target language use prompts natural acquisition' (Ibid.)

Zilm (1989), in reporting her research results, claimed that according to her use of the target language, German, in class, her students' use of the target language increased proportionally. Students whose teachers are native speakers of the target language (TL) and naturally use more TL than their non-native counterparts are found to use more target language than other students (Dickson 1996). However, it is also conceivable that there must be some circumstances affecting the teachers' target language use such as pupils' disorderly behaviour, lower achieving pupils, large classes, mixed ability classes, departmental policy, the teachers' fatigue and burden of using the TL, and the teachers' confidence in using it (Dickson 1996).

Teachers' confidence in using the target language along with other factors therefore can affect their use of the language in class.

2.2.4 Section Summary

Thus far, we have looked at non-native speaker teachers' confidence, their language needs, and interest in teacher talk. The discussions above seem to indicate the negative side of being a non-native speaker teacher, which is a very gloomy prospect, considering that most English teachers all over the world are non-natives and are teaching monolingual groups of learners (Duff 1988). In addition, some non-native speaker teachers have 'a blind, over-enthusiastic, anglophile attitude accompanied by low self-esteem about [their own] place and identity in the world of teaching English', as Ruzsa (1988: 46) explained in her Hungarian context. Nevertheless, as Medgyes (1994) points out, there are also positive sides of being a non-native speaker teacher (see 2.2.2).

2.3 WHAT IS LINGUISTIC PROFICIENCY?

2.3.1 Section Introduction

In the previous section, non-native speaker teachers' need to improve their linguistic proficiency was identified. Before investigating the issues of assessing and improving teachers' linguistic proficiency, we will define what linguistic proficiency means: what it is based on and what it involves. Since Chomsky (1965) first used the term 'competence', major discussions of language proficiency have been related to this term, the definition of which has been developed, expanded, and refined since Chomsky's (1965) introduction of the term. One of the early important changes to the concept of competence was the incorporation of sociolinguistic characteristics into its definition, creating a new term 'communicative competence'.

Hymes is quoted as the person who meaningfully used the term 'communicative competence' for the first time in the literature. Hymes's 'communicative competence' was widely considered to be a response to Chomsky's more limited definition of 'competence', later called 'linguistic competence'. A number of researchers have tried to define the term, revealing different views, broadening its applicability to language related areas, and also causing much confusion in the process.

In addition, once communicative competence began to be considered the goal of progressive, innovative teaching, many teachers, theoreticians, or textbook writers, wanted to employ the term for what they were doing (Savignon 1983), consequently causing more confusion. Therefore, given the importance of the concept 'communicative competence', it is essential to try to define the meaning of the concept 'communicative competence'.

In this section of the chapter, some of the terms used in relation to language proficiency will be identified, looking into how these terms have been used and into clarifying the meaning of those terms. Then, the main history of 'communicative competence' will be explored by following many researchers' attempts to define it and to apply it in language teaching and testing contexts.

2.3.2 The Question of Terminology

Commonly used terms to indicate knowledge or ability for use of a language in (applied) linguistics include competence, performance, proficiency, communicative competence, communicative proficiency, and communicative language ability. Among those terms, the use of the term 'competence' goes back to Chomsky (1965) who distinguished it from 'performance' (See 2.3.3.). However, his definition of the term 'competence' has brought forth

a great deal of dissatisfaction from other scholars, one of whom was Hymes (1972) who used the term ‘communicative competence’ to include sociolinguistic contexts within competence (See 2.3.4).

Bachman & Savignon (1986) pointed out prevalent misinterpretations of the term ‘communicative competence’. They pointed out that communicative competence meant to some language teachers and learners and curriculum designers ‘let students communicate, forget grammar’(381) without any attention to Hymes’s original meaning (see 2.3.4). Paulston (1992) also indicates confusion in the use of the term ‘communicative competence’. He claims that by communicative competence people in language teaching and learning usually mean two different things. Some tend to use the term in Hymes’s sense whereas others such as Rivers (1973) tend to ‘define communicative competence as simply linguistic interaction in the target language’(Paulston 1992: 98). Rivers (1973) saw communicative competence ‘as a synonym for spontaneous expression rather typical of language teachers and psycholinguists: they [tended] to equate communicative competence with the ability to carry out linguistic interaction in the target language’ (26).

‘With impressive perception’(Widdowson 1989: 128) Taylor (1988) indicates that associating competence with communication in second language learning ‘inevitably seems to bring in some aspects of performance’(164). Hence, when communicative competence is mentioned in the context of language teaching or learning, what it really means is communicative performance (Taylor 1988).

The term ‘proficiency’ has also been actively used alongside competence. Canale (1984) was involved in a language proficiency assessment project, where he based his ‘communication-oriented language proficiency’(107) on both the nature of communication (consisting of 7 features) and communicative competence (consisting of the same 4 traits as in his model in 1983)(See 2.3.5.2). Bachman & Palmer (1982; 1984) used the term ‘communicative proficiency’ to refer to language ability. For them, this ‘communicative proficiency’ involved language competencies (grammatical, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic competence) and skill modalities (receptive/productive, oral/visual) (see 2.3.6.1). Bachman & Savignon (1986) employed the term ‘communicative language proficiency’, by which they meant the combination of both communicative competence and communicative proficiency (competencies and skill modalities as in Bachman & Palmer (1982; 1984)).

Taylor (1988) draws a line between competence (meaning knowledge or state of knowledge) and proficiency. According to him, proficiency means something like the ability to make use of

competence whereas performance is ‘what is done when proficiency is put to use’(166). Hence, if competence is ‘a static concept, having to do with structure, state, or form’ and ‘absolute in character’, proficiency is ‘essentially a dynamic concept, having to do with process and function’ and so ‘a relative notion’(Taylor 1988: 166). Consequently, Taylor (1988) recommends that the term ‘communicative proficiency’ should be utilised instead of overused and confusing ‘communicative competence’. He observes that a lot of people include the idea of ‘ability’ within competence, thus equating it with ‘proficiency’ which clearly admits of degrees (Taylor 1988: 148).

Bachman (1988, 1990a) introduces a new term ‘communicative language ability’ which is ‘consistent with earlier work in communicative competence, in that it recognises that the ability to use language communicatively involves both knowledge of or competence in the language, and the capacity for implementing, or using this competence’ (1990a: 81)(See 2.3.6).

As seen above, there are several different terms used to define the knowledge of a language and the ability to use the knowledge. However, in the current study, linguistic (language) proficiency would be used as a neutral term to cover both the knowledge of a language and the capacity for using the knowledge.

2.3.3 Chomsky's Competence

Chomsky introduced the term ‘competence’ in his *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965) and elaborated it in his later writings. As a linguist Chomsky was interested in knowledge, specifically knowledge of language, which was equated, as far as he was concerned, with knowledge of grammar. And this knowledge was defined as ‘competence’ by Chomsky (1965). It seems that Chomsky (1965) was concerned with idealisation presumably for the purpose of defining what is fundamental about language:

Linguistic theory is primarily concerned with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance (Chomsky 1965: 3).

Nonetheless, Chomsky (1965) did not include ability to use language in his concept of competence, leaving ‘competence’ only as the concept of knowledge, and distinguishing competence from ability for use, or performance. As Spolsky (1989) indicates, Chomsky was using ‘competence’ quite differently from its normal use, which has the notion of ability (Collins College Dictionary 1995).

Chomsky (1965) maintained that there was a 'fundamental distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of the language) and performance, the actual use of language in concrete situations' (Chomsky 1965: 4). He indicated that the knowledge provided 'the basis for actual use of language by a speaker-hearer' (1965: 9). According to Taylor (1988), here Chomsky simply explained the way the knowledge was characterised (in the form of rules) and that was not related to the way the knowledge was used. Chomsky (1980) himself seemed to become conscious of the confusion involved in his own definition of competence and so mentioned the problem in his later writing:

The term 'competence' entered the technical literature in an effort to avoid entanglement with the slew of problems relating to 'knowledge', but it is misleading in that it suggests 'ability'-an association I would like to sever. (59)

Furthermore, Chomsky distinguished competence as a state, from ability as a process. In his later writing, he explained as follows:

To know a language, I am assuming, is to be in a certain mental state to be in such a mental state is to have a certain mental structure consisting of a system of rules and principles that generate and relate mental representations of various types. Alternatively, one might attempt to characterise knowledge of language as a capacity or ability to do something, as a system of dispositions of some kind, in which case one might be led (misled, I think) to conclude that behaviour provides a criterion for the possession of knowledge. In contrast, if such knowledge is characterised in terms of mental state and structure, behaviour simply provides evidence for possession of knowledge...(Chomsky 1980: 48)

As Taylor (1988) asserts, Chomsky (1980) did not explicate how the state was attained, that is, Chomsky seemed to show his interest in 'the product rather than the process' (Taylor 1988: 153).

As a result, Chomsky's competence had nothing to do with language use or ability to use the knowledge of the language, or with 'how the language user makes use of his knowledge, or even [how] competence is acquired'(Taylor 1988: 153). Chomsky's concern with 'biologically based' competence (Ibid.) exclusively given to the ideal native speak-listener practically excluded the place for language learners. Hence, later attempts to apply his concept of competence to non-native speakers or second language learners usually ended up being futile.

As mentioned above, for his own purpose Chomsky (1965) confined competence to a very limited area for the ideal native speaker-listener, practically leaving no room for non-native speaker learners. In addition, native speaker performance was only of interest in terms of what it revealed about competence. Given the fact that, in reality, native speakers show varying linguistic competencies and that 'a completely homogeneous speech community who knows its language perfectly' is almost non-existent, as a lot of theoreticians such as Davies (1989) point

out, Chomsky's concepts seem to be very abstract. It seems that Chomsky himself felt the need to specify the seemingly varying degrees of competence among native speakers. He explained as follows:

Once the steady state is attained, knowledge of language and skill in language may still be refined, as in the case of learning to see. ...the resources of a language can be enriched by a greater thinker or writer, without any change in the grammar. An individual can expand his facility or the subtlety of his comprehension of the devices of language through his own creative activities or immersion in the cultural wealth of his society. (Chomsky 1980: 234)

Davies (1989) claims that the native speaker as a theoretical concept can be abandoned, because what distinguished the native speaker from the non-native speaker is habit and use, and that the difference between the two was the matter of 'acculturation rather than innateness' of 'a set of scripts of schemata, or ritual interchanges' (168). Davies (1989) furthers his argument, maintaining that if the native speaker is no longer at the centre of competence, 'that liberates language teaching because it means that worthwhile goals are suddenly accessible'(169).

In sum, Chomsky's competence is a state, or a product rather than a process, concerns knowledge of the language and excludes the ability to use language, which is distinguished by the term 'performance'. Chomsky's concept of 'competence' can be said to influence many later 'competence' models by means of presenting an ideal, abstract standard, distinguished from imperfect performance affected by various restrictions.

2.3.4 Hymes's (1972) Communicative Competence

Dissatisfied with Chomsky's narrow definition of competence, in his article 'On communicative competence'(1972) Hymes developed his idea of communicative competence, which was highly regarded by theorists such as Canale & Swain (1980), Davies (1989), Paulston (1992), Savignon (1983), Schachter (1990), Spolsky (1989). Most of these theoreticians, who regarded Chomsky's notion of competence as 'limiting'(Spolsky 1989: 138), and of 'chilly inadequacy'(Davies 1989: 157), generally accepted Hymes's (1972) concept of communicative competence as an improvement on the narrowly grammatical aspect of language which is Chomsky's 'competence'.

As a sociolinguist, Hymes (1972) was concerned with sociocultural aspects of language as well as grammar. Starting with the argument that there was 'differential competence within a heterogeneous speech community', he claimed that 'social life has affected not merely outward performance, but inner competence itself'(274), showing his doubt about Chomsky's

competence (1965) of a ‘biologically based, purely individual, static, and form concerned concept’ (Taylor 1988: 156).

Hymes (1972) saw that competence defined in view of transformational generative grammar was essentially independent of sociocultural features. The one sector that might be related to a sociocultural content should be performance, but ‘while equated with a theory of language use, it [was] essentially concerned with psychological by-products of the analysis of grammar, not, say, with social interaction’ (Hymes 1972: 271). Performance as ‘the actual use of language in concrete situations’ did not, however, seem to directly reflect competence. It appeared, at most, to be ‘adulteration of ideal competence’ (Katz 1967: 144) or ‘imperfect manifestation of underlying system’ (Hymes 1972: 272). Hymes (1972) maintained that by ‘linking ... performance to imperfection’, and by disclosing an ideological aspect (a homogeneous community, perfect knowledge, and independence of sociocultural factors) to the theoretical standpoint, linguists such as Chomsky might have earned transformational generative grammar ‘the prestige of an advanced science’, but with the absence of a place for sociocultural factors (Ibid.).

Hence, even if Hymes (1972) acknowledged that Chomsky’s theoretical standpoint dealt profoundly with both ‘what is internal to language’ and ‘the intrinsic human significance’ (273), Chomsky’s concept of competence as knowledge of language, or grammar was not enough for Hymes. He needed to extend the concept to cover other significant aspects in a social context other than what is grammatically correct. Thereby, Hymes (1972) indicated several sectors of ‘communicative competence’, giving an emphasis on linguistic theory integrated with theory of communication and culture:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails. (281)

Widdowson (1989) maintains that Hymes (1972) moved from Chomsky’s concept of competence in two ways: he integrated knowledge of grammar (what is possible) with knowledge of what is feasible, appropriate, and actually performed, as indicated above. Also, Hymes included the notion of ability for use in his competence, mentioning that he took competence as the ‘most general term for the capabilities of a person’ (1972: 282). Hymes (1972) mentioned that ability for use as well as knowledge might relate to the above four parameters. In addition, the ‘specification of ability for use as part of competence [allowed] for

the role of noncognitive factors, such as motivation, as partly determining competence'(Ibid.: 283). In addition, for Hymes, performance took on a different concept from Chomsky (1965). Hymes (1972) saw performance as follows:

the performance of a person is not identical with a behavioural record, or with the imperfect or partial realisation of individual competence. It takes into account the interaction between competence (knowledge, ability for use), the competence of others, and the cybernetic and emergent properties of events themselves. A performance, as an event, may have properties (patterns and dynamics) not reducible to terms of individual or standardised competence. (283)

Hymes's inclusion of ability for use in competence was mostly acknowledged and adopted in other subsequent research. Davies (1989) commented that Hymes's communicative competence had profound influences on 'recent development in language teaching, in second language acquisition research, in syllabus and materials planning, and in applied discourse analysis'(157). Spolsky (1989) argued that Hymes's communicative competence seemed 'a particularly relevant idea to those interested in second language learning ... for it offered a theoretical foundation for growing interest in the teaching of language for communication'(139). The so-called communicative approach to language teaching required language teachers and learners to consider 'all the communicative skills' other than grammar, and these skills seemed to be called 'communicative competence' (Spolsky 1989).

Hymes's communicative competence can be said to provide the possibility of research into varying language competencies among individuals through moving away from Chomsky's ideal native speaker-hearer's perfect grammatical knowledge. Therefore, it appears that Hymes's communicative competence paved the way for the research into the language learner's competence.

2.3.5 Early Theoretical Frameworks of Communicative Competence

2.3.5.1 Canale & Swain (1980)

Canale & Swain explored the then widely accepted concept of communicative competence in terms of its theoretical background, and applicability to second language teaching and testing. They were in line with Hymes in that the sociolinguistic component was integrated into their communicative competence. They maintained that there were rules of grammar that would be useless without rules of language use.

Canale & Swain (1980) asserted that 'the study of sociolinguistic competence [was] as essential to the study of communicative competence as [was] the study of grammatical competence' (1980: 6). In other words, they believed that communicative competence could be interpreted as

the relationship and interaction between grammatical competence (or knowledge of the rules of grammar), and sociolinguistic competence (or knowledge of the rules of language use). According to them, communicative competence was differentiated from communicative performance, which was 'the realisation of these competencies and their interaction in the actual production and comprehension of utterances under general psychological constraints that are unique to performance'(Ibid.). Therefore, a communicative approach to the second language teaching syllabus should integrate aspects of both grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence, and teaching methodology and assessment should consider both communicative competence and communicative performance, which was 'the actual demonstration of knowledge in real second language situations and for authentic communication purposes'(Ibid.). One of the main reasons for this seemed to be that it was not possible to measure competence directly, as opposed to observable performance.

As shown above, Canale & Swain (1980) echoed Hymes (1972) in that sociolinguistic competence was considered to be as crucial an element as grammatical competence. Nonetheless, unlike Hymes (1972) Canale & Swain (1980) did not incorporate the notion of ability for use into their definition of 'communicative competence', which appeared to be one of the most distinguishing features in their communicative competence model. Instead, they included ability for use in communicative performance. Taylor (1988) assessed this difference as an important contribution to clarifying the debate on competence.

Canale & Swain (1980), in the later part of their article, proposed their communicative competence framework, which was composed of three components: grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence. Their grammatical competence included knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics and phonology, and sociolinguistic competence had two sets of rules: sociocultural rules of use (the extent to which appropriate attitude and register or style were conveyed by a particular grammatical form within a given sociocultural context) and rules of discourse, which were concerned with the cohesion (grammatical links) and coherence (appropriate combination of communicative functions) of groups of utterance. Strategic competence was made up of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that might be called into action 'to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence' (30).

Canale & Swain (1980) emphasised that second language learners should have the opportunity to participate in 'meaningful communicative interaction with highly competent speakers of the language to respond to genuine communicative needs in realistic second language situations'(27). They also suggested applying communicative competence to language teaching

in terms of syllabus design, teaching methodology, teacher training, and materials development. Canale & Swain (1980) claimed that ‘a more natural integration of knowledge of the second language culture, knowledge of the second language, and knowledge of language in general [were] perhaps accomplished through a communicative approach’(Ibid.: 33). As far as teaching methodology was concerned, meaningful and genuine communication was emphasised as one of the crucial classroom activities. In terms of teacher training, the teacher’s changing roles were mentioned: in particular, an activating role as the instigator of situations where learners could develop communication skills in the target language. The need for teacher training was stressed as important in the success of a communicative approach along with the teacher’s need for ‘a fairly high level of communicative competence’(Ibid.).

Communicative testing was also explored by Canale & Swain (1980). Integrative type tests involving all components of competence (about what the learner knows about the language and about how to use it) and performance (to what extent the learner is able to actually demonstrate this knowledge in a meaningful communicative situation) were proposed (Ibid.:34). All those suggestions appear to be one of the first significant attempts at applying communicative competence to language teaching and testing.

In addition, Canale & Swain’s framework is seen as the first theoretical model to address a broader concept of the components of language. A lot of language tests have adopted Canale & Swain’s model (1980) as their basic frameworks, as acknowledged in Bachman and Palmer (1982; 1989; 1990b). It is considered to broaden ‘the scope of language testing theory by introducing new subcomponents within communicative competence’ after a long period of linguistic-type tests and a short era of general proficiency, unitary tests so that it gave ‘legitimacy to the preference for communicative competence as against linguistic competence in language testing’(Shohamy 1996: 144).

Nonetheless, Canale & Swain’s framework (1980) was not free from criticism. Spolsky (1989) evaluates their model as ‘oversimplified’ without the richness of the original proposal by Hymes (1972). Besides, a number of studies such as Harley, Cummins, Allen and Swain (1990) have examined the validity of their framework, and failed to confirm the hypothesised three-component structure. Some of the studies ‘found support for the separate existence of grammatical and discourse components, while evidence for the separate existence of a sociolinguistic competence [was] not as strong’(Shohamy 1996; 144).

In sum, Canale & Swain’s model (1980) can be said to be the first significant attempt to explicitly reveal what was involved in communicative competence through presenting subtraits

of it, thereby making it easier for communicative competence to be applied to and employed in language learning, teaching and testing.

2.3.5.2 Canale (1983)

In his later discussion of communicative competence, Canale (1983) made some changes to his former framework with Swain (1980). He started with the theory of communication as the theoretical background of his framework. He saw communication as follows:

communication is understood...as the exchange and negotiation of information between at least two individuals through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbol, oral and written/visual modes, and production and comprehension processes.communication involves the continuous evaluation and negotiation of meaning on the part of the participants. (4)

Furthermore, Canale (1983) labelled 'performance' 'actual communication', asserting that the term 'performance' had been a source of much confusion in applied linguistics.

One of the most dramatic changes in Canale (1983) from Canale & Swain (1980) can be found in his claim that communicative competence referred to 'both knowledge and skill in using this knowledge when interacting in actual communication'(5). Canale maintained that 'both knowledge and skill [underlay] actual communication in a systematic and necessary way, and [were] thus included in communicative competence' (1983: 6). For Canale (1983), the notion of skill (how well one can perform knowledge in actual situations) seemed to 'require a distinction between underlying capacities (competence) and their manifestation in concrete situations (actual communication)'(6). In sum, Canale (1983) added the 'skill' aspect to his competence framework, which was later criticised by Taylor (1988) as a 'backslide' from the view he formerly shared with Swain (1980).

Another change in Canale's later framework (1983) is that he divided sociolinguistic competence into two separate components in his communicative competence framework: sociolinguistic competence meaning sociocultural rules, and discourse competence involving 'mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a united spoken or written text in different genres' (9). Therefore, his discourse competence referred to cohesion in form and coherence in meaning, through which unity of a text was achieved. However, he himself had some doubts about its clear distinction from other components: 'it is not clear that all discourse rules must be distinguished from grammatical rules and sociolinguistic rules'(1983:10).

Other than above two components of communicative competence, Canale's two other components (1983) are predictable. Grammatical competence was concerned with 'mastery of

language code...features and rules of the language such as vocabulary, word formation, sentence formation, pronunciation, spelling and linguistic semantics'(7). Strategic competence referred to the 'mastery of verbal, non-verbal communication strategies...for two main reasons: to compensate for breakdowns in communication and to enhance the effectiveness of communication' (10-11).

Canale (1983) once again showed his interest in applications of his framework for language teaching and testing of the communicative approach. He stressed the importance of both knowledge-oriented and skill-oriented activities for learners because both of them could have their drawbacks. Knowledge-oriented approaches 'with their emphasis on controlled drills and explanation of rules [were] practical for dealing with problems such as large groups of learners, short class periods, lack of teachers who [were] communicatively competent in the second language and classroom discipline'(Canale 1983: 15). However, those approaches did not appear 'sufficient for preparing learners to use the second language well in authentic situations'(Ibid.). For skill-oriented approaches he pointed out support by a growing body of empirical data and theoretical studies.

Canale (1983) saw that the main goal of the communicative approach was to 'prepare and encourage learners to exploit in an optimal way their limited communicative competence in the second language in order to participate in actual communication situations'(17). Accordingly, coverage of all competence areas was emphasised as well as the learner's communication needs through meaningful and realistic interaction.

Canale (1983) acknowledged that although the above four distinct components were included in communicative competence, the question of how these components interacted with one another was largely ignored. Canale applied his framework of communicative competence to one of his research projects dealing with language proficiency assessment in a minority setting (1984). He admitted that there was 'little evidence for its [his model's] correctness' and that 'it is not known whether certain of its components are more or less crucial than others at various stages of first and second language acquisition; and little can be said of the manner in which these components interact at different stages of language acquisition'(Canale 1984: 112).

Nonetheless, he went on, the notion of communicative competence and communication turned out to be 'useful in suggesting specifications for content, formats and scoring criteria in communication-oriented language proficiency assessment'(Ibid.: 113).

Also he mentioned that his compartmentalised framework was against a single and global view of communicative competence such as Oller (1979), which was supported by little empirical

evidence, even if the framework itself was still a working hypothesis. It seems that Canale (1983) tried to develop and refine his former communicative competence model with Swain(1980), which also affected later models.

2.3.5.3 Savignon (1983)

Savignon (1983) was also interested in extracting a theoretical framework for communicative competence from communication theory to apply to classroom practice. She characterised the features of competence in communication, and in the process interpreted communicative competence as a ‘dynamic rather than a static concept’ (8). According to Savignon, communicative competence could be said to be an interpersonal rather than an intrapersonal trait, because it depended on the negotiation of meaning between two or more persons. Communicative competence ‘applied to both written and spoken language as well as to many other symbolic systems’(Ibid.). Besides, it was context specific, requiring to make ‘appropriate choices of register and style in terms of the situation and the other participants’(Ibid.). There was difference between competence (what one knows) and performance (what one does). Hence, she referred to communicative competence as ‘a relative rather than an absolute concept, depending on the cooperation of all the participants involved, and so degrees of communicative competence could be safely spoken of’(9). Her characterisation of communicative competence is also criticised by Taylor (1988) in that it moved away from Chomsky’s original concept of competence.

Savignon (1983) claimed that there were two aspects where communicative competence was related to language teaching and learning: one theoretical and the other practical. The theoretical aspect came from ‘discussions in psychology, linguistics, and communication theory’ and the practical came from ‘pedagogical needs and concerns’(10). She observed the concept of communicative competence as follows:

the notion of communicative competence goes beyond narrowly defined linguistics and learning psychology to the fields of anthropology and sociology. It looks at language not as individual behaviour but as one of many symbolic systems that members of a society use for communication among themselves. People and the languages they use are viewed not in isolation but in their social contexts or settings.(Ibid.)

Savignon (1983) observed that until then most discussions of communicative competence in language programmes tended to be reduced to three views. The first was that language learning should move from surface grammatical structures to meaning through adding communicative activities to existing programmes. Savignon (1983) claimed that this sequential view of language learning ‘proceeding from habit-formation structure drilling to the communicative use of language or ... the separation of language learning into activities of skill-getting and skill-

using is...at odds with an understanding of language skills such as ...the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning'(29-30). The second interpretation appeared to be the opposite to the first one, focusing on the progress from meaning to surface structure. This view showed that linguistic or formal exercises should 'accompany or follow rather than precede communicative experiences, and that they should be based on the needs generated by those experiences. These exercises [would] serve, in turn, to increase communicative competence so that it and linguistic competence [became] mutually reinforcing'(Savignon 1983: 31).

The third view of communicative competence in language programmes was related to the specification of context within which the learner would use the target language. Until then, most of the books on the market were grammar-based books, as Savignon (1983) pointed out. In response to the restricted grammar-based books, people's interest was moving to the notional syllabus with an emphasis on communicative function, or social purpose. These three views of communicative competence in language programmes seem valuable in that they summarised and represented the main issues related to communicative competence and its application for language teaching in those early days of communicative competence.

Savignon (1983) maintained that Canale & Swain (1980) conducted an extensive survey of communicative approaches to language teaching, and that the framework they proposed and which was subsequently refined by Canale (1983) 'merits attention because it brings together the various views of communicative competence...and places linguistic competence...into a proper perspective within the larger construct of communicative competence' (35). Therefore, it seems natural that she followed Canale's (1983) framework of communicative competence composed of four components: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Grammatical competence was 'mastery of the linguistic code, the ability to recognise the lexical, morphological, syntactic, and phonological features of a language and to manipulate these features to form words and sentences'. Sociolinguistic competence required 'an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of the participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction. Only in a full context of this kind can judgements be made on the appropriateness of a particular utterance in the terms elaborated by Hymes'. Discourse competence addressed 'the connection of a series of sentences or utterances to form a meaningful whole'. Finally, strategic competence was used to 'compensate for imperfect knowledge of rules or limiting factors in their application such as fatigue, distraction, and inattention' (Savignon 1983: 37-40). Savignon (1983) claimed that strategic competence was an essential component in a descriptive framework for communicative competence.

Savignon (1983) claimed that language learners did not go from one component to the other. Rather, 'an increase in one component interacts with the other components to produce a corresponding increase in overall communicative competence'(1983: 45). In addition, notably, as opposed to Canale & Swain's claim (1980) that exposure to realistic situations was significant for communicative competence to lead to communicative confidence (self-assuredness), Savignon (1983) saw the relationship between the two as the reverse. That is to say, she commented that 'it may be that communicative confidence leads to communicative competence'(45).

Savignon's interest was not in an ideal native speaker/listener's static absolute knowledge as competence embodied in Chomsky (1965), but in communicative competence as a dynamic process which language learners have to go through to achieve an improved level of competence in communication. Her concern seems to have been more with practical perspectives of communicative competence.

2.3.5.4 Schachter (1990)

Schachter (1990) claims that communicative competence as proposed by Hymes gave great impetus to the linguists who had felt the limitation of Chomsky's definition of competence and performance. She claims that the confusion arises from the disagreement about what constitutes competence other than the grammar. Her notion of communicative competence is that it is composed of two components; grammatical and pragmatic (or discoursal) competence, and that 'sociological phenomena interact with these two components at all levels'(1990: 44). She questions the validity of the three component model of communicative competence consisting of grammatical, discoursal, and sociolinguistic traits. She reports on the attempt to validate three components of communicative competence in the particular study about which her article is written, and concludes that the primary goal of the study is not achieved, failing to 'find empirical support for the hypothesised three traits composing communicative competence'(46).

2.3.6 Communicative Language Ability (CLA)

It seems that no significantly different new theoretical model of communicative competence had made its appearance in the field of language testing since Canale & Swain's influential framework of communicative competence (1980), even though there had been numerous similar models based on Canale & Swain's (1980). Shohamy (1996) asserts that 'it was not until 1990, with the appearance of the Bachman model, the next theoretical model of language ability emerged'(144) after Canale & Swain (1980). In addition, Shohamy (1996) calls Bachman's CLA model in 1990 'the most important development' 'consistent with earlier work in

communicative competence'(148), commenting on Bachman's clear approach towards the issues related to 'knowledge' and 'ability' elements in competence and to a difference between competence and performance.

Nonetheless, Bachman's model did not come into being all of a sudden. All through the 1980s, he and Palmer together conducted a lot of investigations, presenting some models of communicative competence, and it goes without saying that these previous models had a significant influence on his later model (1990a). Hence, before addressing Bachman's model (1990a), it will be useful to take a look at his former models with Palmer (1982; 1989; 1988)

2.3.6.1 Bachman & Palmer (1982; 1988)

Bachman & Palmer (1982) admitted that the idea of language proficiency was broadened by the concept 'communicative competence'. As language testing researchers, they conducted an empirical investigation of communicative proficiency with their framework composed of three traits: grammatical (including morphology, syntax..., but phonology and graphology are not included), pragmatic (the ability to express and comprehend messages including vocabulary, cohesion, organisation or coherence...), and sociolinguistic competence (the ability to distinguish registers, nativeness, and control of non-literal, figurative language and relevant cultural allusions) (450). This framework was slightly different from Bachman's (1990a) later broadened 'communicative language ability' model.

As a result of the investigation employing four different methods: an interview, a writing sample, a multiple-choice test and a self-rating, Bachman & Palmer (1982) concluded that grammatical and pragmatic competence seemed to cluster together, clearly distinguishing sociolinguistic competence from them. Subsequently, Bachman (1990a) maintained that this investigation found some support for the distinctness of components of what they called 'communicative proficiency'.

Another model of communicative language ability (Bachman 1988) looked more like Bachman's later model (1990a) than his former model (1982), which had two components of language competence, strategic competence, and psychophysiological mechanisms. Again, two components of language competence were organisational and pragmatic competence, and these two components were broken down into four sub-components: grammatical, textual (from organisational), illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence (from pragmatic competence). Organisational competence consisted of those abilities 'involved in controlling the formal organisation of language for producing or recognising correct sentences, and organising them to form texts'(Bachman 1988: 155). Thus, grammatical competence includes 'rules of lexis,

morphology, and syntax that govern the choice of words to express specific significations, their forms, and their arrangement in sentences to express propositions' (Ibid.: 155-6), and textual competence includes 'the knowledge of the conventions for joining utterances to form texts—both written and spoken'(Ibid.: 156). Pragmatic competence comprised illocutionary competence (or knowledge of how to perform illocutionary acts) and sociolinguistic competence (or knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions governing appropriate language use in a particular culture and in varying situations). Strategic competence included assessment, planning and execution functions to implement the communicative goal of the language user that is appropriate to features of the context. Finally, psychophysiological mechanisms covered issues of accent and decoding speed (Bachman 1988).

2.3.6.2 Bachman (1990a)

Presumably to avoid the confusion of the term 'communicative competence', Bachman (1990a) adopts the term 'communicative language ability' (CLA), in which 'the ability to use language communicatively involves both knowledge of or competence in the language, and the capacity for implementing, or using this competence'(81) in appropriate contextualised communicative language use. As Bachman (1990a) himself acknowledges, his framework seems to be consistent with earlier work in communicative competence(Canale 1983; Canale & Swain 1980; Hymes 1972; Munby 1978; Savignon 1983) and extend earlier models.

Bachman's concern goes toward a very practical aspect for language testing. As an attempt to reevaluate earlier test measurements, he draws out earlier frameworks for measurement of language proficiency such as Carroll (1968) and Lado (1961). He claims that these models, which differentiated skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) from components of knowledge (grammar, vocabulary, phonology/graphology), did not look appropriate. He points out that the models did not indicate how skills and knowledge were related, thereby it was not clear whether the skills were simply manifestations of the knowledge components in different channels, or whether they were qualitatively different in other ways. He claims that a more serious limitation of the skills/components model was its failure to recognise the full context of language use (1990a: 82).

Bachman (1990a) sees that the recent formulations of communicative competence provide 'a much more inclusive description of the knowledge required to use language than did the earlier skills and components models, in that they include in addition to the knowledge of grammatical rules, the knowledge of how language is used to achieve particular communicative goals, and the recognition of language use as a dynamic process'(83).

Bachman's (1990a) framework of communicative language ability (CLA) consists of three components: language competence, strategic competence, and psychophysiological mechanisms, which looks the same as his former model (1988) in structure. However, unlike his earlier model (1988), which was briefly explained, his CLA (1990a) is well explained and defined at this stage.

Like his earlier framework (1988), language competence comprises organisational competence and pragmatic competence. Again, organisational competence is composed of grammatical competence and textual competence. Grammatical competence involves 'a number of relatively independent competencies such as the knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, and phonology/graphology', and textual competence includes 'the knowledge of the conventions for joining utterances together to form a text ...structured according to rules of cohesion and rhetorical organisation'(Bachman 1990a: 88). To be more specific, cohesion includes those 'marking semantic relationships such as reference, sub-situation, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion as well as conventions such as those governing the ordering of old and new information in discourse'. Rhetorical organisation incorporates 'narration, description, comparison, classification, and process analysis'(Ibid.). Bachman indicates that textual competence also integrates conversational language use. He sees that those conventions such as 'attention getting, topic nomination, topic development and conversation maintenance appear to be ways in which interlocutors organise and perform the turns in conventional discourse'(Ibid.), and may be similar to the rhetorical patterns found in written discourse.

If organisational competence is concerned with the relationships between the signs and their referents, pragmatics is about 'the relationships between utterances and the acts or functions that speakers (or writers) intend to perform through these utterances, which can be called the illocutionary force of utterances, and the characteristics of the context of language use that determine the appropriateness of utterances'(Bachman 1990a: 89-90). Pragmatic competence consists of illocutionary competence (introduced by reference to the theory of speech acts, and expressing a wide range of functions such as ideational, manipulative, heuristic, and imaginative functions), and sociolinguistic competence (the appropriateness of the above functions and how they are performed varies from one language context to the next, according to a myriad of sociocultural and discursal features. It consists of sensitivity to difference in dialect or variety, sensitivity to ability to interpret cultural references and figures of speech).

Another component of communicative language ability is strategic competence. Along with the recognition of language use as a dynamic process, communication strategies come into focus. Strategic competence is defined as the capacity that relates language competence (or knowledge

of language), to the language user's knowledge structures and the features of the context in which communication takes place. It performs assessment, planning, and execution functions in determining the most effective means of achieving a communicative goal.

Finally, psychophysiological mechanisms involved in language use are the last elements of Bachman's framework. These are essentially 'the neurological and physiological processes that Faerch and Kasper (1983) included in their discussion of the execution phase of language use' (Bachman 1990a: 107). Through these processes, language users can differentiate the visual from the auditory channel and the productive (the neuromuscular skills) from the receptive mode (auditory and visual skills employed). The distinct elements in the psychophysiological mechanisms were greatly emphasised and very influential in language testing during the second half of this century (Bachman & Palmer 1996). These mechanisms are seen as essential along with language and strategic competence for language users to perform appropriately in Bachman's model (1990a).

Bachman (1990a) integrates both knowledge(competence) and capacity for using the knowledge in his 'communicative language ability' model, differentiating competence from performance, 'where competence equals ability equals trait, while performance refers to the actual execution of tasks' (Shohamy 1996; 148). As mentioned above, it seems that he involves the 'proficiency' aspect in his model because his interest is more in the practical application to language testing. As mentioned above, Bachman's model (1990a) is evaluated as the most important development to construct a theory of communicative competence after Canale & Swain (1980). Some critics such as Spolsky (1989), however, maintain that the model is too complex and difficult to apply. Although Shohamy claims that 'no tests have been developed based on this model and the model itself has not yet been validated' (Shohamy 1996: 149), Bachman & Palmer (1996) show examples of how the model can be applied to language testing through 10 language testing projects based on the model.

2.3.7 Theories and Language Testing

2.3.7.1 Shohamy (1996)

Shohamy (1996) investigates the distinction between competence and performance and its role in the various theoretical models of language testing. She agrees with Taylor (1988) in saying that competence should be differentiated from performance. It seems that she did not agree with Hymes's idea of integration of the concept 'ability for use' into competence. Quoting McNamara (1996), she asserts that ability for use is a difficult term to grasp.

Shohamy (1996) regards the 1980s as the era of ‘theory-free’ language tests. She claims that most tests of the era were performance-based, task driven and considered to be communicative, functional, authentic and direct, depending on the tasks and the rating scales which gave illusions that they were based on something scientific or on a theory (1996: 145-6).

Therefore, Shohamy (1996) indicates the need for ‘a sound theoretical model based on a more comprehensive understanding of the factors underlying ability for use which will guide the selection of tasks for tests’(148). Even if Shohamy (1996) thinks highly of Bachman’s CLA model (1990a) as mentioned above, she points out that we do not have established and validated theoretical models of communicative competence for language testing.

2.3.7.2 De Jong & Verhoeven (1992)

De Jong & Verhoeven (1992) summarise two major movements in the language testing field which happened during the period of 1980 to 1990. One movement originated from ‘practical assessment problems’, and resulted in ‘the definition of several scales of language proficiency’(4). These proficiency scales, however, have been criticised for a ‘semi-structuralist approach to language proficiency and the sparseness of validation studies’ (Ibid.: 5).

De Jong & Verhoeven (1992) explains the other movement as attempts to integrate Hymes’s sociolinguistic concept of communicative competence into models of language proficiency. As a result, these attempts brought in ‘much more elaborated conceptualisations in language behaviour than the Carroll and Lado models of the early sixties’(5). Nonetheless, these models of language proficiency are also criticised for a number of reasons. First of all, they are regarded as being ‘too comprehensive’. And ability to communicate is claimed to be dependent upon ‘things other than language and the ability to use it—such as personality traits and general knowledge’ (Ibid.: 5). In addition, De Jong & Verhoeven (1992) holds that attempts at ‘empirical validation of these more extensive models have been scarce and are far from convincing’ (Ibid.). Verhoeven (1992) also points out that the problem with those various models presented is that ‘only limited data have been provided to test their validity’ and that ‘quantitative approaches have proven to be very scarce’ (125).

2.3.8 Section Summary

As seen above, many researchers have attempted to establish a sound model of language proficiency, including Chomsky’s competence (1965), Hymes’s (1972) communicative competence, Canale & Swain’s (1980) three-component model of communicative competence, Canale’s (1983) four-component model, Bachman & Palmer’s model of communicative

language proficiency, and Bachman's (1990) communicative language ability. This effort brought about the varying models of language proficiency and further considerations of applying the models to language testing. However, it seems that the models are still being validated through various empirical studies.

2.4 SELF-ASSESSMENT OF LINGUISTIC PROFICIENCY

2.4.1 Section Introduction

2.4.1.1 Introduction

In the previous sections, non-native speaker teachers' need to improve their linguistic proficiency was identified and what linguistic proficiency means was explored. In this section, self-assessment as a means to measure linguistic proficiency will be discussed.

Non-native speaker (NNS) teachers can be categorised as advanced language learners themselves in that many of them still feel the need to, and try to, improve their linguistic proficiency (see 2.2). Although they are learners of a language, adult learners 'who have reached a certain position in life', as Gorosch (1970) pointed out, 'are rather sensitive to formal evaluation in language proficiency' (19). Naturally, language teachers can be even more sensitive to evaluation in their target language proficiency because they are presumed to be good in what they are teaching. In Far East Asian cultures, teachers can even be defensive against the possibility of formal testing for fear of losing face (see 1.2.2). Despite their reluctance to submit to tests of their language proficiency, most Korean teachers aspire to improve their target language proficiency. In the researcher's experience, many teachers try various ways of improving their language proficiency. One commonly used way of doing this is self-directed language learning.

However, regardless of the learning methods they choose, the first step toward improving the teachers' language proficiency should be to diagnose their current language proficiency, which should be a starting point to plan their further learning. The best way to diagnose the teachers' language proficiency is to test them. If formal tests, however, are not possible for various reasons, self-evaluation can be a good alternative for the teachers because self-assessment is 'particularly relevant in more informal language study situations and in situations where the students have reached a certain level of maturity' (Oskarsson 1981: 228).

Self-assessment started to attract attention with people's increased interest in self-directed learning although it must have existed in every learner's learning either consciously or subconsciously. In its relatively short history, there is considerable research which has upheld the usefulness and applicability of self-assessment. First of all, in this section, a short introduction to self-directed learning and self-assessment will be presented. Research into validity and reliability of self-assessment will be presented, along with its findings. Then some issues concerning self-assessment will be noted such as cultural influence, age, and benefits

followed by problems such as over-estimation and under-estimation, factors affecting self-assessment, the need for learner and teacher training. Attempts to explain the reasons for the conflicting findings in self-assessment will be referred to. Teachers' self-assessment of their own language proficiency will then be discussed. Finally, Bachman & Palmer's (1989) self-ratings of communicative language ability and MacIntyre et al.'s (1997) 'can-do' type self-assessment will be presented as models of self-assessment.

2.4.1.2 Self-directed learning and self-assessment

In a wider sense, evaluation is regarded as one of the stages of learning (Dickinson 1987; Oskarsson 1978). Without evaluation the whole process of learning cannot be complete. Therefore, self-directed language learning should include self-evaluation conducted by the learner (Holec 1979). That is, self-directed learning should involve self-assessment as one essential element, as Holec illustrated in the example of the Bournemouth Eurocentre experiment. It is important not only for checking the learners' achievements at a particular stage of learning, but also for providing them with a sense of achievement, and heightening their awareness of the need for and their motivation for, further learning. Conventionally, evaluation or testing usually means formal tests, scoring, and reporting of the results to whoever is in authority. Therefore, conventional testing is used for summative testing purposes for marking learners' achievement, and regarded as a product rather than a process (Dickinson 1987).

With the individuals' growing sense of 'autonomy' and responsibility for their own learning, learning also begins to expand its scope to include a variety of types of learning. One of those learning types, which has been focused on comparatively recently, is so-called 'self-instructed' learning. In particular, adult learners often take to this autonomous mode of learning, i.e., taking responsibility for their own learning. Having responsibility for one's own learning means taking charge of all the decisions in all the aspects of learning, ranging from determining the objectives of the learning, defining the contents and progression, selecting methods and techniques to be used, monitoring the procedures of acquisition, to evaluating what has been acquired (Holec 1979).

With increased interest in self-instructed learning, self-evaluation or self-assessment carried out by the learner himself began to consolidate its place in the field of evaluation. In fact, self-assessment did not come into being all of a sudden. Rather, it has always existed as part of the learning process, as several researchers indicated. Dickinson (1987) observed that many learners 'regularly engage in self-assessment as part of their learning they do exercises, and check by whatever means available' (134) consciously or subconsciously. Nonetheless, it was not until relatively recently that self-assessment attracted the public's attention.

2.4.1.3 Conditions for self-assessment: The learner's and teacher's roles in self-assessment

According to Holec (1979) who was one of the early investigators into self-assessment, self-directed learning could take place only if certain conditions were met. The conditions were that the learner must have 'the ability to take charge of his learning', and that there must be 'a learning structure in which the learner has the possibility of exercising his ability to take charge'(7). In addition, he emphasised the learner's and teacher's new roles in self-directed learning, which would be explicitly shown in the process of the transfer of the responsibilities for all aspects of learning from the teacher to the learner. Holec mentioned the change of the learner/knowledge relationship in autonomous learning: the learner's own choice of the knowledge he wished to acquire, free from the need for mediation by the teacher, focusing on 'subjective, individual knowledge' instead of 'objective, universal knowledge'(21). He also defined the teacher's new role as facilitating learning not producing it, adding that the teacher's role became 'varied rather than curtailed' 'not in terms of authority but in terms of competence'(25).

2.4.1.4 The role of self-assessment and of conventional tests

Dickinson (1987) differentiated the usefulness of self-evaluation from that of so-called conventional tests. He did not find self-assessment appropriate for summative testing purposes, that is 'collecting information or reporting to a third person as a basis for making decisions about the learner'(149). Rather, self-assessment could be found useful for formative purposes as a necessary part of self-direction (Dickinson 1987). Dickinson also asserted that evaluation was an 'important educational objective in its own right', and that 'training learners in this is beneficial to learning'(136).

Von Elek (1985) observed that, especially in the case of migrant adults learning the second language in the second language environment, conventional achievement tests and summative (or terminal) tests were of limited value, because a formal language learning course was one small part of foreign language learning (Dickinson 1987) and the learners have numerous opportunities to learn outside a formal learning environment. The more important thing therefore was to help learners acquire the ability to carry on their learning independently regardless of their attendance on a language course. Therefore, these migrant adult learners needed to have their weak areas diagnosed through self-assessment so that they could direct their attention to improve these areas. He saw that self-assessment could provide these migrant learners with what they needed and expected, through evaluation. Janssen-van Dieten (1989) also pointed out that self-assessment in adult education was believed to be a 'reflection on one's

proficiency and insight into evaluation criteria would stimulate self-management, motivation and goal orientation'(31).

Windeatt (1981) also observed that self-assessment might involve the student 'more fully in the language-learning process, with the more specific objectives of alerting him to opportunities for monitoring his own performance and of helping him come to terms with the affective demands of language-learning by allowing him to articulate his own ideas about his needs/lacks/wants'(58).

2.4.2 How Valid and Reliable is Self-assessment?

In the relatively short history of self-assessment, many studies have been conducted in order to confirm its reliability and validity. Most of the studies have found positive results with high correlations between self-assessment and other measures. Even the researchers who fail to find high correlations between the two admit that self-assessment has many advantages (e.g., De Bot 1992; Ferguson 1978; Janssen-van Dielen 1989). In this section, various investigations into self-assessment of linguistic proficiency in a second/foreign language learning situation will be presented according to the accuracy of self-assessment the investigations found.

2.4.2.1 Studies which suggest that self-assessment is accurate

Studies conducted by Bachman & Palmer (1981), Heidt (1979), Oskarsson (1978; 1981: 1984), and von Elek (1985) found that the results from self-assessment accurately reflected those gained from conventional tests.

In order to validate the FSI (Foreign Service Institute) oral interview, which was most frequently used until then, Bachman & Palmer (1981) tested the subjects' speaking and reading proficiency in English using three methods of interview, translation, and self-rating. The self-rating tests of speaking and reading were 'adapted from questionnaires in the FSI (Foreign Service Institute) Testing Kit and translated into Chinese'(Bachman & Palmer 1981: 71) for the Chinese test-takers. Each test contained two types of question. One type of question was about how well the students could cope in a given particular situation and the other type was about the students' general control of linguistic forms (range and accuracy). The students were required to answer with 'yes' or 'no' to each question. Bachman & Palmer (1981) discovered substantial intercorrelations between self-rating and the other two methods. Consequently, this study confirmed the feasibility of self-rating because of the 'relatively high reliabilities obtained'(84).

Oskarsson (1981) also investigated 'the degree of accuracy in adult learners' estimates of their own proficiency in a foreign language'(228). Through an experiment in which learners and four teachers were requested to rate their own ability (i.e. the teachers rated the learners' ability) in each of the four traditional language skills, Oskarsson (1981) found highly significant correlations of 0.77 between learner and teacher estimates. With his assertion of the adult learner's capability of 'forming quite accurate opinions about his foreign language performance'(234), Oskarsson suggested using the combinations of allegedly objective traditional tests and seemingly subjective self-assessment for more accurate test results.

Von Elek (1985) also reported a high correlation between self-assessment and formal tests in Swedish as a second language context. He participated in the project to design and try out a self-assessment test, which consisted of 60 sub-tests or units, each of which comprised 25 items. This test was arranged into 'content areas (or skills) on the one hand and difficulty levels on the other'(Ibid.: 49). Students were asked to give their answers to each item with one of the three alternatives: (1) yes, absolutely, (2) I think so, (3) no. The first experimental version was tried out with 300 adult migrant students during the academic year of 1981/1982. The data from the try-out run showed that 'students' self-judgement was highly reliable'(von Elek 1985: 54) with a few extreme cases of over-estimates and under-estimates. Generally high correlation coefficients were presented between self-assessment and follow-up formal test scores.

Dickinson (1987) also observed that learners could generally make an accurate self-assessment of their language proficiency, citing work by Heidt (1979) and Oskarsson (1978; 1984) in support of his observation.

2.4.2.2 Studies which suggest that self-assessment is accurate to some extent

Studies carried out by Blue (1988), LeBlanc & Painchaud (1985), and Milleret et al. (1991) report the accuracy of self-assessment to some extent.

In Blue's study (1988) where students' self-assessment scores were compared with the teacher's rating for 117 students in the Southampton pre-session course, the analysis of the data (through Goodman-Kruskal's associations of concordant and discordant pairs) showed that associations between self-assessment and the tutor's assessment were significant in all four skills, even if they were relatively low. Based on these results, Blue observed that there was a 'definite positive association between self-assessment and tutors' assessment' although it was 'far from perfect'(109).

LeBlanc & Painchaud (1985) also looked at how accurately learners could assess themselves. They randomly selected a sample of 200 students for both French and English as the second languages in the University of Ottawa and asked them to complete a self-assessment questionnaire prior to the formal test. The questionnaire covered four basic skills, and students were asked to rate themselves on a 5-point scale. LeBlanc & Painchaud found that the correlation between self-assessment and the test was 0.53, and concluded that students could to some extent assess their own proficiency.

Milleret, Stansfield & Kenyon's (1991) study based on a six-week summer course in Portuguese language and Brazilian culture during the months of June and July in Fortaleza (the capital city of Ceara in Northeastern Brazil) also reports the accuracy of self-assessment to some extent. In addition to taking the PST (Portuguese Speaking Test) as pre- and post-tests, the participants in the summer programme were also asked to do a formal self-evaluation in grammar (11 questions), communication (13 questions) and culture (6 questions) as a pre- and post-measure. Participants rated themselves on a 5-point scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high) in the grammar and communication parts, and on a 4-point scale from 0 (no knowledge) to 3 (solid knowledge) in the culture part. Self-assessment was correlated with the PST pre-test, resulting in a high correlation between the two. However, Milleret et al. (1991) point out that the PST post-test did not correlate 'significantly with either the total score or with any of the subscale scores of self-assessment as a post measure' (786). They attributed it to the ACTFL (the American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages) scale itself, which 'demands increasingly larger gains in proficiency as one moves up the scale' and 'such gains might be difficult to attain in six weeks of summer study' (Ibid.: 787).

2.4.2.3 Studies which suggest that self-assessment is inaccurate

Some studies report negative results concerning the accuracy of self-assessment. These include Davidson & Henning (1985), Ferguson (1978), and Janssen-van Dieten (1989).

Ferguson's (1978) investigation comparing and correlating three types of self-assessment and two standardised tests showed a basic approach to testing the reliability of self-assessment which much of later research has been modelled on. The investigation was administered to 89 first year students at the university of Geneva, and 90 students at the Interpreter's School. In the first type of self-assessment test of oral skills, students were required to answer with yes or no to the question such as 'can you order a simple meal?'. The second type asked students to identify their own level of speaking proficiency by referring to a tape-recording of 18 samples of students of different levels. After listening to the tape-recording, students were asked to write among the 18 samples the reference number of the first student's performance who spoke better

than themselves. The third type of self-assessment asked students to identify syntactic errors in written English.

Ferguson (1978) reported that the correlation of the first type of self-assessment with the speaking test was 'extremely low ($r = 0.39$)'(150) and that correlation with the listening test was even lower. The correlation of the second type of self-assessment with both tests was 'extremely low ($r = 0.19$)'(150). Ferguson also commented on the tendency towards underestimation among good students and towards overestimation among beginner students. The third type of self-assessment was correlated with the listening test ($r = 0.87$), but less well with the speaking test. In conclusion, Ferguson's investigation did not report good or significant correlations between self-assessment and standardised tests except for the third type of self-assessment.

Davidson & Henning (1985) also reported negative results regarding the accuracy of self-assessment. They explored the validity of the application of Rasch Model analysis to self-assessment of English difficulty in 11 skill areas: listening, speaking fluency, reading, writing, pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, knowing what to talk about, social conversation. In other words, they wanted to test the 'goodness-of-fit of a set of language proficiency self-ratings to the predictions of a probabilistic measurement model known as the Rasch Model'(165). They randomly sampled 228 students studying English as a second language at the University of California at L.A. during Fall Quarter 1983. Subjects were asked to rate their perceived difficulty in each skill area on a 7-point scale (i.e. none, very little, some, average, more than average, much, extreme).

The results showed a lack of fit between self-ratings and the predictions of a probabilistic measurement model (the Rasch Model). Using the results, Davidson & Henning (1985) claimed that self-appraisal could be viewed with little confidence as a measurement of learners' language level. In other words, they did not believe that self-assessment could show accurate estimates of the learners' language ability. On the whole, Davidson & Henning (1985) presented a negative view of self-evaluation, questioning the accuracy of self-ratings and honesty of self-reports.

Janssen-van Dieten's (1989) study additionally reported negative results from an investigation into the value of self-assessment as a means of selection in the context of Dutch as a second language. Among a total of 973 testees, 730 subjects were left after elimination of the incomplete test data. Because administration of the whole test to all testees was impossible, tests were administered to 12 samples, 3 for each skill. The results of the data showed that correlation coefficients were too low to 'call the self-assessment valid predictors of criterion scores'(Janssen-van Dieten 1989: 38). In addition, it was found that the tendency to make a

reliable assessment of one's own mastery in each skill was more or less the same in both more proficient and less proficient learners.

In conclusion, Janssen-van Dieten (1989) revealed rather 'disappointing' results because of 'the low validity indices of self-assessment in the project'(44). Janssen-van Dieten (1989) however admitted to the beneficial effects of self-appraisal in spite of the results of her study. She maintained that self-assessment should not be used as an alternative to formal tests or not for the purpose of selection, but for its positive influence on the learning process such as 'gaining a better insight into evaluation criteria'(Janssen-van Dieten 1989: 44).

2.4.2.4 Studies which suggest that self-assessment is more accurate for some skills than others

Windeatt (1981) and Wangsotorn (1981) found that self-assessment was more accurate for some skill areas than others.

Windeatt (1981) administered a questionnaire based on Oskarsson (1978) to 23 pre-sessional students in Lancaster on a course in English language and study skills in conjunction with interviews and tests at the beginning and end of the course 'as an indication of the students' perceptions, and changes in perception, of their strengths and weaknesses in English'(54). Windeatt (1981) reported that the respondents 'tended to rate themselves more highly on receptive than productive skills', and 'to give themselves lower ratings for pronunciation and subject related work'(54). Most students however showed a tendency towards overestimation by rating themselves higher than the results of tests or their teachers' subjective judgements.

Wangsotorn (1981) also found a similar pattern in Thai undergraduate and graduate students' self-evaluation of English proficiency. In the study, students' self-ratings on the 1-7 point scale in their proficiency in English were compared with the teacher's subjective evaluations of the students, and with the teacher's objective assessments by means of course grades, the cloze test, listening tests. Students' self-ratings were correlated with 'teacher subjective assessment of students' competence levels, formal tests, and course grades'(Wangsotorn 1981: 247). Based on the results, Wangsotorn (1981) concluded that both undergraduate and graduate students could accurately assess their own competence in English skills, and that the postgraduate students rated their competence in the 4 skills significantly higher than did the undergraduate students.

One of the notable findings of this study was that the Thai university students could more accurately rate their receptive skills (listening and reading) than their productive skill (writing), 'in which case the correlation was marginally negative'(248). Another interesting finding was

that students rated their speaking skills as the lowest in contrast to their writing skills as the highest, which seems to reflect the learners' perception of their language skills in East Asian countries. In particular, these Far East Asian learners seem to have more confidence in their reading/writing skills than in their listening/speaking skills for various reasons, in contrast to the Western learners in Davidson & Henning's study (1985).

2.4.2.5 Conclusions

In conclusion, some studies that reviewed research into the accuracy of self-assessment will be examined with their conclusions on the matter. Above all, Oskarsson (1984) reviewed various studies concerning self-assessment in the adult sector conducted in the 70s and the early 80s, from Heidt (1979) and Oskarsson (1978) to Von Elek (1982). He observed that many studies under his review employed correlation coefficient tests to compare between self-assessment and external criteria, and found high correlation values between the two. In conclusion, he argued that the results of the studies showed a general pattern of 'a fairly consistent overall agreement between self-estimates and external criteria'(31). Therefore, the studies under his review provided the evidence that a set of self-estimates can be as good as a sub-test in a standardised test battery.

Blanche & Merino's (1989) study was a very thorough scrutiny of many investigations into self-assessment. They took an in-depth look at sixteen studies on self-assessment, categorised and compared their characteristics among themselves. Their investigation included a few newer studies conducted in the mid-80s along with the studies reviewed by Oskarsson (1984). In their conclusion to the review, they pointed out high correlations between self-appraisals and external criteria found in several studies, and concluded that there was a 'consistent overall agreement between self-assessments and ratings based on a variety of external criteria'(315).

Ross (1998) observes that self-assessment 'typically provides robust concurrent validity with criterion variables'(16), which is consistent with Blanche & Merino (1989). Like Blanche & Merino (1989), Ross (1998) examines previous studies, summarising and evaluating them. His study carried out about 10 years after Blanche & Merino (1989) and 20 years after Oskarsson (1978) shows the consistent interest in the use of self-assessment as an alternative to 'more expensive and logistically viable approaches to proficiency and achievement assessment, particularly in the area of second and foreign language testing' (Ross 1998: 1).

2.4.3 Self-assessment and Cultural Influences

Unlike many other studies conducted with monolingual and monocultural groups of learners (particularly European and North American), Blue's (1988) interest was in multilingual, multicultural groups of learners 'studying English for the precise purpose of following postgraduate courses in very different subject areas'(101). From the results of self-assessment of the Southampton pre-session course students, Blue (1988) observed cultural influences on the results of students' self-assessment. That is, students from the Middle East overestimated (more than) twice as much as those from South East Asia or Africa and four times as much as those from Europe or Latin America. In contrast, cases of underestimate were frequently found in students from Europe whilst only a single case of underestimate was found in the student group from the Middle East.

2.4.4 Self-assessment and Age

Several studies into self-assessment involved younger language learners. De Bot (1992) and Peirce et al. (1993) report somewhat negative results of self-assessment administered to children learners whilst Shameem (1998) reports positive results about the accuracy of self-assessment administered to 15 to 21 year olds.

De Bot (1992) investigated minority language children's 2nd language proficiency in the Netherlands by self-assessment and teachers' ratings. He administered two tests to the Turkish (368), Moroccan (254), and Spanish (46) minority children: a written global proficiency test and a self-evaluation test on spoken and written language proficiency.

For a global proficiency test, items were 'constructed at different descriptive levels (spelling, syntax, vocabulary, idioms and pragmatics)'(De Bot 1992: 140), and for self-evaluation Clark's (1981) can-do scales were used. Clark's (1981) scales composed of 'a number of language use tasks, increasing in difficulty, are described for different sub-skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing), and the informant has to indicate on a five-point scale how difficult these tasks are'(Ibid.: 141). In conclusion, De Bot (1992) found not very high correlations between self-evaluation and teachers' ratings of proficiency (ranging from 0.30 to 0.50).

Peirce, Swain & Hart (1993) reported on results showing weak correlations between self-assessment of language proficiency and other measures of proficiency. They investigated the 26 grade 8 classes of the early and the middle French immersion in Toronto, Canada. The students participating in the investigation completed a self-assessment questionnaire and took tests of French reading, writing, speaking, and listening. For self-assessment, the students were given

‘two benchmarks against which to assess their own French language skills’: ‘the perceived language proficiency of francophone peers’ and ‘the difficulty represented by a set of specific everyday tasks conducted in French’(Ibid.: 28). And the tests were developed ‘with reference to the Canale & Swain framework of communicative language testing (1980)’(Ibid.).

As regards reliability of self-assessment in their study, Peirce et al. (1993) concluded that ‘self-assessment is only a weak indicator of tested proficiency’(35), showing low correlations between learners’ self-assessment and test scores. However, they pointed out that a situational benchmark in self-assessment ‘produces higher correlations with tested proficiency than a more global benchmark’(Ibid.), which is in line with the findings of LeBlanc & Painchaud (1985), who found that using a self-assessment questionnaire closely related to the students’ situations as potential second language users improved the correlation between self-assessment and proficiency test results. For the low correlations found between self-assessment and tests in the investigation, Peirce et al. (1993) claimed the reason was that they lacked an authentic francophone peer standard and ‘the self-reflection characteristic of more formal, analytical adult language [learners]’ (38).

In a fairly recent study with 35 young Indo-Fijians aged from 15 to 21 living in Wellington, New Zealand, Shameem (1998) investigated whether these young participants maintain their first language, Fiji Hindi by means of the performance test and the self-report. Shameem (1998) explained that the performance test was ‘designed primarily to validate the self-report scale and to correlate the self-report and performance data’(89). The respondents first rated their proficiency ‘on a scale which encompassed real-life tasks for which native speakers use Fiji Hindi’(Shameem 1998: 89). The aural scale ranged from 0 (no proficiency) to 5 (native social proficiency), and the oral scale from 0 to 6. The performance test consisted of three components: an interview to assess both listening and speaking, a listening comprehension task, and a vocabulary test of 10 Fiji Hindi and 10 English words. In particular, each interview was rated three times. Each interview was rated by the interviewer ‘simultaneously by the interviewer towards the end of, or immediately following, the session and then again after all the interviews had been completed by listening to the recordings’(Ibid.: 100) and an independent rater assigned each student’s level by the recording.

Shameem (1998) found that ‘the performance ratings showed a strong correlation with the self-report’, and that the correlation was slightly higher with the simultaneous rating rather than with the delayed one of interviews, providing ‘evidence for the validity of the self-report scale’(104). He points out that ‘the self-report was validated by the Matched Pairs test of statistical significance in which the two sets of data, self-report and performance were matched for each

individual and a test run to determine the statistical significance of the difference between these two results'(105).

Shameem's (1998) investigation is very significant because, as Shameem pointed out, studies of native language maintenance of immigrant communities mostly depend on self-reported data. Therefore, if self-report is reliable, those types of studies using self-report data as a measure of proficiency 'do give a fairly accurate picture of language performance'(106).

2.4.5 Benefits of Self-assessment

Although not all studies found high correlations between self-assessment and other measures, most investigators seem to agree on benefits of self-assessment in language learning contexts. The advantages they have highlighted are many and varied, but many of them put their emphasis on its importance in learner-centred language learning.

Dickinson (1987) spoke highly of self-ratings as a way of preparing learners for autonomy. According to Dickinson (1987), self-assessment was 'a necessary part of self-direction'(136) and it emphasised 'learning, the process, rather than the results, the product'(151). Windeatt (1981) also claimed that providing learners with the opportunities for self-evaluating their own proficiency could help them develop as learners. In other words, it can help raise the learners' self-awareness of their own levels, and so give them the chance to improve them.

Von Elek (1985) pinpointed benefits of self-assessment such as learners' assuming greater responsibility in the evaluation of their proficiency and progress, diagnosing their weak areas, obtaining a realistic view of their general proficiency as well as their skills profile, seeing their actual proficiency in relation to the level they wish to achieve in order to qualify for a certain job or training programme, and becoming more motivated and goal-oriented in their further studies. Blanche & Merino (1989) also found that 'self-evaluation practices appeared to have increased the learners' motivation'(324), which was supported by eight out of the studies they examined (Ferris 1982; Fok 1981; Heidt 1979; Heindler 1980; Lee 1981; Low 1981, 1982; von Elek 1981, 1982).

Heilenman (1990) indicated the usefulness of self-assessment in terms of its potential of 'putting the learner firmly in the centre of the picture as well as the possibility of adding valuable information to our total picture of how and why second languages are learned'(195). LeBlanc & Painchaud (1985) also pointed out a higher degree of learner involvement in self-assessment.

Von Elek (1985) observed that self-assessment tests were very popular with students. Students were very relaxed during the test, and seemed to be keen on finding out accurate answers to all questions. In sum, learners' curiosity and motivation seemed to be stimulated by this self-assessment procedure. Teachers' responses were also positive. They were willing to share the responsibility of evaluation with learners and appreciated the usefulness of the information about the students provided by the self-assessment test (von Elek 1985). Dickinson (1987) also saw that self-assessment could 'alleviate the teacher's burden of evaluation' (136).

Other advantages of self-assessment, according to LeBlanc & Painchaud (1985), are time effectiveness, much simpler data gathering, and elimination of the need for safeguards against cheating.

All these advantages seem to indicate that self-assessment benefits learners in whichever learning situation they are regardless of its reliability as a form of measurement.

2.4.6 Problems with Self-assessment

Among the problems frequently mentioned in regard to self-assessment are: the tendency towards over-estimation and under-estimation, influence of external factors, influence of questionnaire format, and the need for learner and teacher training.

2.4.6.1 Over-estimate and Under-estimate

Throughout the investigations of self-assessment in language learning, many investigators report cases of over-estimation or under-estimation of learners' language proficiency. The cases of learners' over- or under-estimation reported can be summarised as 4 different types.

First of all, a tendency of learners' to over-estimate their language proficiency is pointed out in some studies. Windeatt (1981) found that most students in his study showed a tendency towards overestimation by rating themselves higher than the results of tests or their teachers' subjective judgements. Davidson & Henning (1985) also reported that the misfit between self-assessment and the predictions of a probabilistic measurement model (the Rasch Model) was bigger at the lower end of the scale, which means that students tended to overrate their abilities rather than to underrate them. Blue (1988) also found that there were far more over-ratings than under-ratings in his investigation with the multilingual, multicultural students of the Southampton pre-session course. Shameem (1998) reports on the participants' tendency towards slight over-estimation of their proficiency, in particular in the oral scale rather than in the aural one.

The second type of over- or under-estimation is connected to the learners' level of language proficiency, a tendency towards under-estimation among more proficient students and over-estimation among less proficient students. Ferguson (1978) found a tendency towards under-estimation among good students and towards over-estimation among beginner students in his study. Investigators such as Evers (1981), Heindler (1980), and Wangsotorn (1980) also found that the more proficient students tended to underestimate their ability and skills. On the other hand, cases of over-estimation tended to involve more weak than strong students (Blanche 1986; Heindler 1980). As a reason for this, Lewkowicz and Moon (1985) cited 'McLeod's claim that good students tend to underestimate themselves (because they have some notion of all that remains to be learned) while students who have arrived at a plateau tend to overestimate their ability (because, having stopped learning, they cannot perceive a need for improvement)' (LeBlanc & Painchaud 1985: 675).

Another tendency of assessors' over- or under-estimation is related to the assessors' nationality. Blue (1988) reported a finding from his investigation that over-ratings came from the students from the Middle East than any other groups and that under-ratings came from the Europeans rather than students from any other nationality groups, as mentioned earlier.

The final tendency of learners' over- or under-estimation is related to certain skill areas. Wangsotorn (1981) found that the Thai university students could more accurately rate their receptive skills (listening and reading) than their productive skill (writing), 'in which case the correlation was marginally negative'(248). Rasch (1980) reported the same tendency. On the other hand, Davidson & Henning (1985) reported that there was the overestimation of aural/oral skill ability of learners. They explained this as learners' tendency to 'overrate their success in oral communication if they are not given sufficient feedback on their performance'(176). However, the tendency to make a reliable assessment of one's own mastery in each skill was more or less the same in both more proficient and less proficient learners, according to Jansen-van Dieten's (1989) study.

2.4.6.2 Influence of external factors

The influence of external factors has been of interest as a factor affecting the accuracy of self-assessment. Oskarsson (1984) claimed that self-assessment might be affected by 'errors having to do with past academic record, career aspirations, peer-group or parental expectations, lack of training in self-study and self-management etc.'(31). Heilenman (1990) investigated the factors which could affect self-assessment.

Heilenman (1990) investigated response effects in self-assessment that might reduce the usefulness and feasibility of self-appraisal. She defined response effects as ‘tendencies for certain people to respond to factors other than question content such as acquiescence, social desirability, question wording effects, and context effects’ (Heilenman 1990: 175). Among these, she investigated two response effects: acquiescence or yea-saying (a tendency to agree with items regardless of content) and concern with self-presentation (which appears when respondents seek to present themselves in a favourable light), which might appear in the form of overestimation of themselves (Heilenman 1990).

A self-assessment questionnaire of 65 items (approximately half (32) of the items were ‘can-do’ and half (33) ‘difficulty’ items) containing 4 scales of grammar, vocabulary, accuracy and fluency, and a 5-point response scale (‘all of the time’, ‘most of the time’, ‘half of the time’, ‘some of the time’, and ‘never’) was administered to 232 students of French at the university of Iowa enrolled in the first six semesters of language study. The results of this investigation, from comparing scores of between ‘can-do’ questions and ‘difficulty’ questions and using statistical analyses, supported the ‘existence of both a measure of acquiescence effects and definite overestimation effects’ (Heilenman 1990: 188) especially among less experienced learners.

However, Heilenman (1990) pointed out that response effects could be seen as natural elements, and so there was no point in rejecting self-assessment owing to its response errors. The more important issue was to minimise those effects by means of some cautious measures such as avoiding too general or vague questions, employing negatively worded question with care, using more relevant questions to the respondents’ situation, using an ordered scale of items, clarifying the purpose of the questionnaire, using various questions to measure one area, more thorough pilot testing (Heilenman 1990).

2.4.6.3 Influence of questionnaire format

LeBlanc & Painchaud (1985) investigated whether or not the type of questionnaire used influenced the results. Administering two different types of questionnaire (one is closely related to the students’ situation and the other is not) and proficiency tests, they found that the correlation of the scores between the questionnaire (closely related to the students’ situation) and proficiency test was 0.30 higher to levels of 0.80 and 0.82. In other words, they found that the content of the questionnaire could affect the result, i.e., if the questions were closely related to the students’ situation, this could improve the results of self-assessment. However, the format of the questionnaire itself did not seem to have any influence on the answers of the students (LeBlanc & Painchaud 1985).

2.4.6.4 The need for learner and teacher training

The ability to make an accurate self-assessment did not come automatically to all students (LeBlanc & Painchaud 1985). As Lewkowicz & Moon also pointed out, ‘in all probability [the student] has no reliable yardstick with which to compare himself (1985: 51) in making a self-assessment. Therefore, students need to be trained to develop their ability to rate themselves more accurately. The importance of learner training was emphasised for this reason, although relatively little was ‘known about how this might be done effectively’ (Heilenman 1990: 195). Oskarsson (1989) claimed that giving learners training in evaluation was in itself beneficial to learning because it could raise learners’ level of awareness of their learning, improving knowledge of the variability of language objectives, bringing about broadened perspectives in the assessment, leading to shared evaluation burden, creating beneficial postcourse effects.

Oskarsson (1984) pointed out that teacher training in autonomous learning and self-directed evaluation was ‘a further prerequisite for the effective development of student-centred evaluation techniques’ (31). Blanche & Merino (1989) also argued that from their experience teacher-training in these areas is ‘an important prerequisite for the effective development of student-centred control techniques’ (324).

In particular, Blue (1988) focused on multilingual, multicultural groups of learners and emphasised that the teacher still seemed to play an important role in helping the learners make a more accurate judgement of their own language proficiency, adding that self-assessment would be worthwhile only if most of the learners could develop the ability to make an accurate assessment.

2.4.7 Attempts to Explain Reasons for Conflicting Findings in the Studies of Self-assessment

Although the number of studies concerning self-assessment has been growing, it is hard to find studies which try to explain in a more systematic way the reasons why there are contradictions in research results of self-assessment. Blanche & Merino (1989), Blanche (1988), and Peirce et al. (1993) tried to explain the issue using a theory either borrowed or established by themselves. Blanche & Merino (1989), Blanche (1988) dealt with why there was a discrepancy between the results of self-assessment studies and between the performance of individuals, and Peirce et al. (1993) addressed why some areas of language skills were considered easier or harder than the others.

Blanche & Merino (1989) and Blanche (1988) tried to explain the seemingly contradictory results of the various studies in self-assessment with Krashen’s Monitor theory. Blanche &

Merino (1989) and Blanche (1988) claimed that Krashen's monitor theory was the only theory to deal with self-assessment directly, and that many of the contradictions of the results of the studies they looked at seemed to 'support Krashen's monitor model'(Blanche & Merino 1989: 326).

According to Krashen's monitor theory (1980), adult language learners develop two different systems for their language performance. One is the system acquired as children acquire their first language, and the other is the one learned in a conscious way. Therefore, the learners use the acquired knowledge when they produce the second or foreign language, and the learned system acts only as a monitor, which 'inspects and sometimes alters the output of the acquired system'(213). Some learners employ a monitor whenever possible, and others do not try to use it at all. However, most of the learners seem to be in between. As a result, the monitor theory explains variance of quality in learners' performance as the degree of monitoring. Blanche & Merino (1989) and Blanche (1988) maintained that to some degree this monitor theory explained why the accuracy of self-evaluation differs so much between different individuals or between different studies. Future studies, therefore, should first 'try to determine whether their subjects are more likely to use the Monitor or the acquired system for self-appraisal purposes'(Blanche & Merino 1989: 327). Blanche & Merino (1989) and Blanche's (1988) attempt to establish a theory to explain the contradictory results of self-assessment experiments was valuable in that it did not just report the seemingly contradictory results of self-evaluation studies but went on to explain them with a theoretically based point of view, Krashen's theory.

Unlike the often mentioned tendency of students to be more confident about their receptive skills than their productive skills found in previous studies (Windeatt 1981), Peirce et al. (1993) found a tendency among students to rate themselves as more proficient in literacy tasks (reading and writing) than oral tasks (listening and speaking) in their study. Davidson & Henning (1985) also reported some students' tendency to underestimate their aural/oral difficulty rather than that of written skills, which seems to be in line with Peirce et al. (1993) finding. Wangsotorn (1981) also reported the finding that students rated their speaking skills as the lowest in contrast to their writing skills as the highest.

Peirce et al. (1993) try to explain the tendency in relation to 'the locus of control in a communicative event'(36). According to Peirce et al., 'if a communicative event takes place in 'real time', i.e. when the language learner has little time to process information and cannot reflect on what is being communicated, the locus of control does not reside with the language learner. When the language learner can control the rate of flow of information in a

communicative event and reflect on what is being communicated, the locus of control does reside with the language learner'(37).

In Peirce et al.'s (1993) words:

when the locus of control resides with the language learner, there is a concomitant effect on the language learner's perception of the relative difficulty of a particular communicative task and consequently the learner's self-assessments of language proficiency with respect to that activity. We suggest that a favourable locus of control leads to the perception that a communicative activity is relatively 'easy'; this in turn leads to relatively high self-assessment of ability (37-8).

In other words, when the learners have the locus of control in a certain communicative task, they perceive that the task is easy and vice versa. In addition, self-assessment of the learners' own performance on a task is bound to be affected by their perception of difficulty of the task.

Peirce et al. (1993) maintain that the locus of control is 'a useful construct to explain other anomalous results in the self-assessment literature' and 'under what conditions a learner might assess some communicative tasks in the target language to be more difficult than others'(38). They also assert that self-assessment has its appeal in language testing through providing the learner with a favourable locus of control. Peirce et al.'s (1993) locus of control seems a useful concept to explain a tendency of self-assessors: higher self-rating of literacy tasks and lower self-rating of oral tasks.

2.4.8 Teachers' Assessment of Their Own Language Proficiency

In the literature on self-assessment, hardly any research is reported on teachers' self-assessment of their own language proficiency. Spezzini and Oxford's (1998) study of foreign language teaching candidates is one of the exceptions. Their study is intended to reveal differences between perceived proficiency and actual proficiency of teacher candidates using self-assessment and a standardised exam.

Their study was administered to 16 students enrolled in an American university's foreign language teaching methodology course during the fall 1996 semester. The students were candidates to become foreign language teachers: 12 in Spanish, 2 in French, 1 in German, and 1 in Japanese. Each candidate's self-assessment of language proficiency was administered during the first class session through a questionnaire where they ranked their own perceived proficiency on a 5-point scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high) in listening, speaking, reading, writing, culture, vocabulary and grammar. And they also took a standardised test, 'an abbreviated version of the commonly used and well respected Advanced Placement examination'(Spezzini and Oxford 1998: 68) during class at the end of the second month of the semester. However, the

scores from 6 students were not 'used in subsequent statistical analyses because they were deemed as not sufficiently representative'(Ibid.: 69). All the 10 remaining Spanish Education major students' self-assessed composite mean score was 3.34 with a standard deviation of 0.43. This score was converted to a 0-100 scale with the mean score for the composite self-assessment of 66.9 and a standard deviation of 8.7. The subjects' converted (to a 0-100 scale) composite mean score for the actual exam was 44.3 with a standard deviation of 13.0, thereby showing that their actual proficiency was much lower than their perceived language proficiency.

Spezzini & Oxford attribute the teacher candidates' unrealistically high opinions of their own language proficiency and low language skills to their 'little or no exposure to authentic language usage in a Spanish-speaking country'(Spezzini & Oxford 1998: 74). Spezzini & Oxford see that one of the most enlightening results from the study is that only 31 % responded positively to the question of adequacy of their language proficiency as teacher interns. The 'negative and tentative responses of the other 69 % represented a reversal of the subjects' initial perspectives towards their own language'(Ibid.). In other words, these candidates came to be aware of 'the high demand which will be placed on them as teacher interns and of the progress which they still need to make in acquiring adequate language and cultural skills'(Ibid.: 75).

Spezzini & Oxford's (1998) study seems to be very useful in that it focuses on teacher candidates and the discrepancy between their self-assessed perceived and actual proficiency. In addition, their study explicitly discloses that the candidates' need for the target language and culture skill improvement.

In the case of teacher learners, self-assessment seems to be the best alternative to real tests. As teachers themselves, teacher learners seem to turn to self-directed learning rather than formal language classes. Consequently, the possibilities for them to be involved in formal tests are few and far between. Therefore, self-evaluation cannot but become an inevitable and practical option. Moreover, cheating will not be a big threat because the results of the self-evaluation are not meant to be released or reported to any third party. In addition, in most of the cases, as mature adult learners, these teacher learners have a very fair idea of why they are placing themselves in a learning situation, as LeBlanc & Painchaud (1985). Therefore, they seem to be ready to take charge of the responsibility for their own learning, which is an essential part of autonomous learning.

2.4.9 Models for Self-assessment Tests

2.4.9.1 Bachman & Palmer's (1989) study of self-ratings of communicative language ability (CLA)

Bachman & Palmer investigated self-assessment in terms of constructs of language proficiency (Appendix 1-4). In the test, there were three types of questions about their linguistic, pragmatic, sociolinguistic competence (which are three components of their Communicative Language Ability. Refer to 2.3.6): 'ability to use trait' question type (e.g. how many English sentences can you usually say or write in a row?), 'difficulty in using trait' question type (e.g. how hard is it for you to put several English sentences together in a row?), and 'recognition of input' question type (e.g. how often can you tell when someone makes a grammar mistake?).

Bachman and Palmer's (1989) self-rating test is based on a theory of language competence, unlike many other self-rating tests focusing on, and distinguished by, the 'traditional' four language skills of reading, listening, speaking and writing. Their test based its framework on three different language competencies instead of four language skills: Bachman & Palmer did not distinguish questions according to different language skills such as speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills. As they stated in their later book (1996), they did not believe in the adequacy of the distinction among the different language skills.

Bachman & Palmer (1996) claimed that it seemed inadequate to categorise 'widely divergent language use tasks or activities together' (75) under a single 'skill'. They took the example of two totally different language activities involving the same language skill: participating in a face-to-face conversation and listening to a radio newscast are very different even though both activities involve listening. In addition, according to Bachman & Palmer, using language skills as categories seemed to ignore the fact that language use took place or was realised 'in the performance of specific situated language use tasks' (Ibid.). In other words, language is used for a specific purpose in a particular context, and does not happen in a vacuum. Therefore, Bachman & Palmer argued that it was 'not useful to think in terms of 'skills', but to think in terms of specific activities or tasks in which language [was] used purposefully' (76).

While Bachman & Palmer's (1989) self-rating test was not based on test questions related to the different skill areas, it distinguished the receptive from the productive language mode in some ways. 'Ability to use' questions leaned towards the productive mode whereas 'recognition of input' questions were based on the receptive mode. 'Difficulty in using' questions, which were not leaning toward any one specific mode, were judged to be most effective by Bachman &

Palmer (1989) presumably because they believed the language learners were well aware of the areas they had difficulty with.

Another characteristic of the self-rating test is that the questions in the self-rating test were asked in three different ways, which has other potential advantages since relying on single questions may not be as effective as asking multiple questions on the same topic, when the intention is to uncover the complexity of the topic, as Converse & Presser (1986) advocated. Using multiple questions could make it easier to ‘discover where or how our understanding of the world is inadequate’ (Converse & Presser 1986: 45). In Bachman & Palmer’s (1989) self-rating test questionnaire, questions relating to the three language competence components were asked in three different ways so that the danger of wording or form effects could be minimised. For example, a question about English grammar was asked in three different ways as follows: ‘how much English grammar do you know?’, ‘how many different kinds of grammar mistakes do you make in English?’, ‘how often can you tell when someone makes a grammar mistake?’.

To sum up, whereas many other studies tried to assess the subjects’ perceived level of language skills through self-rating, mostly four basic skills of reading, writing, speaking, listening comprehension, Bachman & Palmer’s (1989) study was based more on the theories of language competence, based on their own model of communicative language abilities. Many studies in language testing have focused on validating the components of language competence presented by various theorists. Nonetheless, the tradition of applying the model of language competence based on relevant theories to language testing did not seem to fully expand its scope to self-assessment before Bachman & Palmer (1989). Bachman & Palmer’s study (1989) seems to be a nicely tuned study of the application of their language competence model to self-assessment.

In addition, Bachman & Palmer’s (1989) study seems to go beyond justifying and validating the use of self-assessment of subjects’ language ability. While many other studies had their objectives in validation of self-appraisal, this study took a step further toward the test of the model of language proficiency. Bachman & Palmer’s (1989) study seems to show the possibility of structured self-ratings of language proficiency based on sound theories.

2.4.9.2 MacIntyre et al.’s (1997) ‘can-do’ type self-assessment

Another type of self-assessment which will be discussed is a ‘can-do’ type of questionnaire, first created by Clark (1981b) and later adopted by a number of other researchers such as MacIntyre et al (1997) (Appendix 1-2). MacIntyre et al.’s self-assessment was administered to 37 Anglophone first-year university students who had had considerable exposure to French in

Canada. The subjects were asked to assess their speaking, reading, writing, and listening proficiency in French as well as to perform tasks corresponding to each of the areas of self-assessment. The self-assessment results showed moderate to high correlations with test scores in all four-skill areas.

There are several characteristics which make this 'can-do' type of self-assessment test easy to use. Above all, this 'can-do' questionnaire made it easy to design tasks in a test which were based on the questions drawn from the self-assessment test itself. Subsequently, this self-assessment test combined with a language test based on it made possible an easy and appropriate comparison between perceived proficiency and other measures of subjects' target language. In other words, the 'can-do' questionnaire saved the effort of designing a language test to be used with the self-assessment test because the questions in the questionnaire could be directly converted to the tasks in the language test without any significant changes. For example, for the self-assessment question of 'can you understand English films without subtitles?', there was a task as follows: 'this videotape has an excerpt of an English movie, without subtitles. What is happening in the movie?'

MacIntyre et al (1997) assert that their 'can-do' self-assessment test and the tasks that go with it, which they used in their study, avoided the potential problems of discrepancy between the two ratings 'by asking participants for self-ratings of very specific L2 behaviours and then asking them to engage in exactly those behaviours' (277). In short, this 'can-do' questionnaire can have double benefits because not only does it pose questions based on the specific situations, but asks the participants to carry out the specific tasks to measure their ability to perform them.

Bachman & Palmer (1996) define a language use task as 'an activity that involves individuals in using language for the purpose of achieving a particular goal or objective in a particular situation' (44). Therefore, this language use task included 'both the specific activity and the situation in which it takes place' (Ibid.). Furthermore, if a language test can be 'thought of as a procedure for eliciting instances of language use from which inferences can be made about an individual's language ability', a language test 'should consist of language use tasks' (Ibid.: 45). The tasks based on 'can-do' questions of MacIntyre et al (1997) seem to satisfy the conditions for a language test. Besides, the task materials employed in MacIntyre et al's (1997) study all claim to be authentic instances of the target language usage.

Even if Bachman & Palmer (1996) repudiate the notion of four language skills, the definite division of language skills seems to be ingrained in many people's minds. According to Bachman & Palmer (1996), the notion of language skills as abstract modalities cannot

differentiate among the different activities when those activities involve the same skill. They also claim that it ignores the fact that ‘language use is realised in specific situated language use tasks’ (79). Nonetheless, in this claim, Bachman & Palmer (1996) refer to tests dating back to the early 60s such as Lado’s (1961) and Carroll’s (1961; 1968) as examples of language skill based tests, thereby failing to take into consideration the much improved versions of skill-based tests such as MacIntyre et al.(1997) where tests are carried out in the context of specific language use tasks.

2.4.10 Section Summary

As Ross (1998) indicates, the literature base for self-evaluation is ‘not extensive, but fortunately is growing at a steady rate’ (17) since it began to ‘expand as a distinct field of interest in language testing and evaluation’(Blanche & Merino 1989: 315). As shown above, many researchers have explored this comparatively new area with their own research interests in their own contexts. Many studies which tried to investigate the reliability of self-assessment and found significantly high correlation coefficients between self-rating and external criteria highlight that overall self-ratings are ‘reliable’, and that they also ‘provide information on general language ability’(Bachman & Palmer 1989: 17). Even those, whose studies did not result in high correlations between self-evaluation and other criteria, acknowledged the worth and positive influence of self-evaluation. In addition, it was identified that self-rating can be employed for various purposes as a useful means to provide valuable information about the learners.

2.5 HOW TO IMPROVE TEACHERS' LINGUISTIC PROFICIENCY

2.5.1 Section Introduction

The previous sections have looked at non-native teachers' need to improve their linguistic proficiency, what linguistic proficiency means, and self-assessment as a means of measuring language learners' linguistic proficiency. In this section, how to improve non-native speaker teachers' linguistic proficiency will be discussed. Firstly, two main ways of improving NNS teachers' linguistic proficiency will be explored. Then as a specific method using video materials will be suggested with comments about its advantages for and positive effects on language learners.

The need of non-native speaker teachers for a better command of the target language has been discussed earlier (see 2.2). The NNS teachers seem to be well aware that they are learners themselves as well as teachers, and to improve their language proficiency seems to be non-native speaker teachers' common desire. Once the teachers admit to their language deficiencies and needs, they need to try to 'overcome the shortcomings that teachers often live with for a career' (Mareoff 1988: 45). The next step should therefore be to explore the ways of improving non-native speaker teachers' language proficiency. The ways can be divided roughly into two main categories. One is organised training programmes and the other is informal self-directed learning. It is also possible to combine both of them as will be discussed later.

The two different types of method for teacher language improvement will be presented. First of all, organised teacher training courses will be discussed, focusing on the need to integrate language work into the training courses. Then some special approaches to language work on training courses will also be presented. As a second method for teacher language improvement, self-directed or autonomous learning on the part of teachers will be explored with comments on the combined method of formal training and self-study and teachers' language improvement through professional activities. Finally, using video will be discussed as a specific way of improving teachers' linguistic proficiency.

2.5.2 Organised Training Programmes

2.5.2.1 The need for integrating a language improvement component into teacher training

Until the not too distant past, the idea that language development should have a central place in teacher training curricula did not seem to appeal to curriculum designers, as Murdoch (1994) points out. Nevertheless, a lot of evidence 'suggests that a greater concern with language

training would produce more competent teachers' (Murdoch 1994: 259). Berry (1990) observes that the teachers' target language improvement component is 'often underestimated or taken for granted,' even though it is 'probably the commonest need' (98) in non-native speaker teacher training. He also points out that there is little literature addressing the language improvement component. Nevertheless, as discussed earlier, the language improvement component is crucial for non-native speaker teachers. As seen in the example of Berry's (1990) Chinese teacher trainees, for some non native speaker teachers teacher training can mean 'no more than raising the language level of teachers' (98). Therefore, Golebiowska (1985) seems to have been right when he said that 'any teacher training course for non-native teachers should incorporate language improvement classes at an appropriate level' (274).

A lot of people involved in teacher training have echoed Golebiowska (1985) in their own contexts. Willis (1981) strongly suggested that the training course for non-native speaker teachers should integrate language work into methodology work, i.e., it should stress the control and use of the target language in conjunction with the methodology. Thomas (1987) focused on the competence of three different parties on training courses: language teacher, language learner, and language teacher educator. According to him, language teacher competence had two aspects: linguistic and pedagogic. The skill based language competence component accompanying explicit language awareness should precede pedagogic competence which involved the classroom management, pedagogic teaching process, preparation for teaching, and assessment component of the teacher's own performance (Thomas 1987). Emphasising the importance of language analysis and the linguistic awareness of the teacher trainees, Bolitho (1988) maintained that any language work on training courses should take account of the trainee teachers' prime need to be secure about the target language, their need to relax and discuss language problems openly, the need to become familiar with reference grammars and learners' grammars, the need to be able to look critically at the way language is presented in coursebooks, and the need to perceive the language work as relevant to the demands of the classroom (74).

Johnson (1990) comments on the responsibilities of language teaching specialists in teacher education, which involves methodology and instruction in the target language to raise the level of the trainees' proficiency. Dubin & Wong (1990) report on an in-service programme in the Hungarian context where non-native trainees' language improvement was one important component. The design of the in-service training programme they were involved in was based on teacher training in the American general education field, and plenty of preparatory questions and ongoing questions were added to identify the trainees' needs about general issues as well as language improvement. One of Lange's seven principles (1990) that should apply to the development of teacher trainees is the teachers' proficiency in the target language.

Berry (1990) also emphasises that a language improvement component should be an essential part of teacher training courses for non-native speaker teachers in conjunction with a methodology component. He believes that training courses for language teachers should usually be composed of five different components, which are a skills component (the HOW of language teaching), a methodology component (theory in the weak sense), a theory component (in the strong sense; the WHY of language teaching), a subject matter component, and a language improvement component designed to improve the teachers' proficiency in the target language. In some cases, however, those five components can be reduced to three components : a methodology, a theory, and a language improvement component. Berry (1990) also emphasises that the language improvement component should be well integrated into the training course. In that case, a language improvement component, 'in addition to its primary role, will have the secondary effect of providing a model of teaching behaviour'(101). He claims that the training course can 'kill two birds with one stone' by 'combining teachers' natural concern for their language proficiency with the potential that language learning experiences have for shaping teacher behaviour'(Berry 1990: 104).

Cullen's (1994) suggestion of the training course combining language improvement with methodology seems similar to Berry's proposal (1990). Cullen (1994) presents four possible approaches to incorporating a language improvement component into training programmes. One of the approaches he suggests is to tackle the problem indirectly, which means that the trainees' language improvement will be dealt with through using the target language as the medium in the process of conducting the other components of the programme. The second approach is to include a language component alongside the other parts of the programme. Nonetheless this kind of approach will be faced with a problem of time in most cases. The third is to link methodology with language improvement by making methodology the content of a language improvement course. However, it runs the danger of limiting the subject matter of the course to one major topic of methodology. The final approach is to make language improvement central and plan the other components around it. Cullen (1994) claims that this fourth approach gives the trainees direct experience of a particular teaching approach as genuine language learners before discussing the approach as teachers, so that it can be an answer to the training courses in many parts of the world (165-67).

With a report on a training programme in Bangladesh where the fourth approach of the incorporation of language improvement was tried, Cullen (1994) outlines that kind of training course. The starting point of the course is the input stage, where trainees have a language lesson as learners. The processing stage comes when the language lesson is subjected to a process of

description, analysis, and evaluation. Finally, the output or transfer stage is for the trainees to plan ways of transferring an idea to their own teaching situation (168). The training programme attempts to ‘combine language improvement and methodology by using the learning experience which the trainees have undergone during the language lesson as the content for follow-up work on methodology’ (Cullen 1994: 172). Nevertheless, the focus is on language improvement, which is many non-native teachers’ real need, and the methodology component which is claimed to be ‘practice-driven rather than theory-driven’ (Ibid.) is essentially for trainees’ understanding of the principles and processes of language teaching.

Murdoch (1994) also agrees on the point that increased levels of language support should be given to the trainees on training courses. For this purpose, he suggests bringing into the training classes activity-based teacher education tasks. Murdoch (1994) claims that the activities related to pedagogic topics provide excellent opportunities for communication practice: preparing materials and presenting them before peers in the training group; practice of language associated with asking students different types of questions and responding to their answers and questions, as Johnson also indicates (1990). Murdoch (1994) especially emphasises classroom language and learner strategies in the language improvement work for the trainees to learn more efficiently. In addition, Murdoch (1994) comments on the integration of trainees’ self-development strategies into the course, which will be addressed in more detail later on. He also reports on Sri Lankan teacher trainees’ positive views on the provision of the language improvement component revealed in his survey.

2.5.2.2 Some special approaches to language improvement work

It seems that the incorporation of a language improvement component into the training course is widely supported by those involved in teacher training in varying contexts. After all, EFL/ESL teachers take on a variety of roles in relation to the language they teach: they are language users, teachers, and analysts (in terms of talking about language itself, analysing it, and understanding how it works) (Edge 1988). As seen above, many researchers have described how the training course involving language improvement should be structured and conducted. Nonetheless, it would also be worth presenting some special approaches to language improvement in more detail. Here, three approaches to language work on training courses will be mentioned: the language learning experience, exotic foreign language learning, and ESP (English for Specific Purposes) approaches to improving teachers’ language.

2.5.2.2.1 Language Learning Experience

As regards teacher trainees' varying previous experience of learning English, Parrot (1988) comments on two extreme cases. One case is the teachers who learned the language outside any formal educational system and so may lack 'the conscious models of teaching that are normally obtained through the experience of being a classroom language learner'. At the other extreme are the teachers 'who have experienced dogmatic training in a particular method or in the exploitation of particular kinds of material'(Parrot 1988: 28). The majority, however, may have had learning experience as a language learner and seen their own teacher's teaching at school year after year. In other words, the majority of the trainees have learned the language as learners in formal institutions and consciously and unconsciously observed their teachers' teaching. According to Berry's investigation (1990), the teacher trainees' previous language learning experience is more important than they are aware of, or are prepared to admit. For his Chinese trainees the previous learning experience was the primary source of influence, and it seemed 'to play an inordinately large role in shaping teaching practices'(103) for his Polish teacher trainees.

The more important question seems to be whether the likelihood of being strongly influenced by the language learning experience can be exploited positively on training courses. In other words, the question is whether using the language learning experience on training courses will affect teacher trainees strongly enough for them to transfer the techniques to their own teaching situations. Berry (1990) gives a positive answer to this question, but with certain reservations. He points out two factors for teacher trainers to consider. The trainees as mature language learners are not as impressionable as younger learners and the range of techniques employed by teachers will not coincide exactly with those applicable to their learners because of the difference in level (Berry 1990: 103). Nevertheless, it seems to be worth providing the trainees with the opportunity to learn the language as learners. Unlike when they were students at school, this time the trainees may have a more acute awareness of what is going on in terms of not only the language items they are taught but also the techniques and methodology they are taught through. And this can be one way of making language work central with methodology work around it, as proposed by Berry (1990), Cullen (1994), Murdoch (1994).

2.5.2.2.2 "Exotic" Foreign Language Learning

Providing the teacher trainees with the opportunity to learn an exotic foreign language has a lot in common with target language learning experience on the training course, because both approaches are based on language learning. However, the two methods are not exactly the same. Above all, unlike learning English as comparatively advanced learners, when they become learners of an exotic foreign language, they will be exposed to a totally new language as real beginners. Lowe (1987) considered the approach valuable, reporting on foreign language

learning experiment involving a twelve-week thirty-hour part-time course in Mandarin Chinese lessons to teacher trainees which took place during 1984-1985. He believed that this exotic foreign language learning would 'give teachers a chance to renew their connection with language learning, and thereby to become more sensitive to the problems and processes confronting their learners'(Lowe 1987: 89).

On the other hand, Golebiowska (1985) had strong doubts about the value of learning an exotic foreign language which may seem irrelevant to the teacher trainees' teaching contexts instead of English. He questioned whether the teacher trainees' motivation was comparable with that of a learner in the case of learning an exotic language. He also questioned whether it would be better to spend the time making trainees explicitly aware of the difficulties that a learner might encounter when learning English rather than any other language. He also pointed out that the novelty of learning an exotic language might wear off quickly (275-6). Golebiowska (1985) doubted if there was any difference between lessons whose sole aim was to recreate the feelings of a language learner and those which aimed to present a specific technique (275).

Disillusioned with the validity of those foreign language lessons, Golebiowska (1985) suggested showing the trainees what it would be like to learn English rather than any other language.

This approach of using exotic language lessons for language work on training courses is one of the methods that provide teachers with the chance to become a learner again. However, the teacher trainees' role reversal to beginner learners seems to have its limits as well as its merits.

2.5.2.2.3 An ESP Approach

Another approach to language work on teacher training courses is an ESP (English for Specific Purposes) approach. Nobody will question the idea that teachers have specific language needs, which were labelled English for Teaching Purposes by Blundell (1977). As a matter of fact, teachers have complex language needs which have been indicated in various research studies. Blundell (1977) pointed out that for English teachers English is both the subject of a lesson and the medium of instruction. Willis (1981) also asserted that teachers in the EFL classroom have two kinds of language needs: English for teaching purposes or specialist classroom English (which the teacher uses to socialise with students, to organise the class and to instruct through the use of language learning activities), and general English (which constitutes the actual subject matter of the lesson). Reves & Medgyes (1994) believe that these needs of language for both the subject matter and the medium of instruction 'make heavy and manifold demands' on teachers (364). An ESP approach means focusing on these two domains of English teacher language and an attempt to meet both needs on training courses.

Blundell (1977) claimed that ‘methodology and more general language improvement may be necessary’ in teacher training for non-native speaker teachers, but these ‘could be complemented and even brought together by an English for teaching purposes course component, designed to enable the student to perform more economically, appropriately and efficiently in his own EFL classroom’(63). He pointed out ten areas of language function in the EFL classroom which had been considered on training courses for English for teaching purposes: eliciting information, eliciting patterns and rules, giving patterns and rules, giving explanations and information, marking the different phrases of a lesson, giving instructions, accepting and correcting student utterances, encouraging and praising, advising and suggesting and writing comments and rubrics (64). Blundell (1977) was interested in and paid attention to what teachers would actually say while performing these functions. Blundell (1977) also presented two possible structures of these kinds of English for Teaching Purposes courses. One was the course composed of methodology, language improvement and English for teaching purposes, and the latter two components could be based on the same language function, practised in different situations and registers. The other possible structure was solely composed of English for teaching purposes. After teacher trainees watched native speaker teachers’ performance of one of those ten functions on video, they were led to work on the language items dealt with on video with the aid of a tapescript. Then, follow-up activities would possibly encourage trainees’ own language production focusing on the same language function. Finally, the trainees were asked to micro-teach the same function. Blundell (1977) himself evaluated the second structure as more useful for the teacher trainees.

As mentioned above, Willis (1981) supported the integration of language work into methodology work. She claimed it was sensible to plan the content of the methodology component first and integrate the language component into it. She emphasised that teachers should be proficient at both kinds of language: specialist and general English. For English for teaching purposes or specialist English, she pointed out three roles: social or personal, organisational, and instructional. The social or personal role could be achieved through teachers’ socialising with their own class when teachers and students used the kind of English appropriate for use outside the class. The organisational role of the language could mean a range of language functions involving class organisation such as polite requests, giving reasons, explaining sequences of events, giving instructions, and requesting clarifications. Finally, the instructional role would involve both productive skills and receptive skills. Productive skills could mean teachers’ language production for the purpose of instruction in the classroom and receptive skills would be needed for selection, evaluation and preparation of teaching materials. Willis (1981) claimed that general language improvement should be considered by focusing on individual trainees’ needs, after the specialist language objectives had been decided on. This

general language improvement work should be done by means of slotting the required language work (analysed by the course organiser or trainer) into the methodology component. Willis (1981) suggested a possible structure for training courses, which was composed of some input sessions, practical group work integrating all three roles above, and the training methods sessions reflecting the teaching methods.

Kennedy (1983) maintained that it would be salutary to regard the training of English teachers as a type of ESP activity. He indicated 5 distinctive teaching activities: (a) selecting and evaluating material, (b) preparing lessons, (c) supplementing textbook exercises and designing own materials, (d) conducting a lesson, (e) setting and marking exercises, tests and examinations. Teaching activities could be interpreted as tasks imposed on the teacher, which would consequently involve the use of the target language. Kennedy (1983) pointed out that there was little research done on the language required to complete the teaching tasks listed above, except for the discourse structure of classroom English. Therefore, it could be said that the teaching activities required in an EFL/ESL classroom and the language required in order to perform the activities were fairly well specified. Then, as Kennedy (1983) mentioned, 'to what extent such classroom language will need to be taught on a teacher-training course depends again on the teacher's present or future teaching situation'(78). In addition, he suggested that the trainers should deal with both language and content through achieving a degree of integration between the 'English' (the language) and the 'SP'(the acquisition of ELT content). Furthermore, he presented a possible model of a training course adopting an ESP approach. The model could be divided into five levels moving from Level 1 (the highest), which deals with course content, to Level 2 dealing with course format, to Level 3 concerned with course methodology, to Level 4 addressing trainees' discourse structure of ELT, down to Level 5 (the lowest), which is concerned with the trainees' formal language skills'(Kennedy 1983: 79). Within each level there were three elements. The first element, 'input', led to 'decision', about the specific purpose of each level, and finally resulted in materials design which the decision could be applied to. Nevertheless, this model, as he also indicated, needs to 'be tested, evaluated and refined by both trainers and course participants'(Kennedy 1983: 83).

2.5.3 Informal Language Improvement

2.5.3.1 Self-instructed learning

Much research has indicated that non-native speaker language teachers can 'themselves be classed as advanced learners'(Bolitho 1988: 81). Because most of these non-native speaker teachers are all 'too well aware that they are teachers and learners of the same subject'(Medgyes 1994: 40), they need and desire to learn more about the language they teach, as discussed above.

Therefore, it will probably be the case that the teachers remain lifelong learners of the language they teach. And this attitude towards what they teach should be a fundamental condition for successful teaching. Not only for themselves but also for their students, teachers need to be permanent learners. As Claxton (1989) suggests, the teachers must adopt a learning stance towards life for their students' sake if they want to help their students to adopt it themselves.

Other than the teacher training programmes addressed above, another noteworthy method of teacher learning activities for those lifelong learners can be autonomous learning or self-directed learning. In fact, this learning method is not exclusively applied to teachers. It is the method most of the learners can adopt and currently use. The distinctive difference between the two domains of teachers' methods of language improvement is formality. Unlike teacher training which is usually formally organised and conducted, self-instructed learning is usually very informal and self-directed, as the name itself implies. Medgyes (1994) claims that self-instructed learning is 'largely ad hoc and does not necessarily entail systematic planning' (85). However, this kind of learning can also involve very systematic planning and administering. Only in the case of autonomous learning, the responsibility of doing those things is transferred to the learner himself/herself.

While the main responsibility lies with the trainers and the training institution in formal training, in self-instructed learning the responsibility for learning rests with the learner himself/herself. All the important decisions about learning should be made by the learner himself/herself, from motivating oneself, setting up one's own aims and objectives, choosing appropriate methods and materials, making up one's own timetable, ensuring that the learning activity is kept going, to monitoring and evaluating the progress the learner himself/herself has made (see 2.4.1.2.). As a result of continuous self-assessment, the teacher-learners can keep changing or modifying their learning strategies (Medgyes 1994). In fact, the learners carry full responsibility for their learning process in self-directed learning (Dickinson 1987). In addition, this kind of learning is 'non-stop, self-generated and wholesome. And it is highly flexible in that the teacher-learner can adapt her activity to her individual needs, whims and time schedule'(Medgyes 1994: 84). To sum up, the teacher learners can run their own self-directed learning programme for themselves in their own time in their own way, irrespective of whether it is one that is a carefully planned and conducted in detail or a less clearly designed and more flexible one.

2.5.3.2 The combined approach

The third method of teacher learning or language improvement is the combination of the two distinctive methods: formal training and self-directed learning. The teacher learners can follow the framework of the particular training they participate in, focusing on their own problem areas

and satisfying their own individual needs as well. Murdoch (1994) indicates the importance of self-development strategies in teacher training programmes, so that he suggests giving the teacher trainees more time for language study on training courses and encouraging them to use the self-study resources available to the teacher trainees, such as radio programmes, video and TV programmes, or tapes. Another significance of this incorporation of self-study into formal training, as Murdoch (1994) observes, is that it not only helps the teacher learners 'raise their proficiency levels during training, but also develops habits which can enable them to maintain their standard of English when they are teaching in a less linguistically-rich environment' (255).

2.5.3.3 Language improvement through professional activities

Even if they are not very self-evident as methods of teacher learning, there are other ways to improve non-native teachers' own language proficiency, through professional activities such as planning the lessons and in-the-class teaching. Medgyes (1994) points out that the teachers' life 'oscillates between periods of preparation and teaching proper'(87). As a result, it is no exaggeration to say that the teachers spend most of their time either preparing or teaching the class. If they can carry out their own learning during those times, that is the most easy, sensible, and practical way of doing it. In the researcher's experience, most teachers agree that they learn a lot through teaching.

While preparing the class, the teacher learners can make conscious efforts to improve their own language proficiency. In fact, according to Medgyes (1994), most of the teachers find that this preparation stage is 'a time for more effective self-study than the teaching stage itself'(87). Nonetheless, the actual teaching stage can also help the teachers' learning in terms of the language. While explaining the particular language items to students and setting up and leading varying activities for students, things previously vague can become clear. If the main instruction of the class is done through the target language, the teaching act itself can be a kind of language practice for the teachers. In addition, if the teacher has to improvise according to the students' feedback from time to time, instead of adhering to the lesson plan, that can be a good opportunity in terms of her language improvement. After all, unprepared and 'unpredictable language use is the essence of genuine communication' (Medgyes 1994: 88), although this need for improvisation can be a big threat to the teachers who think themselves not very proficient.

2.5.4 Video as a Means of Improving Linguistic Proficiency

The earlier sub-sections addressed general ways of improving teachers' language proficiency. This section will discuss a specific medium for language learning, video. Interest in video as a

medium for learning has been rapidly increasing and, relatively recently, as technology has developed, it has become integrated with computers as interactive video or multimedia. However, video still seems to be more available in most of the classrooms of the world than computers, and its merits as an effective medium are continuously appreciated by many teachers and learners still. In fact, now that the price of video equipment has gone down, it is becoming more widely available in many parts of the world. However, much empirical research into the use of video remains to be done.

As many investigations into video admit, video appears to be a splendid means to provide rich insights into the target language and its culture for language learners, most of whom, ‘in the course of their education, will perhaps never visit a country where the language is spoken’ (Svensson & Sweden 1985: 149). Even if video cannot replace the direct benefits which visits to the target language country or contacts with natives give (Svensson & Sweden 1985), it is ‘a great improvement over textbooks alone’ (Ibid.) and appears to be a practical alternative to being exposed to the target language speaking environment firsthand.

In this sub-section, why video is an effective means for language teaching and learning will be explored. How video can be used in language learning will be addressed with practical thoughts on planning and integrating video into the lesson. Then, the effectiveness of video will be examined with reference to empirical studies, and research into video in connection with advance organisers will be introduced. As a theoretical background, the visual aspects of video will be addressed with reference to the dual-coding theory (see 2.5.9). In addition, some research into multimedia will be referred to in conjunction with dual-coding theory, because, in a broader sense, video is one essential part of multimedia. Finally, the use of video recordings will be explored and the criteria for choosing video materials will be discussed.

2.5.5 Why Is Video an Effective Means for Language Teaching and Learning?

2.5.5.1 The kinds of video materials used

The kinds of video materials used in language teaching and learning have a wide variety. They vary from video materials specially designed for ELT, non-ELT video materials such as off-air recordings from television, to films in the form of video, and to locally produced video recordings. For instance, Hart’s (1992) so-called home video, which filmed his own three Australian children’s (a 15 year old and 10 year old twins) experiences of making friends, and coping with school in French, is an example of unscripted authentic video material in a natural environment along with his video project of Australian students of Chinese in China. Despite the advantages

that ELT video programmes can provide, ‘authentic material by its nature is often much richer than materials designed for ELT purposes’(Kerridge 1983: 113).

2.5.5.2 The advantages of video

Much research into video has provided good reasons why video should be used in the language classroom. The advantages pointed out are many and varied, but they can be summarised as below.

- **Language input**

On top of the list is the target language input which video can provide. Video can present target language models in a meaningful context irrespective whether it is made for an ELT or a non-ELT purpose. As Allan (1985) indicates, in some situations the classroom is ‘the only place learners can hear the foreign language spoken, so video becomes a means of giving them a “language bath” in the classroom’(49). In other words, in those kinds of situations, video with perhaps audio tapes can be the only way for students to get access to target language input in spoken form, to broaden their language input beyond the scope of the textbooks. What makes video better than audio tapes as language input is that it does not just provide language input, but can ‘bring an air of reality’(Lonergan 1983: 69) or ‘realistic slices of life’(Allan 1985: 48) into the classroom by showing learners the target language speakers and the uses of the language in a meaningful context. Especially, providing language input in both aural and visual modes, video can be a very valuable medium for training learners’ listening comprehension. Some investigators such as Sheerin (1983) consider this as the most significant reason for using video.

- **Authenticity**

Authenticity is considered to be another advantage which video can bring to the language classroom. The importance of authenticity of teaching and learning materials has been emphasised along with the focus on the development of learners’ communicative abilities they will resort to in the real-life situations. The claims have been made that learning materials should ‘reflect the learners’ needs as closely as possible’ and so be ‘often based on authentic data’(Kennedy 1983: 96) which can help learners perform better in real life communication by preparing them for real life situations. As Sheerin (1983), Stempleski (1991), and Stoller (1991) indicate, video in the form of non-ELT materials such as off-air recordings and films can expose learners to authentic speech forms in the target language: ‘ungraded’, ‘unsimplified’, ‘spoken at a normal pace and in typical accents’(Stempleski 1991: 9). In other words, video can ‘present authentic data, show language in use in a variety of situations and demonstrate the inter-play of verbal and non-verbal aspects of discourse’ (Kennedy 1983: 101).

- Rich cultural experiences

Another frequently quoted advantage of video as a language learning medium is its capacity to provide the learners with rich cultural experiences. Allan (1985) and Stempleski (1991) indicate that video can present the target language country and its culture. In particular, the wealth of visual information of video makes it possible to more vividly ‘convey the atmosphere of another culture’(Lonergan 1983: 69) where the language is spoken. Furthermore, video can take students ‘into the lives and experiences of others’ (Stempleski & Tomalin 1990: 3) by showing them target language speaking people, ‘their values, customs, clothing, food, and interactions with one another, and how they look at themselves’ (Stempleski 1991: 9). If learning a language involves learning the target culture, video can be said to serve that purpose well.

- Stimulating learners’ interests and motivating learners

Video is highly regarded for its capacity to stimulate learners’ interests and motivate them. Stempleski & Tomalin (1990) observe that learners ‘feel their interest quicken when language is experienced in a lively way through television and video’(3). Kennedy (1983) points out the evidence for claiming that video is motivating the learners. Allan (1985) also argues that video can help to develop motivation in learners because it can offer them ‘the combination of variety, interest and entertainment’, and thus ‘enjoyment of the experience of viewing’(49). In addition to stimulating students’ interests and motivating them, video can be used to stimulate discussion in the classroom by providing background information and proper stimuli (Allan 1985; Stempleski 1991). In other words, video can function as an ‘effective springboard for other content-based classroom activities’(Stoller 1991: 26). Especially in the advanced classroom, video can provide the starting point where learners’ discussions and debates spark off (Allan 1985; Rifkin 2000).

- The technological aspects

The technological features of video also make it a very good medium for language learning. By nature video is different from broadcast television. Whereas any broadcast television programmes are mostly one-off, video sequences can be played as many times as the learners want for more detailed listening or viewing (Joiner 1990). The fact that video can be stopped or restarted at any point means that it can be adjusted to the learners’ learning speeds. Moreover, unlike broadcast television programmes assigned for a fixed time-slot, video can give the viewers the choice to select the time convenient to them and thus a wide range of different programmes to choose from at any one time.

- DVD (Digital Versatile Disk)

If video is more useful to learners than is broadcast television, DVD (Digital Versatile Disk) is even more useful because of its more developed technology. DVD (Digital Versatile Disk) is a new type of CD with much higher storage capacity and the ability to deliver the data at a higher rate. A DVD disk can hold 'hours of high quality audio-visual contents', and is 'predicted to be the unavoidable replacement for the old VCR technology' (<http://www.mpeg.org/MPEG/dvd.html#dvd-intro>). Unlike normal video with linear progression through a tape, DVDs allow the possibility of random access, within seconds, to any point on a disk. Any frames can be frozen on the screen with a stable picture, not damaging the disk. Special edition DVDs also provide extras such as multiple languages (<http://dvdspotlight.net/dvdhome>). DVDs have been highly regarded but, as a new technology, are currently less widely available than VHS.

2.5.6 How can Video be Used?

2.5.6.1 Viewing activities

Clearly it is important to choose appropriate video materials for learners. However, researchers such as Arcario (1991) maintain that it could be viewing activities or tasks which make the particular video usable with the particular type of learners. Arcario (1991) remarks that video programmes containing language which is too difficult for the particular learners can still be used with them either by grading the task or by choosing right clips. Arcario's (1991) advice to try a different activity or task when a video programme was not very successful with certain learners indicates the significance of the activity or task to be used. Therefore, it is clearly important to discuss not only what video to use, but how to use it.

Willis (1983b) emphasises the importance of purposeful video viewing when she states that the activities accompanying the video should 'create a need for students to be actively involved in processing the information they receive' from the video (50). Lonergan (1984) also points out the need for helping learners follow video sequences by providing some tasks to make the viewing experience beneficial. In this vein, most of the investigators seem to agree on the necessity of the essential viewing activities: pre-viewing, while-viewing, and post-viewing activities (Stoller 1991), but with some caution. Joiner (1990) believes that 'the reading and writing load of the comprehension tasks ...should be kept to a minimum so that viewers can easily complete them as they watch the video'(58). In other words, task overload does not seem to benefit the learners.

Thus far, a wealth of activities have been suggested for the video class. In his book full of viewing tasks, Tomalin (1986) divides viewing activities into two types: activities working with language generated by the video programme itself and activities involving language generated by

the students about the video programme. Joiner (1990) organises the activities into three categories: those having skill-building as their goal, those oriented toward cultural outcomes, and those involving the use of a transcribed soundtrack (58). Cooper, Lavery & Rinvoluceri's (1991) *Video* is also filled with all sorts of video related activities. In particular, they suggest two different kinds of activities: active viewing activities and producing video activities for learners themselves.

Stempleski (1991) shows interest in the teacher's point of view. She lists some video-based teaching activities: showing only the pictures, playing only the soundtrack, showing the pictures to some of the students and letting others hear the soundtrack, playing the pictures and sound together, playing only the beginning of a video sequence, playing only the end of a sequence, leaving out the middle of a sequence, playing parts of the sequence out of order (13). Stempleski & Tomalin's (1990) *Video in Action* is full of activities for the teacher to choose from. The activities are graded according to three main characteristics or categories such as learners' level, learning purpose, and video sequence type.

2.5.6.2 Integration of video into the lesson

In addition to how to use video, how to integrate video into the lesson is another important question. Allan (1985) makes six practical suggestions. The first is to use video materials focusing on language. In this case, video can be used for elicitation, or at the presentation stage, or for reinforcement. The second suggestion is to use video for language practice. The expressions on video can be practised in role-play, gap-filling (in spoken form), and comprehension exercises. Some videos present topics so that the learners can have the opportunity to collect information, debate a topic, or to produce a commentary. Another way of using video materials is to look at how they communicate their message. They can be studied as examples of uses of the medium in the context of the society that produced them. It can give the language learners the flavour of media studies. The fifth is to use video which tells stories such as feature films in order to elicit discussions about the plot, the style, and the characters. The last is to use video focusing on cultural features so that the learners can taste the target culture second hand.

2.5.6.3 Teacher preparation for using video

Teacher preparation or training for using video properly is also an important issue to take into consideration. Kerridge (1983) points out that the 'preparation of an authentic video sequence for exploitation is an often laborious process' for the teacher (113). Hennessey (1995) identifies 8 preparatory steps that the teacher should take for effective video lessons using feature films. The

first step is to preview the film in video and to determine the exact purpose of the film: language, history, and so on. And the teacher should prepare materials focusing the students on the purpose, and prepare students thoroughly before seeing the film. The teacher should also tell the students when they will understand the language in addition to teaching grammar to help the students express themselves. Then, after viewing the teacher should give an assignment that is interesting and realistic for the learners' level. The final step for the teacher to do is to congratulate the students on a hard job well-done (119-20).

In the same vein, Lonergan (1983) pinpoints the teacher's tasks as careful selection of sequences for showing in class as well as devising suitable language practice activities as follow-up work on the sequences'(74). Kennedy (1983) underscores the necessity of teacher training, saying that it needs trained teachers for video 'to be handled effectively' and that this 'implies teacher training courses in the mechanics and methodology of video'(101).

2.5.7 Research into the Effectiveness of Video in Language Learning

In spite of the constantly increasing popularity of video as a medium to teach and learn the foreign language and the voices to support its advantages, it seems that there have not been many empirical studies on the effectiveness of the video in language learning. In the early 1990s, Stempleski (1991) pointed out that 'evidence of a rationale for the use of authentic video material in language education is found in only two relevant empirical studies: Garza (1986) and Kongable (1987)'(8). Since then, several more investigations have been conducted in this area, but more studies need to be done.

2.5.7.1 Ramsay (1991)

Ramsay (1991) investigated the effects of video on the learning of French grammar. Ramsay (1991) conducted an experiment which continued for a semester with 24 students, 12 in each group (an experimental and a control group) in second semester intermediate level French classes in a university. The control group was taught through a representative traditional grammar-in-context course, *Kaleidoscope* (chapters 7-12), and the experimental group was taught the same grammatical structures through the *French in Action* video series.

Both groups took the 50-minute 'Before and After test' constituting a dictation, grammatical forms, a listening comprehension. The results of the tests did not find any significant difference in the overall test score gains 'although the *French in Action* group had a slightly higher mean difference (more improvement) than the control group'(259). No significant difference in gains between the two groups was found in the dictation or in the listening comprehension.

Nevertheless, the difference in grammar score gains was ‘clearly significantly better for the students using the *French in Action* group compared to the students in the control group’(Ibid.).

Ramsay’s (1991) investigation into the effectiveness of video on teaching French grammar to a degree decreased the concern that students in the video-based classes may ‘decline in grammatical competency’(255), thereby opening up another option to teach grammar in the foreign language classroom.

2.5.7.2 Secules, Herron & Tomasello (1992)

Secules et al. (1992) also pointed out the scarcity of research into the effectiveness of video materials in the foreign language classroom. They wanted to see if the incorporation of video into instruction would enhance students’ listening comprehension. Secules et al. (1992) conducted two experiments which compared the instruction using video to more traditional methods in the classroom. The first experiment compared the effect of the two different methods on listening comprehension, and the second experiment investigated which was more effective in teaching specific vocabulary and grammatical structures.

In their first experiment, Secules et al. (1992) subjects were 52 university students of French in four classes. Two classes were taught without video, and the other two classes used the curriculum accompanying the *French in Action* video series (481) for one semester. Secules et al. (1992) tested students’ listening abilities using a different video unrelated to the *French in Action* series. The twenty-item test included a variety of comprehension tasks, and students also took a second test to measure their reading and writing abilities during the final week of the semester.

The results of the first experiment indicated that the students in the video classes showed better listening comprehension abilities than did the students in the control classes, and that the development of their reading and writing skills in video classes was not sacrificed at the expense of listening skills. Scores on the writing and reading tests were similar across the groups.

Secules et al. (1992) second experiment was conducted with 27 students who were members of first semester French classes at the same university. The course was taught in French using the *French in Action* series for a semester. Both groups of students saw a video every week, but the students in the experimental group were taught the target structures through video whereas the students in the control group were taught the target structures through the traditional teacher-led drills. Students were tested on the target structures at the end of each class and tested again on the weekly quiz ‘to assess any effect of the initial video presentation on retention over a longer time period’ (485).

The results of the second experiment demonstrated that the students in the two groups did not show any significant differences in learning the targeted grammatical structures. What is interesting is that ‘the more advanced students learned grammatical structures better via video rather than drill’(487). Secules et al. (1992) concluded that the students, as a whole, ‘learned grammar and vocabulary as well in the video-based curriculum as in oral drills, but with much less teacher time devoted to preparation of materials’(Ibid.).

Secules et al.’s (1992) findings provide some strong arguments in favour of the video-based curriculum, by showing that students’ listening comprehension could be significantly enhanced with video, but without any sacrifice of reading or writing skills or grammatical structures. In addition, video lessons have the possibility of lessening the teacher’s preparation time, according to their findings. Considering that advanced students benefit more from video lessons even in learning grammar and vocabulary, Secules et al. (1992) research shows there can be advantages in using video with advanced language students.

2.5.7.3 Dodds (1997)

Dodds (1997) investigated the effectiveness of the feature films on video on writing proficiency in a second-year German language class in a university. The structure of the German course consisted of work with the reading material and communicative exercises for 3 days a week and watching film twice a week. The film classes were made up of 15 to 20 minutes of film viewing and answering questions about the content of the film in a small group. The students progressed from answering simple one-sentence questions to answering short narratives. Vocabulary sheets were handed out before the first viewing. Each film segment of about 15 minutes length was watched twice. Dodds (1997) contended that this double viewing not only increased comprehension considerably but also ‘[enabled] students to become familiar enough with the content to write about it’(142).

In conjunction with listening and speaking practice, the films provided the context for students’ writing, which gradually increased up to a full page. Students maintained ‘a longitudinal record of their errors, which they [handed] in along with each corrected assignment’(145). The longitudinal record of their errors was submitted in conjunction with a portfolio of all their written work for final marks.

Dodds (1997) reported that students’ speaking abilities had noticeably improved in conjunction with their writing abilities through film classes, according to their self-reports. Dodd’s (1997)

investigation reveals the positive results of using the feature films in writing, thus implying another potential of video.

2.5.7.4 Rifkin (2000)

Rifkin (2000) deals with the effectiveness of video in the proficiency based advanced Russian conversation class. Rifkin (2000) believes that the feature films in the form of video can ‘make a major contribution to the curriculum for the advanced conversation class precisely in terms of class dynamics and preparation for both students and instructor’(64).

The structure of the film course is as follows: at the beginning of the semester, the class ‘[worked] on a list of syntactical devices to make a paragraph out of a string of sentences. Then for a few weeks, students [focused] exclusively on narration, description, and comparison—functions associated with the advanced level of oral proficiency’(66). In the middle of the semester, the film classes started. The class watched a film and was asked to retell the story of the film from various characters’ points of view and in the second class of the film the class was asked to argue with one another supporting one of the characters. In the last class of the film course, students discussed the issues raised in the film in a group. Throughout the semester students’ pair work/group work was recorded and the students were asked to listen to their tapes and write a one-page analysis on their own progress.

Rifkin (2000) reports that the effects of these film classes are impressive. The significant difference in results between pre-course oral proficiency interview and the oral proficiency interview as the final exam reveals that ‘all the students have made significant progress in their speaking skills, demonstrating... the ability to conduct narration and description in all time frames in paragraph-length discourse on numerous topics, even if not consistently’(67).

Rifkin’s research (2000) demonstrates how effective video classes can be to advanced level learners’ speaking improvement. The films provide the learners with meaningful topics to discuss, which is very highly likely to happen in real life where learners are surrounded by a spate of films.

2.5.8 Video and Research into Advance Organisers

In addition to research into the effectiveness of video materials, some recent research into advance organisers has been conducted in conjunction with video. Research into advance organisers seems to take two related courses. Some research deals with the role of advance organisers in

comprehending video materials and others address video as an advance organiser to other texts. Furthermore, a few studies extend their interest to subtitles on video.

2.5.8.1 What is the advance organiser and how is it related to video?

The word advance organiser was first used by Ausubel (1960) to describe the process of drawing what is known from the learners to help their learning of what is new. Ausubel, Novak & Hanesian (1978) defined an advance organiser as ‘appropriately relevant and inclusive introductory materials that are maximally clear and stable...introduced in advance of the learning material itself, used to facilitate establishing a meaningful learning set’(170-71). Therefore, research into advance organisers is research into the effectiveness of linking what is new to what is familiar in order to comprehend the given text. One of the reasons why this advance organiser research is important in relation to the video texts is that, as Calmy & Nisbet (1992) point out, ‘without preliminary preparation for a video, students risk developing feelings of resistance and intolerance to material that is not understandable’(cited in Herron, Cole, York & Linden 1998: 238).

This research interest in advance organisers in relation to video appears to be very active in the French language teaching and learning field. A group of researchers actively conduct their investigations in cooperation with each other. These studies of advance organisers such as Hanley et al. (1995), Herron (1994), Herron et al. (1995), and Herron et al. (1998) were all conducted fairly recently.

2.5.8.2 Herron (1994)

Herron (1994) deals with the effectiveness of using an advance organiser on the video text in the French language classroom at a university level. Herron (1994) claims that no empirical study ‘has tested the effect of an advance organiser to aid in the comprehension of a text that combines both visual and auditory learning, i.e., a video’(190) although some studies examined the effectiveness of advance organisers on the comprehension of written passages, oral texts, and pictures. Herron’s investigation (1994) was conducted with 38 beginning level French students for a semester, using 10 videos from the *French in Action* video series. The advance organiser was provided in the form of several short sentences written on the board in French which summarised major scenes in an upcoming video sequence in chronological order.

Herron (1994) compared the results of 10 listening comprehension tests (6 items each), taken after watching each video, of two groups of students: the advance organiser + video group and the

video only group. Results showed that the students in the advance organiser + video group outperformed the control group students.

With the results in favour of the advance organiser + video group, Herron (1994) maintains that 'providing background information and contextual clues to upcoming information is helpful to comprehension of the new material'(194) through not only directing the students' attention to the new material but facilitating 'their processing and retention of component information'(Ibid.) from former material. She also mentions that preparing that kind of advance organiser does not give the teacher another burden because it takes only 5 minutes for the teacher to prepare 6 sentences functioning as an advance organiser. As Herron (1994) says, students are highly likely to benefit from 'a similar TV Guide framework'(196).

Herron's investigation (1994) into the usefulness of the advance organiser on video seems to be relatively simple but to the point. It confirms what the theories have said about listening comprehension, the importance of purposeful listening and of connecting the new to the familiar which was indicated by the schema theory.

2.5.8.3 Herron, Hanley & Cole (1995)

Herron, Hanley & Cole (1995) were also concerned with the advance organiser to the video texts. However, their concern was no longer whether the advance organiser was effective. Based on Herron's study (1994) which confirmed the effectiveness of the advance organiser, Herron et al.'s study (1995) was a step further in the advance organiser research. They compared two different advance organiser strategies using the same video text. One type of advance organiser was called 'description only' where the teacher read aloud 6 sentences (not written on board) summarising the upcoming video scenes in chronological order, and the other was called 'description + pictures' where the teacher showed pictures related to the 6 sentences she/he read aloud at the same time.

The experiment was conducted with 39 second semester beginning French students at an American university for 15 weeks, using 12 videos from *French in Action*. The results of the 12 listening comprehension tests after each video viewing taken by the students showed that the students in the description + pictures group performed better than the students in the 'description only' group.

Herron et al. (1995) surmised that the pictures 'might have provided particularly rich contextual support to the information contained'(393) in the oral description. They also maintained that 'visual organisers can help beginning students overcome comprehension deficits'(Ibid.) Based on

the results, Herron et al. (1995) concluded that beginning-level university French students' listening 'comprehension and retention of information in a French video series' (393) benefited significantly more from the combined advance organiser of the oral and visual than the oral only advance organiser. Even though the researchers did not mention it, this study seems to echo the dual coding theory about the processing and retention of two different types of information (oral and visual), which will be discussed later (2.5.9).

2.5.8.4 Herron, Cole, York & Linden (1998)

Herron, Cole, York & Linden (1998) point out that teachers are 'still learning how to facilitate the authentic listening practice [video] provides' (238), even if video has become a very popular tool in the foreign language classroom. Herron et al. (1998) mention that video can be very threatening to some learners who do not understand well the authentic speech in it, and emphasise the importance of providing students with some help in the form of advance organisers before the video viewing.

In their research into advance organisers to video, Herron et al. (1998) compare two different types of advance organisers: the declarative advance organiser and the interrogative advance organiser. Herron et al. (1998) put 67 university students of a beginning-level French course in three different conditions. One group was provided with the declarative advance organiser in the form of the teacher reading aloud 6 sentences which summarised the upcoming video scenes in chronological order before they watched any of the 10 videos from *French in Action*. Another group was provided with the same 6 sentences read aloud in question form together with three suggested possible answers. The third group was the control group which did not have any advance organisers. All the students took 5 tests immediately after they watched the video.

Herron et al. (1998) found that students having an advance organiser scored significantly higher than students without one. However, they could not find any significant differences in test scores between the two groups of students having different advance organiser treatments. Therefore, Herron et al. (1998) hypothesis that students in the interrogative advance organiser condition would perform better was not proved. They suggest two possible explanations for that result. First, it is possible that 'students were so focused on finding the answers to the initial questions that they missed material needed for the test' (244). Or it could be explained as the effectiveness of the simple declarations about what would be observed in the video.

As Herron et al. (1998) themselves mention, their research offers 'yet another effective advance organiser strategy: the teacher could ask students a series of questions and supply several possible answers for students to contemplate while viewing the video' (245). Through showing better

performance of the students in the advance organiser groups than the students of the control group, their study proves the effectiveness of the advance organiser on the video texts once again, and provides the teacher with options in relation to choosing the type of the advance organiser.

2.5.8.5 Hanley, Herron & Cole (1995)

The above three studies can be said to focus on how best to introduce video in the foreign language classroom, as Herron et al. (1998) state. Hanley et al.'s (1995) direction of research is slightly different from the above three. Hanley et al. (1995) used video as an advance organiser and compared its effect with another advance organiser, the pictures and teacher narrative.

Hanley et al. (1995) compared the effects of the two advance organisers on comprehension and retention of a written passage with 62 child French language learners enrolled in the 5th grade at an elementary school. Hanley et al. (1995) put the children into two different groups: the pictures + teacher narrative group and the video group for a semester. In the video group, the children watched the video from the corresponding series, *Ici la France* (1988) to the written passage before they received a copy of the written passage out of the 12 passages selected from the Valette series, *Bonjour* (1987). Children, in the pictures + teacher narrative group, 'listened to the teacher read the narrative of the video as she showed four consecutive, coloured pictures (magazine cut-outs) that helped illustrate the meaning of the narrative' (Hanley et al. 1995: 60). Each written passage was tested once per week by an immediate test, and another test was conducted midway through the semester for passages 1-6 and at the end of the semester for passages 7-12.

On immediate tests, the mean score of the video group was significantly higher than the mean score of the pictures + teacher narrative group. And on the midterm and final tests, students in the video condition outperformed the students in the pictures + teacher narrative group, even if on the midterm the differences in the scores were not very significant.

Based on these findings, Hanley et al. (1995) maintain that the dynamic advance organiser (video) 'proved to be more effective in aiding comprehension and retention' (63) among two advance organisers: a static one and a dynamic one. They explain this as 'the inherent strength of video to contextualise better than still pictures' and as 'a tighter contextual fit between the video advance organiser and the subsequent written passage' (Ibid.). In addition, the results of the midterm and final test seem to be due to 'the ability of contextualised videos to provide a more memorable background store of information than static pictures and a teacher narrative' (Ibid.).

In the study, Hanley et al. (1995) show the effectiveness of the video materials as an advance organiser in addition to their richness as a text in the foreign language learning context.

2.5.8.6 Chiquito's (1995) and Chung's (1999) studies of the AO+captions

Chiquito (1995) and Chung (1999) extended their studies of the effectiveness of video materials to including captions as well as the advance organiser (AO). Both studies investigated the effectiveness of advance organisers and captions on the video text, but in different learning contexts.

- **Chiquito (1995)**

Chiquito's study (1995) was conducted with 36 advanced students of Spanish at higher educational institutions in Norway using two video scenes about a young Colombian couple planning to get married from *operacion Futuro*, a learning hypermedia application for advanced students of Spanish. Chiquito (1995) put students into 6 different groups: one group had written advance organisers, another group oral advance organisers, the third both written + oral advance organisers, the fourth video clip AOs, the fifth only captioning, and the final group was the control group that had none of them. After each video scene viewing, students' comprehension and recall were checked by means of a test of 10 comprehension questions for each video scene, and students' recreation of the dialogues as close to verbatim as possible regarding lexical and syntactical elements.

Chiquito (1995) found that 'the relative frequencies of correct answers did not vary much between the groups using different types of AOs'(218), except that the students with oral AOs significantly outperformed on the tests the students with other AOs or captioning. She also found that in both scenes correct recall became higher for the students with the use of AOs or captioning than the students without. With regards to the effect of combined AOs on students' comprehension of the video, there was 'no consistent pattern of association between the use of combined versus single AOs and correct answers'(219). However, students' recall was found to be positively correlated with the use of combined AOs for only Scene I.

As for captioning, no significant differences in students' scores were found between advance organiser groups and the captioning group. However, in Scene I, recall was higher for the students with AOs than for the students with captioning.

Based on her results, Chiquito (1995) maintained that advance organisers and captioning 'do have an effect on comprehension' although 'the effect varies according to what the students are supposed to achieve (e.g. understanding or recall) and/or the nature of the material (e.g. the video scenes) they work with'(220).

Chiquito (1995) tried to find through her research not only whether just advance organisers and captions were aiding students' comprehension and recall of the video texts, but which types of advance organisers could be more effective.

- Chung (1999)

Chung's investigation (1999) with 183 Chinese college students (4th year non-English majors) also addresses the effectiveness of captioning as well as of advance organisers. Chung (1999) put the students under four different teaching conditions: the advance organiser group, the captions group, the captions plus advance organisers group, and the control group which had only video without any other help. Each group of students saw four different video segments from the *Family Album, U. S. A.: Book I*, and then took four sets of comprehension tests, one for each video.

The advance organiser was provided in the form of the teacher's reading aloud in Chinese six to eight sentences about the video segment, and in the captioning group the video segment with the captions was watched twice consecutively. The tests were composed of ten multiple-choice items.

Chung's (1999) results demonstrated that the combined group was the most successful in the tests, the caption group was the second, the advance organiser group was the third, and the control group was the least successful. In this particular investigation, captions seem to have better effects than advance organisers. The statistical analysis showed that 'no significant difference between the group using the two techniques combination and that using captions only, nor between the group using advance organisers only and that using none of the techniques'(303). Chung (1999) mentioned the possibility that 'the reason why the advance organisers did not work was because they were presented orally rather than in writing' in spite of students' familiarity of written texts. Based on her findings, Chung (1999) concluded that captions could be very effective by giving students 'the opportunity to receive visual as well as auditory messages'(303), which contradicts Chiquito's conclusion above (1995).

2.5.9 The Visual Aspects of Video and Dual-Coding Theory

2.5.9.1 The visual elements in communication

Many research findings have pointed out the visual elements in video materials as a main advantage which video can provide over audio-only medium. Focusing on the significance of vision in listening comprehension, Willis (1983a) lists the visual elements in communication such as the visual background of the physical setting and the participants' interaction, and more specific features such as posture, proxemics, gesture, facial expression, and eye contact, which Allan

(1985) also identifies as the visual aspects in normal communication situations. Pointing out that video provides visual support, Allan (1985) claims that ‘video’s moving pictures also help learners concentrate because they provide a focus of attention while they listen’(49).

The results of Mueller’s (1980) experiment uphold the importance of the visual elements. Mueller (1980) investigated the effect of visuals on the listening comprehension process with beginning university German students in America. Through his experiment where he put his students in three different groups (the Visual Before group (where subjects saw the contextual visual before hearing the listening passage and recalling its contents in a written summary), the Visual After group (where subjects listened to the listening passage, saw the contextual visual, and then recalled the contents of the passage in a written summary), and No Visual group (where subjects did not see the contextual visual), Mueller (1980) found that both experimental groups of students performed better on the summary tests of the passage they had listened to than did the students in no visual group. He also found that the visual before group seemed to be more effective with less proficient learners than the visual after group. In conclusion, Mueller (1980) maintained that ‘appropriate contextual visuals can enhance listening comprehension recall’(340).

Hayes & Birnbaum’s (1980) experiments with preschoolers also emphasise the importance of the visual aspect of the input. Through the three experiments using television cartoons, Hayes & Birnbaum (1980) found that young children ‘focus their attention on visual features of television shows and attend less closely to other characteristics’(415) such as auditory inputs.

2.5.9.2 Dual-coding theory

If learners need the visual in addition to the verbal to comprehend the text better, video seems to be an effective means of providing these essential visual elements to learners. Kelley (1985) maintained that providing language learners with audio-only materials was equal to depriving them of ‘the wholeness, the totality of human communication’, and more importantly ‘depriving them of vital clues to meaning’ because ‘the visual features of the discourse play an essential role in communicating meanings’. In other words, putting learners in a situation where they can rely on only their ears to understand what is happening does not seem natural except in some circumstances such as phone calls, radio broadcasts, and station announcements, etc. In addition, it does not seem fair to the learners because communication does not only happen through the verbal channel. It also happens through the nonverbal channels. Therefore, it is not surprising that learners can ‘derive more information from two sources than from one alone’(Kellerman 1990: 279). And this mention of information from two sources is reminiscent of the dual-coding theory.

According to the dual-coding theory (originated by Paivio 1971; Clark & Paivio 1991 and extended by Mayer & Sims 1994), information is generally processed through one of the two independent channels. Verbal information is processed through one channel and nonverbal information such as the visual is processed through the other channel. Information can be processed through both channels. Both of the types of information presented through the two channels are processed by means of constructing referential connections between the two mental representations built into the learner's working memory (Mayer & Sims 1994). This is called referential processing and 'has an additive effect on recall' (Najjar 1996: 134). As a matter of fact, 'learning is better when the information is referentially processed through two channels than when the information is processed through only one channel. Referential processing may produce this additive effect because the learner creates more cognitive paths that can be followed to retrieve the information' (Ibid.).

2.5.9.3 Dual-coding theory and video

Therefore, according to the dual-coding theory, information needs to be presented through two channels so that the information can be processed through two channels, thus making learning better through the additive effect created by the learner's use of more cognitive processes. If that is applied to the language teaching and learning field, it comes down to the question of what kind of medium can effectively present information through two channels. Video seems to be one of the best answers to the question because it can present information in both ways, i.e., verbally and nonverbally. More specifically, video can present a verbal text by means of soundtracks with a synchronised nonverbal or visual text.

In addition to presenting information through two channels, video seems to have lots of merits as a medium. A lot of studies on video have pointed out the effectiveness and advantages in using video, as discussed earlier.

2.5.9.4 Dual-coding theory and multimedia

More recently, as technology is developing at a dramatic speed, people interested in using more than one medium for language learning started to explore using so-called interactive video or multimedia. Multimedia is the use of more than one medium to present information, such as text, graphics, animation, pictures, video, sound, etc. Since 'these media can now be integrated using a computer, there has been a virtual explosion of computer-based multimedia instructional applications' (Najjar 1996: 129). There have been not a few studies concerning language learning in multimedia environments, such as Chun & Plass (1996a; 1996b; 1997) in addition to the studies with regards to multimedia learning in general such as Mayer & Sims (1994) and Najjar (1996).

2.5.9.4.1 Mayer & Sims (1994)

Mayer & Sims (1994) investigated the contiguity effect (which occurs when verbal and visual materials are presented contiguously rather than separately), the role of experience in the contiguity effect, and the role of ability in the contiguity effect in a multimedia environment using computers. Mayer & Sims (1994) conducted two experiments with 86 and 97 university students respectively who lacked extensive prior domain-specific knowledge. One group of subject students received verbal and visual information concurrently, another group successively, and the control group did not receive any information on the domain specific knowledge about which they were required to take tests at all. Verbal information was presented in the form of narration delivered by computer, and visual information in the form of animation delivered by computer.

As a result, Mayer & Sims (1994) found that the group of students who received the two modes of information concurrently outperformed the other two groups of students. This so-called contiguity effect is stronger for the students lacking in prior knowledge in the subject domain than for those having prior experience in the area. The contiguity effect is also strong for ‘high-spatial ability students but not for low-spatial ability students’(Mayer & Sims 1994: 399). In other words, ‘domain-specific knowledge compensates for uncoordinated instruction [through two different media], whereas spatial ability enhances coordinated instruction’(Mayer & Sims 1994: 400). Therefore, less experienced learners in the subject area seem to benefit more from two coordinated media, and high spatial ability students may benefit more through building more easily mental connections between two modes of information. In conclusion, with regard to dual-coding theory for multimedia learning, Mayer & Sims (1994) maintain that ‘structural understanding occurs only when referential connections between verbal and visual representations are made’(400).

2.5.9.4.2 Najjar (1996)

Najjar (1996) tried to find some empirical evidence to support the claim that multimedia helps people learn. Najjar (1996) examined over 200 studies by means of meta-analyses to compare learning via classroom lectures to learning via interactive videodisc or some other kind of computer-based instruction. According to the results of his meta-analysis, ‘learning was higher when the information was presented via computer-based multimedia systems than traditional classroom lectures’ and appeared to ‘take less time when multimedia instruction was used’ (130). Najjar (1996) explains the possible reasons why multimedia seems to have a positive effect on learning: instructional method, control of learning space, and novelty. The interactivity of computer-based multimedia as an instructional method seems to have a strong positive effect on learning’(Najjar 1996: 131), and self-paced learning can be ‘a more effective way to learn because

the learner can move on to new material when the learner is ready' (132). In addition, the novelty of the multimedia instruction can work as an advantage.

Nonetheless, not all those studies on multimedia learning report positive results. There are some studies reporting the negative results. The learning advantage does not seem to be consistent. Therefore, Najjar (1996) identifies some conditions which make multimedia learning more effective. He claims with empirical support of previous studies that 'multimedia information is most effective when it encourages the dual coding of information, the media clearly support one another, and the media are presented to learners with low prior knowledge or aptitude in the domain being learned'(142).

2.5.9.4.3 Chun & Plass (1996a; 1996b; 1997)

Chun & Plass's studies (1996a; 1996b; 1997) investigated the effects of multimedia in language learning contexts. In particular, Chun & Plass's studies focused on reading comprehension via multimedia. Chun & Plass's first two studies (1996a; 1996b) used the same subjects for two slightly different research purposes. The two studies (1996a; 1996b) were conducted with 160 second-year German students at three universities in California, employing the same multimedia programme *Cyberbuch* developed by researchers themselves which 'provides students reading German texts with annotations for words in the form of text, pictures, and video'(Chun & Plass 1996a: 185). The procedure of the two studies consisted of five stages. First of all, students went to the computer lab for a brief introduction to the multimedia programme and were shown a video preview to a German short story. They then read the story and looked up the meaning of the vocabulary they came across freely in any form of annotations. When completing the story, students took a vocabulary test and wrote a recall protocol (summary of the story) in their mother tongue. The two studies, however, showed their differences in purposes in that the first one (1996a) focused on vocabulary acquisition via multimedia whereas the second one (1996b) on reading comprehension.

- Chun & Plass (1996a)

Chun & Plass's first study (1996a) was concerned with vocabulary acquisition as one of the integral components in the process of reading comprehension in language learning. In particular, Chun & Plass (1996a) showed their interest in incidental learning of vocabulary, the use and effectiveness of computerised dictionaries, and look-up behaviour of L2 readers. Through three studies (study 1 with 36 students, study 2 with 103 students, and study 3 with 21 students), they found that new annotated words were remembered with 21.1 - 26.5 % accuracy which is higher than expected from previous research, with no substantial difference between scores on immediate and unannounced delayed vocabulary tests. Chun & Plass (1996a) believed that this suggested

‘successful short-term recall and a possible hypermnesia effect for remembering words with picture + text annotations’(194). With regard to the effectiveness of multimedia annotations, Chun & Plass (1996a) reported on the ‘significantly higher scores for words annotated with text + pictures as compared to the other types of annotations’(193). As for the relationship between look-up behaviour and performance on the vocabulary test, no correlation between them was found.

- Chun & Plass (1996b)

Chun & Plass’s second study (1996b) was concerned with whether multimedia was facilitating reading comprehension. They raised three research questions concerning this: whether reading comprehension was facilitated by an advance organiser video preview for top-down processing; whether reading comprehension was facilitated by multimedia annotations for bottom-up processing of single vocabulary items; and whether there was a correlation between reading comprehension scores and vocabulary acquisition (Chun & Plass 1996b: 504). As for the first question, Chun & Plass (1996b) investigated ‘whether specific components or types of information contained in the advance organiser facilitated comprehension, as measured by whether they were included in the recall protocols’(512), and the results were in favour of the video advance organiser as facilitators of comprehension. As regards the second question, Chun & Plass (1996b) looked at the performance of the students in the recall protocol and found that the mean number of propositions mentioned in the recall protocols [containing words with visual and verbal annotations] was higher than the mean number of propositions containing words with only verbal annotations or with no annotations at all. Chun & Plass (1996b) believed that ‘annotating individual words both visually and verbally contributes to better overall comprehension than annotating words only verbally or not at all, supporting the dual-coding theory’(513). As for the third question, only a moderate correlation was found between the vocabulary test scores and the reading comprehension scores.

- Chun & Plass (1997)

Chun & Plass’s study (1997) seems to be a proposal for ‘a model of an interactive approach to L2 reading with multimedia’(72). In particular, this study was concerned with the multimedia aids for text comprehension, focusing on the dual-coding theory. In conclusion, Chun & Plass (1997) pointed out that ‘studies should be designed to determine the effectiveness of specific features of multimedia materials for specific types of learners, for specific learning tasks, and for specific cognitive processes’(72).

2.5.10 The Potential of Videotaping

2.5.10.1 The advantages of videotaping students' performance

Another interest related to video in the language classroom is in using the video camera to record the students' performance. Klapper (1991) lists three advantages of filming students' language performance. First of all, recording students' performances offers the opportunity to review and analyse them, thus eventually to improve them. In particular, Orban & McLean (1990) emphasise the importance of self-evaluation of students' own performance. They seem to underscore the value of self-awareness in learning. Most of the investigators conducting their investigations into the potential of video recordings focus on the importance of playback sessions or evaluations (Broady & Le Duc 1995; Klapper 1991).

Secondly, video recording can be a great motivator by providing students with a goal to work towards, as Allan (1983) and Broady & Le Duc (1995) also maintain. Finally, 'the inevitable improvisation and repair strategies required in unscripted performance' (Klapper 1991: 12) can give the students the taste of real life conversation. Broady & Le Duc (1995) also point out the risk the students take in front of the camera, which they will be faced with in real life communication.

Klapper (1991) also mentions the kinds of language activities which could be filmed such as role play, interview, debates, discussions, game show simulations, chat shows, simulated board meetings, news programmes and weather forecasts (12). Orban & McLean (1990) categorise the sorts of language students would use in front of the camera into three types, according to how much support they would get from outside: text-supported speech, speech supported by a (near-) native interlocutor and speech without external support.

2.5.10.2 Two case studies examining the potential of video recordings

The next question should be whether the recordings are effective in students' learning. Broady & Le Duc (1995) report on two case studies which examined the potential of video recordings in the language classroom. The first case study was conducted with university science students taking French classes. The students produced a scripted scenario based on the theme 'A weekend in Paris' and filmed a kind of play in the university's TV studio. In this way, students could be encouraged to use their learned French, and most of them expressed in the follow-up reports that they had benefited from the experience of 'putting their French to some purpose outside the classroom' (75). The second case study was time-limited news items. Around 15 advanced students (three sub-groups of five) produced 'a three minute television report with an introduction from a presenter, followed by a report and interview' (76). In addition, students had the evaluation

sessions in the form of oral discussions in the target language. After three such production activities, students reported that their ‘confidence in their oral French had improved significantly’ (Ibid.).

Broady & Le Duc’s case studies (1995) reveal students’ positive responses to video recordings. Many students commented on the benefits of filming themselves, even if the case studies did not report on the objective test of improved students’ language abilities. As Orban & McLean (1990) maintain, video, ‘coupled with self-evaluation’ seems to ‘provide the students the tangible proof of how well they speak and how much their language skills can improve with time and effort, a key motivating factor for sustaining language learning’ (662).

2.5.10.3 The use of video recordings in teacher training

Literature on using locally produced video recordings is concerned not only with recordings of students’ performances, but with teachers’ performances. Some research deals with videotaping teachers’ performances in the classroom and using the recordings in teacher training. Allan (1983) refers to the video camera as ‘an objective eye’ (84) because video recordings of the teachers’ classrooms can be a useful way of helping teachers review and ‘analyse their own performances objectively’ (Ibid.). In the same vein, Wallace (1981) accentuates the objectivity of the video recordings when he says that videotaping ‘provides some kind of objective record of what actually took place...this has meant that the interactive phase of ELT is available for study and analysis’ (8).

In this sense, using these video recordings of teachers’ classrooms in teacher training seems to be a matter of course. In addition to seeing themselves with an objective eye, video recordings afford the opportunity to give a meticulous examination to the teaching performances through repeated viewing. On top of that, if locally produced video recordings are used in teacher training, they would give greater relevance to the teacher trainees’ own situations (Cullen 1991). In this case, training courses can offer the trainees the opportunity to move from practice to theory by means of showing relevant video recordings of the teaching practice to the trainees. Indicating that trainees should regard the recordings as examples of teaching practice not as models, Cullen (1991) emphasises teachers’ reflection and self-awareness through seeing themselves through lenses in teacher training.

Laycock & Bunnag (1991) also stress the importance of trainees’ self-awareness on teacher training courses when they report on the INSET (in-sessional teacher training) programme using the video camera which took place for experienced graduate secondary teachers over two semesters. In the INSET programme, trainee teachers gave teaching practices in real lower

secondary classes four afternoons each week over the first semester, and during the second semester they went back to their home schools on a half timetable. The trainee teachers' teaching practices were recorded at three schools, and subgroups watched their recordings with viewing guides focusing on five points: learners' participation, awareness of learners, content management, teacher language, and support such as blackboard use. As regards the results of the programme, Laycock & Bunnag (1991) comment that viewing guides aided participants 'to perceive more accurately what took place in their lessons', and 'to make by themselves valid evaluations and suggestions as to how to change the teaching-learning procedures involved'(52).

The case studies once again demonstrate the value of seeing themselves perform with an objective eye. Raising self-awareness in both the performers and observers is another good result from it. If a video camera is easily available, this video taping can be a practical suggestion in many situations in order to analyse teachers' practice as well as students' language performance.

2.5.11 The Criteria for Choosing Appropriate Video Materials

As mentioned earlier, there are very many kinds of video materials to choose from. Even if the advantages of video have been referred to along with the effectiveness of video as a language learning medium, it does not necessarily mean that all video materials can be useful to all learners. Therefore, the matter of choosing appropriate video for the particular learners cannot be overemphasised. Arcario (1991) mentions two sets of criteria to be considered when it comes to choosing video. The first set of criteria is for the case when video is used to present language input to the learners. This set of criteria highlights comprehensibility, and the factors affecting comprehensibility are as follows: the degree of visual support, the clarity of picture and sound, the density of language, the speech delivery (clarity of speech, speech rate, accent), the language content (grammatical structures, language functions, colloquial expressions), and the level of difficulty of the language (Arcario 1991). The second set of criteria is for choosing a video for the particular learners: interest, appropriateness of content, length of sequence, independence of sequence, availability of related materials (Arcario 1991), the possibility of the integration into the course system (Kerridge 1983), and format and standard (Joiner 1990).

Allan (1985) gives a list of things to try when choosing a video. The chooser should view the material before they teach it, preferably without sound first time through, and note their thoughts about what they have seen. And they should view it again with sound. Then they should try to list the reasons why they might use the programme. Finally, they could note ideas about how they will use the material (Allan 1985: 23-4).

The above advice from several researchers can be said to be quite practical, considering that a lot of teachers use non-ELT video programmes such as off-air recording made by themselves. When choosing or making the video materials themselves, the teachers could bear the above criteria in mind.

2.5.12 Non-native Speaker Teachers and Benefits of Using Video

Video can also help overcome the difficulties non-native speaker teachers might experience in their teaching practice. The difficulties non-native teachers face in teaching English can be categorised roughly into three: language related difficulties, low confidence, and lack of knowledge of the target culture. Language related difficulties non-native teachers face are well recounted in several studies. Reves & Medgyes (1994) report that vocabulary including idioms and appropriateness is the most commonly mentioned problem area of the non-native teachers who participated in their study. Speaking skills and fluency are reported as the next most common problems for the teachers. In particular, redundancy and clumsiness in the teachers' speech are pointed out as problems. Pronunciation is also mentioned as a problem area for the non-native teachers. De Almeida Mattos (1997) also pinpoints pronunciation as a major problem for non-native teachers. Tang (1997) refers to the non-native teachers' perception in Hong Kong that they are inferior to native teachers in speaking, pronunciation, listening, vocabulary, and reading. Zhou (1999) points out non-native teachers' deficiency in English proficiency. Maum (2002) identifies accent as an area of challenge for non-native teachers. Pessoa & Sacchi (2002) find that none of the five female non-native teachers participated in their study feels competent enough to teach speaking, pronunciation, and listening in an ESL context. Kamhi-Stein (2000) also reports the non-native teachers' self-perceived language needs.

Kamhi-Stein (2000), Pessoa & Sacchi (2002), and Takada (2000) identify low confidence and 'self-perceived challenges to professional competence' (Kamhi-Stein 2000: 10) as difficulties non-native teachers face. Pessoa & Sacchi (2002) report that the subjects in their study (five non-native MA students in a TESOL programme participants, all of whom are also teachers in their own countries) referred to 'high level of anxiety and discomfort when teaching English as a Second Language' (10). Takada (2000) describes how non-native teachers' self-image is degraded when her students admire native teachers' oral fluency. Lee (2000) recounts a similar kind of experience she has as a non-native teacher in Canada.

The lack of cultural knowledge about the target countries is identified as another type of difficulty the non-native teachers face (De Almeida Mattos 1997; Kamhi-Stein 2000; Zhou 1999).

As one of the strategies that non-native teachers can use to overcome these difficulties, team teaching of native and non-native teachers has been suggested in several studies (Matsuda 1999; Tajino & Tajino 2000). In the situation however where team teaching is not a practical option, using audio and/or visual aids is suggested. Zhou (1999) suggests making good use of audio and visual aids in overcoming the problems non-native Chinese English teachers face in oral classes. A good type of audio and visual aid can be found in video which combines audio and visual aids. Kennedy (1983) points out that video could help language teachers with a weak command of the target language:

Video is used as a support for inadequately-trained teachers or teachers with a weak command of the language, presenting material which they would be unable to teach themselves. This approach could be useful in ESP programmes, with video programmes not only supplementing a teacher's lack of linguistic skills but also his lack of knowledge of the content area, as both native and non-native teachers often feel insecure... It must do something the teacher cannot do or does poorly (95-6).

Using video clips can be especially useful in teaching pronunciation, listening skills, and speaking skills, which have been pointed out as the areas non-native teachers do not feel comfortable or competent enough to teach. Instead of trying to teach these skills without any aids, bringing in native speakers into class in the form of video can not only help these non-native teachers overcome their difficulties but greatly benefit students. Through the medium of video (refer to 2.5.9) students can not only hear the sound but see from the native speakers' mouth when they say certain words/expressions how they act in certain situations. Video can also help teachers teach students the target culture (refer to 2.5.5.2). Showing some video clips to students might be much more effective than teachers' oral explanation of certain cultural aspects. Also by using video non-native teachers can experience the target culture second hand and their knowledge of the culture may expand. And if the non-native teachers realise they can teach effectively with the help of video, the chance of their self-image and their confidence being boosted is increased.

2.5.13 Section Summary

In this section, in the effort to explore the ways of teachers' linguistic proficiency two main ways of organised teacher training and self-directed learning were discussed and using video for language learning was presented focusing on its positive effects. Benefits of using video were also discussed in relation to difficulties non-native speaker teachers experience in teaching.

As mentioned above, although video cannot be the same as having the firsthand experience of being in the target language speaking environment, the attraction of having a peep at the target language culture through video cannot be emphasised enough along with the visual help video can afford. Allan (1991) summarises the attraction of video as follows:

Through this rich combination of vision and sound we have access to phenomena we might not otherwise ever meet, fact and fiction presented through the lenses of other cultures, all manner of languages and language varieties used in all manner of contexts (54).

2.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, literature covering research interest of the current study has been reviewed. Non-native speaker teachers' need for target language improvement was discussed and issues about linguistic proficiency were examined. Self-assessment of linguistic proficiency was then inspected, and finally how to improve teachers' language proficiency was explored. In addition, using video materials was suggested as a means of improving teachers' language proficiency, with emphasis on its positive effects on language learners.

3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

As noted in the Introduction chapter, the current study investigates Korean English teachers' perception of their linguistic proficiency and how they can improve their linguistic proficiency through the use of video. The investigation employs both quantitative and qualitative methods. The combination of the two approaches has been supported by many researchers including Chaudron (1987), Nunan (1989), and Van Lier (1988). They point out 'the advantage of research projects which include both a quantitative and qualitative dimension' and 'the mutual dependence of the two research traditions' (Nunan 1989: 10).

A quantitative approach to research is 'generally concerned with counting and measuring' data (Blaikie 2000: 232) and 'emphasises causality, variables, and a heavily pre-structured approach to research' (Bryman 1988: 64). A quantitative approach can 'provide authoritative survey data and relate diverse factors', and also 'assess the incidence, epidemiology and boundaries of problems of the situation under scrutiny' (Bullock et al 1992: 85). A qualitative approach, in contrast, is 'often viewed as an intensive or micro-perspective which relies upon case studies or evidence gleaned from individuals or particular situations' (Bullock et al 1992: 85). Therefore, a qualitative approach leads to 'a much greater understanding of the meaning and context of behaviours and the processes that take place within observed patterns of interrelated factors' (Ibid.: 86). The two research traditions however are not necessarily distinct. Yin (1993) maintains that the qualitative and quantitative distinction for case studies is not appropriate, arguing that the form of data collection for case studies can be qualitative or quantitative. Strauss & Corbin (1998) and Verma & Mallick (1999) point out that some of the data collected through a qualitative method may be quantified. Marsh (1982) indicates that some data collected through a quantitative method provide in-depth information involving 'a sufficiently complete picture of the context'(124).

The two research methods therefore can be merged in a study, and they can be combined in two different ways. One way to combine the qualitative and quantitative methods is to 'triangulate the two sets of data (that is, to check the different findings against each other)', and the other is to allow different topics or issues within a study to be 'approached from different angles'(Bryman & Burgess 1994: 222). In the current study, the first method was adopted. A quantitative approach employing survey and self-assessment tests was used to 'map out general patterns' (Ibid.) of the Korean English teachers' assessment of their own linguistic proficiency and their opinions about issues related to linguistic proficiency because statistical evidence or information that a quantitative approach allowed was needed to identify the general patterns. Case studies were employed to support and triangulate with the findings obtained through the

quantitative approach. In other words, data acquired from the case studies were used to provide support and evidence for data acquired from the quantitative approach. For example, case studies were used to compare the relationship between self-assessment and language tests, thereby providing evidence and support for the issue of the accuracy of self-assessment raised in data from the quantitative approach. They were also used to triangulate with the findings from the survey of the effectiveness of using video for teachers' language improvement. A qualitative component of the case study was also used to elucidate 'subjects' perspectives, process, and contextual detail' (Bryman 1992: 64). The interviews and classroom observations used in the case studies were intended to bring out rich contextual information about the subjects' learning process.

The research paradigm of the study, its design, form of data collection, and type of analysis can be summarised as follows. Both an explanatory and an exploratory/descriptive design have been adopted, both quantitative and qualitative data have been gathered through using both quantitative and qualitative techniques, and the data have been analysed quantitatively using statistical techniques and qualitatively using interpretive techniques.

This chapter is composed of six main sections: 1) research questions and hypotheses, 2) data gathering tools, 3) the subjects of the study, 4) data gathering procedures, 5) methods of data analysis and 6) summary.

3.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

This section presents the research questions and hypotheses for the current study. In order to answer the question 'how proficient in English do Korean English teachers perceive themselves to be and is there a way of helping these teachers improve their English without having to attend classes?', there are four main research questions and a number of sub-questions as well as four research hypotheses.

3.2.1 The Main Research Questions and Sub-questions

There are four main research questions. Each main research question has its own sub-questions. The main research questions are as follows: (I) what is the nature of Korean teachers' own perception of their proficiency in English as non-native speakers of English?; (II) what is the relationship between Korean teachers' perceived spoken language proficiency and other measures of their spoken proficiency?; (III) is there the need for and are there any ways of boosting teachers' language proficiency in the target language?; (IV) what is the effect of video on the teachers' language proficiency?

3.2.1.1 Research question I and its sub-questions

Research question I, ‘what is the nature of Korean teachers’ own perception of their proficiency as non-native speakers of English?’, has six sub-questions as follows:

1. What is the Korean English teachers’ assessment of their own language proficiency?
2. How confident are the teachers in using English?
3. What proportion of time in class do the teachers spend using English?
4. What has influenced the teachers’ perception of their proficiency, their confidence in using English, and/or the proportion of time they spend using English in class?
 - a. Do the teachers’ SA (self-assessment) scores correlate with their level of confidence in using English?
 - b. Is the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class related to their self-assessment scores and/or to their confidence?
 - c. Does the teachers’ age affect their self-assessment and/or confidence?
 - d. Does the teachers’ gender affect their self-assessment and/or confidence?
 - e. Does the amount of teaching experience the teachers have affect their self-assessment and/or confidence?
 - f. Does the experience of staying in English speaking countries for an extended period of time affect the teachers’ self-assessment and/or confidence?
 - g. Do university level teachers have higher self-assessment scores, greater confidence, and/or spend more time using English in class than secondary school teachers?
 - h. Do the teachers with a degree in ELT have higher self-assessment scores, greater confidence, and/or use English more in class?
 - i. Do the teachers teaching lower levels have lower self-assessment scores, lower confidence levels, and/or use English less in class?
 - j. Is the number of students the teachers have in class related to the teachers’ self-assessment, confidence, and/or the proportion of time they use English in class?
 - k. Is the number of hours they teach related to the teachers’ self-assessment, confidence, and/or the proportion of time they use English in class?
 - l. Has teacher training affected their self-assessment, confidence, and/or the proportion of time they use English in class?
 - m. Has the extent to which the teachers’ language improvement was covered during teacher training affected their self-assessment, confidence, and/or the proportion of time they use English in class?
 - n. Does having native speaker colleagues at school/university or the number of native speaker colleagues the teachers have affect their chances of talking to native speakers?

- o. Does having more opportunity to talk to native speaker colleagues affect their self-assessment, confidence, and/or the proportion of time they use English in class?
 - p. Does the frequency with which the teachers use English outside the classroom affect their self-assessment scores and/or confidence in using English?
5. What do the teachers think their main difficulties are in using English?
 6. How do the teachers think it affects themselves if they have a negative perception of their own language proficiency?

3.2.1.2 Research question II and its sub-questions

Research question II is ‘what is the relationship between Korean teachers’ perceived spoken language proficiency and other measures of their spoken language proficiency?’. Research question I deals with Korean teachers’ perceived language proficiency, but it does not focus on any particular aspects of their proficiency. Nonetheless, as pointed out in 1.2.1, Korean teachers tend to be good at reading skills, grammar, and vocabulary, while they are more likely to be poor at spoken forms of English, listening and speaking skills. In addition, the teachers are more likely to make an accurate assessment of those skills they are good at because they have been tested in those. On the other hand, the accuracy of the teachers’ self-assessment of their own spoken proficiency needs to be confirmed because there is a possibility that the teachers might not be accurate in assessing it due to the lack of tests in spoken proficiency that they have experienced. If the teachers’ self-assessment reflects other measures of language proficiency, it can benefit the teachers because they can have a clear idea of their own language proficiency just by making self-assessment. In addition, as seen in 2.4.5, self-assessment can provide many advantages. Therefore, it needs to be asked whether or not the teachers’ self-assessment of their spoken proficiency seems to reflect other measurements of their spoken language proficiency. Research question II has two sub-questions as follows:

1. Do the self-assessment scores for listening skills reflect the language test scores?
2. Do the self-assessment scores for speaking skills reflect the language test scores?

3.2.1.3 Research question III and its sub-questions

Research question III is ‘is there the need for and are there any ways of boosting teachers’ proficiency in the target language?’. This question is intended to confirm Korean teachers’ need to improve their linguistic proficiency identified in literature and to investigate the ways they have tried to improve their language proficiency. Research question III has five sub-questions as follows:

1. Do the teachers feel the need to improve their proficiency in the target language?
2. Why do they want to improve their linguistic proficiency?
3. Have the teachers tried any ways of improving their proficiency?
4. What kinds of methods have the teachers tried to improve their proficiency?
5. What do the teachers think can boost their English proficiency?
 - a. Are there any methods the teachers considered effective in improving their proficiency?
 - b. What methods are considered to be practical enough for them to try?

3.2.1.4 Research question IV and its sub-questions

Research question IV is ‘what is the effect of video on the teachers’ language proficiency?’, and has four sub-questions. The question was intended to find out teachers’ experience of and opinions about using video as a language learning medium as well as to confirm that using video can help boost Korean teachers’ actual and perceived spoken language proficiency. Video can be a very effective medium for language learning, as was discussed in 2.5. In addition, video seems likely to meet NNS teachers’ needs as advanced target language learners, because, as Allan (1985) contends, for these advanced learners in need of more exposure to the target language speaking environment video can be ‘the provider of real world experience’ (74) which most of them are unlikely to obtain elsewhere.

1. Do the teachers think video can be an effective way of boosting linguistic proficiency?
 - a. Have the teachers used video for themselves?
 - (1) Have the teachers used video to help improve their own linguistic proficiency?
 - (2) Do the teachers think using video can be an effective way of improving their own linguistic proficiency?
 - (3) Why do the teachers think video can be useful in improving their English?
 - b. Have the teachers used video in class?
 - (1) Have the teachers used video in class to help improve their students’ English?
 - (2) Do the teachers think they have incidental/indirect learning by teaching students through the use of video as well as benefiting students?
 - (3) Why do the teachers think video can be useful in improving their students’ English?
 - c. What kinds of video have been used and found effective?
 - (1) What kinds of video have the teachers used?
 - (2) What kinds of video have the teachers found effective?
 - d. How have the teachers used video?
 - (1) How have the teachers used video themselves?
 - (2) How have the teachers used video in class with their students?

- e. What do the teachers think are the advantages of video compared to other methods?
2. Can video help improve the teachers' spoken language proficiency?
 - a. Can video help improve the teachers' listening skills?
 - b. Can video help improve the teachers' speaking skills?
3. Does the teachers' perception of their language proficiency change according to the change in their spoken language proficiency as a result of using video?
4. Does the change in proficiency affect the teachers' use of English in the classroom?
 - a. Do the teachers use more English in their after-treatment class than in their before-treatment class?
 - b. Do the teachers use more Outer language (see 2.2.3 for explanation of this term) in their after-treatment class than in their before-treatment class?
 - c. Does the English the teachers use have a wider range of functions in their after-treatment class than in their before-treatment class?

3.2.2 The Research Hypotheses

Based on the above four research questions, four research hypotheses were devised. The four hypotheses are as follows:

1. Most of the teachers will not perceive their own linguistic proficiency as very high.
2. The teachers' perception of their own spoken language proficiency will not accurately reflect other measures of their spoken proficiency.
3. The teachers will feel the need to improve their linguistic proficiency.
4. The use of video in class or in self-directed learning will have a significant positive effect on teachers' spoken language proficiency.

3.3 *THE SUBJECTS OF THE STUDY AND SAMPLING*

The subjects of the current study are divided into two categories. One category includes the subjects who participated in a larger scale study and the other the ones who participated in both the larger scale study and the case studies. In other words, the participants in the case studies were selected from the participants in the larger scale study. As mentioned earlier, the larger scale study was used to map out the general patterns of the Korean English teachers' linguistic proficiency and of its related issues, and the case studies were employed in order to support and triangulate with the findings from the larger scale study.

3.3.1 The Subjects in the Larger Scale Study

The larger scale study was designed to identify Korean English teachers' self-assessed linguistic proficiency and the issues related to it. The subjects in the larger scale study were practising Korean English teachers at secondary schools and at university level institutions in Seoul, Korea. These subjects were asked to complete the survey questionnaire and two self-assessment tests. They were also requested to take a language test although refusal to do so was accepted. Secondary school teachers include the teachers teaching both at middle school and at high school. The teachers at university level include university teachers and teachers teaching at private language schools for adults, because there is not a clear boundary between the two in terms of the teachers' qualifications. Many of the university English teachers, in most cases, work part time in university and teach at a language school for adults to make ends meet. And the students who go to these language schools are mostly university students or graduates, and even some secondary school teachers. In most cases, the qualification of the teachers working in the language schools is considered to be comparable to that of teachers working in university.

The sampling method may be defined as a combination of simple random sampling and quota sampling. First, the researcher randomly selected 15 institutions at each level (secondary school and university) in Seoul, adopting the method of simple random sampling where 'no unit can appear more than once in the sample' (Moser & Kalton 1971: 81). Secondly, to increase the precision of a simple random sample, quota sampling was employed in each selected institution. To be more specific, the researcher identified links to those 30 selected institutions (15 at each level). With the help of those links, the researcher identified the number of English teachers and their gender and age in each institution. The researcher then selected subjects, considering their gender and age in order to reflect the proportion of gender and age among the English teachers at the particular school/institution where the sample was taken, adopting the quota sampling method where quotas of subjects are taken as sample according to their population in the group. The following precautions were also taken in the sampling process. An attempt to increase the sample size was made by delivering the questionnaires to 130 subjects (4 or 5 teachers in each institution). In addition, a high response rate was sought by hand-delivering the questionnaires and asking subjects to answer them on the spot when possible. In total, 60 questionnaires and self-assessment tests were delivered for secondary school teachers and 36 teachers returned the questionnaire and the self-assessment tests. The response rate for secondary school teachers was 60 %, and the number of secondary schools covered in the survey is 11. For university level teachers another 70 questionnaires and self-assessment tests were delivered and 42 teachers returned the questionnaire and the self-assessment tests. The response rate for university level teachers was also 60 %, and the number of university level institutions covered

in the survey is 10. As a result, 78 teachers (36 secondary school + 42 university level teachers) completed the questionnaire and self-assessment tests.

3.3.2 The Subjects in the Case Studies

The case studies were designed to provide evidence for findings from the larger scale study, in particular, accuracy of self-assessment and effects of video as a language learning medium. The subjects of the case studies were selected from the larger scale study participants on the basis of accessibility and comparability. Access was gained through the subjects' personal willingness to participate in the study. In order to ensure comparability between subjects, subjects with similar educational backgrounds and qualifications were chosen. The subjects were five practising teachers, teaching at a university level. The reasons why secondary school teachers were not selected are the following. First of all, it was judged that there were problems with comparability between university and secondary school teachers, since the university level teachers tended to be more proficient in English. The majority of university level teachers have a degree from an English speaking country as pointed out earlier, and the researcher's pilot study results also indicated the university level teachers' significantly higher self-assessment scores than secondary school teachers. Secondly, there were no secondary school teachers willing to participate in case studies within the specified time frame.

Among the five subjects, two were teaching in university, the other two were teaching at a private language school, and one teacher was teaching at both a university and a private language school. The five teachers' personal and educational backgrounds are set out below:

1. All five of them were female teachers.
2. The age range of the subjects was from 27 to 37: 27 (1), 29 (1), 33 (1), 34 (1), 37 (1).
However, if the control group is excluded, the age range of the subjects was from 33 to 37.
3. The range of their teaching experience was from 1 year to 6 years: one year (1), two years (1), four years (2), six years (1).
4. All of them had a MA degree in English Language Teaching (ELT) awarded either in England or in the US.
5. As far as their length of stay in an English speaking country was concerned, four teachers had stayed in an English speaking country for between 2.5 years and 4 years, and the fifth had stayed for 1.5 years.

The subjects in the case study were required to take self-assessment tests and language tests, to fill out study note forms, to be interviewed, and to be observed while teaching in class (twice respectively before the case study started and after finishing it, except for filling out the study

notes). Two teachers carried out self-study with video, one teacher used video in class with her students, and the other two functioned as a control group.

3.4 DATA GATHERING TOOLS

Several data gathering tools were used in order to collect all the data concerning the Korean English teachers' self-assessed proficiency, the relationship between self-assessment of the teachers' spoken proficiency and other measures of their spoken proficiency, their need for and methods of improving their proficiency, and the effect of video on teachers' language improvement. For the larger scale study, one survey questionnaire and two self-assessment tests were used. Case studies were conducted using six tools: two self-assessment tests, language tests, interviews, self-study or teaching with video, study notes, and classroom observations.

3.4.1 The Larger Scale Study

The data gathering tools involved in the larger scale study were a survey questionnaire and self-assessment tests.

3.4.1.1 The survey questionnaire

A questionnaire was used as a tool to investigate Korean English teachers in relation to their language proficiency. According to Cohen et al. (2000), the advantages of questionnaires over interviews are as follows:

- more likely to be reliable;
- anonymity of the questionnaires encourages greater honesty;
- more economical than the interview in terms of time and money;
- the possibility of mailing them.

The following are disadvantages pointed out (Ibid.):

- low return rate;
- questionnaires using only closed questions may lack coverage of authenticity;
- questionnaires using only open questions may discourage the respondents from answering them for one reason or another;
- problems with people of limited literacy;
- in contrast to the appropriate speed at which interviews can be conducted, the speed at which the questionnaire is filled in cannot be controlled (some respondents might answer hurriedly).

A questionnaire was chosen over an interview method because it was easier to administer and analyse and less time-consuming than an interview method. In addition, the anonymity questionnaires could provide was thought to be another advantage over an interview. Although an interview was more likely to produce more in-depth information about the subjects, in-depth information was not required in this stage of the study.

The survey questionnaire in appendix 1-5 was designed to investigate a number of characteristics of Korean English teachers in relation to their linguistic proficiency. Some of the questions were taken from Medge's questionnaire (1994). The questionnaire consists of questions in five sections. The first section mainly concerns the teachers' personal details plus the frequency with which they use English outside the classroom. The second section deals with the teachers' learning experience at secondary schools and in university. The third part of the questionnaire asks about the teachers' experience of teacher training. The teachers' needs for, and methods of, improving their linguistic proficiency are investigated in the fourth part of the questionnaire. The final section of the questionnaire deals with the teachers' experience of and opinions about using video for their own or for their students' language improvement.

The question types used are varied: dichotomous, multiple-choice (both single answer mode and multiple answer mode), rating scales, open-ended questions. In particular, open-ended questions were used in the hope of attracting 'the gems of information that otherwise might not have been caught in the questionnaire' (Cohen et al. 2000: 255).

3.4.1.2 The self-assessment (SA) tests

Self-assessment was used as a tool to identify Korean English teachers' assessment of their own linguistic proficiency. The reason why self-assessment was chosen over a language test was explained in 1.2.4 and in 2.4.1. Two self-assessment (SA) tests in appendix 1-1, 1-3 were employed to assess the teachers' perceived linguistic proficiency. The two self-assessment tests were from two different sources. The first self-assessment test was modified from MacIntyre et al (1997), and the second self-assessment test was modified from Bachman & Palmer (1989). The two self-assessment tests were used collaboratively in the hope that a combination of both would maximise each other's strengths. Bachman & Palmer's (1989) self-assessment test was based on the theory of communicative language ability (CLA) and was designed to test self-assessed language proficiency, but did not have an accompanying language test designed to confirm the accuracy of the self-assessment test. MacIntyre et al's (1997) self-assessment test was a 'can-do' type and asked specific questions about how well a subject could do certain tasks, and this self-assessment test can also be directly converted into a language test.

The modifications made and the reasons for making these changes to the two original self-assessment tests are discussed in sections of 3.4.1.2.1 and 3.4.1.2.2.

3.4.1.2.1 The MacIntyre et al (1997) Self-assessment test

The first self-assessment test is a ‘can-do’ type of questionnaire, first created by Clark (1981b) and later adopted by a number of other researchers such as MacIntyre et al (1997). Adding seven supplemental question items in their self-assessment test to Clark’s (1981) ‘can-do’ test, MacIntyre et al (1997) adjusted the original self-assessment test to their research situation. The ‘can-do’ test used by MacIntyre et al (1997) was administered to first-year university students in Canada. Though most of the students had ‘considerable exposure to French’ (MacIntyre 1997: 271), the students may not have had the same kind of target language input as the Korean English teachers, who are the subjects of the current study. The Korean English teachers studied the target language for at least 10 years. The length of mandatory English language education at secondary schools is six years and to become an English teacher (with some exceptions) they had to study English in university, which takes at least four years. In addition, if they have taught for a period of time, this should also be counted as exposure to the target language.

The principle applied to all the modifications was to make the questions more relevant to the subjects’ situations, which should improve the accuracy of self-assessment results (LeBlanc & Painchaud 1988). The modifications made for the current study from MacIntyre et al (1997) were as follows: first of all, three questions each in the listening section and in the speaking section were deleted to make the total number of questions five in all four skills section.

In the listening comprehension section, the first question ‘can you understand a native English speaker who is speaking slowly and carefully on the telephone?’ was removed because it was judged as too easy a task for English teachers whose levels were well above elementary. The third question ‘can you understand a native English speaker who is speaking slowly and carefully in face-to-face conversation?’ was also removed for the same reason. The same reasoning was applied to the fifth question ‘can you understand very simple statements or questions in English?’. Question 8, ‘can you understand a news article on the radio’ was modified slightly. Instead of the radio, television was put in because TV news would be used in the language test. Besides, radio was already included with the question concerning a radio sports broadcast.

In the speaking skill section, the ninth question ‘can you buy clothes in a department store in English?’ was removed because it was felt to be a relatively easy task for the teachers. Question

number 15, 'count to one hundred' was thought to be far too easy for them. Question 16, 'give directions in the street' was deleted in favour of other questions because the number of questions in every language skill was intended to be the same, five. Other skill areas were all reduced to 5 questions each. Question 12, 'order a complete meal in a restaurant' was replaced with 'tell jokes you know in English'. The task of ordering a meal was removed on the grounds of being a relatively easy task. Instead, telling a joke in English was judged to be more challenging. Question 14 was also slightly modified. It was altered from 'give a brief description of a picture' to 'describe any film you have seen' to make the task more challenging. In question 11, 'describe the role played by parliament in the Canadian government system', the question was changed to 'describe your views on Korean politics' to adjust the task to the Korean situation.

In the reading comprehension section, question 19, 'read personal letters or notes written to you in which the writer has deliberately used simple words and constructions' was changed to 'formal letters written to a native English speaker' to make the task more challenging. Task 21 was changed from understanding a personal memo written to a native speaker to 'email written in English' as this means of communication is becoming increasingly common.

And newspaper headlines in question 18 were changed to a newspaper article. The principle applied here was the same as above: to adjust 'can-do' items to the teachers' level (which was considered to be relatively high compared to other learners) and to make the task a little more challenging than it was in MacIntyre et al (1997).

In the writing skill section, question 22, 'make out a shopping list' was deleted. Question 25, 'leave a note for somebody explaining where you will be or when you will come home' was discarded. Instead, 'write a complaint letter to the city council about problems with the insufficient water supply' was put in to test the subjects' skills in writing a formal letter in addition to a personal letter which was tested in question 24, 'write a letter to a friend'. In addition, another challenging task was added. The task was 'write about your opinion of Korea's reunification and of both Korean governments' attitudes toward that'. 'A bicycle' in question 26 was changed to 'a car' to reflect the situation in Seoul, Korea where not many people used a bicycle, in contrast to the increasing use of cars.

In addition, the 7-point Likert rating scale ranging from 1 (very poorly) to 7 (as well as most English speakers) was changed to 5 point Likert scale for the reasons explained below in 3.4.1.2.2.

3.4.1.2.2 Bachman & Palmer (1989) Self-assessment test

A modified version of Bachman & Palmer's (1989) self-ratings of components of communicative language ability (CLA) in appendix 1-3 was the second type of self-assessment test employed in the current study.

Bachman & Palmer's (1989) model of CLA was built on their own earlier model of language competence having three components, grammatical competence (including morphology and syntax), pragmatic competence (including the subtraits of vocabulary, cohesion and organisation) and sociolinguistic competence (including the ability to distinguish registers, nativeness and control of non-literal language)(see 2.3.6.2).

The questionnaire they used with their subjects was a 21-item multiple-choice self-rating test. In the self-rating test, there were three types of question testing the subjects' grammatical, pragmatic and sociolinguistic competencies. Three question types, each of which consisted of seven questions, focused on the 'ability to use trait' question type, the 'difficulty in using trait' question type, and the 'recognition of input trait' question type. In the 'ability to use' questions, subjects were intended to rate on a four-point scale their ability to use the three sub-traits of language competence. In the 'difficulty in using' part, subjects were asked again to rate on a four-point scale their difficulty in using the same three traits. Similarly, subjects were asked to rate on a four-point scale the degree to which they were able to understand the same three traits when they heard or saw them (Bachman & Palmer 1989) in the 'recognition of input' question part.

The self-rating test used in the current study made some modifications to Bachman & Palmer's (1989) original testing questionnaire. First of all, the three language competencies in the original became four. This change was attributable to Bachman's (1990) later framework of language competence having four components. Bachman (1990) made some alterations to the earlier model and redistributed the traits of language competence into four categories instead of three: grammatical, textual, illocutionary, and sociolinguistic competence (see 2.3.6.2).

In addition to the change to four from three language competencies, one or two more questions were added to each competence area. This was intended to help cover more sub-components of each language competence. Even if Bachman & Palmer (1989) did not differentiate one language skill from another in their self-rating test and made strong claims about its inadequacy, the self-assessment test used in the current study distinguished questions according to their skill areas where possible. The reason for this was that the danger of language use in a vacuum seemed to be effectively eradicated by means of the task contexts. As Bachman & Palmer

(1996) themselves pointed out, language ability was traditionally considered to consist of four skills. In fact, the concept of four language skills was so widely accepted, that the usual model of language proficiency in language testing was one with four skills (Bachman & Palmer 1996). In particular, in Korea, language teachers and students' perception of these skills was quite distinct, as seen in Lee (1991). Therefore, in the current self-rating test, the distinction of questions according to different skill areas was intended to help the subjects clarify what they were asked in the self-rating test. For example, the question, 'how many grammar mistakes do you make in English?', was divided into two: 'how many grammar mistakes do you make in English when you speak?' and 'how many grammar mistakes do you make in English when you write?'.

Another major modification from the original Bachman & Palmer (1989) self-assessment test was the change in the measuring scale from a four-point scale to a five-point scale. In other words, the middle alternative was added to every question even though the middle category might cause a loss in information about the direction in which the respondent leaned. It was suspected that without the middle alternative, it was possible for less proficient teachers to keep choosing higher numbers because they did not have any other choice. For example, if a teacher was asked about the number of famous English speaking people's names they knew and was provided with only four alternatives (1) almost none, (2) only a few, (3) a lot, but not as many as most English-speaking people do, (4) as many as most English-speaking people do, it was likely that the teacher would choose (3). Although she did not feel she knew a lot, without the middle alternative she did not have any other choice but to choose (3) because it was very likely that she as a teacher felt she knew more than a few. In borderline cases, they might feel tempted to choose the more favourable one without the middle alternative to save face.

The problem, considered inappropriate in the original four-point scale self-rating questionnaire, was that the interval between the alternative (2) and (3) felt bigger than any other adjacent categories, as seen in the above example. Subjects who participated in the piloting of the questionnaire also pointed this out. As a reference, the Likert scale as the most commonly used attitude scale procedure (Lewis-Beck 1994) most typically used a five-point scale. Even though many researchers advised not to explicitly provide the middle alternative, a lot of research results also indicated that the number of respondents choosing the middle alternative tended to 'have a limited impact on the distribution of responses in other categories' (Converse & Presser 1986: 36).

In summary, the changes in the current self-rating questionnaire based on Bachman & Palmer's (1989) questionnaire are as follows. First of all, the number of questions was increased from 21

to 44 mainly because some questions were distinguished according to channel (audio, visual). Another change was that the questions in the current questionnaire were intended to cover four distinct areas of language competence instead of the three that Bachman & Palmer (1989) used. In other words, instead of differentiating questions according to grammatical, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic competence, the current self-assessment test had four different areas of questions: grammatical, textual, illocutionary, and sociolinguistic competence. In addition, instead of the 4-point scale Bachman & Palmer (1989) employed in their questionnaire, the current study used the 5-point scale, thereby providing subjects with a middle alternative.

3.4.2 Case Studies

Case studies were used to provide evidence and triangulate with the findings gleaned from the larger scale study. They were particularly designed to look in depth at the effects of using video on teachers' language learning. Case studies were chosen over an experiment, because teachers' learning through the use of video needed to be addressed in-depth with considerations about their particular learning contexts. As Seliger & Shohamy (1989) highlighted, 'experimental settings, being controlled and artificial, may elicit data different from those produced in natural settings' (119), where case studies are generally set up. Case studies were thought to give advantages to the current study because the focus of the study is on Korean teachers' self-directed learning of English, which may be achieved through the use of video in natural settings (where teachers are likely to be involved in self-study, and situations which will interrupt the teachers' study might occur), not on the effectiveness of video as a medium for language learning itself, which may be more effectively investigated in highly experimental settings. One of the implied aims of the study was to show that teachers participating in self-directed learning in their own time at their own pace can improve their language proficiency irrespective of how tightly the structure of the self-directed learning is set up (even in a loosely structured learning scheme which most of the teacher learners are likely to be in). In addition, it might not have been possible to overcome the subjects' reluctance to be in an experimental setting.

Case studies have their own merits and demerits, as identified by many researchers such as Golby (1994), Wallace (1998), and Yin (1993; 1989). Although case studies are not necessarily generalisable, they can be used as evidence to support a theory (Wallace 1998). Some researchers such as Golby (1994) even deny that 'generalisation must always occur through the accumulation of instances though no doubt that is one legitimate form of generalisation in some contexts' (13). Instead of statistical generalisation, 'analytic generalisation' is sought in case studies, in which 'a previously developed theory is used as a template with which to compare

the empirical results of the case study' (Yin 1989: 38). In addition, because a case study is 'not the study of uniqueness but of particularity', it is concerned with 'intelligibility, which in turn is a matter of connecting the case with others of its kind' (Golby 1994: 13).

As for its methodology, Golby (1994), Nunan (1989), and Wallace (1998) sensibly point out that a case study is not the name of a method. They assert that it is 'an open question what methods are to be used in any individual study and in what combination' (Golby 1994: 11). In the current study, 6 methods were used: the self-assessment tests, language tests, interviews, self-study with video/ teaching with video/ being in a control group, study notes, and classroom observations.

The subjects of the case study were involved with either the self-study scheme, teaching with video, or were in a control group. To be more specific, the subjects fell into three different categories. The first category was those teachers who undertook self-study with video provided by the researcher. The subjects in the second category were those who used video in class to teach students. The third group of subjects was the control group who just carried out their normal teaching.

The subjects in the case study were required to take both self-assessment tests, language tests, be interviewed, study with video/ teach with video (excluding the control group), fill out the study note forms, and be observed while teaching. All these things occurred twice except for the study with video and filling out the note forms, before the start of the case study (before treatment), and after finishing the case study (after treatment) respectively.

3.4.2.1 The self-assessment (SA) tests

The same two self-assessment tests used in 3.4.1.2 were employed for the case study subjects so that they could assess their own English language proficiency. The subjects answered the two self-assessment tests twice: once before the start of the scheme and then again after finishing the scheme.

3.4.2.2 Language tests

Language tests were used to achieve dual purposes. One was to test the accuracy of the subjects' self-assessment. According to Cohen et al. (2000), test data may feature as part of a questionnaire, interview and documentary material. In the current study, they featured as a complementary data collection tool for self-assessment tests. The other purpose was to identify the changes in the subjects' spoken proficiency. Tests are usually used to identify learners'

present level of proficiency. The results of the subjects' pre-test therefore represent their level of proficiency before the beginning of the case studies and the results of their post-test after the case studies have finished.

The pre-language tests were constructed in association with the modified MacIntyre et al self-assessment test (all the tasks and sub-questions on the test are in appendix 2-1). Tasks were constructed based on the same questions as in the self-assessment test, with the difference that the language test had only 10 tasks involving listening and speaking skills for the subjects to perform while the self-assessment test had 20 questions (five each for the four language skills).

The five tasks in the listening test are as follows:

1. Here is an audio-tape of a conversation in English. Answer the questions
2. Here is a videotape of two people talking in English. Answer the questions
3. This videotape has an excerpt of an English film, 'Interview with the Vampire', without subtitles. Answer the questions.
4. Here is a passage from a football game on the radio. Answer the questions.
5. Here is a portion of a news broadcast. What are the stories about?

The test takers were provided with a written test paper where there were more sub-questions about the content they had listened to (see appendix 2-1). The testees wrote down their answers to the questions in the same paper. The arrangements for scoring the tests are found in 3.5.7.2.2

The five tasks in the speaking test are as follows:

6. Describe in English the Korean educational system in some detail.
7. Tell a joke or two in English you know.
8. Talk about your favourite hobby or interest for three minutes in English.
9. Describe in English a film you saw recently or any film you like.
10. Describe in English your views on Korean politics.

The testees were provided with a written test paper with 5 speaking tasks above. After reading the tasks, they were required to answer the questions in English.

The tasks in the post-test are below (all the tasks and sub-questions in the test are in appendix 2-1 and 2-2). As in the pre-test, in the post-test, the subjects were asked to perform the same tasks that were in the self-assessment test.

The listening tasks in the post-test are as follows:

1. Here is an audio-tape of a conversation in English. Answer the questions
2. Here is a videotape of two people talking in English. Answer the questions.

3. This videotape has an excerpt of an English film, 'Indiana Jones III', without subtitles.
Answer the questions
4. Here is a passage from a football game on the radio. Answer the questions.
5. Here is a portion of a news broadcast. What are the stories about?

The speaking tasks in the post-test are as follows:

6. Describe in English the Korean university system in some detail.
7. Tell a joke or two in English you know.
8. Talk about your weekend for three minutes in English.
9. Describe in English the book you read recently or any stories you like.
10. Describe in English your views on Korean reunification.

3.4.2.3 Interviews

Tuckman (1972) describes an interview method, which 'by providing access to what is inside a person's head, makes it possible to measure what a person knows (knowledge or information), what a person likes or dislikes (values and preferences), and what a person thinks (attitudes and beliefs)' (173). Best (1981) also points out the advantages of an interview method as follows:

- After the interviewer gains rapport or establishes a friendly, secure relationship with the subject, certain types of confidential information may be obtained that an individual might be reluctant to put in writing.
- The interviewer can explain more clearly just what information he or she wants.
- If the subject misinterprets the question, the interviewer may follow it with a clarifying question.
- The interviewer may evaluate the sincerity and insight of the interviewee.
- It is possible to seek the same information, in several ways, at various stages of the interview (165-6).

On the other hand, interviews can be 'heavy consumers of resources' because they require the researcher's (or a paid field worker's) presence (Verma & Mallick 1999: 122). In addition, there is the time and expense taken up by travelling as well as the time spent on the actual interview. Another major concern about interviews is interviewer effects. In other words, interviewers and interviewees 'alike bring their own, often unconscious experiential and biographical baggage with them into the interview situation' (Cohen et al. 2000: 121).

In the current study, interviews were conducted to triangulate the findings from other sources by drawing out in more depth the subjects' views on their English proficiency, their problem areas, and their opinions about the self-study using video, which a questionnaire might not be able to

provide. There were two types of interviews conducted with the subjects: an informal interview and formal interviews. Before the self-study or teaching with video scheme started, the researcher interviewed each subject. The first interview was an informal conversational interview (to establish a relationship between the researcher and the subjects) about the subjects' personal, educational backgrounds and their teaching situations, and the second (before-treatment) and the third (after-treatment) interviews were standardised open-ended interviews where 'the exact wording and sequence of questions are determined in advance' and 'all interviewees are asked the same basic questions in the same order' (Cohen et al. 2000: 271).

The questions in the before-treatment interview are as follows:

1. Why did you agree to participate?
2. How do you feel about your own English proficiency?
3. In which skill areas do you want to improve?
4. Do you think using video can help improve your linguistic proficiency? Why do you think so?

The questions in the after-treatment interview are below:

1. Do you think your English has improved as a result of this case study scheme?
2. Why do you think so?
3. In which skill areas has it been most/least useful/helpful?
4. Did you find using video useful for improving linguistic proficiency?
5. Did you find yourself watching more videos apart from the ones provided by the researcher since you started this scheme?

3.4.2.4 Self-study or teaching with video

The core of the whole case study was for the teachers to improve their English through the use of video. The reason why self-directed learning was chosen over classroom learning was indicated in 1.2.4 and 2.4.1, and why video was used over other media was indicated in 2.5.4. As briefly explained above, the subjects were divided into three groups. The first group was the self-study group. They carried out self-study to improve their proficiency by using video and a workbook provided by the researcher. The video was a compilation of 10 short videos (each short video is about 15 to 20 minutes long), which had been produced by previous MA students of the Language Centre in the University of Newcastle upon Tyne. The 10 videos were carefully selected from a large number of videos for their potential to help improve the users' language, and to cover a variety of topics. In conjunction with the video, the subjects were provided with a workbook containing activities for the 10 videos, which had been produced by

the researcher. The workbook was produced to help the subjects follow the video contents and do some work with it. The transcripts of the videos were also provided.

The titles of the 10 videos are below:

1. Sari's Christmas in Newcastle (1999) by Mihye Lee & Yoon-jung Park
About Christmas customs in England. Involving interviews and dialogues.
2. Chinese Festivals (1994) by Lily Lee
The content may make it possible to compare Chinese festivals with Korean: differences and similarities. It involves a commentary.
3. Perfect Partners (1994) by Simon O'Neill
About ideal partners. It includes interviews and dialogues.
4. Good Will Learning (1999) by Xenia Delieza & Najat Al-Khalbani
About teaching and learning. It includes interviews and commentary.
5. Shopping in the Supermarket (1999) by Mei-man & Han-yi
About shopping in Marks & Spencer. It includes interviews.
It may be possible for learners to compare English supermarkets and Korean: differences and similarities
6. English Teenagers (1994) by Josephine Kao
About English teenagers and their parents. It includes mainly interviews and commentary.
7. The National Lottery (1995) by Danielle
About the national lottery and playing lotteries. It includes commentary and interviews.
8. Lonely Saturday (1994) by Hyenmi Choi
About cinemas, in particular the Tyneside cinema. It includes monologue and interviews.
9. Student Life (1994) by Dura Cho
About 2 first-year students in the University of Newcastle. It involves commentary and interviews.
10. Lord Hollytree's Mysterious Bump by Miriam Schwiening
Detective story style. It includes commentary (mainly monologue).

The subjects in the second group were asked to teach students by using video in class. They were not requested to use the video for their own learning, but it was assumed that they needed to watch the video and check the expressions used in it before use in class. A video and a workbook of activities were provided. The video was a compilation of extracts from the 10 videos listed above. However, in this case, the length of each video was shortened to five minutes (because in the researcher's experience it was not possible to deal with a video longer than that in one class period), thus only one or two important scenes from each video were included in the compilation. The titles of the 10 videos are the same as above. The activities in

the workbook were produced by the researcher. The transcripts of the videos were also provided.

The third group of subjects functioned as a control group. They were not provided with anything. They were required to do everything except for the study with video, i.e., self-assessment tests, language tests, interviews, study notes, and classroom observations.

3.4.2.5 Study notes

Study notes were used not to follow their learning process but to help to keep the learners on track. All the subjects in each category were required to fill out study notes in appendix 5 each time after their session with video. For the control group, they were required to fill out the same note form two or three times a week after carrying out their normal teaching. The study notes provided were produced by the researcher. The notes are for the subjects to record what they have learned in the particular video session or teaching session for the control group.

The subjects were asked to write down words, idioms, grammatical structures, which they had newly learned, using the particular video they had seen (or teaching any particular lesson in the case of the control group), and whatever else they had not understood on video before they had checked with the transcript. Then, the subjects were asked to draw a graph to show their self-perceived increase or decrease in their English performance each time they studied or taught for the control group. This is to check how they reacted to a particular video or a teaching session (for the control group). Finally, in the later part of the note, the subjects were asked in which linguistic skills they thought they had or had not improved and why they thought so.

3.4.2.6 Classroom observations

Nunan (1989) emphasises the importance of classroom observation in classroom research by arguing that 'there is no substitute for direct observation as a way of finding out about language classrooms' (76). Since one of the purposes of the current study was to look at the effect of self-study or teaching with video on teachers, it was conducted by comparing the teachers' language behaviour before treatment and after treatment. Classroom observation was regarded as a good approach for this purpose, as non-participant classroom observations were conducted to check if there were any changes in the subjects' use of English in the classroom after having finished the case study. In order to compare the possible changes after finishing the case study, each subject's classroom was observed twice: once before the treatment and then again after the treatment.

A simple evaluation checklist was designed to help the researcher focus on aspects of the language the subjects used in class during observation. The checklist is set out below:

1. A rough estimate of the proportion of teacher talking time spent using English
2. A rough estimate of the proportion of English they use to instruct the class rather than to read the target forms of the lesson from the textbook
3. The variety of functions the subjects use in English

It was a semi-structured observation which has ‘an agenda of issues but [gathers] data to illuminate these issues in a far less pre-determined or systematic manner’ (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2000: 303) than in a structured observation.

3.5 DATA GATHERING PROCEDURES

The process of gathering data was divided into two stages. First, a pilot study was conducted in Newcastle upon Tyne, England. Then, data was collected from the main study conducted in Seoul, Korea for about 8 months between 2000 and 2001. Before presenting the process of gathering data, the reliability and validity of the data collection procedures will be discussed, variables used in the study will be identified, and ethical issues arising in the research process will be examined.

3.5.1 Reliability and Validity of Research

Reliability and validity are considered to be essential elements to ensure quality of research. Reliability is concerned with accuracy of a measurement. It can be defined as ‘the degree of consistency between two measures of the same thing’ (Black 2002: 81). Imagine you measured the size of your room yesterday. If you get the same result when you measure it any other time, your measurement can be said to be highly reliable. Validity, on the other hand, deals with whether or not an instrument measures what it says it does. Therefore, reliability of a study is concerned with ‘consistency and replicability of research’ and validity ensures that a study investigates what it is intended to investigate (Nunan 1992: 14-17). It is something of note that ‘while it is possible to have an instrument that is not valid but reliable, an instrument that is not valid will never be reliable’ (Black 2002: 80).

Validity in a research design takes two forms, internal and external validity. Internal validity relates to the extent to which the research design allows us to ‘draw the unambiguous conclusions from the results’ (de Vaus 2001: 27). External validity, on the other hand, is concerned with the meaningfulness of the results from a study beyond the particular study.

In relation to measurements in a study, there are a number of different types of validity indicated. Discussion of different types of validity is controversial (Black 2002), but below are the types of validity related to the current study:

- **Criterion-related validity:** the extent to which the results obtained by a measure relate to those obtained by another external criterion. Within this type of validity there are two principal forms: predictive and concurrent validity. Predictive validity refers to the extent to which results obtained at the first round of research correlate with those obtained at a future date. Concurrent validity refers to the same kind of validity only without the different time element of predictive validity, that is, results are acquired simultaneously (Cohen et al. 2000).
- **Content validity:** the extent to which the instrument acquires adequate and representative coverage of what it is intended to investigate as it is defined. Clearly an arithmetic skills test which only measures multiplying skills is not a valid instrument of arithmetic skills (de Vaus 2001).
- **Construct validity:** the extent to which the results obtained by using the measures fit with theoretical expectations.
- **Ecological validity:** the extent to which the same or similar results are obtained in another setting beyond the particular study. The intention is ‘to give accurate portrayals of the realities of social situations in their own terms, in their natural or conventional settings’(Cohen et al. 2000: 110).
- **Catalytic validity:** the extent to which research results lead the participants to action (Cohen et al. 2000). In the current study, if the participants in the study (or readers of the study) continue or begin self-directed learning with the use of video in their own time, it can prove high catalytic validity of the study.
- **Face validity:** the extent to which the study appears, at face value, to investigate what it is designed to investigate.

In regard to reliability, Cohen et al. (2000) indicate three principal types of reliability: stability, equivalence and internal consistency:

- **Reliability as stability:** a measure of consistency over time and over similar samples. To ensure this, a test/re-test method is suggested. The test and re-test method is conducted as follows. A test and then a re-test are administered to the same group of subjects within an appropriate time span (if the time span is too short, the subjects will remember what they did in the first test, but if it is too long, other extraneous factors can affect the data). Then the correlation between the two sets of scores is explored by an appropriate test. High correlation means high reliability.

- Reliability as equivalence: if the results from using equivalent forms of a test or data gathering instrument were similar (proven by the correlation tests), then the test can be said to demonstrate this form of reliability. This reliability may be achieved through inter-rater reliability (the extent to which the same data are coded or analysed in a similar way by different raters).
- Reliability as internal consistency: to demonstrate internal consistency the test is run once only through the split-half method. The items on the test were split into two, one group of subjects takes one half of the test, and the other group the other half. Then, the correlation between the two sets of scores is explored.

The main measure to enhance reliability and validity of the current study was piloting of the data collection tools. The survey questionnaire, two self-assessment tests (McIntyre et al Self-assessment test and Bachman & Palmer Self-assessment test), two language tests (the pre-test and post-test) and tools used in the case studies were piloted to identify and prevent the problems which might have occurred in the process of the data collection. The subjects who participated in piloting were eight Korean English teachers (four of whom were former teachers studying in England at the time and the other four practising teachers in Korea). Details of measures to ensure reliability and validity of data collection tools are below.

3.5.1.1 Reliability and validity of questionnaires

Reliability of questionnaires can be increased by employing any of the three reliability measures in 3.5.1 (Hennerson et al 1987). In the current study, reliability as stability was ensured through the use of a test/re-test method. The subjects who participated in piloting of the survey questionnaire completed the questionnaire once and once again after three months (to allow appropriate time span), and the subjects' answers were compared between the two occasions, and were judged to be almost exactly the same.

Best (1981) suggests focusing on content and predictive validity in the designing stage of a questionnaire. To ensure content validity, the items in questionnaires sample what they are intended to investigate, and the meaning of all terms used should mean the same to all the respondents. To increase predictive validity, there should be correlation between the results of questionnaires and the follow-up observations conducted at some time in the future.

The survey questionnaire was piloted to enhance content validity. Asking the subjects participating in piloting what they thought the questions in the questionnaire asked also ensured face validity. The subjects were asked to give their opinions about the contents and procedures

of the questionnaire. They were particularly asked to report to the researcher any ambiguity of the wording or anything they found hard to understand. Afterwards the questions or wording which caused confusion was either removed or altered. After the changes, the same subjects were consulted about the changes.

The changes made are as follows: accepting the advice from some respondents, many of the multiple-choice questions were changed to short-answer questions for the main study. The number of questions about the subjects' learning and teacher training experience was reduced because many of them were not considered directly relevant to the research questions.

3.5.1.2 Reliability and validity of self-assessment

The reliability and validity of self-assessment of linguistic proficiency was discussed in detail in 2.4.2.

As in the questionnaire survey, reliability of self-assessment was ensured through the use of a test/re-test method. The subjects who participated in piloting of the two self-assessment tests took the tests once and once again after three months (to allow an appropriate time span), and correlation between the two results were pursued, resulting in a high correlation. In order to ensure reliability as equivalence the results of the two different types ('McIntyre et al' and 'Bachman & Palmer') of self-assessment were compared, resulting in a high correlation.

The two self-assessment tests used in the study were piloted to enhance validity (content and concurrent validity) and to identify and prevent the problems which might have occurred in the process of the data collection. The face validity of the self-assessment tests was also ensured by asking the subjects what they thought the questions in the two self-assessment tests asked about. Concurrent validity was ensured by comparing the results of the two self-assessment tests, producing a high correlation between the two. As in 3.5.1.1, the subjects were asked to give their opinions about the contents and procedures of the self-assessment tests. In particular, they were asked to report to the researcher any ambiguity of the wording or anything they found hard to understand. Afterwards the questions or wording which caused confusion was either removed or changed. After the changes, the same subjects were consulted about the changes. The following changes were made. In the case of the modified version of Bachman and Palmer's self-assessment test, two questions on the 'recognition of input' part were deleted because of some respondents' advice that these two questions were indistinguishable from the earlier two questions. In the McIntyre et al self-assessment test, some questions which were pointed out as too easy for English teachers were changed to more challenging ones (see 3.4.1.2.1).

3.5.1.3 Reliability and validity of tests

Cohen et al. (2000) indicate the following factors threatening reliability of tests:

- a questionable assumption of transferability of knowledge and skills from one context to another,
- testees' motivation, self-esteem and familiarity with the test situation,
- language readability of the test,
- cultural bias in the test,
- unclear and ambiguous instructions,
- too low or too high difficulty level

To increase reliability the following are suggested by Cohen et al. (2000):

- calculating coefficients of reliability
- calculating and controlling the standard error of measurement,
- increasing the sample size,
- increasing the number of observations (or items in the test) made,
- ensuring effective domain sampling of items in tests based on item response theory,
- ensuring effective levels of item discriminability and item difficulty.

Best (1981) suggests using any of the three measures (or combination of any of those) explained in 3.5.1 to ensure reliability of a test.

Regarding validity, an effective test should meet the purpose as well as address different types of validity (Cohen et al. 2000). Best (1981) maintains that a test should meet content validity, construct validity and criterion-related (predictive and concurrent) validity. Content validity of a test is based on 'the degree to which the test actually measures, or is specifically related to, the traits for which it was designed'(197). Careful examination of the learning materials, their objectives, and the judgements of subject matter specialists are suggested as means of enhancing content validity. Construct validity relates to 'the degree to which scores on a test can be accounted for by the explanatory constructs of a sound theory'(Best 1981: 198). A test can be designed to have construct validity to the degree that the test scores are systematically related to the theory. Predictive validity in a language test means the usefulness of a test in predicting some future performance of test-takers. Concurrent validity can be achieved if a test closely relates to other forms of measures such as academic grades, teacher ratings, or scores on another test of known validity (Best 1981).

The language tests used in the study were piloted to enhance validity and reliability. Face validity was ensured by asking the subjects what they thought the items in the tests asked. Content validity was ensured by using a well-established type of language test and by asking for the subjects' professional judgements (as language teachers) about the content of the test items. Wording which caused confusion was replaced or removed, and some test items pointed out by the subjects as too easy were replaced with more challenging ones. After the changes, the same subjects were consulted about the changes. The changes made were explained in 3.4.1.2.1.

To ensure reliability of the language tests, a test/re-test method was used. The subjects who participated in piloting of the language tests took the tests once and once again after three months (to allow an appropriate time span), and correlations between the two results were pursued, resulting in a high correlation. In addition, a comparison of the results between the pre-test and the post-test was made, producing a high correlation.

With regard to reliability and validity of marking scales, a range of measures should be taken. Along with the importance of the appropriate view of language proficiency (construct validity), the validation of the rating scales is also emphasised by many language testing researchers such as Alderson et al (1995), Hughes (1989), McNamara (2000), and Milanovic et al. (1996). As a means of validation of rating scales, inter-rater reliability is pointed out by Milanovic et al. (1996) and many others. They list two things to be investigated to ensure inter-rater reliability: correlation between overall ratings (of first and second rater) and inter-correlations of the component scales.

The integrity of the scales is investigated as a validation procedure. Milanovic et al. (1996) argue that feedback from raters can help to look at the 'degree to which raters are able to differentiate between the points on the scale' (25). Alderson et al. (1995) advise that more than seven points on scales should be avoided because 'it is difficult to make much finer distinctions', and 'explicit descriptors accompany most of the points on the scale' (111).

Many researchers also mention rater training as a means of validating rating scales. Alderson (1995), Hughes (1985), McNamara (2000), and Milanovic (1996) advise giving a short period of training for the raters so that the raters can agree acceptable responses and appropriate marks at the outset of marking. During the training, the raters should be trained to keep the rating scale in mind and to be familiar with the tasks the test takers performed.

The process of developing the marking scales for the language tests used in the current study is described in 3.5.7.2.2.

3.5.1.4 Reliability and validity of case studies

Validity and reliability issues should also be taken into consideration in case studies. Internal validity in a case study design relates to reducing the influence of variables by controlling them. Threats to internal validity in a case study are that other factors apart from the key variable influence any changes observed. (de Vaus 2001). If a case study can provide a profound understanding of the particular case, the internal validity of the case study can be said to be high. However, a profound understanding of the particular case does not guarantee its generalisability to wider population (external validity). It may be correct to say that case study designs cannot provide ‘a basis for making statistically valid generalisation beyond that particular case’ (de Vaus 2001: 233). However, there are two types of generalisation: statistical and theoretical, as mentioned earlier. Theoretical generalisation refers to ‘generalising from a study to a theory. Rather than asking what a study tells us about the wider population we ask, ‘what does this case tell us about a specific theory (a theoretical proposition)?’ (de Vaus 2001: 237).

According to de Vaus (2001), the external validity of case studies can be increased by ‘the strategic selection of cases rather than by the statistical selection of cases’ (238):

Case study designs involve selecting cases for theoretical and targeted purposes. We select a case because it tests whether a theory works in particular, real world situations. Alternatively, we select a case because we think it might disprove a proposition, or because we want to see if the theoretical proposition works under particular conditions (like repeating an experiment under different conditions)’(de Vaus 2001: 239).

Although there is no correct number of cases in a case study design, the larger the number of cases, the higher the degree of support for the propositions. De Vaus (2001) points out that ‘using the logic of replication a single replication tells us something but repeated replications give us more confidence in findings’(239).

As a measure to ensure validity of the study in the current study, the strategic selection of cases was conducted. The cases were chosen not because they were representative of the whole population but because they met the particular requirements of comparability, and ‘provision of valid and challenging tests of a theory’(de Vaus 2001: 240). For ecological validity, it is essential to include and address ‘as many characteristics in, and factors of, a given situation as possible’(Cohen et al. 2000: 110). To enhance ecological validity, multiple sources of evidence were used, as advised by researchers such as Golby (1994). For example, in the current study, several research tools such as interviews, language tests, teachers’ study notes, and classroom observations were used together to gather data about the effects of using video. Reliability was

sought, as advised by Golby (1994), ‘by careful and explicit documentation and the construction of a separate evidence-base or archive of source material’ (22) (related to reliability as equivalence).

The data collection tools used in the case studies were self-assessment, language tests, interviews, classroom observations, study notes, and self-directed learning/teaching with the use of video/being in a control group. Regarding interviews, validity can be enhanced if an interview is based on a carefully designed structure and elicits significant information (Best 1981). Reliability of an interview can be ensured ‘by restating a question in slightly different form at a later time in the interview’ (Ibid.: 167). Interview techniques were piloted to enhance content validity. The face validity of interviews was also checked by asking the subjects what they thought the interview questions asked. The subjects were asked to give their opinions about the contents and procedures of the interview techniques. In particular, they were asked to report to the researcher any ambiguity of the wording or anything they found hard to understand. No major issues arose with regards to any of the interview questions. The interviews were all audio-recorded and transcribed, and the reliability of the transcription (of all interviews) was checked by the researcher’s colleague.

To ensure validity of classroom observations, piloting of the observation categories is suggested (Cohen et al. 2000) to check if they are appropriate, exhaustive, discrete, unambiguous and effectively operationalise the purposes of the research (129). Piloting was conducted in a language classroom in Seoul, Korea, without finding any major issues of the observational categories. The reliability of the classroom observation technique was increased by audio-taping of the classrooms and transcribing them. The reliability of the transcription was confirmed by a Korean English bilingual.

The reliability and validity of self-study or teaching with video and the study notes were ensured by means of the researcher’s detailed explanations and demonstrations to the subjects. The researcher also checked the notes the first time after the subjects completed them. In addition, whenever the subjects had questions, they asked them.

3.5.2 Variables Used in the Study

A variable is in general defined as ‘any trait, characteristic, or attribute that can change from observation to observation’ (Walsh 1990: 368). In particular, in social investigations it can refer to ‘the representation of a social characteristic or social factor in empirical research. Variables are constructed by defining a concept and developing an indicator or indicators for a

concept'(Bulmer & Burgess 1986). Age, gender, race, and education are examples of the key variables used in social investigations. The main variables used in the study are as follows:

Three variables, self-assessment scores, confidence in using English, and the proportion of time in class subjects spend using English were used to investigate part of research question 1, 'what is the nature of Korean teachers' own perception of their proficiency as non-native speakers of English?'.

When investigating the causal relationship between any two variables, one variable become an independent variable and the other dependent. A fundamental way of distinguishing one from the other is to identify which is the cause and which the effect. A dependent variable presumably results from an independent variable. In other words, if A, then B. According to Cohen & Holliday (1996), 'in research, we attempt to predict from independent variables to dependent variables' (Cohen & Holliday 1996: 118).

In order to investigate research question 1.4, 'what has influenced the teachers' perception of their proficiency, their confidence in using English, and/or the proportion of time they spend using English in class?', the following variables were used:

- Dependent variables: The teachers' self-assessment scores, confidence in using English, the proportion of time in class they spend using English
- Independent variables: age, gender, the amount of teaching experience, the length of staying in English speaking countries, the level of institution the subjects teach at, a degree in ELT, the level of class they teach, the number of students in class they teach, the number of hours they teach a week, teacher training, the emphasis placed on language improvement in teacher training courses they have received, the opportunity to talk to native speaker colleagues, the frequency with which they use English outside the classroom.

The relationships of these independent variables and dependent variables (the teachers' self-assessment scores, confidence in using English, and the proportion of time in class they spend using English) were explored to identify whether or not the independent variables had affected the dependent variables.

In order to investigate research question 2, 'what is the relationship between Korean teachers' perceived spoken language proficiency and other measures of their spoken language proficiency?', respondents' test scores and self-assessment scores were used as variables. The relationships between two respective variables were explored: subjects' listening test scores

were compared with self-assessment scores for listening skills, and speaking test scores with self-assessment scores for speaking.

For part of research question 3, ‘is there the need for and are there any ways of boosting teachers’ proficiency in the target language?’, experience of using video for the subjects’ own language improvement or of teaching students using video in class, and subjects’ opinions about the effectiveness of video as a language teaching/learning medium were used as variables. The proportion of ‘yes’ and ‘no’ answers to respective questions were calculated to identify subjects’ experience of using video and their opinions about the effectiveness of video.

Research question 4, ‘what is the effect of video on the teachers’ language proficiency?’ was answered through the case studies. The following variables were used in the case studies:

- Dependent variables: one dependent variable with three values (the subjects’ post-test language scores either go up, or down, or stay the same).
- Independent variables: one independent variable with three values (conditions 1, 2, 3), i.e., three different conditions the subjects were in (self-directed learning, teaching class with the use of video, being in a control group)

The relationships between the independent variables and dependent variables were investigated in order to identify the effect of using video for language improvement.

3.5.3 Ethical Issues

Ethical issues tend to arise in the process of a research project. Different data collection techniques relate to different ethical issues. First of all, regarding questionnaires, there is a question of intrusion into the respondents’ lives; in terms of either ‘time taken to complete the questionnaire, the level of threat or sensitivity of the questions, or the possible invasion of privacy’ (Cohen et al. 2000: 245). Respondents can be strongly encouraged to answer questionnaires but should not be coerced into doing so. Researchers should obtain the respondents’ informed consent and accept their right to withdraw at any stage of the study. These principles were observed in the current study.

With regard to self-assessment, the same ethical issues seem to be applied as the ones above. The same principles were observed in administering self-assessment.

To make language tests ethical, the following considerations should be taken (Cohen et al. 2000: 335):

- Tests must be valid and reliable;

- The administration, marking and use of the test should only be undertaken by suitably competent/qualified people;
- Access to test materials should be controlled;
- Tests should benefit the testee;
- Clear marking and grading protocols should exist;
- Test results are only reported in a way that cannot be misinterpreted;
- The privacy and dignity of individuals should be respected (e.g. confidentiality, anonymity, non-traceability);
- Individuals should not be harmed by the test or its results;
- Informed consent to participate in the test should be sought

In the current study, informed consent was obtained with all the participants and the subjects' right to reject to participate was respected at any stage. The results of the language tests were not reported except for the purposes of the current study. The subjects' anonymity was ensured by not using their names.

The main ethical issues involved in case studies seem to be similar to the ones related to interviews: informed consent, confidentiality, and the consequences of the case studies. In the current study, the subjects' informed consent was sought and obtained. Information about the purposes of and procedures adopted in the study was given to the subjects as precisely as possible. Although participation in the case studies took up the subjects' time, it was ensured that they organised their own time as long as they followed the procedures required. Confidentiality was sought by not using the subjects' names (referring to them as cases) and using the subjects' personal details as little as possible. The benevolence of the study to the subjects was sought. As a result of the case studies, the subjects were expected to improve their language proficiency (except the control group).

3.5.4 A Pilot Study

3.5.4.1 The Procedures adopted in the Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to identify some characteristics of Korean English teachers and their perception of their own English proficiency. It was administered between May 1999 and August 1999 in Newcastle upon Tyne in England. It involved using Bachman & Palmer's (1989) self-assessment test and the survey questionnaire. MacIntyre et al's (1997) self-assessment test was not employed at this point, as it was decided to use this at a later stage of the study.

The self-assessment test was hand-delivered to the Korean subjects in England, and posted to the subjects in Korea by the researcher. Of the 20 self-assessment tests sent out, 16 were returned. The self-assessment test used was composed of 46 questions based on the Bachman & Palmer self-rating test (1989) (see 3.4.1.2.2.). In the self-assessment test the subjects were required to rate their own proficiency level on a 5-point scale. Point 5 was the highest (native speaker level), 1 was the lowest (real beginning beginner level), and 3 was the middle point.

In addition to completing the self-assessment test, the subjects were asked to provide brief details about themselves: the level of institution they were teaching at and their experience of staying in an English speaking country.

3.5.4.2 The results of the pilot study

The subjects of the pilot study were seven secondary school teachers two of whom stayed in England for an extended period. The remainders (nine subjects) were all teaching at a university level and had experience of living in English speaking countries for a period of time.

All the scores were added and averaged for each individual subject. The highest possible mean score is 5 which is the score the subject will get if he/she chooses point 5 for every question. As a result, there emerged some points of note:

1. For all five secondary school teachers, who did not have the experience of a long stay in any English speaking countries, their mean scores ranged between 2.32 and 2.97. In total, all of their mean scores were below 3 (the middle score point on the scale).
2. For two secondary school teachers who had stayed in England, their mean scores were higher than 3 which was the score the subject would get if all his/her answers for every item were point 3 (that was the middle score point), which means they had greater confidence in their language proficiency than their other five colleagues.
3. University level teachers all had experience in staying in an English speaking country for an extended period of time. Most of them studied for degrees in those countries.
4. University level teachers' mean scores ranged between 3.06 and 3.89. The highest mean score was 3.89 which was earned by a teacher teaching at a private language school who had lived in the States for almost eight years.
5. For all the teachers who had stayed in any English speaking countries, their mean score range was from 3 to 4, whereas for five secondary school teachers who had not had that experience, their mean score range was between 2 and 3.
6. One noticeable finding was that for the question, 'do you understand the English words you see?', every teacher chose point 4 which was 'in most cases', thus, 100 % of the teachers

asked responded that they understood English vocabulary they saw in most cases. This could indicate that teachers in general are fairly confident in their level of vocabulary comprehension.

7. Another interesting finding was that for the question, ‘can you tell how appropriate the kind of English a writer uses is, when you see it in a written form?’, 93.75 % of the subjects chose point 4 (in most cases) and 6.25 % chose point 3 (sometimes). Again these teachers seemed to be fairly confident of recognising the appropriateness of written English.

3.5.5 The Outline of the Procedures for the Main Study

The main study was conducted between September 2000 and April 2001 in Seoul, Korea. An outline of the procedures for the main study is set out:

Dates	Action Plans	Materials involved
1. (Sep. 2000)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Confirming case study subjects • Finding the subjects for the questionnaire survey 	
2.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Before starting the case study scheme: before treatment procedures in 3.4.2. (Subjects to complete self-assessment tests, questionnaires, be interviewed, and be observed in class) • Starting the survey and the self-assessment tests: visiting the school or university agreed on 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-assessment tests, questionnaires, language tests, interview questions, checklists for classroom observation, a tape recorder • Self-assessment tests, questionnaires
3.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Starting the case study scheme • Continuing the survey and the self-assessment tests with different subjects 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Videos, worksheet books, review forms • The same as above
4.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supervising the case study scheme • Going back to the schools or universities to collect the questionnaires and the self-assessment tests for the respondents who do not return them on the spot 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The same as above
5. (Feb.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Finishing the case study scheme: after treatment procedures in 3.4.2. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-assessment tests, questionnaires, language tests,

2001)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Making sure the contacts would post the rest of them to the researcher 	interview questions, checklists for classroom observation, a tape recorder
6. (Apr. 2001)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Receiving the rest by post in England 	

3.5.6 The Procedures Adopted in the Larger Scale Study

The survey questionnaire and the two self-assessment tests were conducted together in the larger scale study. The three were put together in one kit and the order of the kit was first the MacIntyre et al self-assessment test, then Bachman & Palmer self-assessment test, and finally the survey questionnaire.

The survey questionnaire and the two self-assessment tests were conducted in Seoul, Korea between September 2000 and April 2001. The questionnaires and the two self-assessment tests were mostly hand-delivered by the researcher to the subjects. In cases where this was not possible, they were hand-delivered by the researcher's contacts to the particular school/institution. Some of the respondents gave the questionnaires and self-assessment tests back to the researcher on the spot after answering them, but most respondents preferred the researcher to come back for them after a period of time. The others were posted to the researcher through the researcher's links.

The procedures used were as follows:

1. The subjects for the questionnaire survey and the self-assessment tests study were contacted: the specific time plan for the survey including dates for visiting the particular schools or universities was drawn up, the number of subjects participating was finalised, the links were asked to inform the subjects of the details of the study.
2. The survey and the self-assessment test study started: the schools or universities that had agreed to take part in the study were visited, the questionnaire and self-assessment tests were conducted, the subjects were encouraged to take the language test, and the test was conducted with the subjects' agreement.
3. The survey and the self-assessment tests were administered with different subjects.
4. The schools or universities were visited to collect the questionnaire and the self-assessment tests in case the subjects did not return them on the spot.

5. The links were asked to post to the researcher in England the rest of the returned questionnaires and the self-assessment tests

3.5.7 The Procedures Adopted in the Case Studies

The case study was conducted between September 2000 and March 2001. The starting and finishing times for each case study varied according to the availability of the subjects. The first step in the case study was to find the subjects. The list of possible subjects was made through recommendations of the researcher's contacts, taking into account considerations of comparability of personal and educational backgrounds. Then the possible subjects were contacted by the researcher. It was not possible to find all the subjects immediately, and so each case study scheme started whenever a subject was found. As a result, each subject started and finished their case study scheme at a different time. Initially, it was planned to find two subjects for each of the three groups. However, it was not possible to find enough teachers who were willing to participate in the study, so the number of subjects was settled at five. This was not expected to affect the results of the case study because although the larger the number of cases is, the more strength the results might have, there is no correct number of cases (de Vaus 2001).

The procedures adopted in the case study can be summarised as follows:

1. Case study subjects were confirmed: the subjects were contacted initially by phone and then in person, clarifying the procedure they should go through, and specific schedules were set up for each subject.
2. Before starting the case study scheme, all the subjects participating in the case study were required to answer the self-assessment tests, take the language test, do the interview, and be observed in class while teaching.
3. The case studies started: the subjects were provided with the video, a workbook of activities, and study note forms. The subjects received explanations and demonstrations in how they should use the video and fill in the note form. The subjects' questions about the procedure were answered.
4. The case studies were supervised: the subjects were checked every two weeks by phone to find out if everything was going well, and their questions were answered.
5. After the subjects finished the case study scheme: the subjects were required to fill in the self-assessment tests again, to take another language test, to do the interview, and to allow the researcher to observe their classrooms.

3.5.7.1 The two self-assessment tests

The two self-assessment tests were answered by the five subjects twice: once before they started the case study scheme and again after the case study had finished.

3.5.7.2 Language tests

3.5.7.2.1 The procedures adopted in the language test

Every subject of the survey questionnaire as well as case study subjects was also asked to take a language test, but the subjects' refusal to do so was also respected, since it was suspected that few teachers would volunteer to take a language test. The main reason for this is the special position of Korean teachers as subjects. As mentioned in 1.2.4, teachers in Far East Asian cultures are highly respected in most cases. Nobody is willing to question teachers' knowledge or capacity. In return, teachers are expected to be knowledgeable about and good at what they are teaching. However, in the case of English teachers, things are different. Many of them are perceived to be poor in some skill areas (Lee 1991), in particular in oral communication skills. In addition, teachers do not want to lose face by revealing their own weakness through getting a low mark on a test. Therefore, the request was made, but any refusals were accepted. As a result, only one teacher agreed to take the language test except for the subjects in the case studies. The subjects' test results were compared with their self-assessment results.

The five subjects participating in the case study took the language tests twice to identify changes made during the case studies: once before they started the case study scheme and once more after they finished it. The procedures for taking tests and marking are as follows.

In the listening tests, subjects were asked to read their written test paper before they listened to any test materials. Then, the test materials were played, either on video or on cassette player. After listening to the materials, subjects were to answer the questions in the written paper. The questions were written in English, but the subjects were told to answer in the language they wished to use: either in English or in Korean, because the test was not for writing skills.

The listening tests were double marked by two Korean-English bilingual researchers. The validation of the marking of the listening tests is demonstrated in 3.5.7.2.2.

In the case of the speaking tests, subjects were asked to read the tasks provided in the test paper before they answered the questions. In some cases, as requested by the subject, the researcher asked questions in English to relieve any initial tension. After reading and understanding the

questions, the subjects answered the questions in English. The order of the answers was ignored as long as the subjects answered all the questions. The speaking tests were audio-recorded.

The speaking tests were double marked by two native speaker EFL teachers individually. Subjects' answers on the tape were copied onto a tape in a random order before being played to the two markers, but the markers were not informed which ones were the before-treatment tests and which were the after-treatment ones. The rating scales used for marking are in appendix 4 and the procedures for developing the rating scales are explained in 3.5.7.2.2.

3.5.7.2.2 The Language Test Validation: developing rating scales

In the current study, several measures were taken to validate the rating process. First of all, piloting of the rating scales was carried out with two native speakers. They used an earlier version of the current rating scales (used for the main study) and marked the sample speaking tests. After finishing marking, they gave feedback on the usefulness of the rating scales: how difficult it was to differentiate between the points on the scale, and between the different scales. They also gave feedback on how they interpreted each scale. The raters' feedback was used to modify the rating scales to produce the final version, which would be used for the final marking. Details of the modifications made will be presented below.

After the first pilot trial, two short sessions of rater training were carried out to ensure inter-rater reliability. Bachman & Palmer (1996) point out that 'one of the most effective ways of dealing with inconsistency is through proper selection and training of raters' (221). The two raters selected were experienced EFL teachers who were therefore likely to provide 'reliable and efficient ratings' (Ibid.). The two raters gathered to practise rating language samples, compare the ratings with each other, to discuss the ratings they gave and how the criteria were applied.

- Rating scales for the speaking tests

The current study involves two language tests of listening and speaking skills, and two different rating scales were used to mark each skill area. For the speaking tests, two native speaker markers individually assigned the subjects ratings on each of the sub-traits using the sub-trait definitions given in appendix 4. A modified version of Bachman & Palmer's (1996) rating scales was used to rate the subjects' speaking tests.

In Bachman & Palmer's (1982) research, they used rating scales based on the sub-trait definitions of Communicative Language Proficiency (1990; 1996) to assign the subjects ratings on their oral interview test. Later, in Bachman's (1988) 'Problems in examining the validity of the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview', he suggested using abstract scale definitions for

scoring and as an example, he reproduced Bachman & Palmer's (1983) rating scales, which were slightly modified from their former scales (1982).

In Bachman & Palmer's (1996) more recent work, they introduce examples of criterion-referenced ability-based analytic scales. The current study employed a modified version of their criterion-referenced ability-based analytic scales. The original scales were used to mark the students entering a university-level academic writing programme for non-native speakers of English in an English-medium university. These rating scales, however, were modified for the current study, mainly because the original was intended to rate students' writing skills only. One more trait was added to the original and two traits were deleted from the original rating scales in order to adjust to the characteristics of speaking tests. As a result, there are 4 rating scales to rate the speaking test.

The newly added trait to the original scales is knowledge of phonology. Phonology is added because what would be rated is the subjects' speaking, and needless to say, phonology is a very important factor affecting the intelligibility of spoken communication. During the piloting process, another trait 'knowledge of native-like expressions' was used, but it was dropped in the final version of the rating scales because raters commented that it was hard to differentiate it from vocabulary and inter-rater correlation was low on that particular scale.

On the other hand, knowledge of rhetorical organisation and knowledge of moderately formal register were deleted from the rating scales. Knowledge of rhetorical organisation was discarded because it was related to written texts, as seen in Bachman & Palmer's definition of CLA (1996). Knowledge of moderately formal register was removed because it was considered that the tasks the test-takers should perform did not involve differentiation of register.

Modifications were also made to the original descriptors of the rating scales, although the basic structure of the original scales stayed the same. For example, all the scales were defined in terms of range and accuracy, with five levels. The descriptors for three levels (limited, moderate, and extensive) for the knowledge of syntax were slightly changed after the piloting, because the raters involved in the piloting found it hard to differentiate the three and apply them to marking the tests. Bachman & Palmer (1996) themselves recommend that their rating scales should be adapted to the actual testing situations by saying that the rating scales may be appropriate for use in actual testing situations, but this 'would need to be determined by the test developer, after taking into account the considerations of usefulness' (213).

These modified rating scales used for the current study follow Bachman & Savignon's (1986) suggestion to 'distinguish clearly language abilities from the content and context that constitute the test method' (387) for a generalisable and interpretable approach to measuring CLA. The ability levels in the rating scales were defined 'in terms of the degree of control and range demonstrated on general components of CLA' and that the end points ('zero' and 'top') were defined 'in terms of the absence or complete presence of these components' (388) instead of native speakers' performance.

There are five points on each scale, but as advised by markers participating in piloting the marking scheme, markers were told that they could give a middle point between points. The correlation between the two markers was sought. And because the correlation was high, the median between the two markers was employed for the final mark for each scale. And for the final overall mark, the median among the 4 marks for 4 scales was used.

- Marking of the listening tests

For the listening test, two Korean-English bilingual markers individually rated the subjects only for the number of ideas correctly identified, as in MacIntyre et al. (1997). Output quality for the comprehension tasks was not considered. Bachman & Palmer (1996) give two considerations to take in rating the number of tasks successfully completed, especially in the case of the ability to use language in receptive language use tasks. The first consideration is to specify 'the criteria for what constitutes a correct response to the task', and the second is to determine 'procedures for scoring the responses, that is, deciding whether responses will be scored as right or wrong or in terms of degrees of correctness (partial credit scoring)' (196).

On rating listening tests, the two markers identified correct responses to the questions and assigned each answer a mark. Out of five questions, three questions have four or five sub-questions, and the remaining two have no sub-questions. For the questions with five sub-questions, 1 point was awarded for the correct answer for each sub-question, making the perfect score 5. For the one question with four sub-questions, 1 point was awarded for each correct answer for three sub-questions and 2 points for one sub-question because it had at least two important items to be mentioned. For the other two questions which did not have any sub-questions, the markers decided five important points to be mentioned in the answer sheet and marked accordingly. However, adding an extra point (0.5 point) was allowed when a marker insisted on it for a very thoroughly described answer. After the marking, an inter-rater correlation test was carried out and found a very high correlation between the two markers. The median between the two marks was used for the final mark.

3.5.7.3 Interviews

The interviews were conducted three times. The first interview was an unstructured and informal one that was used to help the researcher get to know the subjects better: their personal, educational backgrounds, learning experience, teaching situations and opinions about using video. The first interviews therefore were conducted in an informal atmosphere and were not recorded. The other two interviews were semi-structured and formal ones. The interview questions are in 3.4.2.3. The second interview was conducted before the subjects started their case study scheme and the final interview was conducted once the subjects had finished the case study.

3.5.7.4 Self-study or teaching with video

- The time span:

After two self-assessment tests, a language test, three interviews, and one classroom observation, the subjects started their individual case study scheme. The time span involved in the case study varied according to the subjects. Initially, it was estimated that the case study would take 12 weeks (one semester) altogether. However, only two subjects took around 12 weeks, and the other three subjects took 17 and 18 weeks for various personal reasons of their own. This was not expected to affect in any way the result or validity of the study because the case studies were intended to look at the product of their learning in a natural setting.

- The period of self-study or teaching with video:

The subjects were divided into three groups as explained before. Two were in ‘the self-study with video’ group, one was in ‘the teaching class with video’ group, and the other two were in ‘the control’ group. The subjects in the ‘self-study’ group carried out the self-study with video twice a week. There was no time limit to the self-study, but it was estimated that one session would take about 1.5 to 2 hours. The subject in the ‘teaching with video’ group was required to teach her students by using video twice a week. There was no time limit to teaching with video, but it was estimated that time spent using video would be 15 to 20 minutes, which was about one third of the 50-minute class period. The subjects in the control group were only required to perform their normal teaching.

- The recommendations about using video:

There were no specific procedures laid down for the ‘self-study’ and ‘teaching’ groups. However, a workbook of activities was provided to be used if the subjects wanted, and the transcripts of the videos were also provided. The subjects were encouraged to refer to the transcripts for any expressions they could not understand from the videos, but only after they had tried to understand them several times.

3.5.7.5 Study notes

The subjects were given the study note forms prior to starting their case study scheme with explanations about how to fill out the forms. They were required to fill out the form after they finished each session. The self-study group filled out the form after each self-study session with video. The video class group was required to fill out the form after each class in which they used video. The control group filled out the form twice a week.

3.5.7.6 Classroom observations

The subjects' classroom was observed twice to look for the possible changes which might have occurred to the subjects' use of English: once before they started the case study, and once again after they had finished the study. The researcher was only an observer and did not participate in the class. The classroom language was audio-recorded and transcribed by the researcher.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES

3.6.1 Quantitative and Qualitative Data Analysis Techniques

The data was analysed in two different ways: using quantitative and qualitative techniques. Data collected from the questionnaire and the self-assessment tests both in the survey and in the case studies were quantitatively analysed because statistical evidence or information a quantitative data analysis technique could provide was considered an advantage. Quantitative data analysis involved using statistical tests: from formulating simple frequency tables, and cross-tabulations, to using ANOVA (analysis of variance), etc. SPSS 11.0 (The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) was used for the statistical tests. First of all, all the variables were classified into three different data types:

- **Nominal:** which can simply distinguish between categories, such as sex for example. Although a code number is used to stand for one category and another for another category, the codes are only to distinguish between the categories.
- **Ordinal:** in which individuals are categorised but the categories can be ordered in terms of 'more' and 'less' of the concept in question (Bryman & Cramer 1994: 65). The numbers which were assigned in the coding process indicate an order.
- **Interval:** which can be measured with numerical intervals and be subject to the usual arithmetical process of addition, multiplication, etc. A continuous, quantitative variable that has equal unit intervals but no real zero point. Age and the amount of income are examples of interval data.

Then, appropriate statistical tests for the type of the variable were selected. Care was taken to choose appropriate tests for all the variables involved when testing the relationship among different types of variables. Graphs of various kinds were also employed to clearly illustrate the results of the analysis.

The statistical tests used for analysing data were a t-test, ANOVA (analysis of variance), a chi-square test, a phi coefficient, Cramer's V coefficient, *Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient*, Kendall's tau, Spearman's rho, an eta coefficient, and a binomial test. The significance level was set at 0.05 ($p < 0.05$) for rejecting a null hypothesis, but when the p-value is smaller than 0.01, it was marked at the 0.01 level. Having a p-value lower than 0.05 means that the probability for the incident in question to occur by chance is less than 5 percent. Therefore, in most research, results of a statistical test with a p-value lower than 0.05 are accepted as being statistically significant. The principle adopted when choosing statistical tests was described as below.

A t-test was conducted to ascertain the statistically significant differences between two groups, and ANOVA was administered when there are more than two groups. A Wilcoxon Signed-ranks test was used when t-test was not suitable due to violation of the assumptions (see 4.5.1.1). When trying to find out whether or not there were any statistically significant differences of frequency among categories, either a chi-square or a binomial test was carried out (a chi-square test for bigger than 2×2 tables and a binomial for 2×2 tables).

The strength of the statistical associations was explored by correlation coefficient tests such as phi, Cramer's V, Pearson's r , Kendall's tau, Spearman's rho, and eta coefficient. Basically, correlation tests examine how closely two variables go together. *Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient* was used with caution because Bryman & Cramer (1994), Clegg (1982), Cohen & Holliday (1996), and Kinnear & Gray (1999) have all warned against using Pearson's r to test statistical associations for the variables which did not satisfy certain conditions, that is, both variables tested should be interval variables and there should be linearity of the relationships between the two variables. When these conditions were not met, Kendall's tau and Spearman's rho were employed instead.

When measuring the relationship between two different types of variables, Bryman & Cramer (1994) advise to 'move downwards in measurement level'(177). In other words, the relationship between an interval and an ordinal variable should be measured by correlation tests for ordinal variables such as Kendall's tau and Spearman's rho instead of Pearson's r for

interval variables, and the relationship between an ordinal and a nominal variable should be measured by tests for nominal variables.

Bryman & Cramer (1994) recommend using a cross-tabulation in conjunction with a chi-square test for nominal variables. Kinnear & Gray (1999), however, warn that what the chi-square statistic is able to do is only to determine ‘the presence of an association between two qualitative variables’ (277). In other words, a chi-square test does not measure the strength of a statistical association even though it can confirm the existence of the association. Also chi-square is not recommended for the data in larger tables where there are any expected frequencies of less than one or where more than 20 % of the expected frequencies are less than five (Cramer 2000; Kinnear & Gray 1999). Therefore, if the above conditions are violated, the results of a chi-square test will be discarded in the study.

In conjunction with the chi-square test Bryman & Cramer (1994) suggest using phi or Cramer’s V, because ‘the use of Cramer’s V in conjunction with chi-square can provide information that approximates to a direct significance test’(178). The only difference between the phi coefficient ϕ and Cramer’s V, according to them, is the size of the tables: phi for 2×2 tables and Cramer’s V for larger tables.

When exploring the relationship between an interval dependent variable and an independent variable that is either nominal or ordinal, it is advisable to use the eta coefficient, which can only vary between 0 and +1 like Cramer’s V (Bryman & Cramer 1994).

A binomial test and a chi-square are recommended when looking for differences of frequency among categories. The binomial test compares ‘the frequency of cases actually found in the two categories of a dichotomous variable with those which are expected on some basis’ (Bryman & Cramer 1994: 118). In the binomial test a hypothesised proportion 0.5 between two categories is set by default unless a different value is defined. In other words, it is assumed that the numbers in each category are expected, by default, to be equal. If there is a difference found between the hypothesised proportion and the obtained proportion with a low p-value, it means that the probability of obtaining this result by chance is low. Therefore, it means that there is a significant difference between the obtained result and the hypothesised one, and it can be concluded that there are unequal numbers in the two categories. A chi-square test is used for tables bigger than 2×2.

Data collected through the interviews and classroom observations in the case studies and short-answer questions in the survey questionnaire were analysed qualitatively, because these data were intended to gather ‘evidence that reflects the experiences, feelings or judgements of

individuals taking part in the investigation' (Verma & Mallick 1999: 27). Therefore the analysis was expected to come up with 'understanding rather than knowledge...interpretations rather than measurements...values rather than facts'(Coleman & Briggs 2002: 267) that a qualitative data analysis could provide. Qualitative data analysis in the current study used the technique from one of the two 'best known general strategies' (Bryman & Burgess 1994): grounded theory. Bryman & Burgess (1994) explain this strategy as follows:

After some data collection and reflection in relation to a general issue of concern, the researcher generates 'categories' which fit the data. Further research is undertaken until the categories are 'saturated', that is, the researcher feels assured about their meaning and importance. The researcher then attempts to formulate more general (and possibly more abstract) expressions of these categories, which will then be capable of embracing a wider range of objects. (4)

Coding is an essential step in the process, and 'provides the link between data and the conceptualisation'(Bryman & Burgess 1994: 5).

In the study, in the process of qualitative data analysis, coding was carried out, firstly 'breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualising, and categorising data'(Strauss & Corbin 1990: 61) and later '[putting] back together in new ways...by making connections between categories'(Ibid.: 96). For the data from the short answer questions in the questionnaire, some patterns or regularities within the data were pursued for coding. In the analysis of these data, categories which emerged from the data themselves were in turn used to summarise and collapse the data in a systematic way (Seliger & Shohamy 1989). The frequencies for each category were counted and the proportion between categories was calculated. And possible explanations for the patterns of data emerged were sought. For example, the teachers' answers given in response to the question of why they did not use English most of the time in class were placed in three categories (teacher factors, students factors, and educational environment factors) according to the patterns that emerged from their answers themselves. Then the frequencies with which each category was mentioned were counted, and the ratio between the three categories was calculated. Finally, possible explanations for the patterns were provided. For the data from the interviews, the gist of what an interviewee had said was identified, and then interpretations of and possible explanations for the interviewee's remarks were sought within the interviewee's context, quoting her. Details of analysis of the data collected from classroom observations can be found below.

3.6.2 Background to the Analysis of the Classroom Observation Data

The structure of this section is as follows. First of all, the foci of analysis of the classroom observation data will be clarified. Then, short details about the observed classes will be presented.

3.6.2.1 The foci of analysis

Many of the observational systems designed and used by earlier classroom based studies (Flanders 1960; Jarivs 1968; Moskowitz 1968; Nearhoof 1969; Polizer 1970; Rothfarb 1970) seem to try to capture a great many aspects in classroom learning and teaching. Nonetheless, the focus of classroom observation in this study is exclusively on teacher talk, particularly the teachers' use of the target language, and so the many and varied categories covering various aspects of the classroom in the above observational systems are not entirely suitable for this research purpose.

Most of the Korean teachers the researcher met in Korea are also in favour of using the target language in principle in class. All five teachers participating in the case studies tended to be supportive of the use of the target language with the students, but with some reservations. One of the teachers expressed her attitudes toward using the target language in relation to the proportion of time she spent using English in class (question IV 5 of the survey questionnaire):

I think it is a good thing to use more English than Korean in class. Especially, now that I am teaching English conversation class, the more English is spoken in class the better, I presume. Using English is also helpful for me to keep up my own English. However, sometimes, I feel my students' level of English is not good enough to understand English only instruction. And other times I think it is not very effective to explain things in English. I mean it takes much more time to make the students understand in English than in Korean, so sometimes I feel I couldn't complete the whole of whatever amount of items I need to teach in the particular lesson if I used only English. It takes too much time and I have to keep repeating myself to make myself understood. And at other times I feel my English is not good enough to express everything I need to in a native-like way.

Therefore, it is probably commonsensical that rather than strictly adhering to the target language use only policy, the teachers should try to use the target language flexibly, adapting to 'individual pupils and classroom situations' (Dickson 1996: 10). However, a number of people including the teachers responding to Dickson's (1996) questionnaire study still seem to believe that 'maximising use of the target language [is] a good principle' (Ibid.: 10).

For these reasons, the current classroom observation data will focus on teacher talk, especially on the analysis of quantity and pattern of teachers' target language use. First of all, the quantity of the subjects' use of the target language (English) will be counted and compared with the quantity of their use of the mother tongue (Korean). In particular, evidence will be sought as to

whether there are any evident changes in the quantity of the teachers' target language use before the case studies and after them. To identify the changes before and after treatment in the quantity of the teachers' English use, the numbers of English words used by the teachers in the class before treatment and after treatment will be counted and compared with the numbers of Korean words used by them before and after. And then, the ratio of English words to Korean words will be calculated in both classes per subject and then compared with each other.

Secondly, the target language used by the teachers is extracted from the whole of the teacher talk data and then is divided into two different categories using Willis's (1992) Inner and Outer categories (refer to 2.2.3). Willis (1992) observes that in some classrooms, 'more usually in countries where the target language is not the medium of instruction, all or most of this Outer language is in the learners' mother tongue'(163), which is very often the case with most of the classrooms in Korea.

Willis's (1992) Inner and Outer differentiation seems to make it easier to divide the subjects' language use into two different categories, and thereby can help achieve the purpose of the classroom observation research of looking at and of differentiating among the teachers' target language use in the classroom. The purpose is not only to look at teacher talk in the target language, but also to make a distinction between the teachers' use of language for communication purposes and its use for non-communication purposes. Willis's (1992) Inner and Outer categories seem to be appealingly simple and useful. The division of the two different types of language used in the classroom can speak for itself. The language classified as Inner will be the target forms of the language, which can also be described as the practice language, whereas the Outer language will be the language used for directing the classroom, explaining things, and real communication between the teacher and the pupils, which is more of the researcher's interest. Therefore, differentiating Outer language from Inner will allow the language of interest to this study to be extracted from the whole language data, and thereby make it easier to get a complete picture of the language used for communication in the classroom. Through looking at the Outer language the teachers used, we can go one step further towards analysing the Outer language on its own. Therefore, the target language used by the teacher will be divided into Inner and Outer, both are counted respectively, and the ratio between them will be calculated. Also the changes in the amount of and the ratio of English to Korean between before and after treatment classroom will be shown.

Then the Outer language will be classified into 12 different sub-categories to identify the pattern of the teachers' target language use. After extracting the Outer language from the whole language data, the Outer language itself will be categorised mainly by its function. In particular,

it is hoped that the classification of the Outer language can reveal the range of the functions of the target language the teachers used, the more and less commonly used functions, and the changes of pattern between before- and after-treatment classroom.

The 12 sub-categories used in the analysis are modified from Sinclair & Coulthard's (1975; 1992) classes of acts, which seem to be comprehensive enough to cover and to label almost all the aspects of teacher talk. Sinclair & Coulthard (1975; 1992) have found 22 different classes of acts happening in the classroom. The classes of acts and their symbols are marker (m), starter (s), elicitation (el), check (ch), directive (d), informative (i), prompt (p), clue (cl), cue (cu), bid (b), nomination (n), acknowledge (ack), reply (rep), react (rea), comment (com), accept (acc), evaluate (e), silent stress (^), metastatement (ms), conclusion (con), loop (l), and aside (z) (Sinclair & Coulthard 1975; 1992)

Sinclair & Coulthard's (1975; 1992) classes of acts appear to be very comprehensive and well defined. But because they were originally designed for content classrooms rather than the language classroom, some of the characteristics of the language used in the language classroom did not seem to be well reflected in their classes of acts. In addition, Sinclair & Coulthard's (1975; 1992) comprehensive categories are well-designed in themselves, but do not seem to be entirely appropriate for this study. First of all, some of the categories seem to be so finely divided that they seem difficult to apply. In addition, the interests of this study are not to look at and finely classify the diverse functions of classroom language but to identify the variety of the teachers' English used in class. For these reasons, in this analysis, some modifications are made to make the classes of acts more suitable for this research purpose: some of their acts are left out and a few other characteristics are added to the original features of the acts. As a result, Sinclair & Coulthard's (1975) (1992) 22 categories are cut down to 12 categories. The modified 12 categories and their symbols are marker (m), elicitation (el), check (c), directive (d), informative (i), prompt (p), nomination (n), evaluative (e), metastatement (ms), loop (l), aside (z) and reading (r). And the whole list of 12 categories, and the characteristics added to the original are in appendix 6. The categories removed are starter, clue, cue, bid, acknowledge, reply, react, comment, accept, silent stress, conclusion, and the category added is reading. 'Starter' was merged into 'marker', 'clue', 'cue', 'reply' were merged into 'informative', 'bid' into 'nomination', and 'acknowledge', 'react', 'comment', 'accept' into 'evaluative'. The reasons why they were merged into other categories are that they were hard to distinguish from the others and rarely used. 'Silent stress' was removed because it did not involve any talk, and 'conclusion' was discarded because it was not found in any observed classes. 'Reading' was added in order to distinguish the teachers' use of English from simple reading of the textbook.

Sentence complexity will not be sought as evidence of changes in teacher talk in the classroom observation data because several research results show that modifications to teacher speech in class are found (Nunan 1989; Pica & Long 1986). In other words, teachers tend to simplify their speech in the classroom to make themselves understood. Rather than giving students something more than they can chew by using sentences with complex structures, it is seen as more important to expose the students to the classroom where the target language is more often used. For these purposes, constant use of English in class, use of English for genuine communication purposes, and the use of a variety of English seem to be worth investigation.

3.6.2.2 Brief details about the case study subjects' teaching situations

- **Case 1 (case 1 used video for her own language improvement):**

For case 1, between the first class observed and the second there are only slight differences in terms of the subject the teacher is teaching, the level of the students, and teaching materials: mainly textbook. The first class was observed in the first month of the second semester with 1st year university students all on the same course and the second class was observed in the first month of the first semester the next year with 1st year university students all on the same course. In the first class, the teacher taught English Conversation II but English Conversation I in the second class. The textbook used was the same at both times, *New Interchange Intro*. The contents of the lessons showed only slight differences in difficulty or complexity of the target forms between the two classes.

- **Case 2 (case 2 used video for her own language improvement):**

Between the first class observed and the second there are only slight differences in terms of the subject the teacher is teaching, the level of the students, and teaching materials. The first class was observed in the first month of the second semester with 2nd year university students all on the same course and the second class was observed in the first month of the first semester the next year with 2nd year university students all on the same course. In the first class, the teacher in case 2 taught English Conversation IV but English Conversation III in the second class. The textbook used was the same both times, *New Interchange*. The contents of the lessons were only slightly different in difficulty or complexity of the target forms between the two classes. However, the tape recording of the teacher's second class was about 40 minutes long (because students had to take a 10-minute written test), which was 20% shorter than her first class (about 50 minute long).

- **Case 3 (case 3 used video in class with her students):**

Between the first class observed and the second there are no big differences in terms of the subject the teacher is teaching, the level of the students, and teaching materials. In both cases, the teacher in case 3 was teaching the same subject, Basic English Conversation course using the same textbook, *Gateways I*. The level of the students was about the same in both cases even though the students in her first class were not the same people as the ones in her second class. Both classes observed were almost two thirds of the way through the month (her course was two-months long). The contents of the lessons did not show much difference in difficulty or complexity of the target forms in the two classes.

- **Case 4 (case 4 functioned as control):**

The two classes observed show no big differences in terms of the subject, the level of the students, and teaching materials. At both times, the teacher in case 4 was teaching the same subject, a Basic English Grammar for Conversation course using the same textbook, *Focus on Grammar*. The level of the students was about the same in both classes. The first class observed was almost two thirds of the way through the month, and the second was towards the end of the month. The contents of the lessons did not show much difference in difficulty or complexity of the target forms in both classes.

- **Case 5 (case 5 functioned as control):**

In case 5, there is a remarkable difference between the two classes observed. In her first observed class, she was teaching *Basic English Conversation* course, but she had to change the subject she was teaching to *Basic English Composition* course in the middle of the case study. Naturally, the textbook, teaching methods, and amount of the target language used were all affected by the fact that she was teaching a different subject in her second class observed. Her teaching styles were very different in the two classes, and the teacher herself was very much aware of it. In an interview with the researcher, she said:

Because the subject I am teaching now is different from that I taught before, I think I am approaching the class in a different way. I tried to use more English with my Conversation class students, but with my Composition class students I can't see the need. Naturally, the students in my Composition class want to practise their writing more than their speaking or listening. As a result, I don't bother to try to speak in English in class, at least not very often. And when I explain grammar and other things, they want me to do it in Korean so that they can understand without much difficulty. So mostly I do it in Korean. It is a kind of time conscious way of doing it.

The three teachers (case 3, 4, and 5) were teaching at private language schools for adults and their courses were two-months long. In order to complete the whole course students should enrol in the course for two months in a row. However, the first month was not necessarily easier than the second month in terms of target forms the students learned. For the students who

joined the second month, the course started with something easier every month and moved on to more difficult items toward the end of every month.

Therefore, the classes observed first for three teachers (case 3, 4, and 5) took place around the same time of the month as the second observed classes. However, the classes observed first for the other two teachers' (case 1 and 2) were given in the second semester with slightly more demanding teaching objectives than the second classes, which took place in the first semester.

3.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the current research design was discussed in detail. Research questions and hypotheses were presented, data collection techniques and procedures were elaborated along with details of the subjects of the study, and finally data analysis techniques were discussed.

The current study combines a quantitative approach and a qualitative approach to reflect better the subjects' perception of their own English proficiency, other measures of their spoken proficiency, their needs for target language improvement, and the effect of video as a medium for language learning on the subjects' linguistic proficiency. The quantitative data was collected by means of self-assessment tests, background questionnaires, and language tests. The qualitative data was collected mainly by methods used in the case studies.

The data collected was also analysed in two ways: quantitatively and qualitatively where necessary. The next chapter presents the results of the data analysis.

4 RESULTS OF THE STUDY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results of the study, based on the data gathered from three different sources: self-assessment (SA) tests, survey questionnaires, and case studies. The data from the case studies were collected using five different methods: self-assessment, language tests, interviews, classroom observations, and study notes. The order of presentation of the results is from self-assessment tests, to research questions that were answered by the survey questionnaire, and to research questions that were answered by case studies.

As mentioned earlier in 3.2, the main research questions are divided into four: (I) what is the nature of Korean teachers' own perception of their proficiency as non-native speakers of English?; (II) what is the relationship between Korean teachers' perceived spoken language proficiency and other measures of their spoken proficiency?; (III) are there any need for and ways of boosting teachers' proficiency in the target language?; (IV) what is the effect of the use of video on the teachers' linguistic proficiency? Under these main research questions, there are sub-questions, and 4 research hypotheses based on these research questions.

As explained in 3.6, the data were analysed in two different ways according to the data type: using quantitative and qualitative data analysis techniques. Quantitative data were gathered from the survey questionnaire, self-assessment tests and language tests, and were analysed using SPSS 11.00. Qualitative data analysis involved '[identifying], [delimiting], and [sorting] the relevant segments of the text according to an organising scheme' (Seliger & Shohamy 1989: 205), and seeking possible explanations and interpretations.

4.2 RESULTS FROM THE SELF-ASSESSMENT TESTS: *What is the Korean English Teachers' Assessment of their own Language Proficiency?*

This question was designed to identify Korean English teachers' perception of their own English proficiency. All the respondents were asked to fill out two types of self-assessment (SA) tests. The questions on the two self-assessment tests asked about the respondents' linguistic proficiency. As described in 3.4.1.2, the first type of self-assessment test is a 'can-do' type modified from MacIntyre et al. (1997), which asks for the respondents' own assessment of what they can or cannot do in English using a 5-point scale. The second type of self-assessment is based on Bachman & Palmer (1989) and deals with the respondents' self-rating of their own communicative language ability (CLA) on a 5-point scale in three different ways (refer to 3.4.1.2 for the explanation of what modifications were made and why). The two types of self-assessment tests (SA 1 and SA 2) were used for the purpose of getting a clearer idea of the teachers' self-assessment of themselves (refer to appendix 1-1 and 1-3 for the two self-assessment tests).

- Self-assessment 1 and 2 test scores

The scores for both tests were added up and mean scores were sought. 1 is the lowest possible score and 5 is the highest score. The figures below show the results of the respondent teachers' self-ratings on both self-assessment tests.

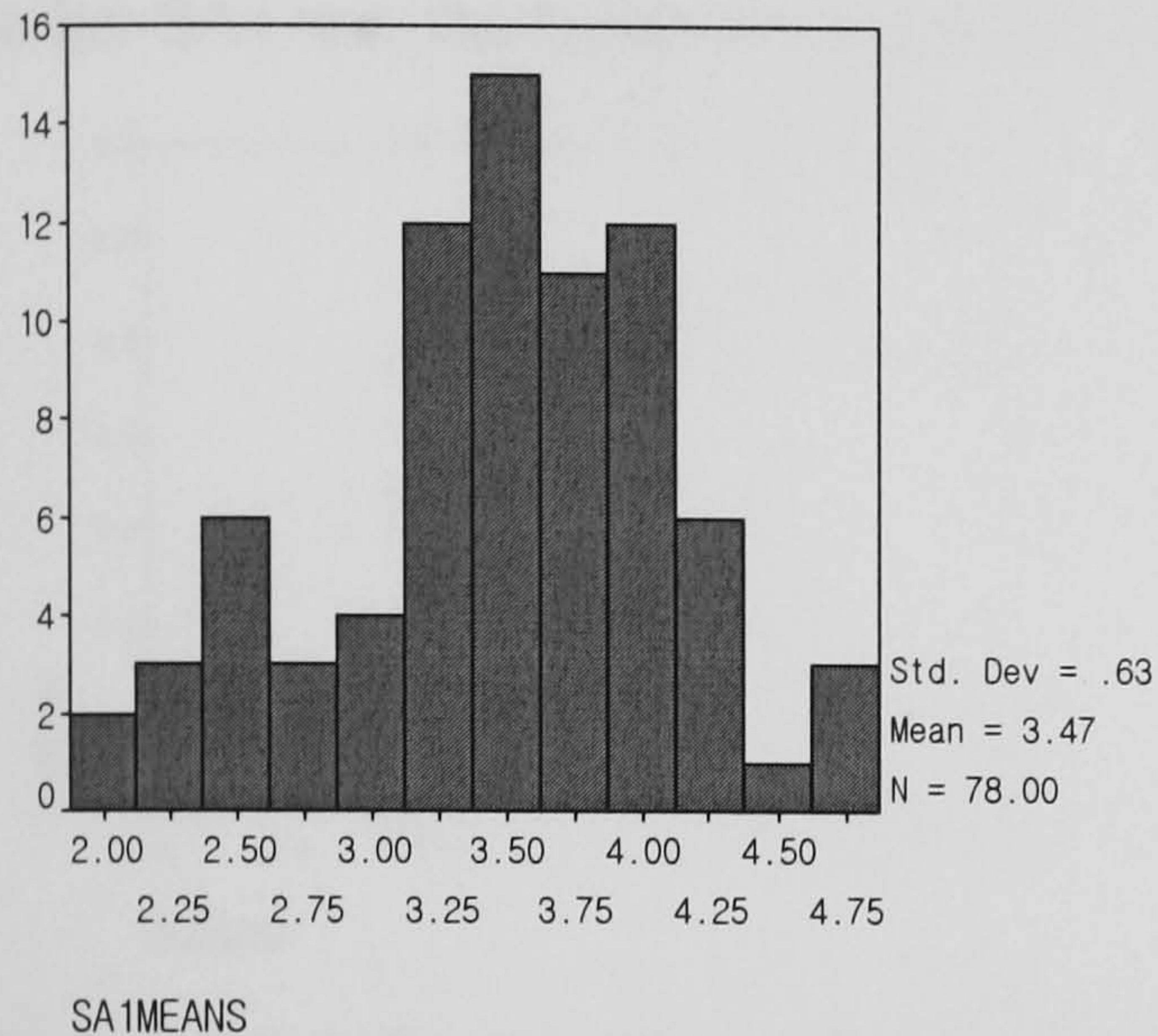


Figure 4.2-1 SA1 means

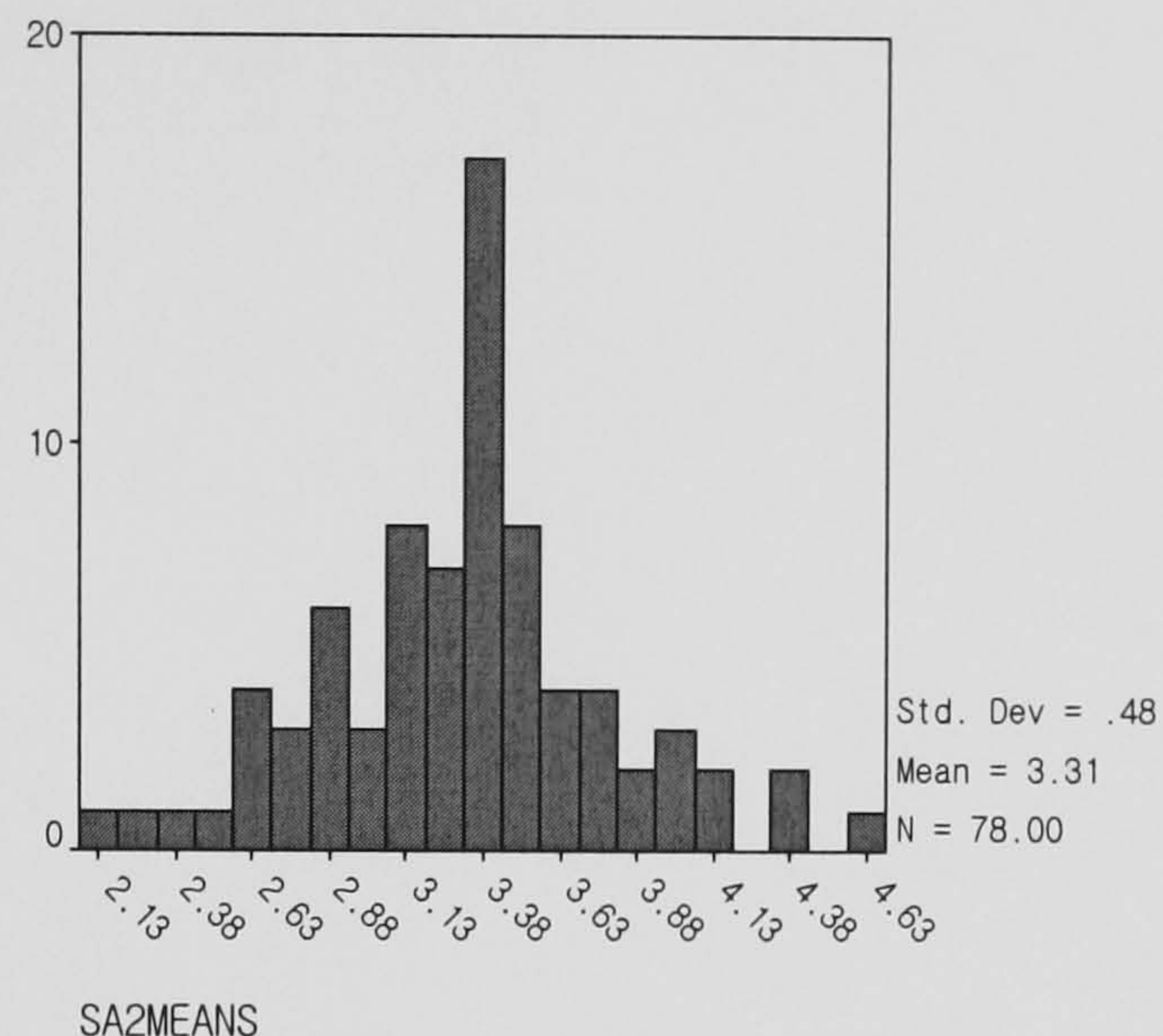


Figure 4.2-2 SA2 means

In order to determine if there were any significant differences between the results of the two self-assessment tests, a paired samples t-test was administered. The t-test is commonly used 'to ascertain the significance of a difference between two means' (Kinnear & Gray 1999: 153). A t-test assumes that the data have been 'derived from normal distributions (which is shown by the smooth, symmetrical curve of the histograms) with equal variance¹', even if a moderate violation of these assumptions is accepted 'provided that the samples are not too small, do not contain outliers (atypical scores), and are of equal (or nearly equal) size' (Kinnear & Gray 1999: 155). In this case, the paired samples t-test was used because the two scores were the results of the two self-assessment tests taken by the same subjects. If the two tests had been taken by different subjects, an independent samples t-test would have been used. The results of the t-test were significant ($t = 4.064$; $df = 77$; $p < 0.01$). In other words, there is a significant difference between the two self-assessment scores and the two scores differ from each other.

Because the t-test was not able to show the strength of the relationship between two variables, the strengths of the relationships between the two self-assessment score means were tested using *Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient*. When both of variables are interval and the relationships between them are shown to be linear (which can be confirmed by using a

¹ variance: a measure of dispersion around the mean, equal to the sum of squared deviations from the mean divided by one less than the number of cases (SPSS for Windows Topics)

scatterplot shown in Figure 4.2-3), a more powerful correlation test *Pearson's r* can be used than rank correlation tests such as Spearman's rho or Kendall's tau. With a value for r of 0.832 and a two-tailed p -value of 0.001, it can be concluded that the correlation coefficient is significant beyond the 1 per cent level ($r = 0.832$; $n = 78$; $p < 0.01$). In other words, the correlation between the two self-assessment tests is significant and high. Therefore, although the scores from the two self-assessment tests were different, the higher the score a subject had on her SA1 test, the higher the score the subject was likely to get on her SA2 test.

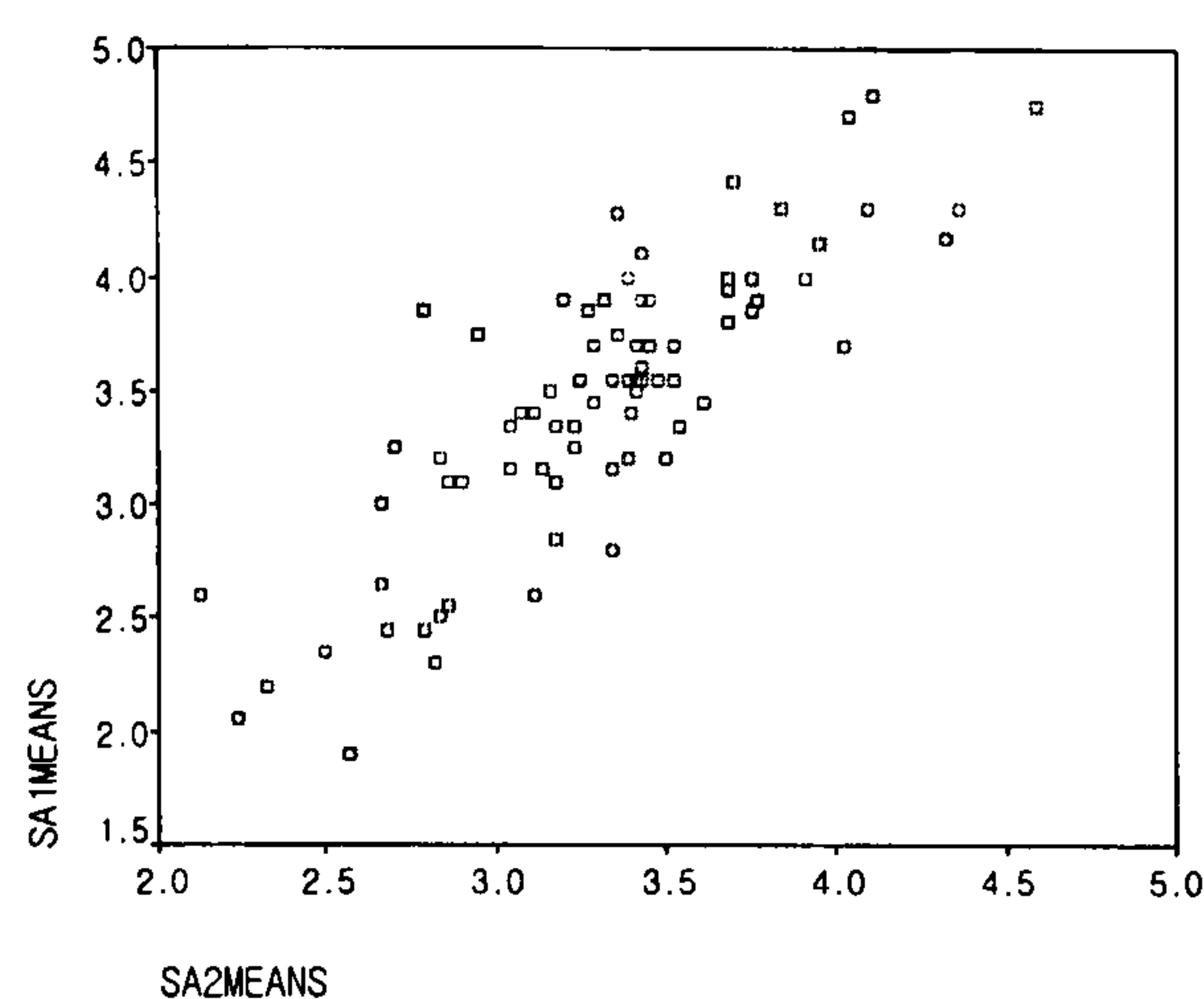


Figure 4.2-3 Scatterplot of SA1 and SA2

- Self-assessment mean scores

The two self-assessment tests investigated linguistic proficiency from a different angle (see 3.4.1.2). One test asked about how well the subjects could perform specific tasks and the other asked about various components of ‘communicative language ability’(CLA). The two were expected to complement each other. As shown above, the two sets of scores from the two sets of self-assessment tests were significantly different, so using scores from any one self-assessment test was not expected to reflect subjects’ self-assessed linguistic proficiency fully. Therefore, mean scores from both sets of scores were identified, and all through the analysis these mean scores were used. The self-assessment means of the respondents can be collapsed into 6 categories in Figure 4.2-4.

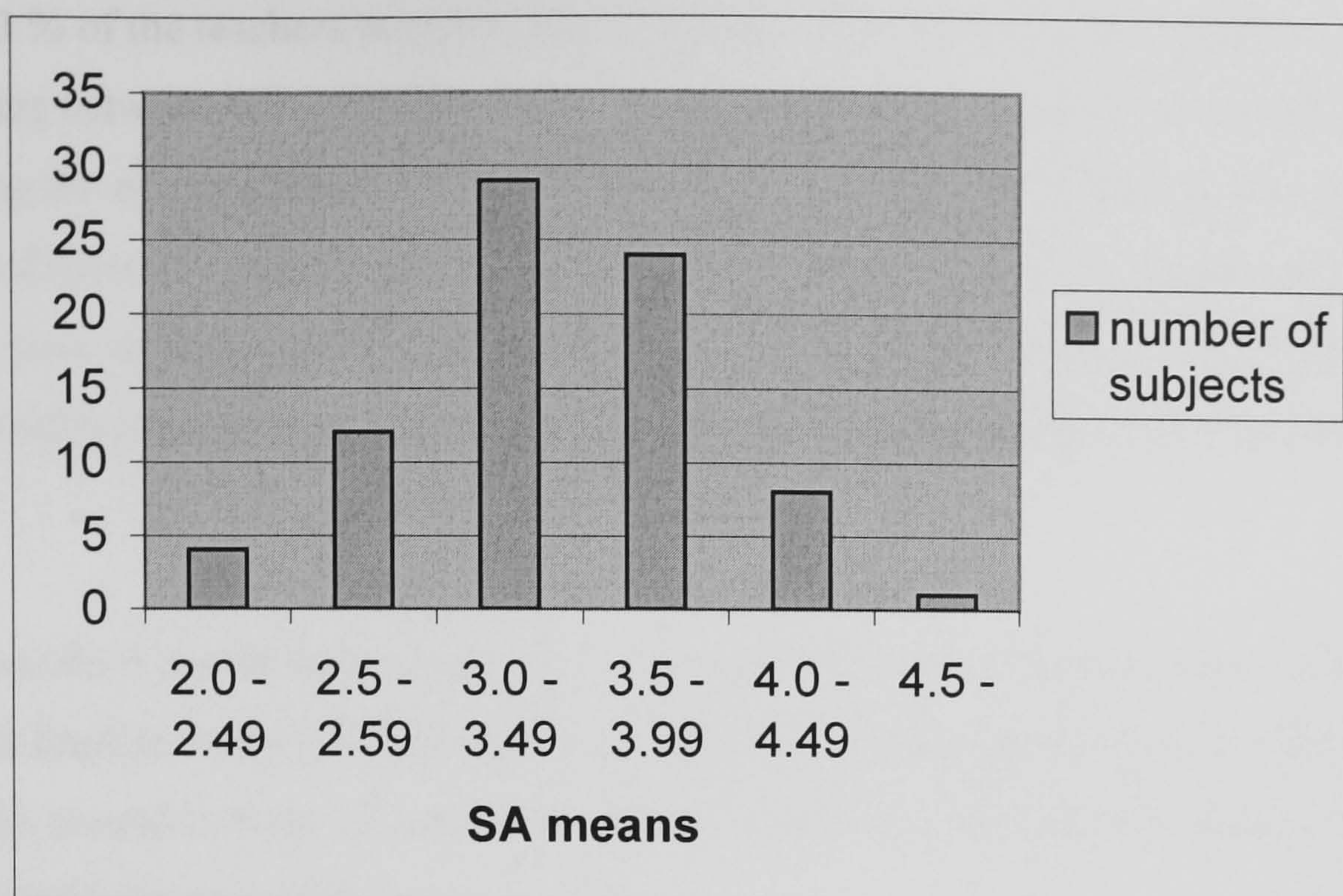


Figure 4.2-4 Subjects' SA means

As shown in Figure 4.2-4, there are no teachers whose averaged mean scores are lower than 2.0. The biggest group consists of those who scored between 3.0 and 3.49 with 29 members (37.2 %). The second biggest group consists of those who scored between 3.5 and 3.99 with 24 members (30.8 %), and then 12 teachers (15.4 %) scored between 2.5 and 2.99, 8 teachers (10.3 %) between 4.0 and 4.49, 4 teachers (5.1 %) between 2.0 and 2.49, and only one teacher (1.3 %) has a score higher than 4.5.

Most of the teachers' scores gather around the middle as seen in Figure 4.2-4. To be more specific, the proportion of the teachers scoring between 2.5 and 3.99 is 83.4 %.

What do these scores mean? In the self-assessment tests, there is a 5-point scale in every question, as mentioned above. The middle point 3 means that the teachers consider they are neither good nor bad in performing in English the tasks they are asked about in the self-assessment tests. Therefore, a mean score of 3 can mean that this particular person thinks he or she is neither good nor bad in performing in English. In the same vein, a mean score of 4 indicates a good performance in English, and a mean score of 2 shows a rather poor performance in English. A mean score of 5 therefore shows a very good performance in English (a native speaker level's performance), and a mean score of 1 indicates a very poor performance in English.

Therefore, it can be said that the 37.2 % of the teachers assess their proficiency as average (by choosing the middle point 3) or a little higher than average by scoring between 3.0 and 3.49. And 30.8 % of the teachers assess their English as closer to good (scoring between 3.5 and

3.99). 10.3 % of the teachers perceive their English proficiency as high or getting towards very high (scoring between 4.0 and 4.49). Only 1.3 % of the teachers assess their English as approaching the native speakers' level. On the other hand, 20.5 % of the teachers assess their English proficiency as below average (scoring below 3.0). 5.1% of the teachers assess their English as poor or slightly above the poor level (5.1 % scored between 2.0 and 2.49), and 15.4 % of the teachers assess their proficiency as getting toward the average (scoring between 2.5 and 2.99).

From the results it can be inferred that 88.5 % of the teachers (scoring between 2.0 and 3.99) assess their English as not good or high: they think their English proficiency is below average (below 3.0), around average (around 3.0), slightly higher than that (slightly above 3.0), or getting toward high (near 4.0), but not good yet.

4.3 RESULTS FROM THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE (I)

Four sub-questions under the main research question I: Korean English teachers' confidence in using English, the proportion of time they spend using English in class, and what other factors could have possibly affected or been related to their self-assessments and confidence in English.

4.3.1 How Confident are the Teachers in Using English?

Question IV 1 in the survey questionnaire addressed this question. The actual question asked was 'as a non-native speaker of English, are you confident in your English proficiency?' The respondents were required to answer by choosing: (1) 'hardly confident'; (2) 'a little confident'; (3) 'confident'; (4) 'very confident'. Figure 4.3-1 shows the respondents' confidence level.

Surprisingly enough, more than half (55.1%) of the teachers admitted that they were not very confident of their own English proficiency, with 10 teachers who are 'hardly confident' (12.8%) and 33 teachers who are 'a little confident' (42.3%). On the other hand, the number of teachers, who are 'very confident' of their English proficiency, is only 2 (2.6%). Another 33 teachers (42.3%) showed a degree of confidence in their English by selecting the 'confident' answer.

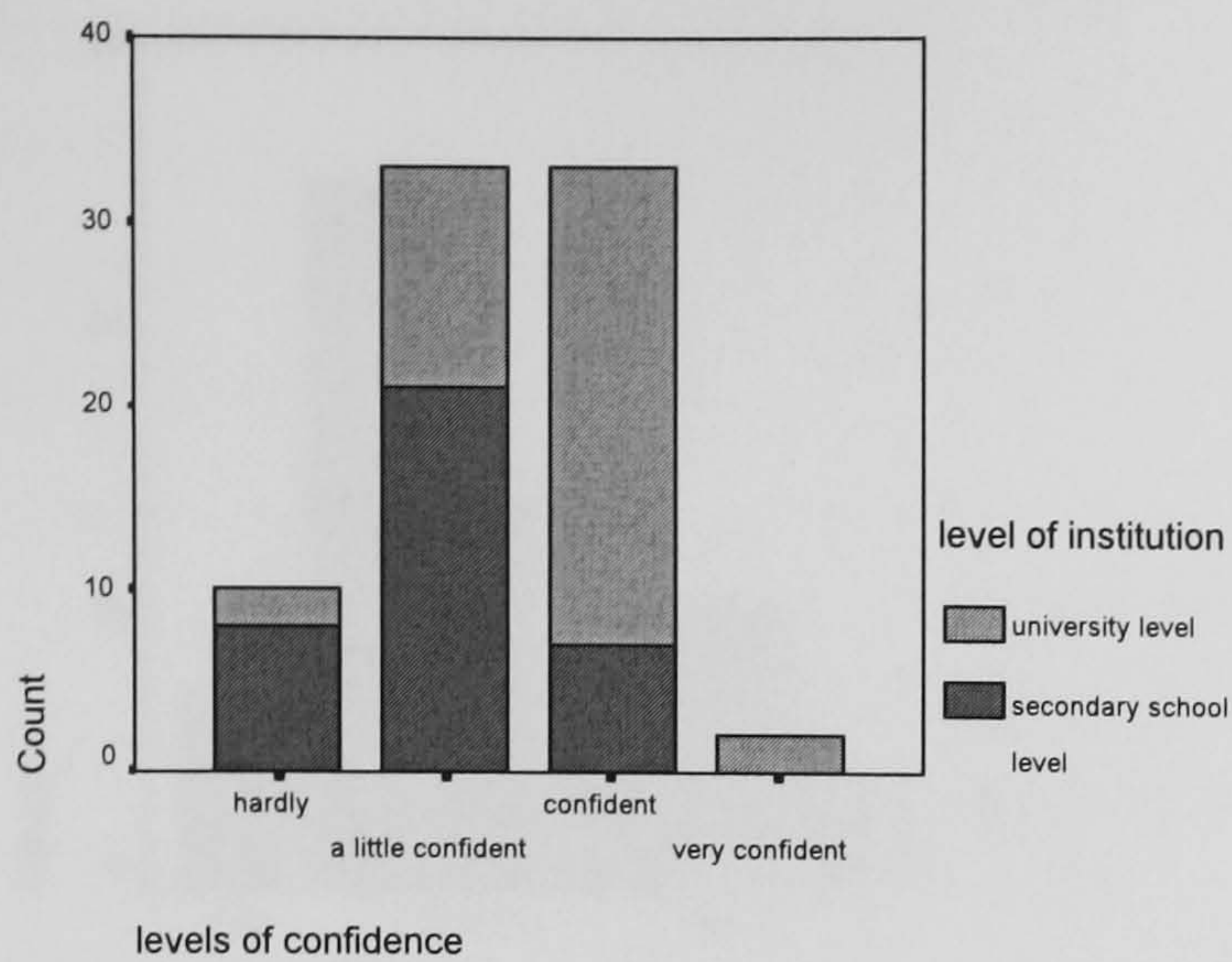


Figure 4.3-1 Confidence in English Proficiency

In summary, more than half the teachers do not seem to exhibit much confidence in their own English proficiency, by indicating they are ‘hardly’ or ‘a little’ confident. This, in conjunction with their self-assessment scores, clearly shows that they do not have a positive image of themselves, at least not of their own linguistic proficiency.

4.3.2 What Proportion of Time in Class do the Teachers Spend Using English?

This question was asked in the hope of establishing the relationship between the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class and the teachers’ perceived proficiency. First of all, the proportion of time the respondents spend using English in class was investigated in the survey questionnaire, IV 4 (‘what percentage of the time do you spend using English in class as a medium of instruction?’).

As shown in Figure 4.3-2, most of the teachers do not spend a large proportion of time using English in class. 46 teachers (70.8 % of the respondents) used English for 50% or less of the time in class. Among them, seven teachers claimed that they did not use English in class at all. 25 teachers used English for somewhere between 1 % and 25 % of the time in class, and 14 teachers between 26 % and 50 %. On the other hand, only 19 teachers (29.2 %) used English more than half of the time in class. The number of teachers using English for between 76 % and 99 % of the time was higher (10) than the number using the language for between 51 % and 75% (5). The number of teachers who claimed that they led English-only classes was only 4 (6.2 %).

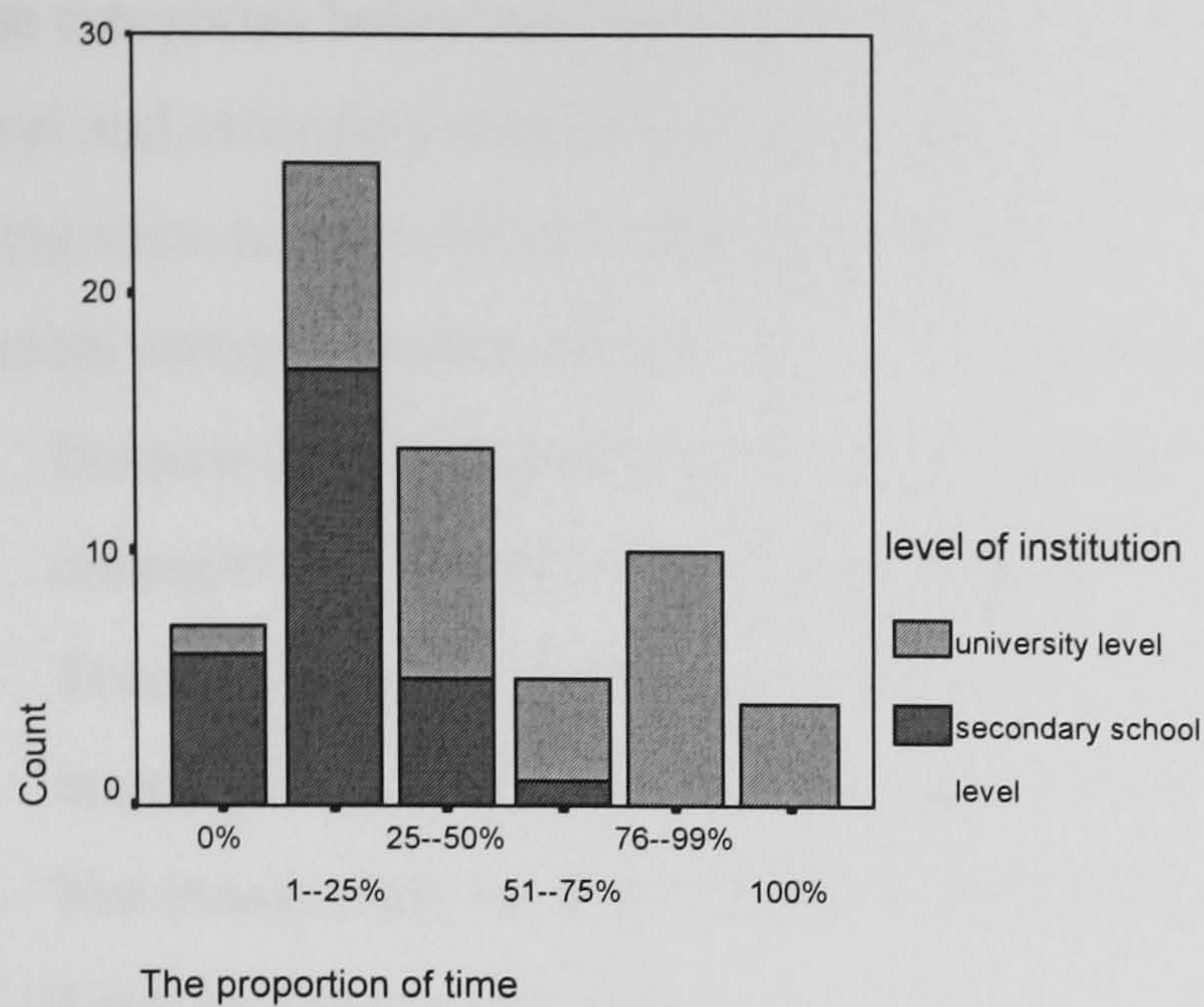


Figure 4.3-2 The proportion of time for English

In question IV 5 of the survey questionnaire, the respondents who did not use English in class for 80 – 100 % of the time were asked to give the reasons for not using it. Some respondents gave more than one reason for not using English for most of the time in class, and all the reasons were categorised.

51 teachers (65.4 %)(university level 22/ secondary school level 29) claimed that they used English for less than 80% of the time in class. The no response rate was 16.7 %(13 teachers- university level 6/ secondary school 7). As a result, the number of teachers who said they used English in class for more than 80% of the time was 14 (17.9 %) and all of them are university level teachers. What was remarkable is that none of the 36 secondary school teacher respondents said that they used English as a medium for more than 80% of the time. A closer look at Figure 4.3-2 shows that the time secondary school teachers said they spent using English in class is not even close to 80%. No respondents are found in the range over 76%. Only one secondary teacher answered that she used English for about 60% of the time in class, and the majority of teachers were in the range of 1 % to 25%. Moreover, six teachers confessed that they did not use English at all as a medium of instruction.

- Reasons for not using English most of the time in class

The total number of teachers who gave reasons is 51. Among them 20 university teachers (47.6 % of the subset) gave their reasons for not using English for about 80% or above of the time in class. One of the university level teachers answered this question even though she used English 100% in class. She said that using English all the time in class was her departmental policy (the department of General English) and that she personally believed it was beneficial to her to use more English even though she made mistakes in doing that.

The categories below emerged from the reasons given by teachers from both groups (university level and secondary school level). The reasons given by teachers are first placed into three categories: teacher factors, student factors, and educational environment factors. The teacher factors category is then divided into seven sub-categories:

- Because of the subject I teach / Because I need to explain grammatical things, abstract concepts etc. / Need for explaining things in the mother tongue
- Teachers' low level of spoken proficiency/ Tendency of using the same kinds of classroom language because the teacher's vocabulary range is not extensive
- Not being ready for that / Heavy workload and not enough time to prepare for that
- Lack of effort on my part
- Teachers' lack of confidence in speaking / Speaking in English is a heavy burden or feels threatening to me
- I feel no need for that
- Not being used to using English

The student factors category is divided into four sub-categories:

- Students' dislike of teachers' imperfect pronunciation (teachers as NNS)
- Students' low level of understanding of spoken English / to help students' understanding Korean is needed
- Students' uneven level of proficiency
- Students' low participation in an English medium class and the possible demotivation caused by this

The educational environment factors category has five sub-categories

- Syllabuses centred on grammar and reading, not on listening and speaking
- Classroom goals, main focus is on getting higher marks on tests and eventually getting into university / Students' need for higher marks on tests based on reading skills not on communication skills / Classroom environments are not in favour of that
- It tends to obstruct the course of the lesson because of diverse reasons / There are too many things to cover in class time which puts you off from attempting to use English/ Syllabuses are full of teaching items and not enough time for that/ Not enough time for trying to speak in English on my part and for trying to make students understand in English
- Difficulty in setting up the class atmosphere where English can be used in a natural way
- Class size is too big to make students' concentrate in an English medium class

Students' low level of understanding of spoken English was highlighted by 28 teachers (54.9 %) as the biggest reason why they used English for less than 80% of the time in class. Secondary school students' level of understanding in English was evaluated by their teachers as not high enough to understand English instruction whereas the teachers' evaluation of university level students' understanding in English was higher than that, as seen in the smaller number of teachers who pinpointed this reason (12 university level teachers and 16 secondary school teachers).

Other than the above categories, the other categories were mentioned much less frequently, between one and eight times. The teacher's low level of speaking proficiency was identified as one of the reasons for not using English for more than 80% of the time in class (eight teachers/ 15.7 %). It seems significant that six secondary school teachers mentioned this in contrast to only two university level teachers. The teachers' low level of proficiency can be linked to another sub-category, teachers' lack of confidence in their own proficiency, especially in speaking. Six teachers (11.8 %) identified this as one of the reasons. Once again, there is a big difference in the two groups. Only one university level teacher identified this as the reason while five teachers did in the secondary teacher group. One of the secondary school teachers said that speaking in English was a big burden or threat to her.

Understandably, eight secondary school teachers (15.7 %) blamed the institution's goals focusing on passing the university entrance examinations for not using English instruction most of the time while none of the university level teachers, all of whose students had already passed the exam, mentioned it. This kind of educational goal has been attacked for decades by many people directly or indirectly involved in English education: policy makers, teachers, students and parents, etc. In Korean society, a degree means a lot, so the majority of secondary school students want to get into university to get a degree and eventually to get a good job. And to get into university, students need to get higher marks on the university entrance examination, and in order to do that their studies should be focused on reading skills and grammar, which are important in the exam. Therefore, students put more effort into those areas rather than into improving communication skills in English (i.e., speaking, listening, or writing skills) (*The Korea Herald* 25/6/2001, 24/5/2001). As a result, classroom environments are not conducive to devoting class time to those skills.

Seven university level teachers (13.7 %) claimed that the subject they teach inhibited them from using English for more than 80% of the time in class whereas none of the secondary school teachers mentioned this. This could mean that university level English tends to be learned in classes focussing on different skills, in an effort to meet learners' diverse needs. Some classes

focus on English conversation, that is, developing the learners' speaking skills. Others put their emphasis on listening, reading, or writing skills. Or some classes are only devoted to preparing for tests such as TOEIC and TOEFL, as indicated by a range of university level teachers. In contrast, in secondary schools, they teach only one type of class under the umbrella name of English, which is allegedly a combination of every aspect of English but is actually more like a grammar and reading class. This can be interpreted to mean that the secondary school teachers think that in principle they should cover all the aspects of English, preferably using English as a medium, but that they are not doing this and so they might feel guilty: they think they do not stick to the 'principle' of using as much English as possible in class and only focus on grammar and reading comprehension skills. On the other hand, according to university level teachers' answers, they think that unless they teach English conversation classes or listening skill classes, they do not need to use English, and thereby they do not seem to feel guilty about not using it.

Seven teachers (13.7 %/ six secondary and one university) indicated that using English as a medium in class tended to obstruct the course of the lesson possibly because of both the parties involved: the teacher and the students. The bottom line is the time factor. The teachers pointed out that they were expected to teach too many things in a specified class time, which stopped them from trying to use English. The teachers seem to think it is economical to use Korean in terms of time. It obviously needs effort from both the teacher and the students to lead an English medium class. It probably takes more time for the teacher to lead the class in English than in Korean and also takes more time for them to make students understand in English than in Korean.

In the same vein, four secondary school teachers (7.8 %) blamed the syllabuses centred on grammar and reading comprehension rather than on verbal or aural communication skills for their failure to conduct an English-medium class. In addition, difficulty in setting up the classroom atmosphere where English was used for verbal communication was mentioned by two secondary school teachers (3.9 %). One secondary school teacher (2 %) blamed large class sizes (and students' difficulty in concentration due to this) for not using English most of the class time.

Students' low level of participation in an English medium classes and possible demotivation due to it were identified by five (9.8%) teachers (four secondary and one university) as one reason why the teachers did not use English most of the time. Other than this reason, students' uneven proficiency level (3.9 %) and students' dislike of teachers' imperfect pronunciation as non-native speakers (2%) were mentioned in the student factor category.

In the teacher factor category, not being ready for an English medium class was given as a reason by three secondary school teachers (5.9 %). They condemned heavy workload, which did not leave them enough time to prepare for that. Two secondary school teachers (3.9 %) pointed out that they were not used to an English medium class. One secondary school teacher (2 %) claimed that she did not feel any need for that. And the failure to conduct an English medium class was attributed to not enough effort on the teacher's part by another secondary school teacher (2 %).

As seen above, it emerged that English is not widely used in English classrooms in Korea, and there are many and varied reasons which teachers give for not using it, one of which is their own low level of proficiency.

4.3.3 What has Influenced the Teachers' Perception of their Proficiency, their Confidence in Using English, and/or the Proportion of time they spend using English in class?

This question was intended to explore what might have affected the teachers' self-assessment, their confidence in using the target language, the amount of English they use in class, and what kind of associations can be found among these three and other variables. Under this question, there are 16 sub-questions.

4.3.3.1 Do the teachers' self-assessment scores correlate with their level of confidence in using English?

This question was answered by testing the statistical associations between the two variables: the teachers' self-assessment scores and their level of confidence. First of all, ANOVA (analysis of variance) was used to confirm if there were any statistically significant differences in self-assessment scores among the groups of people having different levels of confidence in their English proficiency. In this case, because there were four different degrees of confidence level, the subjects were divided into four different groups according to their confidence level. In order to ascertain whether there were differences in self-assessment means among the four groups, ANOVA was used instead of a t-test, because a t-test is for ascertaining the significance of a difference between two groups and ANOVA for between more than two (Kinnear & Gray 1999).

When ANOVA is used, 'the variance of the response variable should be equal in all population subgroups'(Peers 1996: 318), which is the homogeneity of variance assumption of ANOVA. In other words, ANOVA assumes that there is homogeneity of variance among groups whose means are compared. Therefore, before ANOVA is used, the homogeneity of variance needs to be

confirmed. The Levene statistic is usually used to confirm the homogeneity of variance among different groups before administering ANOVA. If the homogeneity of variance is confirmed through the Levene statistic, ANOVA can be administered to find out whether or not there are differences among group means. However, although an ANOVA test identifies the significance of difference among groups, they do not show where (between which groups) the differences lie. Therefore, when ANOVA finds evidence of differences among different groups, Post Hoc tests (Turkey HSD and Homogeneous Subsets) need to be used in order to confirm where the differences lie.

In this case, the Levene statistic for the Test of Homogeneity of Variance indicates that there is no evidence for heterogeneity of variance, which allows ANOVA to be administered. ANOVA gives an F value of 26.929 with 3 and 74 degrees of freedom ($p < 0.01$), showing that there are differences in self-assessment means among four groups. Therefore, the result of the ANOVA shows that there are statistically significant differences among groups. In other words, teachers with different levels of confidence have significantly different self-assessment scores from one another. However, as explained above, these results do not show the direction of the differences.

The multiple comparisons among mean differences by the Post Hoc tests show that the group of teachers who are 'hardly confident' are significantly different from the other three groups of teachers. The group of teachers who are 'a little confident' are significantly different from 'confident' teachers and 'very confident' teachers. Finally, the group of teachers who are confident differ significantly from the group of teachers who are 'very confident'. Therefore, all groups differ from one another.

To test the strength and direction of the relationships between self-assessment scores and confidence, correlation tests, Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho need to be administered. In this case, because the two variables are different in type (self-assessment mean scores can be classified as an interval variable and the level of confidence can be classified as an ordinal: see 3.6.1), use of a more powerful correlation test, *Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient* is not advisable in this case (because *Pearson's Correlation Coefficient* can be used only between two interval variables, and in this case the two are different types of variables; see 3.6.1). Instead, the correlation tests for ordinal data should be used. So, in this case, the relationship between the self-assessment means (interval variables) and the confidence level (an ordinal variable) was explored using Kendall's tau and Spearman's rho.

The results of the Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho indicate that there is a statistically significant correlation between the teachers' confidence level and their self-assessment means. The correlation between confidence and self-assessment means is modest:

$$\tau = 0.526; n = 78; p < 0.01;$$

$$r_s = 0.636; n = 78; p < 0.01.$$

Therefore, the subjects having high self-assessment scores are more likely to have high confidence in using English and vice versa.

As the results of the statistical tests show, there are differences in the self-assessment means among groups of different levels of confidence. All the differences in means among groups turn out to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level. In addition, a positive correlation is found between the self-assessment means and the degree of confidence. Therefore, it can be concluded that a higher self-assessment score corresponds to a higher confidence level in the teachers.

4.3.3.2 Is the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class related to their SA scores and/or their confidence?

This question was answered by testing the statistical associations between the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class and the teachers' self-assessment scores, and between the proportion of time and their confidence.

- The proportion of time

The relationship between the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class and their self-assessment mean scores was investigated by using ANOVA, Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho correlation tests². ANOVA was first administered to confirm there are differences in self-assessment means among groups of people using English for different proportions of time in class.

The results of the Levene's statistic for the test of homogeneity of variance give no evidence for heterogeneity of variance, which provides grounds for going ahead with ANOVA, as explained above. The results of ANOVA reveal that there are differences of self-assessment scores among different groups of teachers (divided by the proportion of time they spend using English in class):

$$F(5, 59) = 3.519; p < 0.01.$$

² Rank correlation tests were conducted because the relationship between the two variables was not linear: see 3.6.1 and 4.2.

The results of the Post Hoc tests find the significant differences between the group using no English at all in class and the group using English only. The latter group also differs from the group using English for between 1 % and 25 % of the time.

The strength of the associations between the proportion of time and the self-assessment means is shown below, revealing a positive, but not very high correlation of 0.338 or 0.442 between the two. Both correlation tests show that the correlation is significant at the two-tailed 0.01 level:

$$\tau = 0.338; n = 78; p < 0.01;$$

$$r_s = 0.442; n = 78; p < 0.01.$$

From these results, it can be inferred that the more proficient the teachers believe themselves to be in English, the more English they tend to use in class.

- Confidence

The relationship between the proportion of time the teachers spend using English and their confidence was investigated using cross-tabulation, Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho correlation tests. ANOVA was not administered because the Levene's statistic for the test of homogeneity of variance failed to provide evidence for homogeneity of variance, which violates one of ANOVA's assumptions and makes the results of ANOVA meaningless, as explained in 4.3.3.1.

The cross-tabulation shows that 'hardly confident' teachers use English 25 per cent of the time in class at most, or never use it at all. On the other hand, the range of the proportion of time the teachers, who are 'a little confident' or 'confident', spend using English in class is wider. Teachers who are 'a little confident' use English somewhere between 0 % and 99 %, and the range for 'confident' teachers is 0 % to 100 %. 'Very confident' teachers (2 teachers) do not show any fixed pattern in the amount of time English is used. One teacher is found to use English somewhere between 25 % and 50 % and the other uses it 100 % of the time in class.

Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho correlation tests report a modest correlation between the proportion of time English is used for and the teachers' confidence level:

$$\tau = 0.423; n = 65; p < 0.01;$$

$$r_s = 0.476; n = 65; p < 0.01.$$

Even if the correlation between the two variables is not very high, it is still significant at the 2-tailed 0.01 level. Therefore, it can be said that more confident teachers tend to use more English in class.

4.3.3.3 Does the teachers' age affect their SA and/or confidence?

Question I 1 in the survey questionnaire asked the respondents' age. 75 (96.2%) teachers answered. First, the age group was divided into four groups. The Figure 4.3-3 clearly shows that the biggest age group in the sample consists of teachers aged between 31 and 35. 27 teachers (36 %) belong to this age group. The second largest group has 25 (33.3 %) members aged between 25 and 30. The number of people aged over 41 is 15 (20 %) and eight people (10.7 %) are between 36 and 40 years old.



Figure 4.3-3 Age of the subjects

First of all, an ANOVA was employed to check if there are any differences in self-assessment scores among the four age groups. The Levene statistic for the Test of Homogeneity of Variance did not find any evidence for heterogeneity of variance. The results below show that the F value of ANOVA is significant since it is below 0.05:

$$F(3, 70) = 4.485; p < 0.01.$$

Therefore, the results of the ANOVA denote that there are differences in self-assessment scores among the groups. The multiple comparisons through the Turkey HSD in appendix 8-2 clearly show where the differences are. The differences in self-assessment scores are found between the group aged 25–30 and the group aged 36–40. The younger age group has a higher mean (3.59) than the older age group (2.93).

As expected, the correlation tests comparing age and self-assessment scores produced a low negative correlation ($\tau = -0.197$; $n=74$; $p < 0.05$ / $r_s = -0.258$; $n=74$; $p < 0.05$), which is statistically significant. Therefore, the results of the correlation test imply that the younger the teachers are, the more likely they are to perceive themselves as proficient.

It is generally believed in the Korean English education system, that younger teachers' proficiency of English is better than that of older teachers who were taught English in more traditional ways. More traditional ways in general mean focusing less on communication skills and more on grammar. Some teachers aged over 40 said that they had never been given opportunities to contact foreigners, or been encouraged to communicate in English. They

admitted that they were not good in communication skills such as speaking and listening. This widespread belief is statistically supported in this case, although the correlation value is low.

- Confidence

Cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests were used to confirm the relationship between age and the degrees of confidence in English proficiency. The cross-tabulation between age and the confidence level is in appendix 8-3. As seen in the figure, no teachers in the age group between 25 and 30 said that they were ‘hardly confident’ in English whereas the other age groups had some members confessing to not being confident by saying that they were ‘hardly confident’. The two age groups of 25-30 and 31-35 have more ‘confident’ teachers than ‘a little confident’ teachers whereas the majority in the other two age groups of 36-40 and over 41 is teachers who are ‘a little confident’. The age group over 41 shows the widest range of confidence by having members answering from ‘hardly confident’ to ‘very confident’.

The results of Kendall’s and Spearman’s correlation tests show the low (in Kendall’s case) or modest (in Spearman’s case) negative correlation between age and confidence level ($p < 0.01$):

$$\tau = -0.354; n = 75; p < 0.01;$$

$$r_s = -0.410; n = 75; p < 0.01.$$

This clearly indicates that people in younger age groups seem to have greater confidence in their proficiency. The teachers in older age groups seem to feel despondent even before they have objective test results. Some middle-aged teachers the researcher met in the research process confessed their own lack of confidence in the subject they were teaching. And several teachers also described their worries relating to their own or other teachers’ language proficiency and confidence in the comment section of the survey questionnaire. One of the teachers stated that it was humiliating to teach something of which you were not confident.

4.3.3.4 Does the teachers’ gender affect their SA and/or confidence?

The gender of the respondents was established in the survey questionnaire I 2. As seen in Figure 4.3-4, female teachers outnumbered male teachers by 55 (70.5 %) to 23 (29.5 %). First of all, a t-test was administered to check if there are any differences in self-assessment scores between the two sexes.

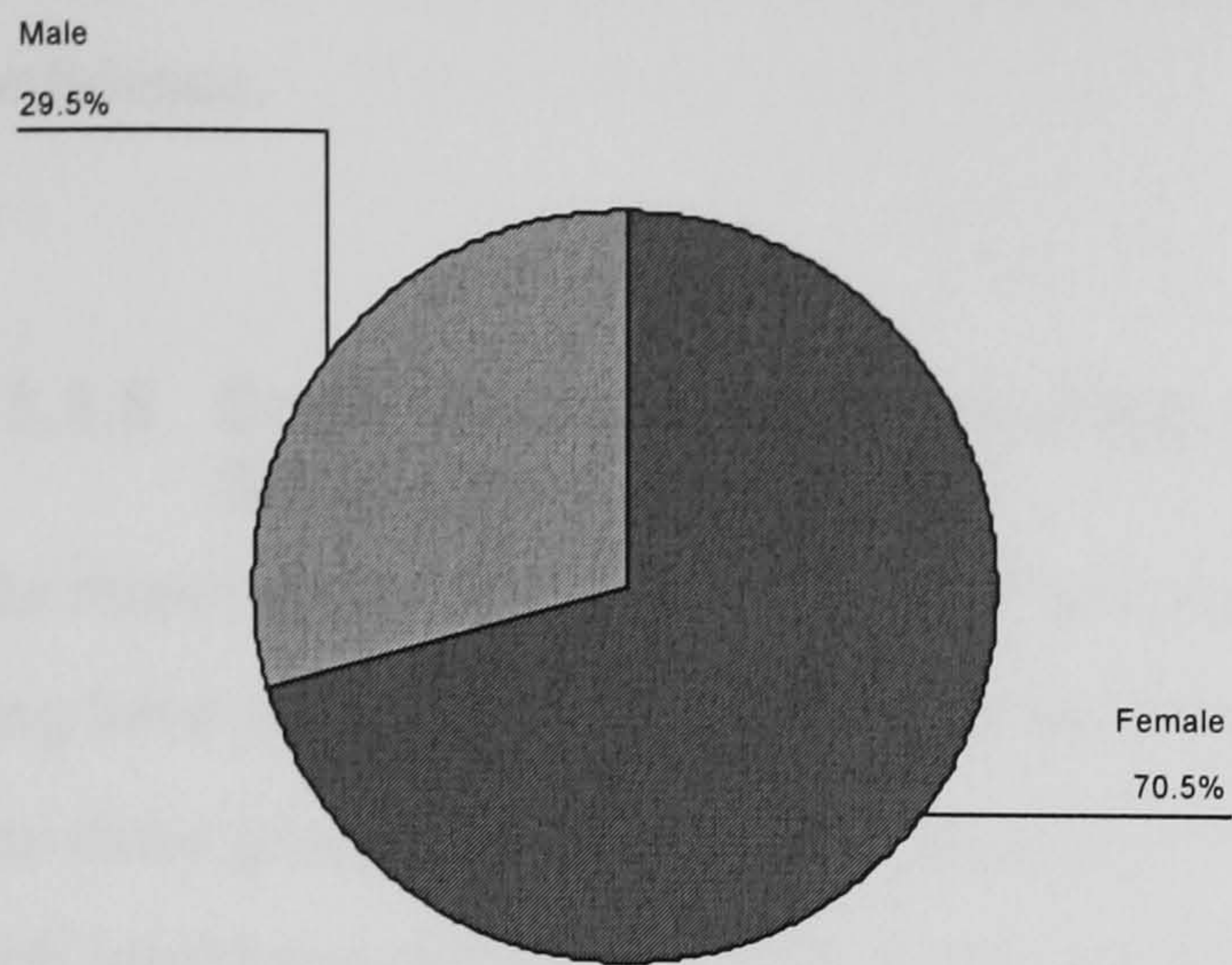


Figure 4.3-4 Gender of the subjects

The results of the t-test shown below demonstrate there are no significant differences in self-assessment scores between female and male teachers:

$$t = -0.677; df = 76; NS.$$

The difference in means between the two groups of teachers is 3.42 (for female) to 3.33 (for male), but this difference is not statistically significant. Therefore, it seems that gender does not relate to self-assessment scores.

- Confidence

The relationship between gender and the level of confidence was examined by means of cross-tabulation, a chi-square test, and a phi coefficient test. Because gender is a nominal variable, these tests were chosen in line with several researchers' recommendations as seen in 3.6.1.

The cross-tabulation between gender and the degree of confidence is in appendix 8-3. The range of the female teachers' confidence level is shown to be wider than that of male teachers. The female teacher group has 25 'confident' members (45.4 %), 21 members who are 'a little confident' (38.2%), seven members who are 'hardly confident' (12.7 %), and two members who are 'very confident' (3.6 %). On the other hand, more than half of the male teachers (12 teachers/ 52.2%) admit that they are 'a little confident' and three teachers (13 %) state that they are 'hardly confident'. There are only eight teachers (34.8 %) who are 'confident'.

However, the results of the chi-square are discarded because of violation of one of the conditions for a chi-square test (chi-square is not recommended for the data in larger tables where more than 20 % of the expected frequencies are less than 5: see 3.6.1). The results of the phi coefficient show that there is no statistically strong association between the two variables:

$$\phi = 0.161; n = 78; NS.$$

Therefore, statistical tests do not identify any significant relationship between gender and confidence.

4.3.3.5 Does the amount of teaching experience the teachers have affect their SA and/or confidence?

The respondents' teaching experience was investigated in the survey questionnaire I 3 ('how long have you taught English?'). The amount of the teachers' teaching experience was divided into three groups according to the duration of time. Figure 4.3-5 clearly shows that the group with teaching experience of five years or less is the largest of all with 47 members (60.3 %). The second largest group is the one containing teachers with over 10 years of teaching experience (16 members/ 20.5 %) and then comes the group of having the amount of teaching experience between over five years and ten years with 15 members (19.2 %).

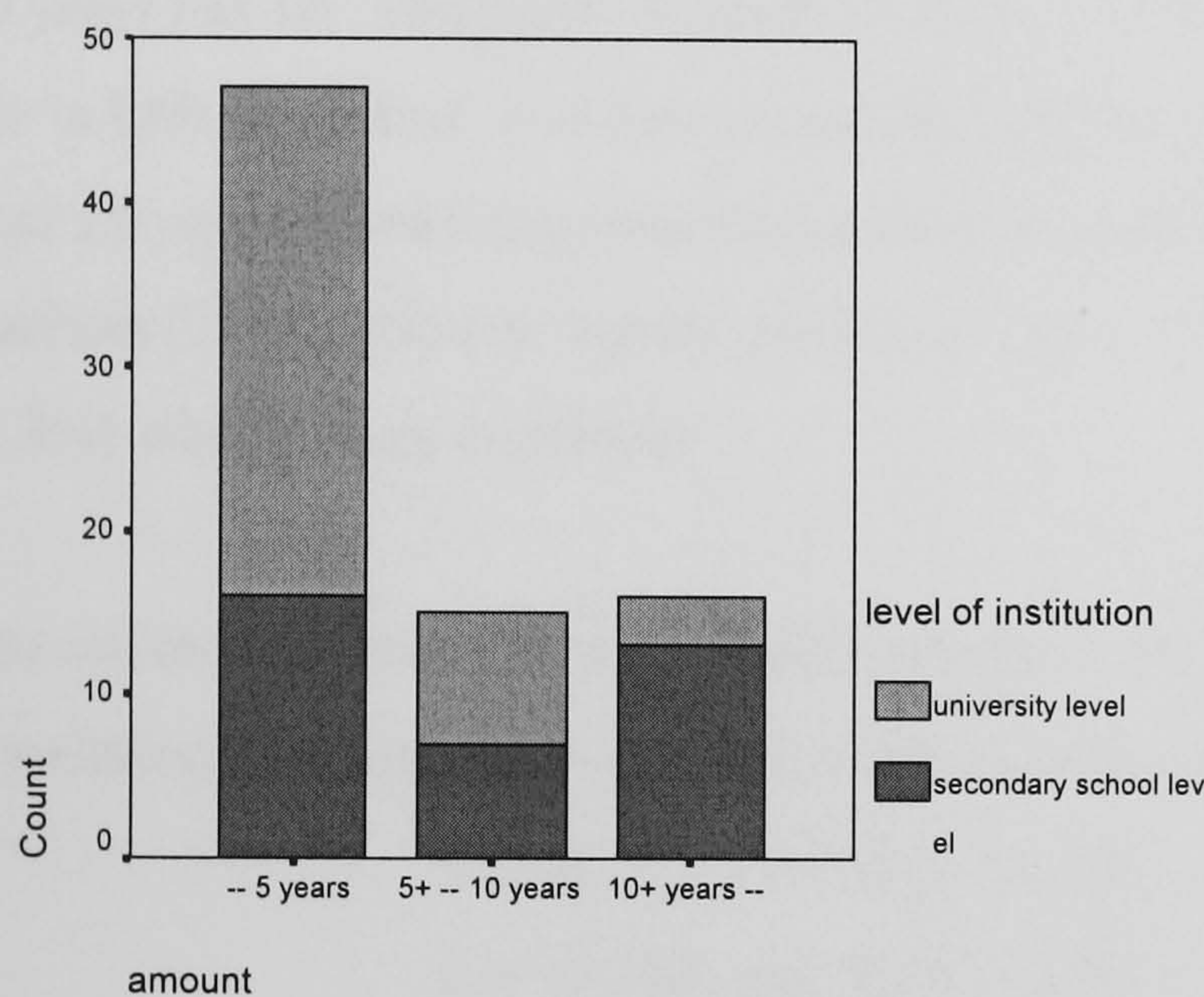


Figure 4.3-5 The amount of teaching experience

ANOVA was used to explore whether or not there were any statistically significant differences in self-assessment scores among groups with different lengths of teaching experience. The results of the ANOVA and Post Hoc tests in appendix 8-2 indicate that there are no significant differences in self-assessment scores between the groups.

The strength of the relationship between the self-assessment scores and length of teaching experience was investigated by Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho. Both tests show a low but significant negative correlation between the two:

$$\tau = -0.201; n = 78; p < 0.05;$$

$$r_s = -0.250; n = 78; p < 0.05.$$

This negative correlation between the self-assessment scores and the length of teaching experience can be interpreted in association with age. Naturally, most of the older teachers will

have more teaching experience than their younger counterparts, and younger teachers tend to have higher self-assessment scores. Therefore, it is not surprising that the teachers with less teaching experience have higher self-assessment scores than the teachers with more teaching experience (refer to 4.3.3.3).

- Confidence

The relationship between teaching experience and the confidence level was explored by means of cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests. The cross-tabulation in appendix 8-3 illustrates the range of teachers' confidence level according to their teaching experience. The youngest group has the most 'confident' members with 25 members (53.2%), then 18 members (38.3%) who are 'a little confident', three members (6.4%) who are 'hardly confident', and one member (2.1%) who is 'very confident'. The group with teaching experience of between 5+ years and 10 years has six 'confident' teachers (40%), the same number of teachers (6 teachers/ 40%) who are 'a little confident' and three teachers (20%) who are 'hardly confident'. The group with over 10 years of teaching experience has nine teachers (56.3%) who are 'confident', four teachers (25%) who are 'hardly confident', two 'confident' teachers (12.5%), and one teacher (6.3%) who is 'very confident'.

The results of Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho both show that there is a significant negative correlation between teaching experience and the confidence level, even if it is low:

$$\tau = -0.272; n = 78; p < 0.05;$$

$$r_s = -0.300; n = 78; p < 0.05.$$

Therefore, the results show that there is a tendency for younger and less experienced group of teachers to be more likely to be confident.

4.3.3.6 Does the experience of staying in English speaking countries for an extended period of time affect the teachers' SA and/or confidence?

The experience of and length of time of staying in English speaking countries were addressed in I 8 and I 9 A in the survey questionnaire ('Have you ever been in any English-speaking countries?' and 'Which English-speaking countries have you been to and for how long?'). As shown in Figure 4.3-6, the number of teachers who have never been to any English speaking countries or have stayed for a short period time under one year is 35, or 44.9 % of the total number of teachers. 31 teachers (39.7 %) have the experience of staying in English speaking countries for between one and five years. The number of teachers who have stayed in any English speaking countries for over five years is 12 (15.4 %).

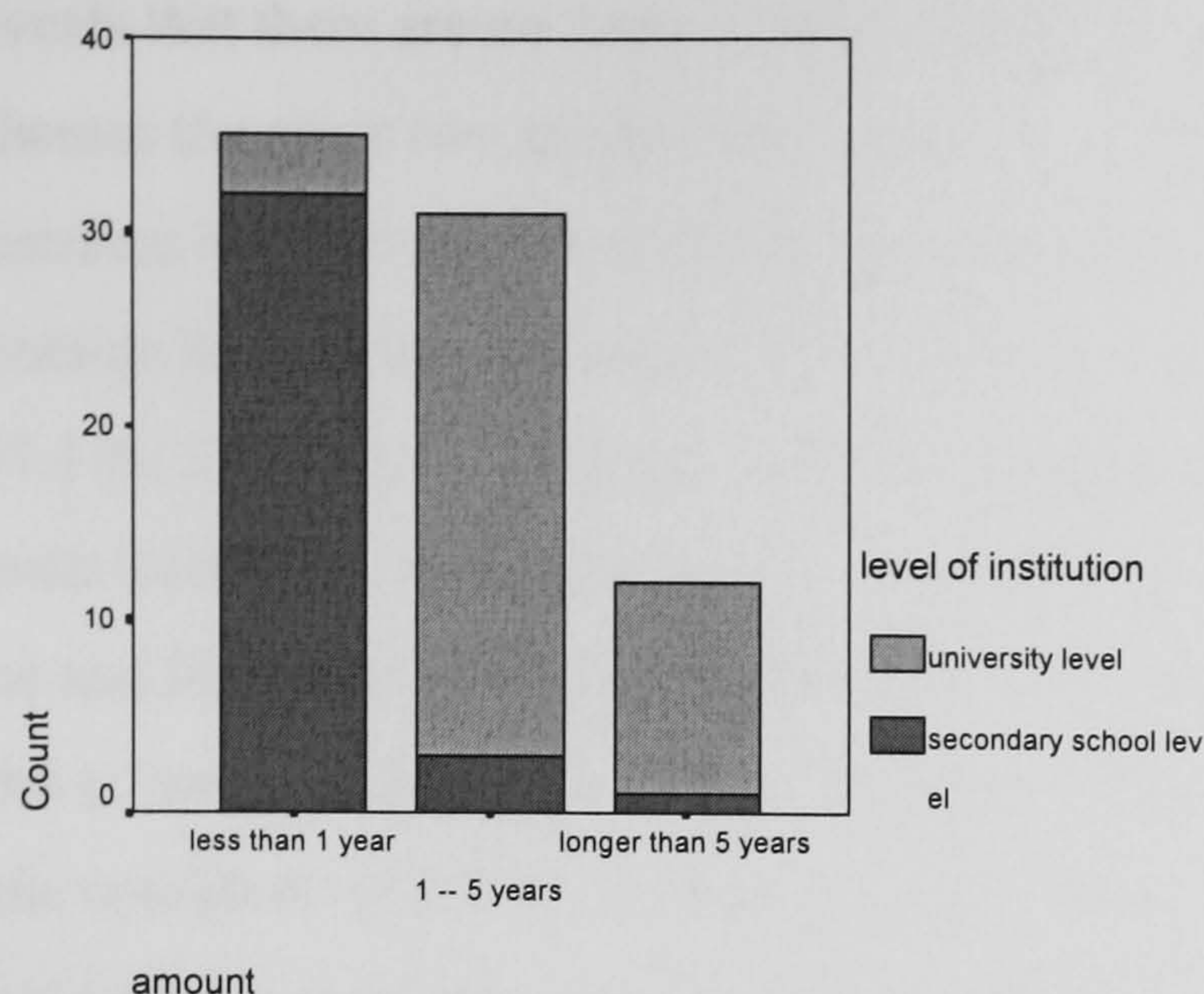


Figure 4.3-6 Amount of staying in English speaking countries

ANOVA was administered to ascertain the mean differences of self-assessment scores among these three groups, categorised according to the length of time they had stayed in English speaking countries. The results of ANOVA clearly indicate that there are statistically significant differences between groups, with a low p-value:

$$F(2, 75) = 20.465; p < 0.01.$$

The results of the Turkey HSD Post Hoc test and Homogeneous Subsets in appendix 8-2 show that the means of self-assessment scores among the three groups are significantly different at the 0.05 level. In other words, self-assessment scores for the three groups are statistically significantly different from one another.

Kendall's tau and Spearman's rho were used to test the strength of the relationship between length of stays in English speaking countries and self-assessment scores. The results below indicate that there is a statistically significant positive correlation between the two variables:

$$\tau = 0.508; n = 78; p < 0.01;$$

$$r_s = 0.673; n = 78; p < 0.01.$$

In other words, the results show that the longer the teachers stayed in an English-speaking country, the more proficient they believe themselves to be in English.

These results are in line with the wide-spread belief that residing in English speaking countries helps improve English proficiency. Also, considerable research has been done regarding the effect of staying in a country where the target language is spoken, as pointed out in 5.2.4.2.

- Confidence

As the next step, the relationship between length of stay and the confidence level was probed by cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests. Interestingly, the cross-tabulation in appendix 8-2

reveals that there are no 'very confident' teachers in the group who stayed for under one year, whereas the other two groups have one 'very confident' teacher each. Again, the group whose members have not been to English speaking countries or who stayed only for a short period of time, contains less confident teachers, with more than half of the members who are 'a little confident' (57.1 %/ 20 teachers), as many as eight members who are 'hardly confident' (22.9 %), and only seven 'confident' members (20 %). However, the group with members who have spent between one and five years in English speaking countries shows more confident teachers, with one teacher who is 'very confident' (3.2 %), 18 teachers who are 'confident' (58 %), 10 teachers who are 'a little confident' (32.3 %), and two teachers who are 'hardly confident' (6.5 %). Predictably, the group whose members have spent longer than five years in English speaking countries contains even more confident teachers. The group has one teacher who is 'very confident' (8.3 %), eight teachers who are 'confident' (66.7 %), and three teachers who are 'a little confident' (25 %). In fact, it is surprising that this group still has 25 % of members who say that they are just 'a little confident', even though there are no teachers who are 'hardly confident'.

The results of Kendall's and Spearman's tests indicate that the expected correlation between the two is actually present. The correlation is significant at the 0.01 level:

$$\tau = 0.436; n = 78; p < 0.01;$$

$$r_s = 0.480; n = 78; p < 0.01.$$

In conclusion, the teachers who have stayed in English speaking countries for a longer period of time tend to show greater confidence in their English proficiency.

4.3.3.7 Do university level teachers have higher SA scores, greater confidence, and/or use English more in class than secondary school teachers?

Question I 4 asked the respondents at which level of institution they were teaching. The answers were grouped into two categories: secondary and university level institutions (refer to 3.3.1 to check why this term is used). The university level is the slightly bigger group with 42 members (53.8 %) and the secondary school level has 36 members (46.2%).

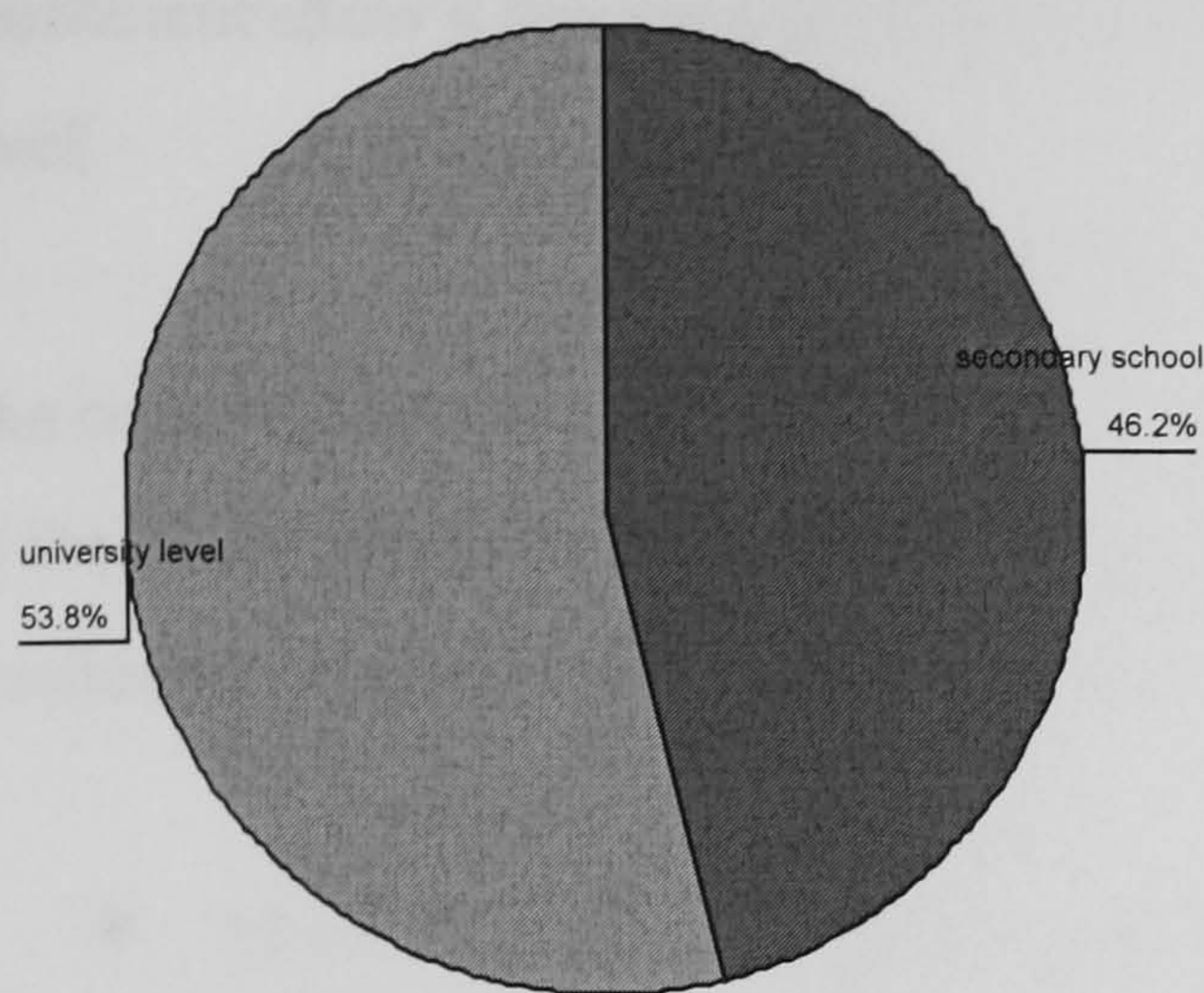


Figure 4.3-7 The level of the institution

The self-assessment mean scores for the university teachers are 3.63 whereas those for the secondary school teachers are 3.10. First of all, a t-test was used to investigate the statistical associations between the level of institution the teachers are teaching in and their self-assessment scores. The results of the t-test clearly confirm that there is a statistically significant difference in the self-assessment scores between the two groups:

$$t = 5.086; df = 76; p < 0.01.$$

Therefore, it can be said that university level teachers' self-assessment scores differ significantly from secondary school teachers' self-assessment scores.

Because a t-test does not reveal the strength of the association, this was measured by the eta coefficient (the eta coefficient is used to investigate the strength of the relationship between a nominal independent variable and an interval dependent variable). The eta coefficient value is 0.504, revealing a modest correlation. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a statistical difference in the self-assessment scores between secondary level teachers and university level teachers, and that university level teachers tend to have higher self-assessment scores than secondary school teachers.

- Confidence

Then, cross-tabulation, chi-square and Cramer's V were employed to see if there are any statistical associations between the level of institution and the teachers' confidence level. A closer look at the cross-tabulation illustrates that the majority of the university teachers (26 teachers/ 61.9%) group together in the 'confident' column whereas the large number of secondary school teachers (21 teachers/ 58.3 %) say that they are 'a little confident'.

The results of the chi-square are discarded because of violation of one condition for a chi-square test (more than 20% of the expected frequencies are less than five). The results of the phi

coefficient show a modest significant correlation between the level of institution and the confidence level:

$$\phi = 0.489; n = 78; p < 0.01.$$

The results illustrate that there is a statistical association between teachers' confidence and the level of their institution. In other words, it can be said that university level teachers tend to have greater confidence in their linguistic proficiency.

- The proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class

Finally, it was investigated whether university level teachers use more English in class than secondary school teachers. In particular, it was expected that university level teachers would use more English in class than secondary school teachers. This was based on comments by some university teachers, who professed that the English-only class was their departmental or institutional policy.

The cross-tabulation between the two variables shows that there are no secondary school teachers who use English for more than 60% of the time in class. In contrast, there are 21 (58.3 %) university teachers who use English for more than 60 % of the time in class.

The results of the t-test indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in the proportion of time the two groups of teachers spend using English in class:

$$t = -6.196; df = 53.578; p < 0.01.$$

Thus, it is confirmed that the amount of English used in class by secondary school teachers and university level teachers is statistically different.

The strength of the statistical association was explored by means of an eta coefficient. The results of the eta coefficient show a modest correlation between the level of institution and the amount of English the teachers use in class, with a value of 0.590. In other words, the results indicate that university level teachers use more English in class than secondary school teachers.

The results show that teachers teaching at the higher education level are more likely to have higher self-assessment scores, greater confidence and to use English more in class than secondary school level teachers.

4.3.3.8 Do the teachers with a degree in ELT have higher SA scores, greater confidence, and/or use English more in class?

Question 19 b and c asked the respondents about whether or not they had a degree from an English speaking country and if they had, in what area they had this degree ('Did you follow

any courses there?’ and ‘If yes to the above question, specify your course title and the length of the course’). Figure 4.3-8 illustrates the number of people who have a MA degree in English Language Teaching (ELT) (16 teachers/ 23.9 %) and who have degrees in other subjects (18 teachers/ 26.9 %), and the number of people without any degrees at all awarded in an English speaking country (33 teachers/49.3 %).

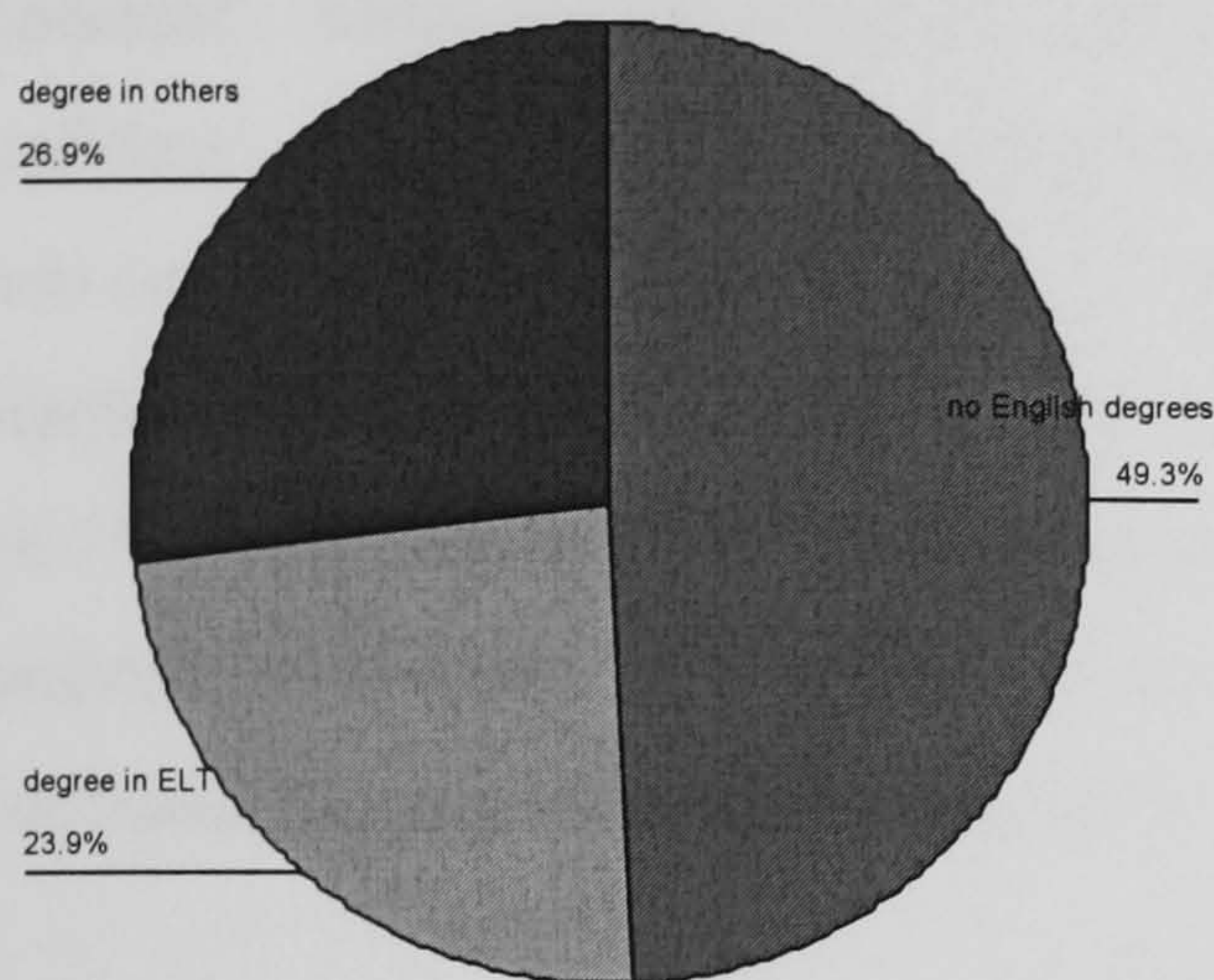


Figure 4.3-8 Degrees from English speaking countries

Appendix 8-2 illustrates the rank of the self-assessment score means among the three groups: people with a degree in other areas have the highest mean, people with an ELT degree come second, and people without a degree have the lowest mean. Therefore, people with an ELT degree do not surpass people with other degrees in their own estimation.

The results of ANOVA confirm that there are statistical differences among the groups with an F value of 22.934 with 2 and 64 degrees of freedom ($p < 0.01$). In other words, there are statistically significant differences in the self-assessment scores among the groups.

Because the F value does not show where the significant differences are present, the Turkey HSD Post Hoc test was administered to locate this value, as advised by Kinnear & Gray (1999). The multiple comparisons of means among groups in appendix 8-2 show that there is a statistically significant difference between teachers with no English degree and the two other groups. In other words, the group without an English degree differs from the group with an ELT degree and from the group with degrees in other subjects. However, the two groups with degrees awarded in English speaking countries do not differ significantly from each other in terms of self-assessment scores.

- Confidence

The statistical associations between an ELT degree and the level of confidence were investigated using cross-tabulation, chi-square, and Cramer's V.

As shown in appendix 8-3, even though the teachers with an ELT degree do not seem to be the most highly confident group of the three, there are some interesting distributions. Unlike other groups, this group of people with an ELT degree seems to exist only in the middle of the distribution of the confidence range. 10 teachers with an ELT degree claimed that they are 'confident' of their English (62.5 %) and six teachers (37.5 %) said that they are 'a little confident'. There are none who are 'hardly confident', nor are there any teachers who are 'very confident'. On the other hand, the teacher group with other English degrees has a wider range from one 'hardly confident' teacher (5.5 %) to two 'very confident' teachers (11.1 %). In the middle, there are 12 'confident' teachers (66.7 %) and three teachers who are 'a little confident' (16.7 %). In the case of the group of teachers with no English degrees, more than half of the teachers (19 teachers/ 57.6 %) are the ones who are 'a little confident', six (18.2%) are 'confident', and as many as eight teachers (24.2 %) are the ones who are 'hardly confident'.

The results of the chi-square test are discarded because of violation of one of the conditions for the test. The results of Cramer's V also show that there is a significant positive correlation between the two variables:

$$\text{Cramer's } V = 0.430; n = 67; p < 0.01.$$

Therefore, the results of all the tests reveal that there is a modest correlation between teachers' confidence and their English degrees. Teachers with an ELT degree seem to be relatively confident of their own English with no extreme cases of members who are 'hardly confident' or members who are 'very confident'. On the other hand, the other two groups of teachers show the opposite picture. Teachers with other English degrees gather around the higher level of confidence, but teachers with no English degrees seem to gather around the lower level of confidence in English proficiency.

- The proportion of time

ANOVA was employed to check any statistically significant differences in the proportion of time the teachers spend using English among the three groups. It was expected that teachers with an ELT degree would use more English in class than teachers in the other two groups because they might have considered the importance of English input in the classroom more than the other groups.

The results of ANOVA (appendix 8-4) start with descriptives of the three groups. Among the three groups, the group of teachers with no English degrees has the lowest mean of the proportion of time spent using English with 16.54 %, teachers with ELT degrees have a mean of 49 %, and teachers with other degrees have the highest mean of 62.4 %. According to this,

teachers with ELT degrees have a higher mean of English use in class than teachers with no degrees, but a lower mean than the group of teachers with other degrees.

The Levene's statistic for the Test of Homogeneity of Variance (appendix 8-4) shows a statistically significant F value with the 0.05 level, which means that the variance of the sampled populations is not homogeneous. Also it could mean that proceeding with the analysis of variance (ANOVA) is not appropriate, because the variance of the sample populations (or homogeneity of the variance) is one of the assumptions of ANOVA (Cohen & Holliday 1996). Therefore, cross-tabulation, and eta coefficient were administered instead.

Appendix 8-4 denotes the range of the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class. Teachers with no English degree use English for between 0 % and 60 % of the time in class. However, the proportion ranges from 0 % to 100 % for the teachers with an ELT degree. There are six teachers (40 %) who use English for more than 60 % of the time in class in this group. The range among the teachers with other degrees is also wide, from 1 % to 100 %. In this group there are more teachers (nine teachers/ 60 %) who use English for more than 60% of the time in class. The results of the eta coefficient indicate a modest correlation between degrees and English use in class with the value of 0.592.

Therefore, teachers with an ELT degree used more English than teachers with no degree from any English countries. The group with other degrees tends to use more English in class than the group with an ELT degree. This can be interpreted in association with the teachers' confidence and self-assessment scores. The teachers with other degrees have higher confidence and self-assessment scores, and it was already seen in 4.3.2 that confidence and self-assessment scores correlate with the amount of English used in class. Therefore, it makes sense that the teachers with other degrees tend to use more English in class.

4.3.3.9 Do the teachers teaching lower levels have lower SA scores, lower confidence levels, and/or use English less in class?

The students' level of English proficiency was investigated in question I 6 of the survey questionnaire ('What is your students' level of English proficiency as a whole?'). Figure 4.3-9 denotes the range of the students' level of English proficiency from an elementary to a mixed level. 37 teachers (48.1 %) answered that they were teaching an elementary level, 24 teachers (31.2 %) were teaching a pre-intermediate, 13 teachers (16.9 %) an intermediate, and three teachers (3.9 %) a mixed level.

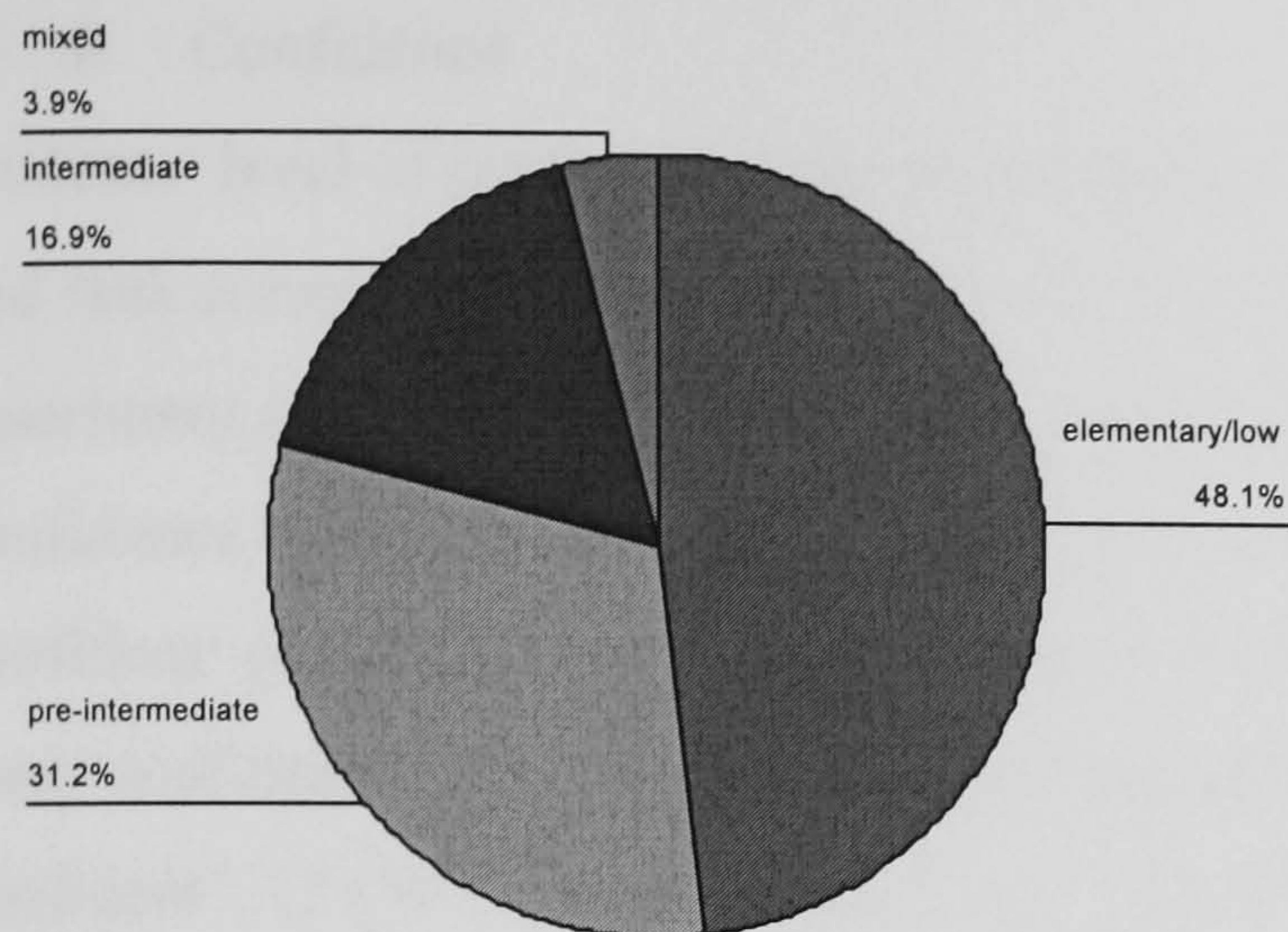


Figure 4.3-9 Students' level of English

First of all, ANOVA and rank correlation tests were administered to ascertain the statistical differences among the groups of teachers teaching different levels in terms of self-assessment scores. The results of ANOVA show statistically significant differences in self-assessment scores among groups with a low p-value:

$$F(3, 73) = 5.825; p < 0.05.$$

The multiple comparisons by Turkey HSD locate where the differences are present. Appendix 8-2 shows that there are significant differences between all the groups, except between the teachers of elementary level students and the teachers of pre-intermediate level students. In other words, the self-assessment scores of the elementary level teachers differ from the intermediate level and mixed level teachers, but not from the pre-intermediate level teachers. And the teachers teaching at pre-intermediate level differ from the intermediate and from the mixed level teachers, but not from the elementary level teachers. Finally, the intermediate level teachers are different from the teachers of mixed level classes.

The results of Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho show the strength of the statistically significant associations. As seen below, the correlation between the level of students and the teachers' self-assessment scores is statistically significant, but low:

$$\tau = 0.244; n = 77; p < 0.05;$$

$$r_s = 0.305; n = 77; p < 0.05.$$

Therefore, it seems that the students' level of proficiency has a statistically significant association with their teachers' perceived proficiency as identified by self-assessment tests. To be more specific, it can be said that, to a certain degree, teachers teaching higher levels have higher self-assessment scores.

- Confidence

Students' level of proficiency was tested against the teachers' confidence level. Cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests were employed. The table in appendix 8-3 shows an interesting assortment among groups. Elementary level teachers have a wide range of distribution in the confidence table from six teachers who are 'hardly confident' (16.2 %), 16 teachers who are 'a little confident' (43.2 %), to 14 teachers who are 'confident' (37.8 %), and to one teacher (2.7 %) who is 'very confident'. Pre-intermediate level teachers have four (16.7 %) members who are 'hardly confident', 12 (50 %) members who are 'a little confident', and eight members (33.3 %) who are 'confident'. The two groups do not show much difference in distribution. On the other hand, intermediate level teachers have more confident members in the group with eight teachers (61.5 %) who are 'confident', four teachers (30.8 %) who are 'a little confident', and one teacher (7.7 %) who is 'very confident'. All three members in the mixed level group are 'confident' of their English.

The results of correlation tests, however, indicate that there is no significant correlation between the level of students' proficiency and the teachers' confidence level:

$$\tau = 0.192; n = 77; \text{NS};$$

$$r_s = 0.212; n = 77; \text{NS}.$$

In conclusion, the students' proficiency level has no statistically significant relationship with the teachers' confidence levels, though there are some minor differences in the range of the confidence level among the four groups shown in the cross-tabulation.

- The proportion of time

Finally, ANOVA and rank correlation tests were used to measure the statistical associations between students' proficiency level and the teachers' use of English in class. The results of ANOVA in appendix 8-4 do not indicate any differences in the amount of English the teachers use among the four groups teaching different levels with a much larger p-value than the critical 0.05 level. In addition, the results of Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho do not denote any statistically significant correlation between the two variables.

The results imply that teachers teaching higher levels do not necessarily use more English in class than lower level teachers, and that lower level teachers do not always use more Korean in class than higher level teachers. These results are very interesting because more than half (54.9 %/ 28 teachers) of the 51 teachers who do not use English for more than 80 % of the time in

class, claimed that the reason for not using it was their students' low level of proficiency, as seen in 4.3.2.

4.3.3.10 Is the number of students the teachers have in class related to the teachers' SA, confidence, and/or the proportion of time they use English in class?

Question I 5 in the survey questionnaire asked the respondents about how many students on average they had in class. As seen in Figure 4.3-10, 30 teachers (38.5 %) had 31 – 40 students on average in class, 14 teachers (17.9%) had 41 – 50 students, 12 teachers (15.4%) had 11 – 20 students, 10 teachers (12.8%) had less than 10 students, seven teachers (9 %) 21 – 30 students, and five teachers (6.4%) have more than 51 students in class.

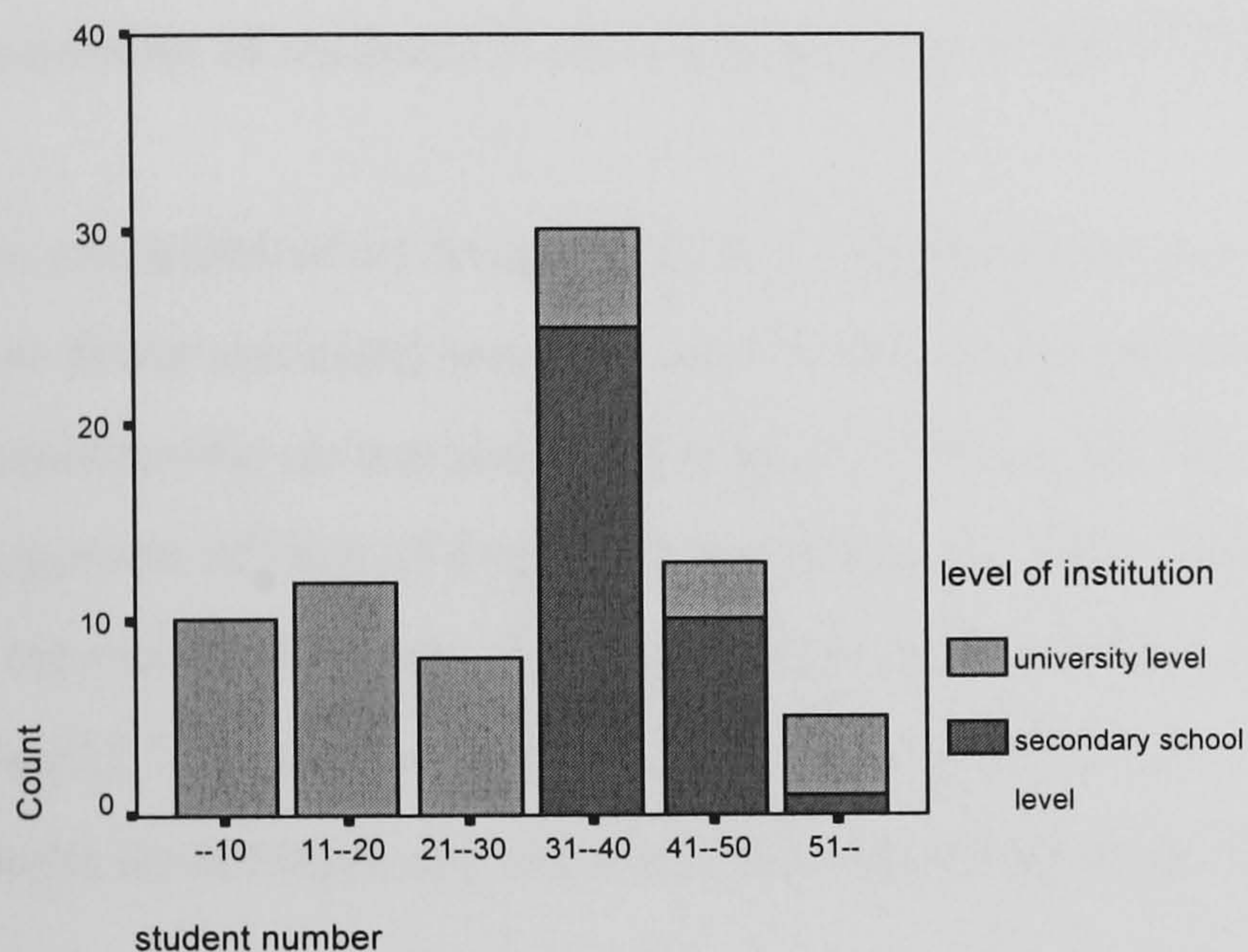


Figure 4.3-10 The number of students in class

Rank correlation tests were administered to check if there are any statistically significant associations between the number of students in class and the teachers' self-assessment scores. Surprisingly, the results of the correlation tests illustrate that there is a significant but low negative correlation between the two:

$$\tau = -0.268; n = 78; p < 0.05;$$

$$r_s = -0.386; n = 78; p < 0.05.$$

The correlation is negative and low, but it is significant at the 0.05 level as seen. Therefore, it can be said that, to a certain degree, teachers who have more students in class have lower self-assessment scores than teachers with fewer students.

- Confidence

Cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests were used to check the statistical relationship between the number of students in class and the teachers' confidence level. The cross-tabulation in appendix 8-3 does not show any distinctive features among different groups of teachers with different number of students.

In addition, the results of Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho do not show any significant correlation between the number of students and the teachers' confidence level:

$$\tau = -0.180; n = 78; \text{NS};$$

$$r_s = -0.226; n = 78; \text{NS}.$$

These results of the correlation tests show that there is no statistically significant relationship between the number of students the teachers have in class and their confidence.

- The proportion of time

Cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests were used to establish the statistical associations between the number of students in class and the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class.

The cross-tabulation in appendix 8-4 clearly shows that in the four lower rows (meaning that they have fewer students) teachers seem to use more English. These four groups do not have any members who do not use English at all in class, and they seem to gather around the higher proportion of time of English use whereas the other three groups gather around the lower proportion of time of English use. The two groups with student numbers of between 31 – 40, and 41 – 50 have five (22.7 %) and two (15.4 %) members each who do not use English at all. And two of the three groups do not have any members who use English in class more than 75 % of the time.

The results of the rank correlation tests confirm that there is a negative correlation between the number of students in class and the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class.

$$\tau = -0.359; n = 65; p < 0.01;$$

$$r_s = -0.469; n = 65; p < 0.01.$$

Therefore, teachers teaching smaller classes are more likely to spend time using English in class.

The results clearly show the significant relationship between the two. And these results are in line with one of the teachers' claims that they do not use English much in class because the class size is too big. In other words, the teacher claimed that class size was too big to allow students to concentrate in an English medium class, as seen in 4.3.2.

4.3.3.11 Is the number of hours they teach related to the teachers' SA, confidence, and/or the proportion of time they use English in class class?

The average number of teaching hours a week was investigated in question I 7 of the survey questionnaire ('How many hours a week on average do you teach?'). As shown in Figure

4.3-11, the most common number of teaching hours is between 16 and 20 with 29 teachers (38.2 %). Then, 15 teachers (19.7 %) have a teaching load of over 31 hours a week. The number of teachers working between 21 and 25 hours is nine (11.8 %). Eight teachers (10.5%) are teaching between 26 and 30 hours, and another eight teachers (10.5 %) between 11 and 15 hours. Four teachers (5.3 %) are teaching between 6 and 10 hours, and three teachers (3.9%) are teaching less than five hours a week.

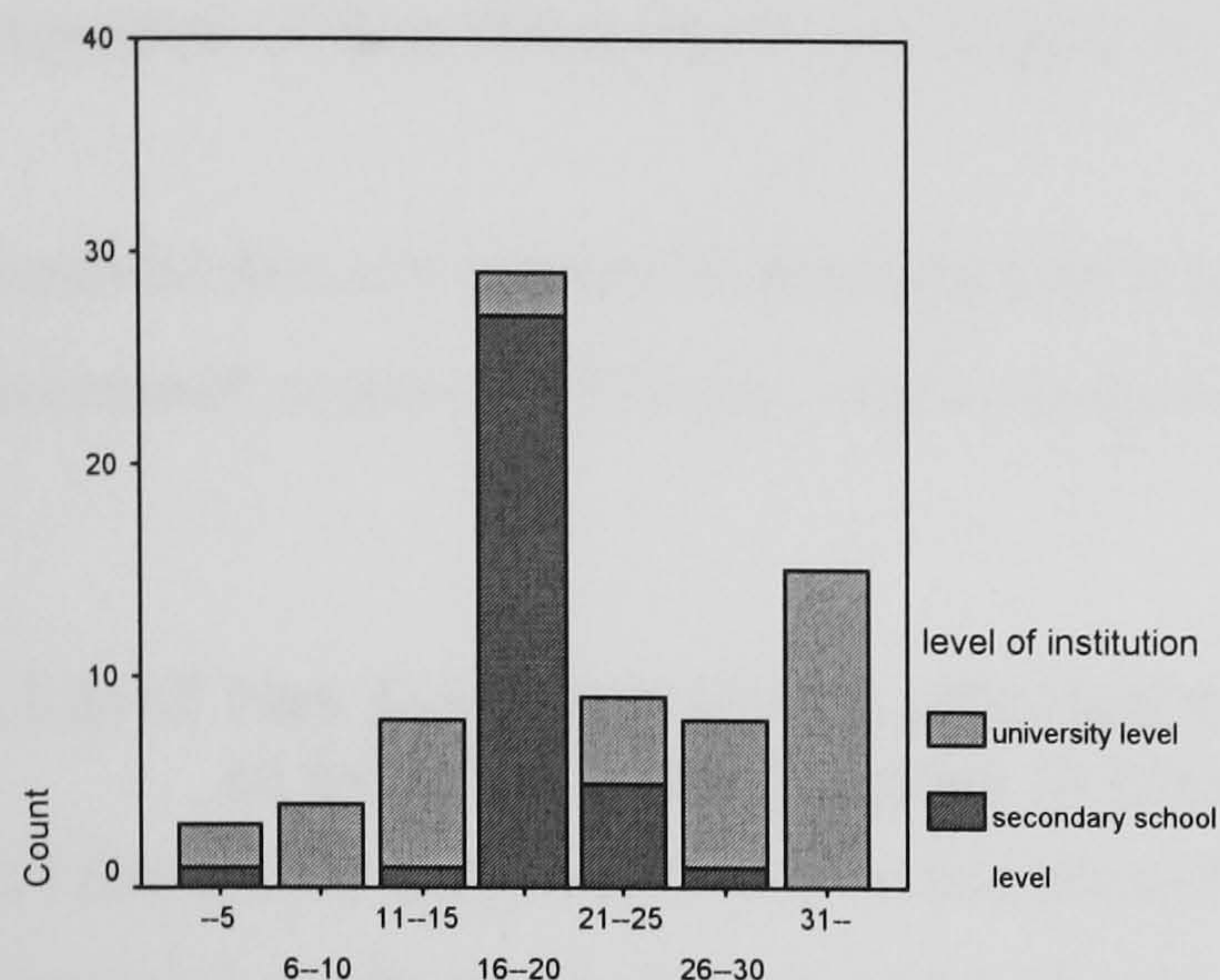


Figure 4.3-11 The number of teaching hours

Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho were conducted to establish the statistical relationship between teaching hours and the teachers' self-assessment scores. The results of the correlation tests indicate that there is no significant correlation between the two since the p-value is much larger than the critical 0.05 level:

$$\tau = 0.112; n = 76; \text{NS};$$

$$r_s = 0.144; n = 76; \text{NS}.$$

These results illustrate that the number of teaching hours is not related to the teachers' self-assessment.

- Confidence

The number of teaching hours was tested against teachers' confidence level in search for significant associations between the two. Cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests were administered. The cross-tabulation does not seem to illustrate any distinctive features. The results of Kendall's tau and Spearman's rho clearly show that there is no significant correlation between teaching hours and teacher's confidence. Thus, it is not expected that teaching longer hours will make teachers more, or less, confident. The number of teaching hours does not seem to work on the teachers' confidence in either way: positive or negative.

- The proportion of time

The statistical relationship between teaching hours and the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class was explored by cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests. The results

of Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho do not show any statistical significance between the two variables:

$$\tau = 0.027; n = 64; \text{NS};$$

$$r_s = 0.035; n = 64; \text{NS}.$$

There is no significant correlation between teaching hours and the proportion of time spent using English. This means that having more teaching hours does not seem to be related to the proportion of time the teachers use English in class.

In conclusion, the number of teaching hours does not appear to be related to the teachers' self-assessment scores, confidence, or the amount of English they use in class.

4.3.3.12 Has teacher training affected their SA, confidence, and/or the proportion of time they use English in class?

Teacher training experience was asked about in question III 1 & 2 of the survey questionnaire. Figure 4.3-12 illustrates the respondents' answers to question III 1 ('Have you ever participated in teacher training?') about whether the respondents have had teacher training. Because it was expected that there would be an imbalance in the amount of teacher training they had received between secondary school level and university level, teachers' answers were divided by the level of institution. As seen in Figure 4.3-12, in the case of university level teachers, only 23.8 % (10) of the teachers had teacher training, and the rest 73.8 % (31) of the teachers had none. The picture seems to be completely the opposite for secondary school teachers. 80.8 % (29) of the secondary school teachers had been trained and only 19.4 % (7) of the teachers had not.

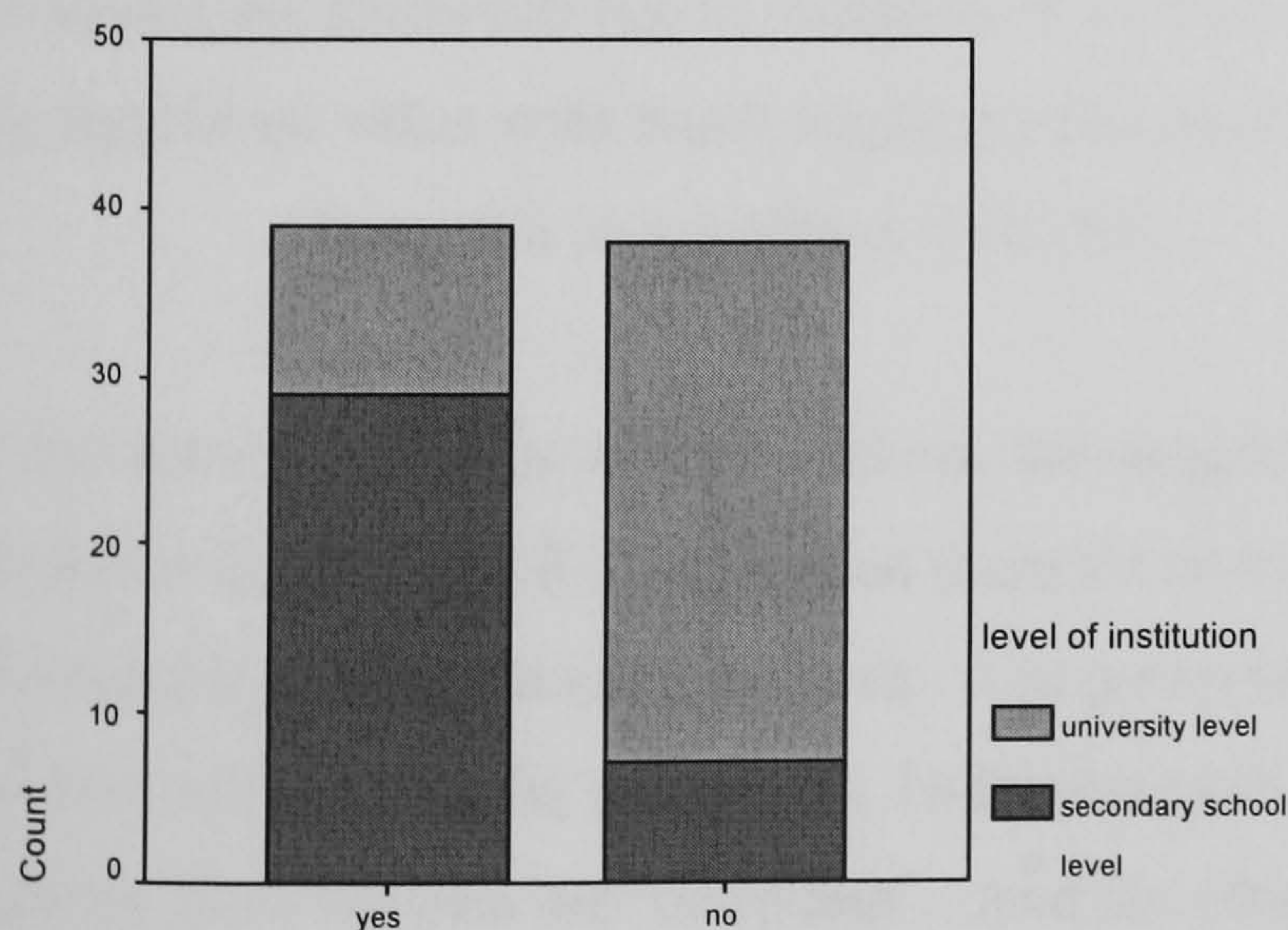


Figure 4.3-12 Teacher training experience

First of all, a t-test and an eta coefficient test were administered to check if self-assessment scores are affected by teacher training. The results of the t-test are shown below, and in the case of university level teachers, there is no statistically significant difference between the group of teachers with teacher training and the group without teacher training:

$$t = 0.739; df = 39; \text{NS}.$$

Again there is no significant difference in self-assessment scores between the group with teacher training and the group without it in the case of secondary level teachers:

$$t = -1.747; df = 16.921; NS.$$

The results of eta coefficient do not show any significant value with 0.117 for university level and with 0.208 for secondary school level teachers.

The above results indicate that teacher training did not affect teachers' perceived proficiency as revealed by the self-assessment tests. However, it would be too hasty to conclude from these results that teacher training does not at all help to boost the participant teachers' actual or perceived language proficiency because how much emphasis was placed on the participants' language improvement in the teacher training courses is not specified.

- Confidence

The statistical associations between teacher training and teachers' confidence level were probed by cross-tabulation, chi-square, and Cramer's V.

Interestingly, in appendix 8-3 the range of confidence levels for the university level teachers with training shown in the cross-tabulation displays none who are 'hardly confident' with three teachers (30 %) who are 'a little confident' and seven teachers (70 %) who are 'confident'. On the other hand, teachers with no training reveal a wider range in their confidence level: from two teachers (6.5%) who are 'hardly confident', nine teachers (29 %) who are 'a little confident', 18 teachers (58 %) who are 'confident', to two teachers (6.5 %) who are 'very confident'. However, the results of chi-square are discarded due to violation of a condition for the test and Cramer's V does not reveal any significant value with much larger p-value than the critical 0.05 level:

$$\text{Cramer's } V = 0.159; n = 42; NS.$$

In the case of secondary school teachers, the ranges give a very different picture. The cross-tabulation in appendix 8-3 shows that there are no teachers who are 'very confident' regardless of whether they had any teacher training. The group of teachers with training has seven teachers (24.1%) who are 'hardly confident', 16 teachers (55.2 %) who are 'a little confident', and six teachers (20.7 %) who are 'confident'. And the other group with no teacher training has one teacher (14.3 %) who is 'hardly confident', five teachers (71.4 %) who are 'a little confident', and one teacher (14.3 %) who is 'confident'. The results of chi-square are discarded for the same reason above and the results of Cramer's V are not significant:

$$\text{Cramer's } V = 0.131; n = 36; NS.$$

In both cases, it turns out that teacher training does not seem to affect teachers' level of confidence. However, these results also need to be accepted with some reservations, as pointed out above.

- The proportion of time

The relationship between teacher training and the proportion of time the teachers spend using English was investigated by cross-tabulation, and Cramer's V for both levels of teachers.

The cross-tabulation for university teachers in appendix 8-4 shows interesting results for the group of teachers with teacher training. The group with training does not have any members who do not use English at all. It has, instead, two members (20 %) who use English for between 1% and 25 % of the time in class, six members (60 %) who use English for between 76 % and 99 % of the time, and two members (20 %) who conduct English only classes. On the other hand, the group with no training has a wide range of distribution with one (4 %) teacher who does not use English at all, six (24 %) teachers who use English for between 1 % and 25 % of the time in class, eight teachers (32 %) who use English for between 25% and 50 % of the time, four teachers (16 %) who use English for between 51 % and 75% of the time, four teachers (16 %) who use English for between 76 % and 99 % of the time, and two teachers (8 %) who use only English in class.

In spite of the interesting range in the proportion of time the teachers spend using English, the two groups of teachers do not show any statistically significant difference in the proportion of time of English usage:

$$\text{Cramer's } V = 0.441; n = 36; \text{NS.}$$

In the case of secondary school level teachers, the cross-tabulation reveals a rather different tendency. Neither of the groups has members who use English for more than 75 % of the time in class. The two groups have a similar ratio when it comes to the teachers who use English for more than 25 % of the time in class. However, the similarity seems to end there. The teacher group with teacher training has one member (4.2 %) who uses English for between 51 % and 75 %, four members (16.7 %) who use English for between 25 % and 50 %, 15 members (62.5 %) who use English for between 1 % and 25 %, and four members (16.7 %) who do not use English at all. On the other hand, the teacher group with no teacher training has 40 % (2) of teachers who do not use English at all, another 40 % (2) of teachers who use English for between 1 % and 25 % of the time in class, and 20 % of teachers (one teacher) who use English for between 25 % and 50 %. In other words, nobody in the group uses English more than half of the time in class.

The results of Cramer's V show, however, that there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups in the proportion of time spent using English:

Cramer's $V = 0.241$; $n = 29$; NS.

All in all, no statistically significant relationships are found in relation to teacher training.

- The amount of teacher training the respondents had

Question III 2 in the survey questionnaire asked the respondents to provide details of the amount of teacher training they had ('What was the period of time and the total amount of time you spent in teacher training?'). This question was meant to obtain a clearer picture of teacher training the respondents took. Eight university level teachers and 26 secondary level teachers provided details about when the teacher training had taken place and how long it had lasted. Four university teachers attended both pre-service and in-service training courses, and one university teacher participated in in-service training only. The other university teachers (three teachers) all attended pre-service training only. In the case of secondary school teachers, only two teachers attended pre-service training, but they also participated in in-service training. The other 24 teachers participated in in-service training only.

Obviously, the two levels of teachers show a very different picture in terms of attendance of pre-service training. From the results, training for university teachers tends to be a one-off course: only pre-service training. On the other hand, secondary school teachers are given more opportunities for training while they are teaching.

In terms of the hours spent in teacher training the two groups differ. The hours of training for university teachers seem to be varied. Only eight university level teachers provided details, but their training seems to be carried out on a regular basis. One teacher stated that she attends training once every two months (three-hour session), and another teacher said that she took training twice every semester. Another teacher's training was described as taking place irregularly but continuously. Apart from this regular training, there is a range of training hours from 10 hours (one teacher), 24 (1), to 140 (1), and to 2400 hours (1).

Secondary school teachers provide a more even picture in terms of the training hours they took. In the case of the teachers who specified how many hours they had in their training, there are nine categories. Eight teachers had training between 56 and 60 hours. Two teachers had training of around 80 hours. One teacher had 100 hours of training, and two teachers had around 120 hours. One teacher had 180 hours of training, and two teachers had around 195 hours of training. After that, there was one teacher each who took training courses lasting 320 hours, 420 hours, and 660 hours respectively.

4.3.3.13 Has the extent to which the teachers' language improvement was covered during teacher training affected their SA, confidence, and/or the proportion of time they use English in class?

Question III 3 and 4 in the survey questionnaire addressed how much emphasis was placed on teachers' language improvement in teacher training ('how was teachers' target language improvement dealt with in the teacher training you received?'). The respondents were required to choose among four categories: 'hardly importantly', 'a little importantly', 'importantly', 'very importantly'. In contrast to the analysis of the teacher training variable, this time both levels of teachers were considered together. The reason for putting them back together is that there are only 10 teachers who attended teacher training at university level and that these 10 teachers are evenly distributed in the 4 different categories. Figure 4.3-13 shows how much emphasis was placed on teachers' language improvement in the teacher training the respondents had attended.

Among the total 39 teachers who answered this question, four teachers (10.3 %) said that teachers' language improvement was regarded as being 'hardly important' during teacher training they attended, and the teacher training attended by 15 teachers (38.5 %) dealt with it 'a little importantly'. However, the teacher training that 12 teachers (30.8 %) participated in handled teachers' language improvement 'reasonably importantly', and eight teachers (20.5 %) claimed that their teacher training dealt with it 'very importantly'.

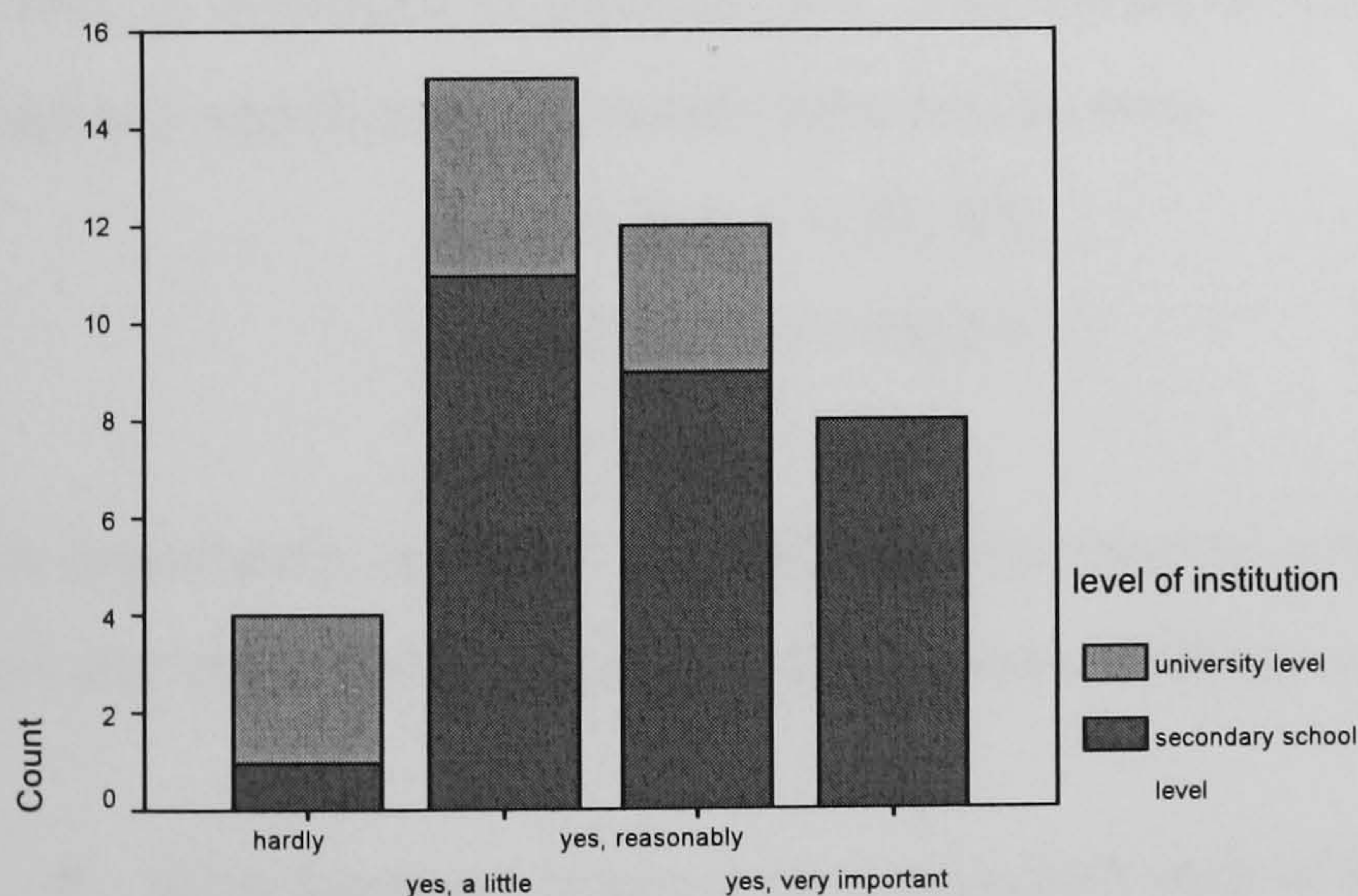


Figure 4.3-13 How language improvement was dealt with

ANOVA and rank correlation tests were administered to establish the relationship between the language improvement factor during teacher training and teachers' self-assessment scores.

The teachers were divided into four groups according to the importance of the language improvement factor in the teacher training they attended. The results of ANOVA fail to indicate any differences between the four groups with a much larger p-value of the 0.05 level:

$$F(3, 35) = 1.304; \text{NS.}$$

Therefore, there are no statistical differences in the self-assessment scores among the four groups. In addition, the results of Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho do not show any significant

correlation between the factor and self-assessment scores. Therefore, these results fail to provide evidence that the language improvement covered during teacher training has affected the teachers' self-assessment scores, at least not in a statistically significant way.

- Confidence

Cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests were used to check the statistical associations between the language improvement during teacher training and teachers' confidence level.

The cross-tabulation does not seem to show any distinctive features among the groups of teachers whose teacher training placed different levels of importance on the language improvement factor. In addition, the results of Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho do not reveal any statistically significant relationship at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the emphasis placed on teachers' language improvement in teacher training does not show any relationship to teachers' confidence.

- The proportion of time

The relationship between language improvement covered during teacher training and the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class is explored through cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests. The cross-tabulation does not seem to uncover any positive relationship between the two, as displayed in appendix 8-4. The results of Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho do not reveal any significant correlation between the two:

$$\tau = -0.264; n = 39; \text{NS};$$

$$r_s = -0.317; n = 39; \text{NS}.$$

How importantly teachers' language improvement was covered during teacher training does not show any statistically significant associations with any of the above three.

- How language improvement was dealt with in the teacher training

Question III 4 of the survey questionnaire asked the respondents to provide details of how teachers' language improvement was dealt with in the teacher training they had participated in. 25 teachers provided details. The techniques used in their teacher training were divided into six categories. The most frequently mentioned technique is 'talking/discussing with a native speaker'. The teacher training 20 teachers (80 %) attended employed this method. Four teachers (16 %) revealed that a native speaker taught four skill areas, pronunciation, and vocabulary in their training. Games or storytelling were included in the training that three teachers (12 %) received. In the teacher training one teacher (4 %) attended films on video were used. Participants watched a film, memorised some important expressions, and then took a test about them.

The other techniques used are designed to focus on teaching methodology as well as language improvement. Five teachers (20 %) reported that a native speaker taught teaching methodology in English in their training. The teacher training one teacher (4 %) participated in required participants to observe other teachers' classes conducted in English.

Below is the list of the techniques used in the teacher training:

- Talking /discussion with a native speaker (20 teachers/ 80 %)
- Four skills / pronunciation/ vocabulary practice with a native speaker (four teachers/ 16%)
- Games/ storytelling in English (three teachers/ 12 %)
- Watching a film, memorising, and taking a test about it (one teacher/ 4 %)
- Teaching methodology taught by a native speaker (five teachers/ 20 %)
- Observation of other teachers' classes conducted in English (one teacher/ 4 %)

It seems that the language improvement factor has gradually been increasing in importance in teacher training in Korea. A couple of decades ago, it was hardly mentioned in teacher training, according to some secondary school teachers, but now it has become one of the main foci of teacher training. This enhanced position of teachers' language improvement during teacher training also seems to reflect the Korean English teachers' perceived need for improving their own language proficiency. This is revealed in many teachers' comments about the need for quality teacher training. One of the teachers said:

I think English teachers' linguistic proficiency in all four skills should go up to the native like level. It is a pity that you teach what you are not proficient of. I think we need quality teacher training on a regular basis. It is a shame that teachers should go to a private language school to improve their language proficiency. I also think that we need native speaker teachers at school.

Another teacher highlighted the intensive language training for teachers:

The number of trainees in one group in teacher training should be reduced to less than 10. I think trainee teachers should have a lot of opportunities to express themselves and discuss in English. Too much attention to grammar and pronunciation should be avoided.

Another teacher emphasised the importance of systematic teacher training in terms of teachers' language improvement:

The quality of the class depends on the teacher. It is possible to improve our English on an individual level, but it must be much better to have an educational policy to motivate and support teachers' language improvement.

All these teachers' remarks reflect their strong need for improving their proficiency and for quality teacher training focusing on language improvement.

4.3.3.14 Does having native speaker colleagues at school/university or the number of native speaker colleagues the teachers have affect their chances of talking to native speakers?

The number of native speaker colleagues at school/university was the subject of question I 10 of the survey questionnaire and how often the respondents talk to the NS colleagues was asked about in I 11. Figure 4.3-14 displays the number of native speaker colleagues at the school/university the respondents are teaching at. It transpires that more than half of the respondents (40 teachers/54.1 %) do not have native speaker colleagues at school/university, five teachers (6.8 %) have between 1 and 5 native speaker colleagues, 16 teachers (21.6 %) between 6 and 10, three teachers (4.1 %) between 11 and 15, eight teachers (10.8 %) between 16 and 20, one teacher (1.4 %) between 21 and 30, and one teacher (1.4 %) has more than 31 native speaker colleagues.

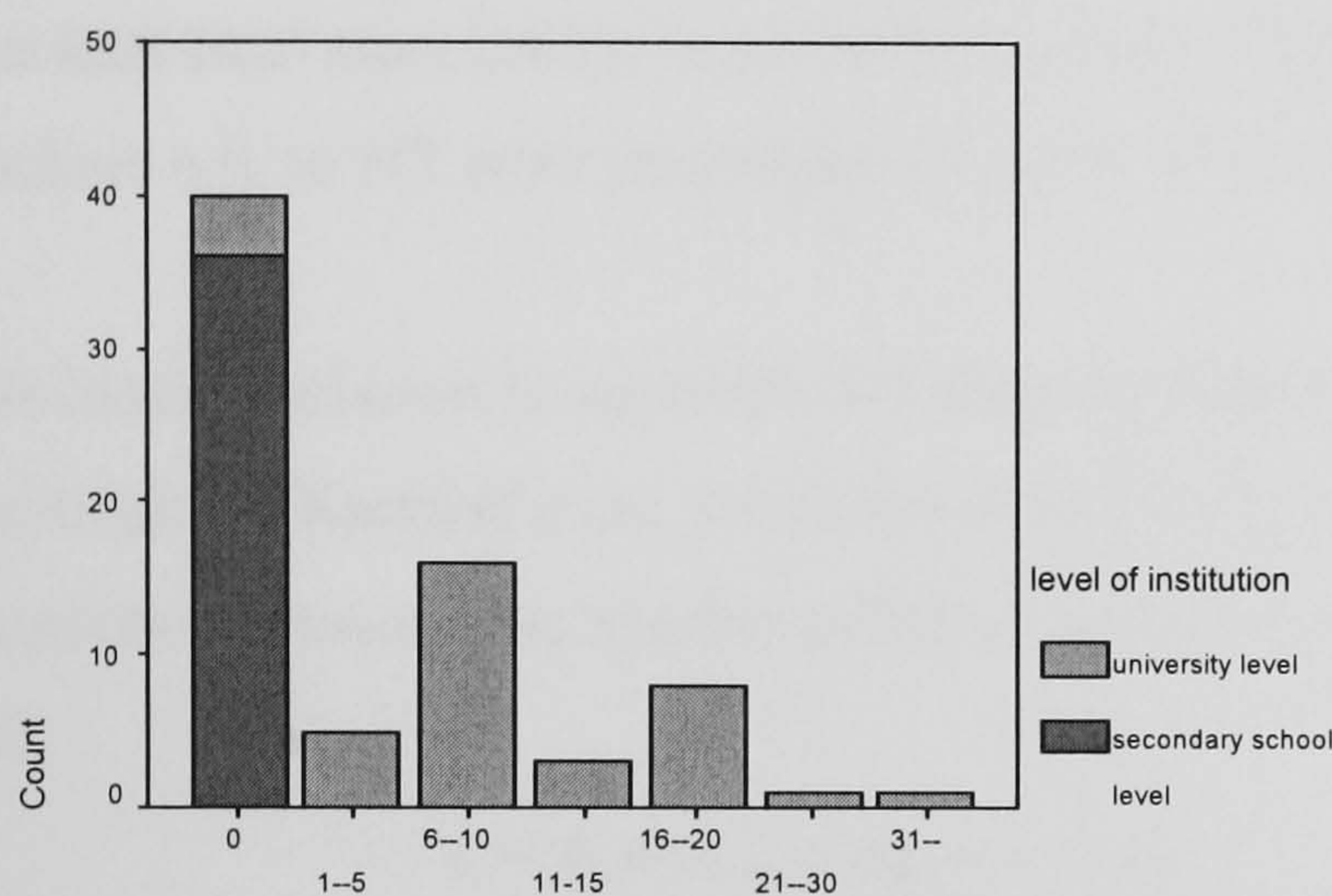


Figure 4.3-14 The number of NS colleagues

This large number of teachers who do not have native speaker colleagues is very surprising because at secondary school level a policy to have native speaker teachers within schools was introduced in 1996. However, the policy seems to have short-lived because of the economic crisis in 1997-8 in Asia.

The frequency with which the teachers talk to native speakers reveals a wide range. Seven teachers (9.7 %) 'never' talk to native speakers, 28 teachers (38.9 %) 'rarely' talk to NS (two or three times a year), eight teachers (11.1 %) talk to them 'sometimes' (2 or 3 times a month), 14 teachers (19.4 %) talk to them 'often' (two or three times a week), and 15 teachers (20.8%) talk to NS 'very often' (on a daily basis).

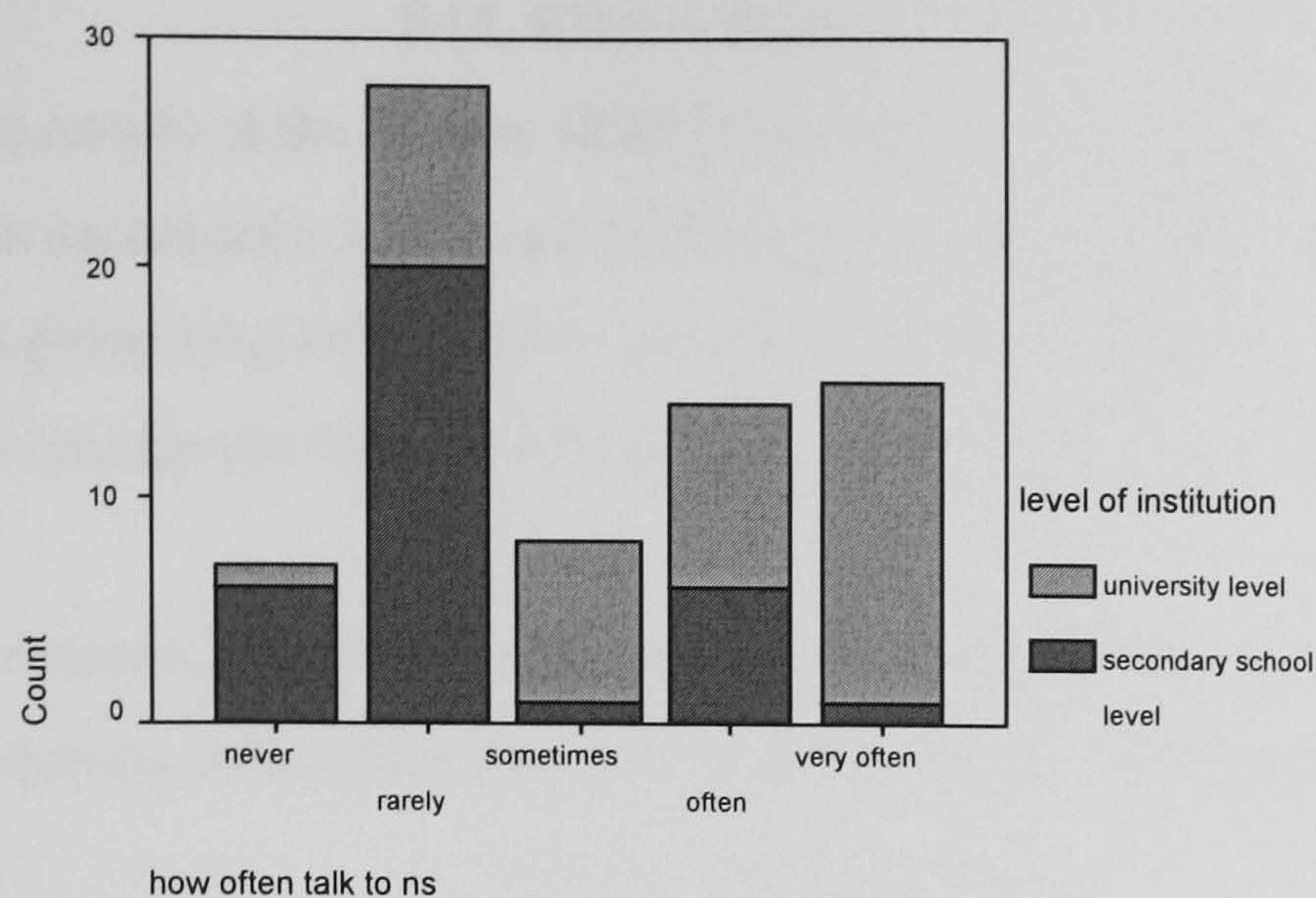


Figure 4.3-15 How often talk to NS

The statistical associations between the number of NS colleagues and the frequency with which the teachers talk to NS were investigated by cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests.

The cross-tabulation in appendix 8-2 does not seem to indicate any distinctive features. However, the results of Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho reveal that there is a statistically significant correlation between the number of NS colleagues and the frequency with which the teachers talk to NS:

$$\tau = 0.314; n = 68; p < 0.05;$$

$$r_s = 0.379; n = 68; p < 0.05.$$

The results show that the correlation is positive and significant in spite of its low value. These results suggest that having more native speaker colleagues increases teachers' chances of talking to native speakers even though it does not guarantee that they will talk to native speakers. Several teachers pointed out that they needed native speaker colleagues so that they could contact these native speakers in fairly natural circumstances.

4.3.3.15 Does having more opportunity to talk to native speaker colleagues affect their SA, confidence, and/or the proportion of time they use English in class?

Following the investigation into the opportunity to talk to native speakers, the frequency with which they talked to NS was tested against self-assessment scores, confidence level, and the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class. First of all, ANOVA and rank correlation tests were administered to confirm the statistical associations between the frequency and self-assessment scores.

ANOVA divided the teachers into five groups according to the frequency with which the teachers talk to native speakers. The results of ANOVA signal that there are statistically significant differences among groups with a low p-value:

$$F(4, 67) = 5.151; p < 0.05.$$

The results of the Turkey HSD Post Hoc test show between which groups the difference is present. The statistically significant difference is found only between the group who 'rarely' talks to NS and the group who talks to NS 'very often'. The results of the Homogeneous Subsets confirm that the two groups can only be distinguished by putting the two in a separate subset.

The results of Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho reveal a positive correlation between the frequency with which they talk to native speaker colleagues and self-assessment scores:

$$\tau = 0.336; n = 72; p < 0.01;$$

$$r_s = 0.440; n = 72; p < 0.01.$$

The correlation is not high, but significant. From these results, it can be said that, to a certain degree, the frequency with which the teachers talk to native speakers seems to be related to self-assessment scores: more talk with NS could mean higher self-assessment. It is hard to tell, however, that which affects which, i.e., whether the frequency with which they talk to NS affects their perceived proficiency, or vice versa.

- Confidence

The statistical associations between the frequency with which the teachers talk to native speakers and teachers' confidence level were explored by cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests.

The range of confidence level shown in appendix 8-3 reveals a very interesting picture. Only two groups of high frequency have members who are 'very confident'. The group of teachers who talk to NS 'very often' has one member (6.7 %) who is 'very confident', 11 (73.3 %) 'confident' members, and three members (20 %) who are 'a little confident'. The group of teachers who 'often' talk to NS has one (7.1 %) 'very confident' member, five (35.7 %) 'confident' members, seven members (50 %) who are 'a little confident', and one member (7.1 %) who is 'hardly confident'. The group of teachers who 'sometimes' talk to NS has five (62.5 %) 'confident' members, and three members (37.5 %) who are 'a little confident'. The other two lower frequency groups have a similarity in that both have a substantial ratio of members who are 'hardly confident' of their English. The group who 'rarely' talks to NS has six members (21.4 %) who are 'hardly confident', 15 members (53.6 %) who are 'a little confident', and seven (25 %) 'confident' members. The least frequency group has three members (42.9 %) who are 'hardly confident', and one member (14.3 %) who is 'a little confident', and three (42.9 %) 'confident' members.

The results of Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho indicate that there is a significant correlation between the frequency and the confidence level:

$$\tau = 0.360; n = 72; p < 0.01;$$

$$r_s = 0.408; n = 72; p < 0.01.$$

Therefore, it can be assumed that the more frequently the teachers talk to NS, the greater their confidence is. However, as pointed out above, the results do not show the direction in which these two variables interact with each other: whether the frequency with which the teachers talk to NS affected their confidence or the other way around.

- The proportion of time

The last statistical associations investigated in relation to the frequency with which the teachers talk to NS are those with the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class. This was tested by cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests.

The cross-tabulation in appendix 8-4 clearly shows that teachers in the higher frequency groups are in the columns for the higher proportion of time of English use. Only the highest frequency group who talks to NS 'very often' has members (4/ 26.7 %) who teach an English only class. Other than that, this group has five members (33.3 %) who use English in class for between 76 % and 99 % of the time and three members (30 %) who use English for between 51 % and 75 % of the time. In addition, the three higher frequency groups do not have members who do not use English in class at all. On the other hand, the two lower frequency groups do not have any members who use English in class for more than 50 % of the time.

The results of Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho also reveal a modest or high correlation between the frequency with which the teachers talk to NS and the proportion of time they spend using English:

$$\tau = 0.589; n = 61; p < 0.01;$$

$$r_s = 0.700; n = 61; p < 0.01.$$

Again, the correlation between the two was confirmed, showing that teachers who frequently talk to NS tend to use more English in class. However, once again, these results do not show which affects which, as pointed out above.

4.3.3.16 Does the frequency with which the teachers use English outside the classroom affect their SA scores and/or confidence in using English?

Questionnaire question I 12 asked how often the respondents have the opportunity to use English outside the classroom. This question was intended to find out what kinds of situation teachers are frequently in, and how much they use English in those situations. Two distinctive opportunities to use English, staying in English speaking countries and talking with native speaker colleagues, were excluded in this question because these two had already been asked about in earlier questions. The respondents were required to mark how often they were faced

with, and used, English in the nine given situations. Rank correlation tests were conducted to check if there were any significant correlations between the teachers' self-assessment scores and the frequency with which English was used in each of the nine situations. ANOVA was not conducted because, in many cases, the group number was less than two. Then, cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests were carried out to confirm if there were any significant differences between the teachers' confidence level and the frequency with which they use English in each of the nine situations.

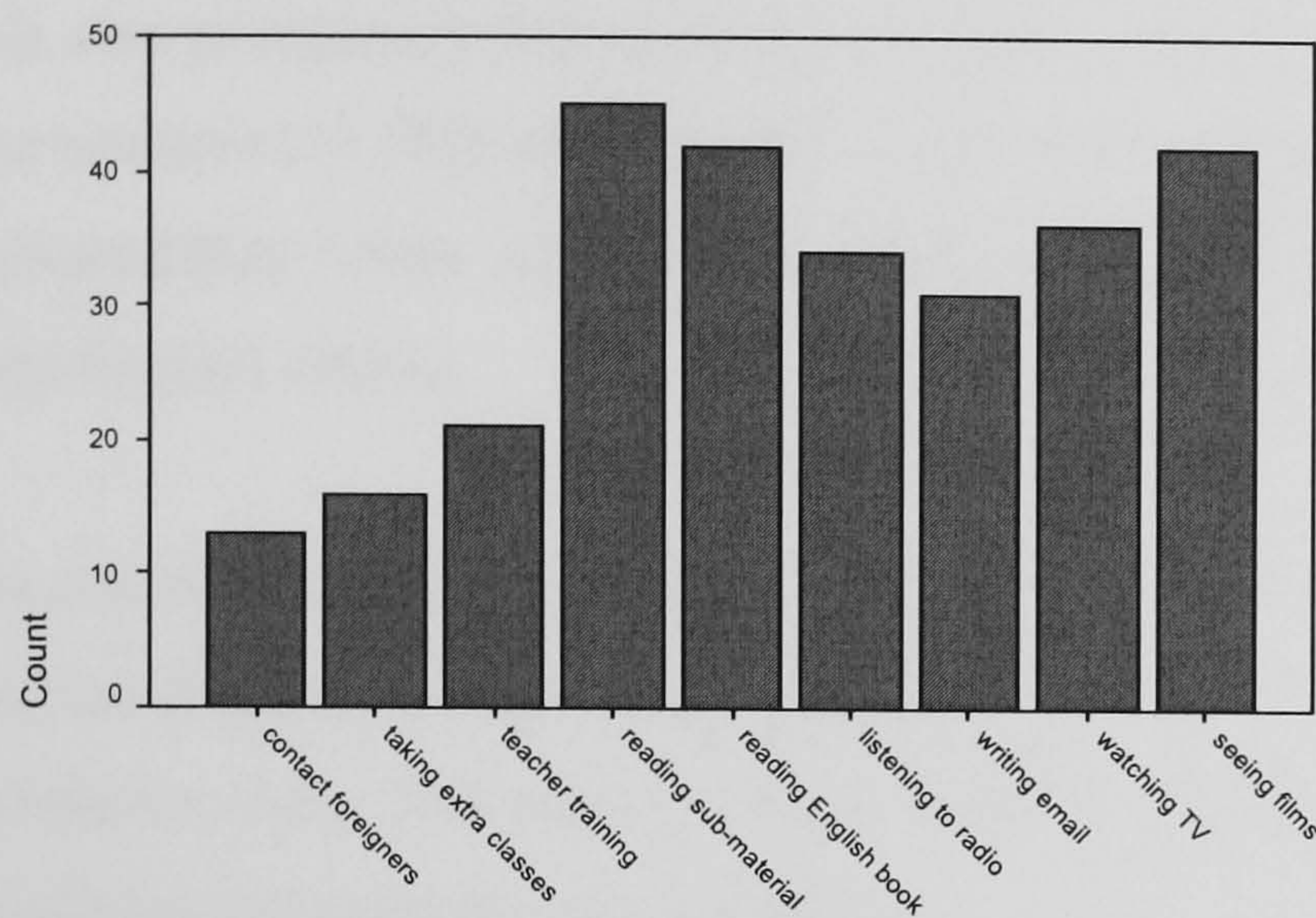


Figure 4.3-16 Use of English outside the class

- Contact with foreigners

More than half of the respondents (46 teachers/ 59 %) answered 'hardly ever' to the question of how often they had the chance to use English by means of contacting foreigners. 19 teachers (24.3 %) answered they used English 'sometimes' by means of contacting foreigners. On the other hand, the number of teachers who used English 'often' and 'very often' in this situation is only 11 (14.1 %) and 2 (2.6 %) each.

The strength of the relationship between the self-assessment scores and the frequency of contacts with foreigners was explored by rank correlation tests. The results show that there is a significant correlation between the two variables:

$$\tau = 0.183; df = 78; p < 0.05;$$

$$r_s = 0.232; df = 78; p < 0.05.$$

As shown in the results of the correlation tests, there is a low but significant correlation between the two. This confirms that teachers contacting foreigners frequently are more likely to have higher self-assessment scores.

The relationship between frequency of contact with foreigners and teachers' confidence was investigated by cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests. The results of correlation tests clearly indicate that there is a significant correlation between the two:

$$\tau = 0.275; df = 78; p < 0.05;$$

$$r_s = 0.301; df = 78; p < 0.05.$$

Once again, the correlation between the two is low, but significant. So the more frequent contact the teachers have with foreigners, the more confident they tend to be in using English.

- Taking extra English classes

The frequency with which the teachers use English by taking extra English classes to improve their own proficiency was explored. 53 teachers (67.9 %) ‘hardly’ use English by that means. nine teachers (11.5%) used English ‘sometimes’ through that means. 15 teachers (19.2 %) answered they ‘often’ used English, and one teacher (1.3%) used English ‘very often’ by taking extra English classes.

The statistical associations between the self-assessment scores and the frequency with which they use English through taking extra English classes for themselves were explored using rank correlation tests. The results of the correlation tests show that there is not a significant correlation between the two variables:

$$\tau = -0.035; df = 78; NS;$$

$$r_s = -0.034; df = 78; NS.$$

From these results, it can be inferred that the number of teachers taking extra English classes is not very large. Therefore, the opportunity to use English by that means is not great, either. It seems that once they become teachers, they do not wish to go back to the students’ position again by taking classes. The Far East Asian culture mentioned earlier, where teachers are put upon a pedestal, seems to affect this tendency. Teachers do not want to lose face by admitting that they need to improve their English (see 1.2.4). And taking classes can be considered to be a very obvious way of admitting it.

The relationship between the confidence level and the frequency with which they use English through taking extra English classes was probed by cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests. The cross-tabulation does not show any distinctive features. In addition, the results of Kendall’s tau_b and Spearman’s rho fail to signal any significant correlation between the two variables:

$$\tau = 0.123; df = 78; NS;$$

$$r_s = 0.131; df = 78; NS.$$

- Teacher training

The frequency with which the teachers use English through participating in teacher training was investigated. More than half of the respondents (45 teachers/ 57.7 %) turned out to ‘hardly’ use English through participation in teacher training. The number of teachers who use English

‘sometimes’ in the situation is 12 (15.4 %). 20 teachers (25.6 %) ‘often’ used English and one teacher (1.3 %) used English ‘very often’ through participation in teacher training.

The statistical associations between the self-assessment scores and the frequency were investigated using rank correlation tests. The results of Kendall’s tau_b and Spearman’s rho do not find any significant correlation between the self-assessment scores and the frequency:

$$\tau = -0.106; df = 78; NS;$$

$$r_s = -0.139; df = 78; NS.$$

The relationship between teachers’ confidence and the frequency with which they use English during teacher training was explored by rank correlation tests. The results of the rank correlation tests do not reveal any significant correlation between the two.

- Reading professional literature

The frequency with which the teachers use English through reading professional literature in English was explored in relation to the self-assessment scores and confidence. Judging from the large number of teachers, this is one of the situations respondents frequently find themselves in. 12 teachers (15.4 %) used English ‘very often’ in this situation and 33 teachers (42.3 %) ‘often’ used English in the same situation. On the other hand, 18 teachers (23.1 %) used English ‘sometimes’, and 15 teachers (19.2 %) ‘hardly’ used English through reading professional literature.

The strength of the statistical associations between the two variables was explored by rank correlation tests. The results of the tests indicate that there is a significant correlation between the self-assessment scores and the frequency with which the teachers use English through reading professional literature:

$$\tau = 0.262; df = 78; p < 0.05.$$

$$r_s = 0.347; df = 78; p < 0.05.$$

Therefore, teachers reading professional literature more frequently are more likely to have higher self-assessment scores.

Confidence was investigated in association with the frequency with which they use English by reading professional literature. The results of the Kendall’s tau_b and Spearman’s rho denote that there is a low but significant correlation between confidence and frequency.

$$\tau = 0.219; df = 78; p < 0.05;$$

$$r_s = 0.245; df = 78; p < 0.05.$$

The correlation between the two is also low but significant. Therefore, the more frequently the teachers read professional literature, the more confident they are likely to be.

- Reading newspapers/books

The frequency with which they use English by reading newspapers/books in English was investigated. 10 teachers (12.8 %) answered that they used English ‘very often’, and 32 teachers (41 %) ‘often’ used English in the situation. 22 teachers (28.2 %) used English ‘sometimes’ and 14 teachers (17.9 %) ‘hardly’ used English by reading newspapers/books.

The correlation between the self-assessment scores and the frequency with which they use English by reading newspapers/books was explored by rank correlation tests. The results of the two correlation tests denote that there is no significant correlation between the two variables:

$$\tau = 0.133; df = 78; NS;$$

$$r_s = 0.173; df = 78; NS.$$

Cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests were carried out to check the relationship between confidence and the frequency with which they use English by reading newspapers/books.

Cross-tabulation fails to show noticeable features. The results of the rank correlation tests do not indicate any significant correlation between the two.

- Listening to the radio

The frequency with which they use English by means of listening to English programmes on the radio was explored in relation to the self-assessment scores and the confidence level. Above all, frequency table in appendix 8-1 shows that 10 teachers (12.8 %) used English ‘very often’ and 24 teachers (30.8 %) ‘often’ used English by listening to the radio. On the other hand, 44 teachers (56.4 %) used English only ‘sometimes’ or ‘hardly’ used English by listening to the radio (22 teachers/ 28.2 % each).

The statistical association between the self-assessment scores and the frequency with which they use English by listening to the radio was examined by rank correlation tests. The results of Kendall’s tau_b and Spearman’s rho reveal that there is a significant correlation between the two:

$$\tau = 0.177; df = 78; p < 0.05.$$

$$r_s = 0.231; df = 78; p < 0.05.$$

Therefore, the more frequently the teachers listen to the radio, the higher their self-assessment scores are likely to be.

The relationship between confidence and the frequency with which they use English by listening to the radio was investigated by cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests. Neither cross-tabulation nor the results of the rank correlation tests indicate that there is any significant correlation between the two variables.

- Writing letters/emails

The question on how frequently English was used to write English letters or emails was answered by 33 teachers (42.3 %) who stated 'hardly'. 14 teachers (17.9 %) used English 'sometimes' for writing. On the other hand, there were more frequent users of English for that purpose. 24 teachers (30.8 %) used English 'often' and seven teachers (9 %) used English 'very often' to write letters or emails.

The relationship between the self-assessment scores and the frequency with which they use English to write was examined by Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho. The results of the correlation tests display that there is a significant correlation between the two:

$$\tau = 0.354; df = 78; p < 0.01.$$

$$r_s = 0.449; df = 78; p < 0.01.$$

Therefore, the more frequently the teachers write letters/emails, the higher their self-assessment scores are likely to be.

Cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests were conducted to show the relationship between confidence and the frequency with which they use English to write. The results of Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho show that there is a statistically significant correlation between the two:

$$\tau = 0.494; df = 78; p < 0.01.$$

$$r_s = 0.549; df = 78; p < 0.01.$$

This means that the more frequently the teachers write letter/emails, the more confident they are likely to be.

- Watching TV

The frequency with which they use English when watching programmes in English on TV was investigated. 23 teachers (29.5 %) 'hardly' used English and 19 teachers (24.4 %) used English only 'sometimes' when watching English programmes on TV. However, 28 teachers (35.9 %) 'often' used English and eight teachers (10.3 %) used English 'very often' when watching TV.

The relationship between the self-assessment scores and the frequency with which they use English to watch TV was examined by rank correlation tests. The results of Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho illustrate that there is a low but significant correlation between the two:

$$\tau = 0.233; df = 78; p < 0.05.$$

$$r_s = 0.301; df = 78; p < 0.05.$$

Therefore, the more frequently the teachers watch TV in English, the higher their self-assessment scores are likely to be.

Cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests were employed to check the statistical association between confidence and the frequency with which they use English to watch TV. The results of Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho indicate that there is a significant correlation between the two:

$$\tau = 0.222; df = 78; p < 0.05.$$

$$r_s = 0.249; df = 78; p < 0.05.$$

This means that the more frequently the teachers watch TV in English, the more confident they are likely to be.

- Going to see films

The teachers were also asked how often they went to see English language films. 16 teachers (20.5 %) answered that they 'hardly' saw them. 20 teachers (25.6 %) saw English films 'sometimes'. 34 teachers (43.6 %), however, 'often' saw English films and eight teachers (10.3 %) saw English films 'very often'.

The statistical associations between the self-assessment scores and the frequency with which they go to see English films were investigated by rank correlation tests. The results of Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho denote that there is not a significant correlation between the two variables:

$$\tau = 0.170; df = 78; NS;$$

$$r_s = 0.223; df = 78; NS.$$

The relationship between confidence and the frequency with which the teachers go to see English films was examined by cross-tabulation and rank correlation tests. The results of the rank correlation tests as well as the cross-tabulation fail to show any statistically significant correlation between the two variables:

As seen above, some of the situations are the ones that respondents frequently find themselves in and frequently use English, and others are not. Also, the frequencies with which they use

English in some situations correlate with the teachers' self-assessment scores and with their confidence, but not in other situations. Teachers' self-assessment scores correlate with the frequent use of English through contacts with foreigners, reading professional literature, listening to the radio, writing letters or emails, watching TV. Teachers' confidence correlates with the frequency with which they use English through contacts with foreigners, reading professional literature, writing letters or emails, watching TV.

4.3.4 What Do the Teachers Think Their Main Difficulties are in Using English?

This question was addressed in IV 2 of the survey questionnaire ('what are your areas of difficulty in using English?'). Respondents were required to state whether or not they had problems in using English in any of the 8 areas of language skills provided. Figure 4.3-17 shows the range of the respondents' perceived areas of difficulty in using English.

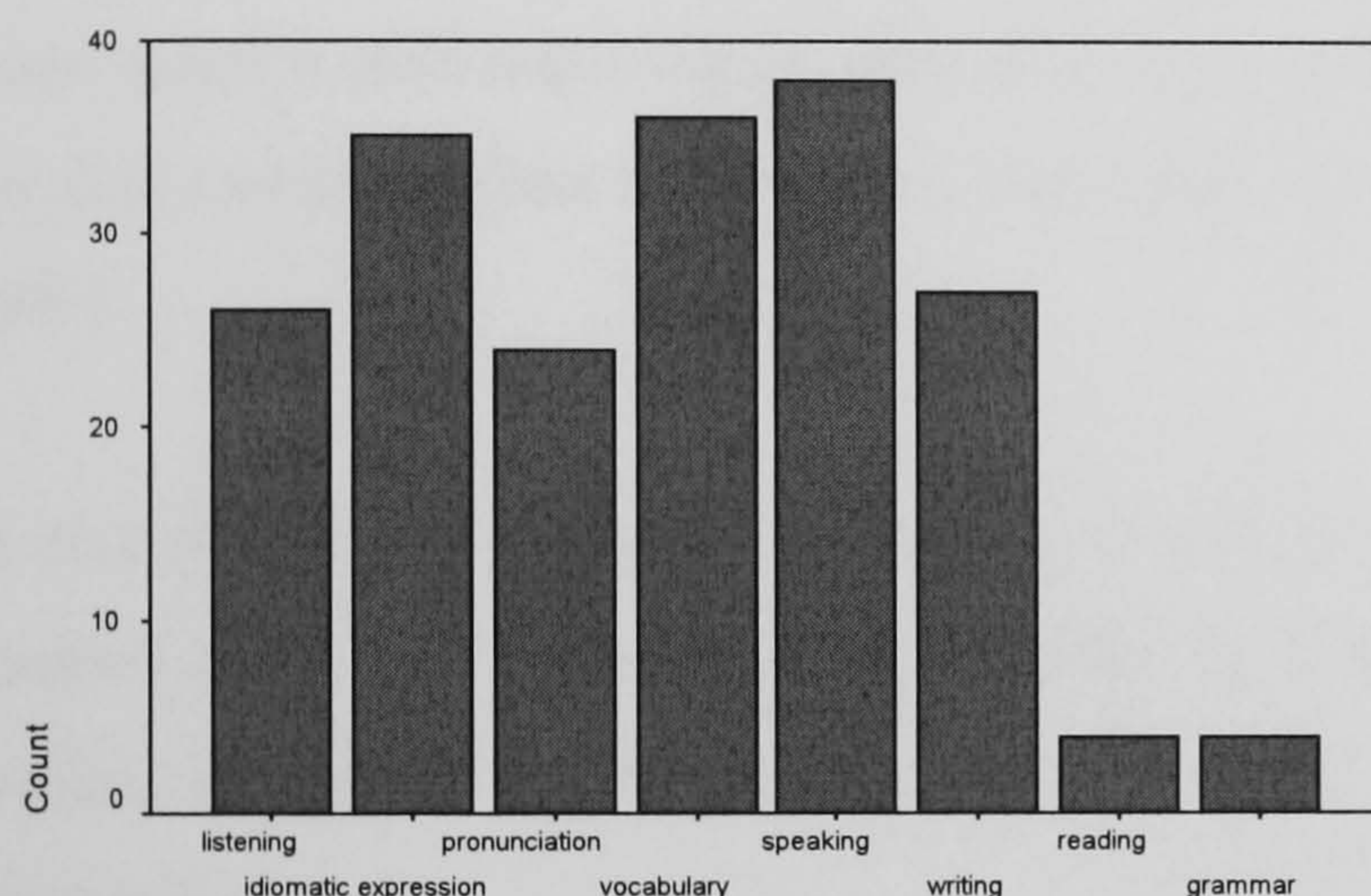


Figure 4.3-17 Areas of difficulty in using English

The most frequently mentioned area of difficulty in using English was speaking, which was identified by more than half of the teachers (38 teachers/ 52.1 %). Korean learners of English, irrespective of their positions, are believed to be poor in communicating in spoken form, which means that they are poor in both speaking and understanding spoken English. However, because speaking is a productive skill, it seems to be even more difficult than listening as a receptive skill (Bachman & Palmer 1996).

The second most frequently mentioned area of difficulty in using English was appropriate use of vocabulary. 36 teachers (49.3 %) found this difficult. This result was not expected because vocabulary and reading skills along with grammar were believed to be the areas which are well covered at Korean schools. However, the focus of learning seems to have been on memorising as much vocabulary as possible, while the actual 'use' part was ignored. Therefore, it is not hard to understand why the teachers found using vocabulary in an appropriate context difficult, because simply memorising vocabulary is different from using it in an appropriate context.

35 teachers (47.9 %) found using appropriate idiomatic expressions difficult. This was expected because textbook English is clearly different from everyday English where many idiomatic expressions are involved. In addition, the teachers' learning experiences seem to partly explain this difficulty. This difficulty can be interpreted in relation to the respondents' exposure to native speakers and their culture. 71 teachers (92.2 %) stated that they were not given much opportunity to contact native speakers at school and 37 teachers (48.1 %) stated that the situation did not get much better in university, either. Therefore, the respondents did not seem to have the opportunity to learn the expressions native speakers used. In addition, 70 teachers (90.9 %) stated that they were not taught about the target culture at school and 47 teachers (61 %) stated that the situation did not get any better in university, either.

Writing was mentioned as another difficult area by 27 teachers (37 %). Though writing, in most cases, is not a skill requiring spontaneity in the same way as speaking, it is still a productive skill and that seems to affect the teachers' perception of writing as a difficult area (Bachman & Palmer 1996).

26 teachers (35.6 %) identified listening as difficult. Pronunciation was found to be difficult by 24 teachers (32.9 %). The lack of opportunities to practise speaking skills was very likely to cause the problem as pointed out by a large number of respondents in the questionnaire that speaking was a neglected area.

The least difficult areas in using English are reading and grammar, identified by only four teachers each (5.5 %). It is no exaggeration to say that these two are the only areas to be covered in Korean schools.

The results above show that many teachers felt that they had difficulty in using English and so there is room for improvement in their English.

4.3.5 How Do the Teachers Think It Affects Them If They Have a Negative Perception of Their Own Language Proficiency?

As a way of finding out the possible effects of teachers' not very positive perception of their own language proficiency, this question, 'when the teacher does not feel very confident of her proficiency, how do you think it affects her teaching?' was asked in IV 6 of the survey questionnaire. Respondents were allowed to check as many as they wanted from 10 items.

Figure 4.3-18 displays teachers' opinions about the negative effects of teachers' not very positive perception of their own language proficiency. The most frequently mentioned negative effect (48 teachers/ 67.6 %) is that the less confident teachers tend to stick to one fixed teaching method. Not surprisingly, the respondents point out that the area most affected by the teachers' insecurity about their own English proficiency is their teaching. Because they are teachers and teaching is what they do, this can be said to be the most important area in their profession. As a teacher, it is very easy and painless to set one particular routine and follow that by repeating herself in every class. No more effort needs to be made on the teacher's part once the routine is set. However, by doing that, students' different needs can be ignored and neglected. The respondents seem to believe that the less proficient teachers of English tend to stick to the routine and to ignore their students' diverse needs simply because it is easy and painless for them.

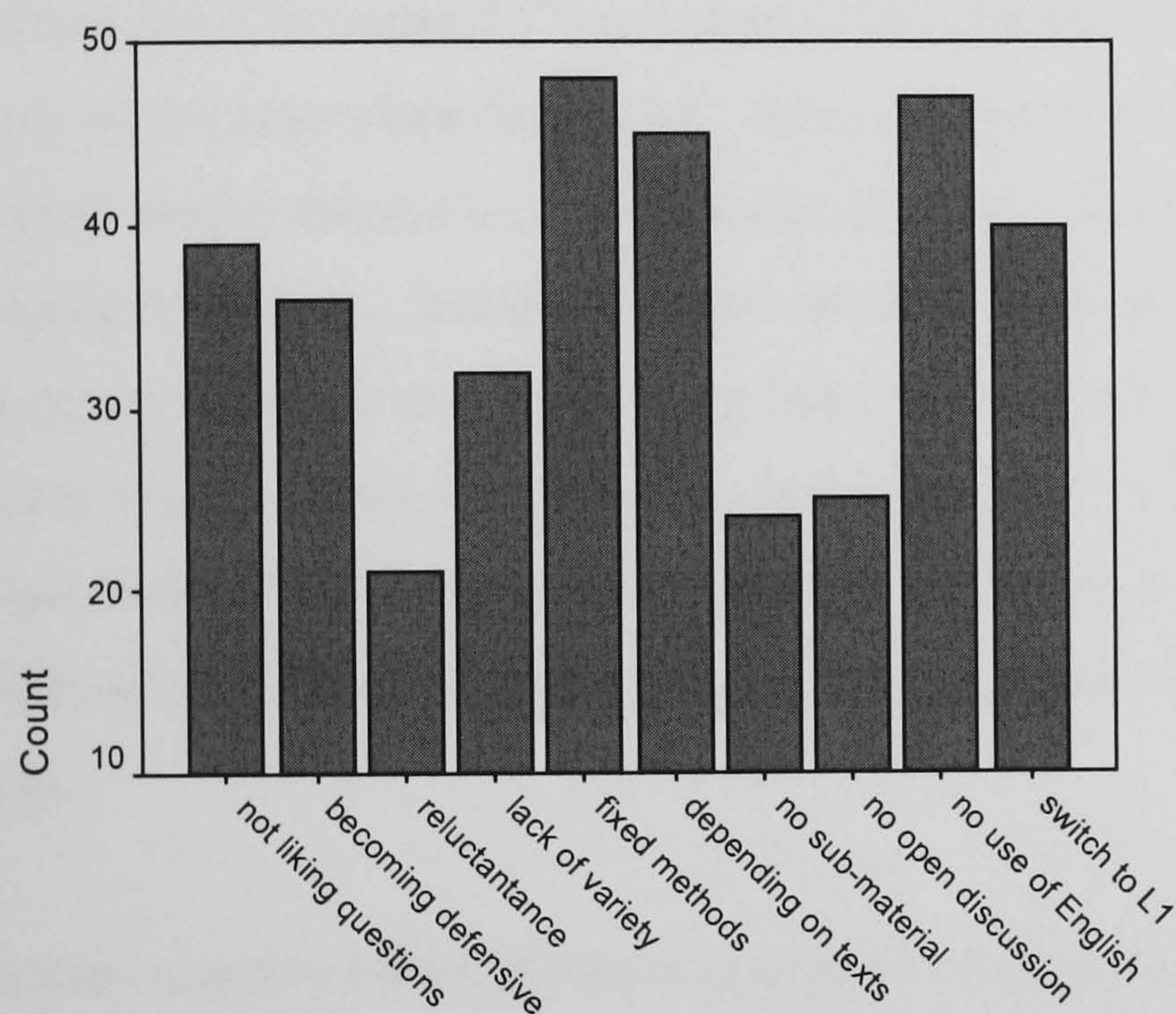


Figure 4.3-18 Negative effects of less proficient teachers

Another negative point mentioned in relation to teaching methods (ranked 7th) is that the teachers who are insecure about their own proficiency do not like to use a variety of teaching methods, as pointed out by 32 teachers (45.1 %). The respondents seem to believe that the proficient teachers of English would try a variety of ways of teaching their students, possibly because it would not take them long to prepare, at least not in terms of their language resources. On the other hand, less proficient teachers of English would take longer to prepare different types of class, possibly because their language resources are relatively limited.

The second most frequently mentioned negative effect (47 teachers/ 66.2 %) is that the less proficient teachers of English do not try to teach through the medium of English rather than L1. This seems to be one of the most direct negative effects of lower confidence in their English proficiency. Because they are not confident of the language, they may avoid using it and consequently use more Korean than English in class. This issue of the ratio of English to Korean

used in the classroom was investigated in more depth in 4.3.2. However, it seems worth pointing out again that 14 teachers (25.9 % of the respondents) admitted that they did not use English much in the classroom simply because their English proficiency was not high enough or because they did not have confidence in their own speaking proficiency.

Another negative point in relation to using English (ranked 4th) that is agreed on by 40 teachers (56.3 %) is that insecure teachers would frequently switch to L1 while using English. It seems commonsensical to think that the less confident teachers of English tend to switch to L1, which obviously they have no problem in using.

Another negative point related to less confident teachers of English concerns teaching materials. 45 teachers (63.4 %/ ranked 3rd) pointed out that teachers insecure of their own proficiency depend too much on the prescribed fixed texts. Respondents seem to believe that less proficient teachers of English tend to depend too much on the textbook, possibly because they do not have their own rich language resources. Another negative point in relation to teaching materials, mentioned by 24 teachers (33.8 %) is that the less confident teachers of English would not try to use a variety of supplementary materials. This can, once again, be interpreted in association with teachers' preparation. Using other supplementary materials apart from the textbook means studying them before actually using them in class, and this may take longer for less proficient teachers of English to do.

Another negative effect of teachers insecure in their own proficiency concerns the students. 39 teachers (54.9 %/ ranked 5th) claimed that the less confident teachers would not like to have questions from students and 36 teachers (50.7 %/ ranked 6th) pointed out that these teachers would become defensive towards students' comments. Another negative point related to students is that the teachers are not willing to encourage students to be active participants (ranked 10th mentioned by 21 teachers (29.6 %)). These three points seem to go together. When teachers are not confident of their own proficiency, they may not like students' questions for fear of not knowing the answers and subsequently losing face in front of the students. Consequently, these teachers may become defensive towards students' questions or comments and would possibly discourage instead of encouraging them. These three points seem to be very much concerned with the Far East Asian culture of putting teachers upon a pedestal and expecting them to know everything, and as a result, a teacher's not knowing something leads to them losing face.

25 teachers (35.2 %) claimed that insecure teachers would not want to discuss the contents of the particular lesson openly in class. This point seems to be in line with both the student factor above and the effects given below by two teachers.

Apart from the above negative effects, two teachers gave their own perceived negative effects of less confident teachers of English. One of the teachers stated that it would not be easy for the less confident teachers to make the classroom atmosphere comfortable for students, and that, as a result, they would have trouble motivating students. The other teacher claimed that the less confident teachers might not be very active and dynamic in encouraging students' participation, and that this might negatively affect the students. Consequently, she continued, it might result in the students having a negative view of English.

All in all, the teachers seem to believe that less confident teachers of English are more likely to exert a negative influence on their students.

4.4 RESULTS FROM THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE (II)

Research question III and the first sub-question of research question IV were answered by using the survey questionnaire. Research question III is 'is there the need for and are there any ways of boosting teachers' proficiency in the target language?', which was asked to confirm that the Korean English teachers felt the need to improve their own proficiency, and to reveal what kinds of methods they have tried and considered effective in improving their proficiency in the target language. The first sub-question of research question IV is 'do the teachers think video can be an effective way of boosting linguistic proficiency?', which was intended to find out the teachers' experiences of and opinions about using video. The order of presentation of the results will be the teachers' need to improve their proficiency, why they wished to do so, the methods they have tried and considered effective for the purpose, and finally their opinions of using video for themselves as well as for their students.

4.4.1 Do the Teachers Feel the Need to Improve Their Proficiency in The Target Language?

This question was directly addressed in question IV 7 of the survey questionnaire ('have you ever felt the need to improve your own proficiency in the target language?'). The respondents were asked to choose among four categories about how often they felt the need to improve their own English from 'hardly ever', 'sometimes', to 'often', to 'very often'. As displayed in Figure 4.4-1, except for one teacher (1.3 %), the rest of the teachers (77/ 98.7 %) stated that they felt the need to improve their own proficiency although the frequency of how often they felt this differed. 25 teachers (32.1 %) expressed the very strong need to improve their proficiency by answering that they felt the need 'very often'. More than half of the respondents (41 teachers / 52.6 %) stated that

they ‘often’ felt the need. These two groups of teachers, who felt the need rather strongly, together take up 84.7 % of the whole respondents. The rest of the teachers (11 teachers/ 14.1 %) also felt the need, but only ‘sometimes’.

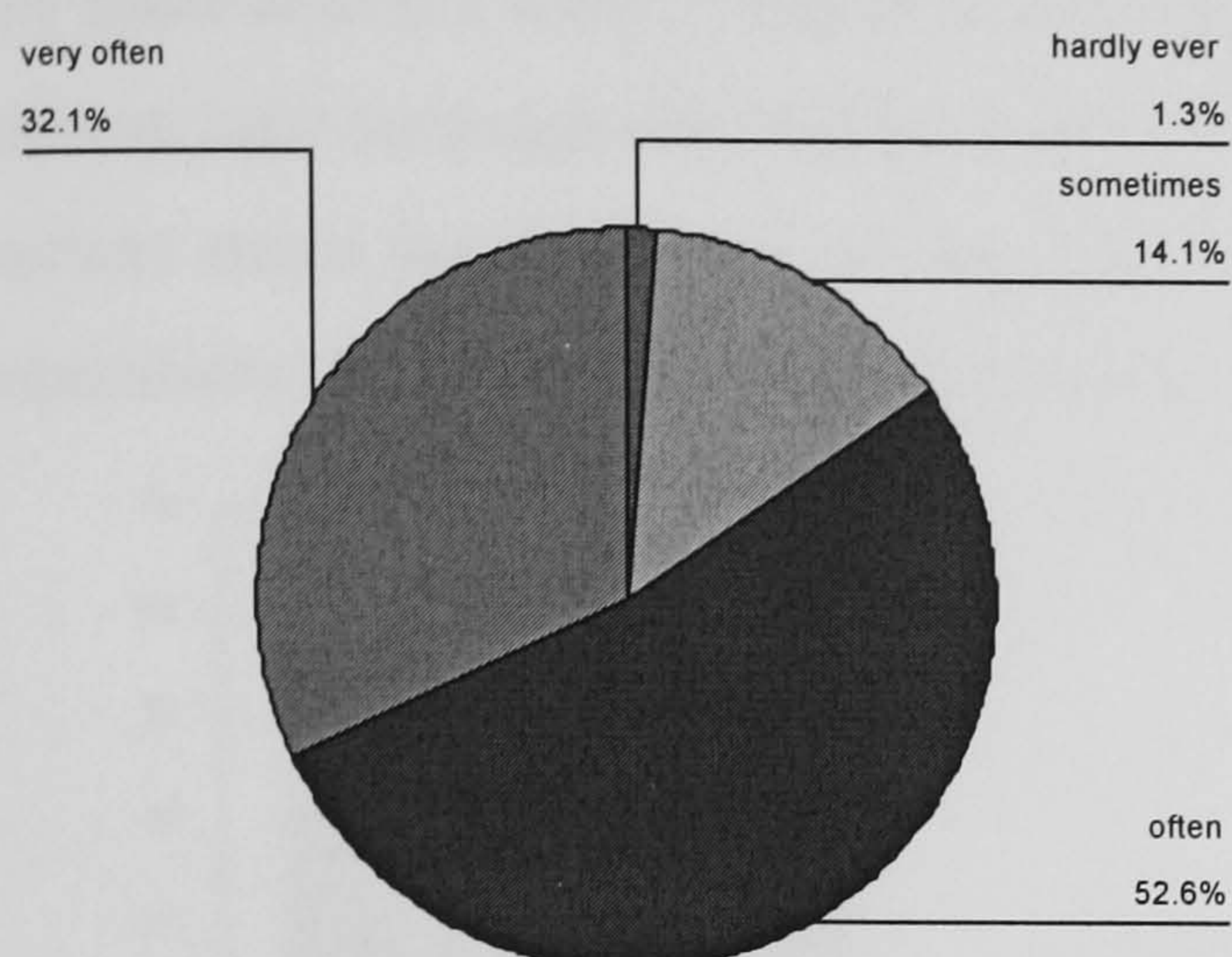


Figure 4.4-1 Felt need to improve proficiency

The large number of teachers, who want to improve their own English, is significant. It clearly shows how strongly these Korean teachers of English want to improve their own proficiency. It seems likely that teachers who are less confident of their English feel this need more strongly. However, it appears that even the teachers, who stated they were confident of their own proficiency, express the desire to improve their English. As seen in appendix 8-1, one ‘very confident’ teacher confessed that she ‘sometimes’ felt the need to improve English, and 33 ‘confident’ teachers felt, to varying degrees, the need to improve their English. Among these, seven teachers (21.2 %) expressed that they felt the need very strongly by choosing the ‘very often’ category. More than half of the ‘confident’ teachers (17/ 51.5 %) stated that they ‘often’ felt the need to improve their English. Nine teachers (27.2 %) ‘sometimes’ feel the need.

However, the less confident teachers of English seem to feel the need to improve their English more strongly. The rank correlation tests were conducted between the teachers’ confidence level and the felt need to improve. The results of Kendall’s tau_b and Spearman’s rho reveal a low but significant correlation between the two:

$$\tau = -0.316; n = 78; p < 0.05;$$

$$r_s = -0.349; n = 78; p < 0.05.$$

The results of negative correlation between the two show that less confident teachers tend to feel the need to improve their English more strongly, which was expected. Nevertheless, as pointed out above, the need to improve proficiency was felt not only by these relatively less confident teachers, but by almost all the teachers. Even ‘confident’ teachers professed the need to improve. This suggests how non-native speaker teachers feel about the language they teach: the need to improve.

4.4.2 Why Do They Want to Improve Their Linguistic Proficiency?

This question was directly asked in IV 8 of the survey questionnaire. Respondents were expected to choose as many reasons as were applicable from nine categories. Figure 4.4-2 displays the reasons why these teachers want to improve their English. The most frequent reason why they want to improve their language proficiency is that they are not satisfied with their current proficiency. 60 teachers stated that they were not satisfied with their proficiency, which means that 80 % of the respondents were not satisfied with their current level of English.

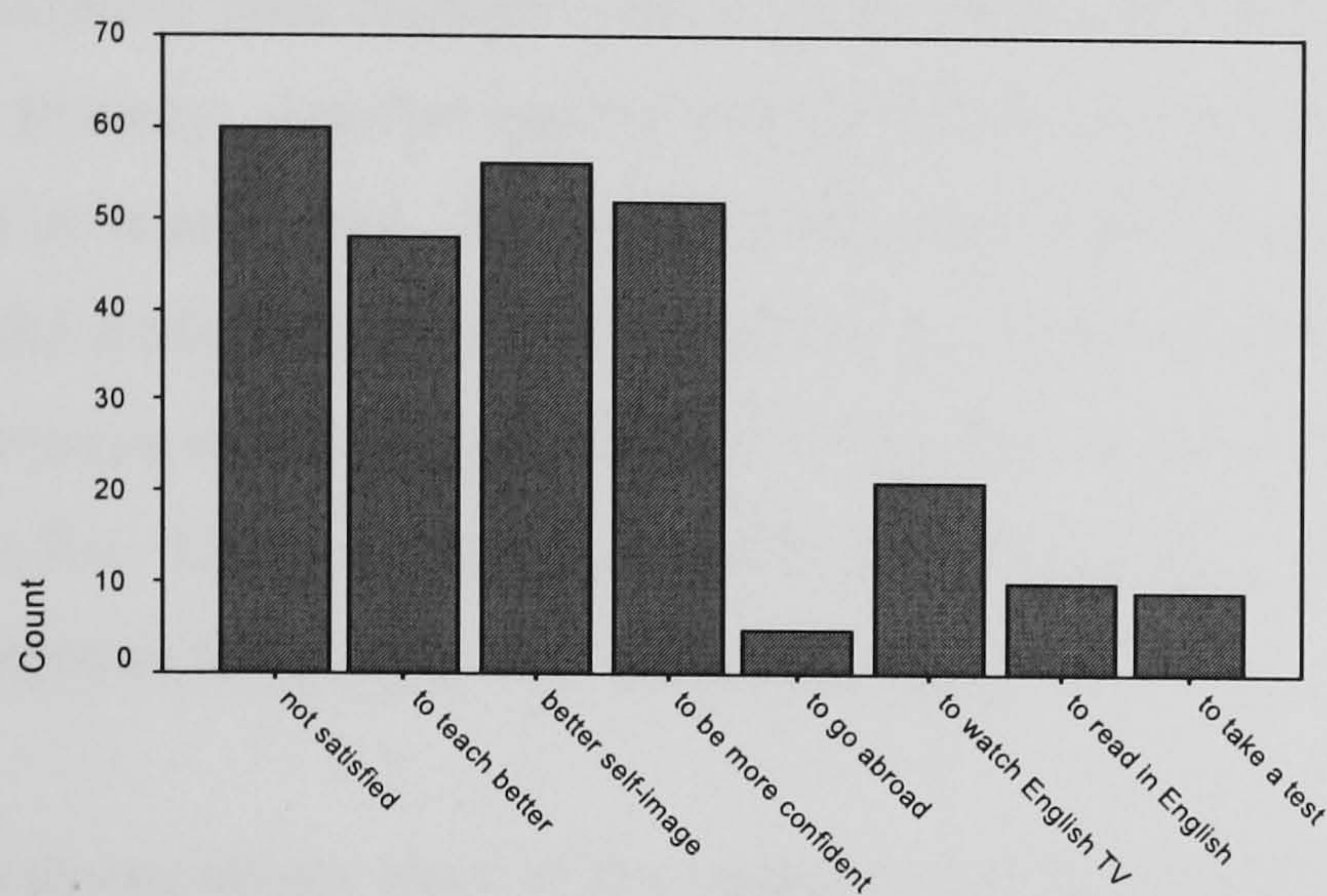


Figure 4.4-2 Why want to improve English?

The second most frequently mentioned reason is that they want to have a better self-image (56 teachers/ 74.7 %). They seem to feel that a higher proficiency than their current level will give them a better self-image, and believe that they cannot have a better self-image with their current English proficiency. This suggests language proficiency greatly affects their self-image.

Another reason (ranked 3rd) why the teachers want to improve their proficiency is that they want to be more confident teachers. 52 teachers (69.3 %) wanted to be more confident as a teacher. Apparently, language proficiency affects their confidence as a teacher, which might be because the language is what they teach. One of the respondents commented that it is very shameful for teachers not to be proficient in what they teach.

48 teachers (64 %) wanted to teach better, armed with greater proficiency in English. It is apparent that more than half of the teachers think higher proficiency can positively affect their teaching.

21 teachers (28.5 %) wanted to improve their English just for themselves. They stated that they wanted to improve in order to watch or listen to English programmes. It does not seem to be directly concerned with their students or teaching, but seems to be more for their own gratification. Another reason mentioned by 10 teachers (13.3 %) also seems to be more related to themselves rather than to their students or teaching. These 10 teachers wanted to improve their English in order to read English reading materials.

Seven teachers (12 %) wanted to improve their English in order to take some sort of English tests. Five teachers (6.7 %) wanted to improve their English to go abroad. However, none of the teachers wanted English improvement to get a promotion. It seems that English proficiency in their view does not necessarily affect their chances of promotion.

Other than these itemised reasons, three teachers gave their own particular reasons why they wanted to improve their English. One of them wanted to talk fluently with foreigners with greater proficiency. Another teacher wanted to improve her proficiency because she felt it was shameful not to be proficient. She said, 'I find some classes easy to teach and others hard to teach according to the students and the situations I am in. However, it is shameful to stand in front of the students not prepared with better English'. The third teacher wanted to improve her English simply because it is fun. Like some very motivated English learners, she also found English fun to learn and wanted to keep improving her proficiency.

As shown above, most of the teachers want to improve their proficiency and the reasons are diverse. However, one thing that is clear is that the teachers do not seem to be satisfied with their own current level of proficiency, and want to improve this for their own sake as well as for their students'.

4.4.3 Have the Teachers Tried Any Ways of Improving Their Proficiency?

This question was meant to find out whether or not the teachers have actually done anything to correct the situation: whether they had taken action to improve their proficiency. Question IV 9 of the survey questionnaire addressed this question ('Have you tried any methods of improving your own language proficiency?').

As shown in Figure 4.4-3, a high proportion of teachers (85.5 %/ 65 teachers) stated that they had tried at least one method to improve their English proficiency. The number of teachers who had not tried any methods was only 11 (14.5 %).



Figure 4.4-3 Tried any methods?

The binomial test (see 3.6.1) was carried out to check if the difference in the ratio of teachers who have tried methods and the teachers who have not is statistically significant. The results of the binomial test show that there is a significant difference between the hypothesised frequency and the one obtained. This means that the difference of the frequency between the two categories of teachers is significant. In other words, there are more teachers who have tried to improve their proficiency than teachers who have not tried, and this number is statistically meaningful.

Cross-tabulation, chi-square, and Cramer's V were carried out to confirm if the need teachers felt to improve their English is statistically associated with whether or not they tried methods to improve.

Cross-tabulation shows that the one teacher who 'hardly' felt the need to improve did not answer this question, so all the respondents to this question are the ones who feel the need to improve their own English in spite of varying degrees of need. Among the teachers who feel the need 'very often', 23 teachers (92 %) have tried methods to improve whereas two teachers (8 %) have not tried any. 35 teachers (85.4 %) out of 41 teachers, who 'often' feel the need, have tried methods to improve while 6 (14.6%) teachers have not tried any. Among the 10 teachers, who sometimes feel the need to improve their English, seven teachers (70 %) have tried to do so whereas 3 teachers (30 %) have not done anything.

It seems that a large proportion of teachers professing the felt need to improve their English rather strongly (by answering that they feel the need 'very often' or 'often') have tried to do so, which is not surprising. However, the fact that even a large proportion of the teachers feeling the need only 'sometimes' also tried to do something to improve their English (although the proportion is not as large as the other two groups of teachers) seems to indicate these teachers' effort to improve themselves strongly.

The results of the chi-square test are discarded due to violation of the condition for the test. The results of Cramer's V also signal there is no significant association between the need and the deed:

Cramer's V = 0.192; n = 76; NS.

Therefore, it seems that despite the larger proportion of teachers feeling the need to improve their proficiency more strongly, and having actually tried to do something to improve it, the ratio is not statistically significantly greater than for other groups who feel the need less strongly. These results suggest that a large proportion of the Korean English teachers try to improve their own English proficiency irrespective of how strongly they feel the need to do so.

4.4.4 What Kinds of Methods Have the Teachers Tried to Improve Their Proficiency?

This question is different from 4.3.3.16 in that it asked about the respondents' conscious efforts to improve their proficiency in contrast to the question in 4.3.3.16, where the respondents were asked about what kinds of opportunities to use English outside the classroom they have had.

This question was addressed in question IV 10 of the survey questionnaire ('please list down the methods you have tried to improve your language proficiency'). Respondents were asked to list the methods they had tried to improve their language proficiency.

Asked about the methods they tried by themselves, one of the university level teachers mentioned 'self-study', which, in fact, can cover almost all the methods most respondents tried except for a few. Because they are teachers, being in a classroom as a learner is not something common to them. And except for some special chances such as teacher training, it is rare for them to be in a group where they can share things and work together. As a result, almost all the methods they have tried can be considered 'self-study'.

In total, 59 teachers (28 university level teachers and 31 secondary school teachers) answered this question, making a long list of the methods they had tried. Among them one secondary school teacher, who did not specify the methods tried, claimed that she had tried almost all the methods. The long list of methods mentioned by the respondents along with her claim shows how many methods were being tried by the teachers, and furthermore, it can work as proof of how desperately the teachers want to improve their English proficiency. Another secondary school teacher gave her opinion about what you should be like to improve your English proficiency instead of listing the specific methods she had tried. She stated the importance of being constantly exposed to English through reading, listening, and speaking practice and also of continuous effort on the part of the learners.

The long list of methods tried by the respondents was divided into 10 groups, with each group having its own sub-categories of specific methods. The 10 groups and their sub-categories are set out below, with the frequency with which they are mentioned.

The first group of methods can go under the name of ‘listening’:

- Watching news, films or any other TV programmes (22 times)
- Watching ELT programmes (2 times)
- Repeatedly watching video (11 times)
- Listening to English programmes on the radio (14 times)
- Repeatedly listening to recordings (8 times)
- Dictation or transcribing from listening materials (2 times)

The second group of methods can be called ‘reading’:

- Subscribing to an English newspaper or magazines and trying to read on a regular basis (4 times)
- Reading a newspaper, books, magazines / reading my favourite books in English (20 times)
- Buying some study materials, studying and doing activities in them (3 times)

The ‘speaking’ method group has one sub-category:

- Reading aloud newspaper articles or books for speaking and vocabulary practice (1 time)

The next group of methods is related to ‘writing’:

- Writing something in English on a regular basis (2 times)
- Taking down some new vocabulary / learning them by heart (3 times)

The fifth group of methods is about contacts with the native speakers:

- Studying English abroad in English-speaking countries (4 times)
- Language exchange with an native speaker (1 time)
- Contacting friends in English-speaking countries in English/ frequently talking with native speakers (2 times)

The sixth group of methods is working with sources:

- Keeping referring to grammar books or dictionaries (3 times)
- Asking questions of other people about what I don’t know (1 time)

The next group of methods can be called learning through teaching:

- Designing new methods of teaching for students (1 time)
- Buying a variety of sub-teaching materials and using them in class (2 times)

Then comes the use of new technology in language learning by some technology minded teachers:

- Internet class on computer (1 time)
- Reading things on the internet (1 time)
- Using English study CD (1 time)

The ninth group of methods is called group study:

- Participating in workshop /teacher training (6 times)
- Forming a study group with the people of my level and helping each other through studying together (3 times)

The final group of methods seems to be more suitable for students than for teachers. However, teachers were also learners in the language and they still are in a broad sense. This group of methods can be called ‘student again’:

- Taking extra English classes (3 times)
- Taking tests such as TOEIC or TOEFL and studying for them (3 times)

Watching and listening to programmes are the methods the respondent teachers tried, in the hope of improving their listening skills. The respondents tried to improve their listening abilities by means of watching films and other TV programmes. Twenty-two teachers (37.3 %) reported that they had tried this method, proving it was the most popular among all the methods tried. Two teachers (3.4 %) mentioned watching ELT programmes as the methods they had tried. Repeated viewing seemed to be appreciated by a number of teachers: 11 teachers (18.6 %) stated they repeatedly watched video to improve their listening skills. Radio turned out to be another popular medium to be used for language learning. 14 teachers (23.7 %) used radio and listened to English programmes. Eight teachers (13.6 %) recorded English programmes onto a tape to repeatedly listen to them, once again showing the value of repeated exposure to spoken English felt by the teachers. Two teachers (3.4 %) said that they had done some dictation and transcribing from listening materials.

The second most frequently mentioned method the respondents used is to improve their English by reading, which can be directly related to improving reading skills. 20 teachers (33.9 %) tried to improve their reading skills and possibly vocabulary by reading English newspapers, and/or books, and/or magazines. Four teachers (6.8 %) put their emphasis on regularity of reading,

trying to read on a regular basis their English newspaper and/or magazines by subscribing to them. Three teachers (5.1 %) reported that they had tried some study materials and followed the activities to improve their reading comprehension and vocabulary.

Among all the methods tried by the teachers only one was found that was directly related to speaking skills or pronunciation. Only one university teacher (1.7 %) indicated that she had read aloud English newspaper articles or books in order to improve her pronunciation, vocabulary, and eventually speaking skills.

Writing is another method mentioned five times by the respondents. Three teachers (5.1 %) asserted they had taken down some new vocabulary or expressions, and tried to learn them by heart whenever they had come across them, which can form the basis of some real writing practice. Two teachers (3.4 %) recommended writing something in English on a regular basis.

Contact with native speakers of English was stated to be a very effective way by the teachers who had tried it. This group of methods can be divided into three different categories. First of all, studying English in an English speaking country was recommended by four teachers (6.8 %), who had tried it themselves. However, not everybody has the opportunity to go to English speaking countries, and it can involve considerable time and expense. Contact can be made with native speakers in their own countries, which proved to be possible for three teachers (5.1 %), who had tried these types of contacts. One university teacher (1.7 %) tried a language exchange with a native English speaker, which turned out to be very effective. The other two university level teachers (3.4 %) used the method of contacting friends in English speaking countries in English, or of talking with native speakers around them as often as possible.

Consulting sources turned out to be another way the respondents had tried. This group of methods can be divided into two categories: consulting written or oral sources. Three university teachers (5.1 %) indicated that they had referred to grammar books or dictionaries whenever needed. Another university teacher (1.7 %) used the means of asking questions other people about what she did not know, using other people as her oral sources.

One interesting group of methods can be called learning through teaching. Because all the respondents were teachers, they seemed to cherish the importance of learning through teaching. Asked to give the methods they tried to improve their proficiency, three teachers (5.1 %) answered they had tried to do something in class. One university teacher (1.7 %) remarked that she tried to design new methods of teaching for students, which would involve some preparation on her part and benefit herself as well as her students. Two teachers (3.4 %) stated that they

bought a variety of sub-teaching materials and used them in class, in the hope of benefiting themselves.

One university teacher (1.7 %) tried to take an internet class on the computer. One secondary school teacher (1.7 %) tried to benefit from English internet sites by reading them. Another secondary school teacher (1.7 %) employed an English study CD for his study.

Several teachers were involved in a group study. Six teachers (10.2 %) employed the methods of participating in workshop or teacher training for their own language improvement. Three teachers (5.1 %) took the more active step of forming a study group with people of a similar level of English, to help one another through studying together.

Finally, the last group of methods appears to be like students' rather than teachers', which is why it is called 'student again' here. Three teachers (5.1 %) actually became students again by taking some courses at a language school to improve their English proficiency. Another three secondary teachers (5.1 %) took tests like students. These teachers prepared themselves for some tests such as TOEFL or TOEIC and took them, and in the process they studied hard to get higher marks on the tests and eventually to become more proficient in English.

All the methods listed here are ones the respondents had tried to improve their English. According to these results, different teachers have tried different methods, and many of them tried several different methods.

4.4.5 What Do the Teachers Think can Boost the Teachers' English Proficiency?

This question was meant to explore what the teachers thought was effective in improving teachers' linguistic proficiency. Under this question, there are two sub-questions which ask about the methods the teachers think effective in improving their proficiency, and their opinions about the practicality of these diverse methods.

4.4.5.1 Are there any methods the teachers considered effective in improving their proficiency?

This question was addressed in IV 11 of the survey questionnaire ('what do you think can help improve "your" proficiency in English?'). The question was meant to investigate what kinds of methods the respondents considered effective, regardless of their own experiences of the particular methods. Respondents, therefore, were able to nominate the techniques they had not tried as well as

the ones they had. There were 14 itemised methods of improving English provided, which were formulated as a result of the pilot study. Respondents were asked to decide whether each method was 'helpful' or 'not helpful' in their opinion by ticking helpful methods.

The number of teachers who chose 'helpful' in each item was counted. As shown in Figure 4.4-4, among the 14 categories, 'going to see English films' and 'reading English books or magazines' were picked as 'helpful' by 68 teachers (87.1 %), which were tied at 1st. 'Watching English programmes on TV' was ranked as 3rd, mentioned as helpful by 67 teachers (85.9 %). 'Seeing films' and 'watching TV' seem to be helpful because they get the teachers exposed to the spoken form of English.

'Staying in English speaking countries' and 'frequent contacts with native speaker colleagues' are tied at 4th, supported by 66 teachers (82.6 %) each. The 6th ranked useful methods were 'frequent contacts with foreign people' and 'trying to think in English', mentioned by 63 teachers (80.8 %) each. Frequent contacts with NS or other foreigners could force the teachers to use English and that is why they could be useful methods for improving English.

58 teachers (74.4 %) found that 'listening to English programmes on the radio' was helpful for language improvement, which was ranked 8th. These teachers seemed to appreciate that listening to the radio exposes the listeners to spoken English, and that it could be a good exercise for listening skills. In addition, radio has its own advantage of portability.

'Keeping a diary in English' was supported as a useful method by 56 teachers (71.8 %). The 10th ranked useful method was 'writing English letters or emails', supported by 50 teachers (64.1 %). These methods could make teachers write in English. These two methods were supported by more than half of the teachers each.

Getting help from outside does not seem to be greatly appreciated. This is reflected in the fact that only half of the teachers found taking extra English classes useful. Also some teachers commented on the need for teacher training instead of taking classes at a private language school, as seen in 4.3.3.12.

'Teacher training' and 'reading grammar books' were thought to be helpful by fewer teachers, having 35 (44.9 %) and 32 supporters (41 %) each.

4.4.5.2 What methods are considered to be practical enough for them to try?

This question was addressed in IV 12 of the survey questionnaire ('what methods do you think would be practical for you to try?'). Respondents were required to state whether each of the same 14 methods (as in 4.4.5.1) was 'practical' or 'not practical' to themselves.

The number of teachers who chose 'practical' for each method was counted. Three methods tied as the most frequently mentioned practical methods. 'Watching English programmes on TV', 'going to see English films', and 'reading English books or magazines' were regarded as 'practical' methods by 66 teachers (85.7%) each. 'Listening to the English programmes on the radio' immediately followed the three with 59 supporters (76.6 %). This seems to indicate that the teachers found TV, films or radio accessible, and good media for language learning at the same time.

'Trying to think in English' was ranked 5th with 55 supporters (71.5 %). Because this method does not involve any other sub-material, it appears to be easy to try, and so practical. 'Writing English letters or emails' and 'working on vocabulary' were tied at 6th with 53 supporters (68.9 %). Email is becoming more important in our daily communication, and, as a result, writing email is becoming part of our life. This emphasis on email communication seems to be reflected here.

'Reading grammar books' was also found to be practical by 50 teachers (65 %). 'Keeping a diary in English' was thought to be practical by 49 teachers (62.9 %). The 10th most frequently mentioned practical method is 'frequent contacts with native speaker colleagues'. This was considered to be very useful, but it appears that not many of the respondents have the privilege of having native speaker colleagues (the issue of the number of NS colleagues at school was dealt with in 4.3.3.14). Thus, it was believed to be practical by only half of the respondents (39 teachers/ 50.7 %).

'Stays in English speaking countries' are considered to be practical by only 35 teachers (45.5 %). One of the main reasons for this may be the perceived large expense involved in going to stay in any English speaking countries. 'Frequent contacts with foreign people' were thought to be practical by only 29 teachers (37.7 %). And finally, only 28 teachers (36.4 %) supported the practicality of 'taking teacher training' as a means of improving their own English proficiency. It seems that not all the teachers have the opportunities to take teacher training. In the case of secondary school teachers, chances are high as seen in 4.3.3.12. On the other hand, university level teachers appear to have hardly any opportunity. Therefore, at least for them, it does not look very practical.

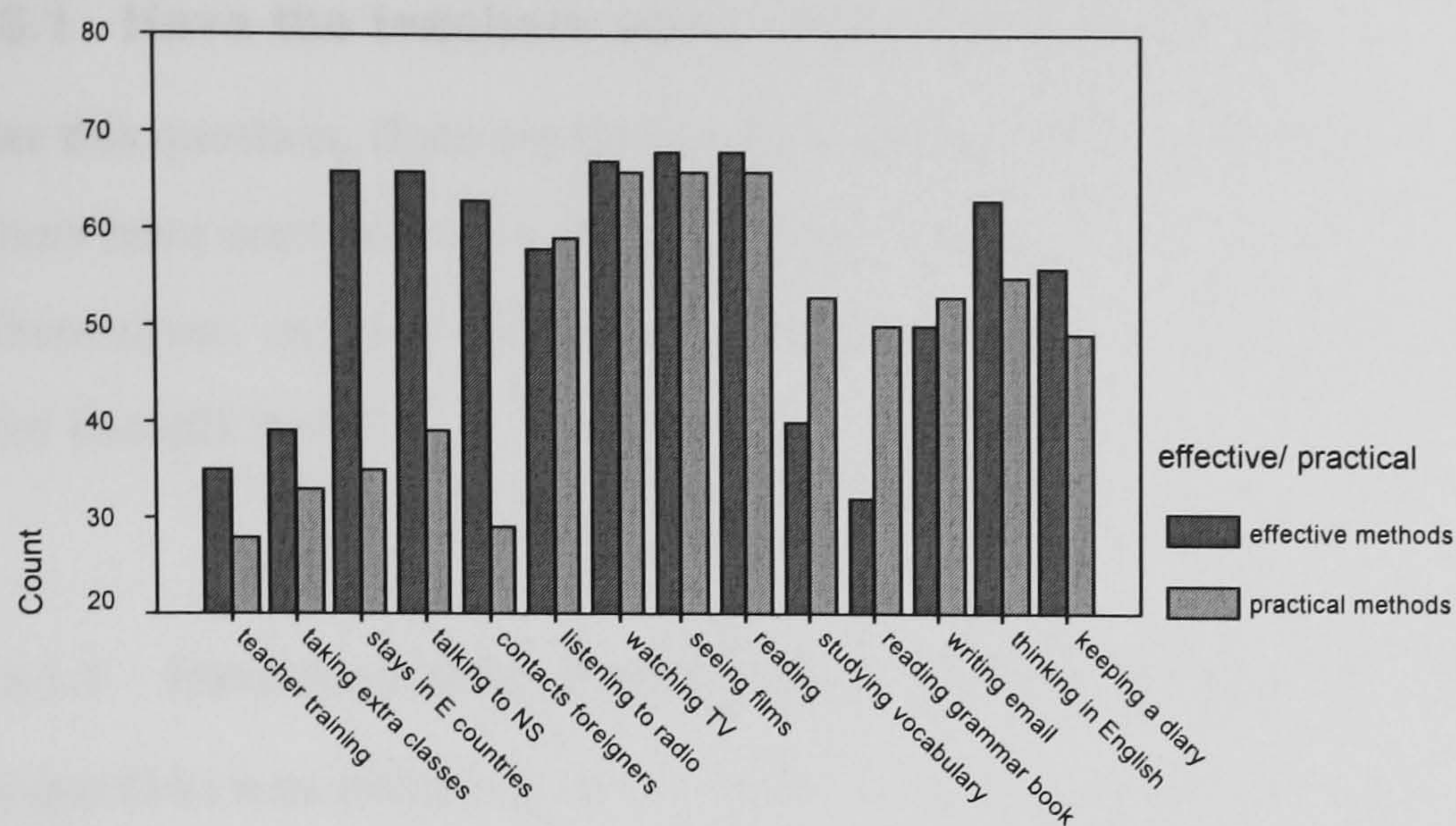


Figure 4.4-4 Effective/practical methods

A comparison between the answers in 4.4.5.1. and in 4.4.5.2. in Figure 4.4-4 clearly shows that methods the teachers considered useful are not always seen as practical. Some methods were judged to be very useful by the respondents, but not practical enough for them to try. Others were not considered very useful by many respondents, but were thought to be easy to try. However, it may still be useful to give learners information about various methods they can try and their possible effectiveness.

4.4.6 Do the Teachers Think Video Can be an Effective Way of Boosting Linguistic Proficiency?

Apart from the methods explored above in 4.4.5, video was examined as a means of improving English proficiency, especially spoken proficiency. Because video seems to be accessible and has a lot of merits as a medium for language learning as mentioned earlier in 2.5, the questions concerned with video were pursued as part of the main research. This question (with five sub-questions) was asked under research question IV in order to investigate the teachers' experiences of using video for themselves and for their students, their views of video as a method of improving linguistic proficiency, the kinds of video they think effective, the effective techniques of using video, and the possible advantages of video compared to other media for language learning.

The first look at the respondents' answers about video made it clear that they confused watching TV or films with watching video. A clear division between those did not seem to be made by most of the people. It also clearly indicates the blurred boundary between those two, because any programmes on TV can easily be recorded onto a video tape and from then on it is always video. Presumably, this shows how widely available the medium is.

4.4.6.1 Have the teachers used video for themselves?

Under this question, there are three sub-questions. These questions ask whether or not the teachers have used video for their language improvement, whether or not using video was useful for themselves, and why they thought video could be an effective means for language learning, if they thought it was.

4.4.6.1.1 Have the teachers used video to help improve their own linguistic proficiency?

This question was addressed in V 1 of the survey questionnaire. As denoted in Figure 4.4-5, more than half of the teachers (48/ 65.8 %) have experience of using it in their own time for their own language improvement. On the other hand, 25 teachers (34.2 %) stated they had no experience of using video for themselves.

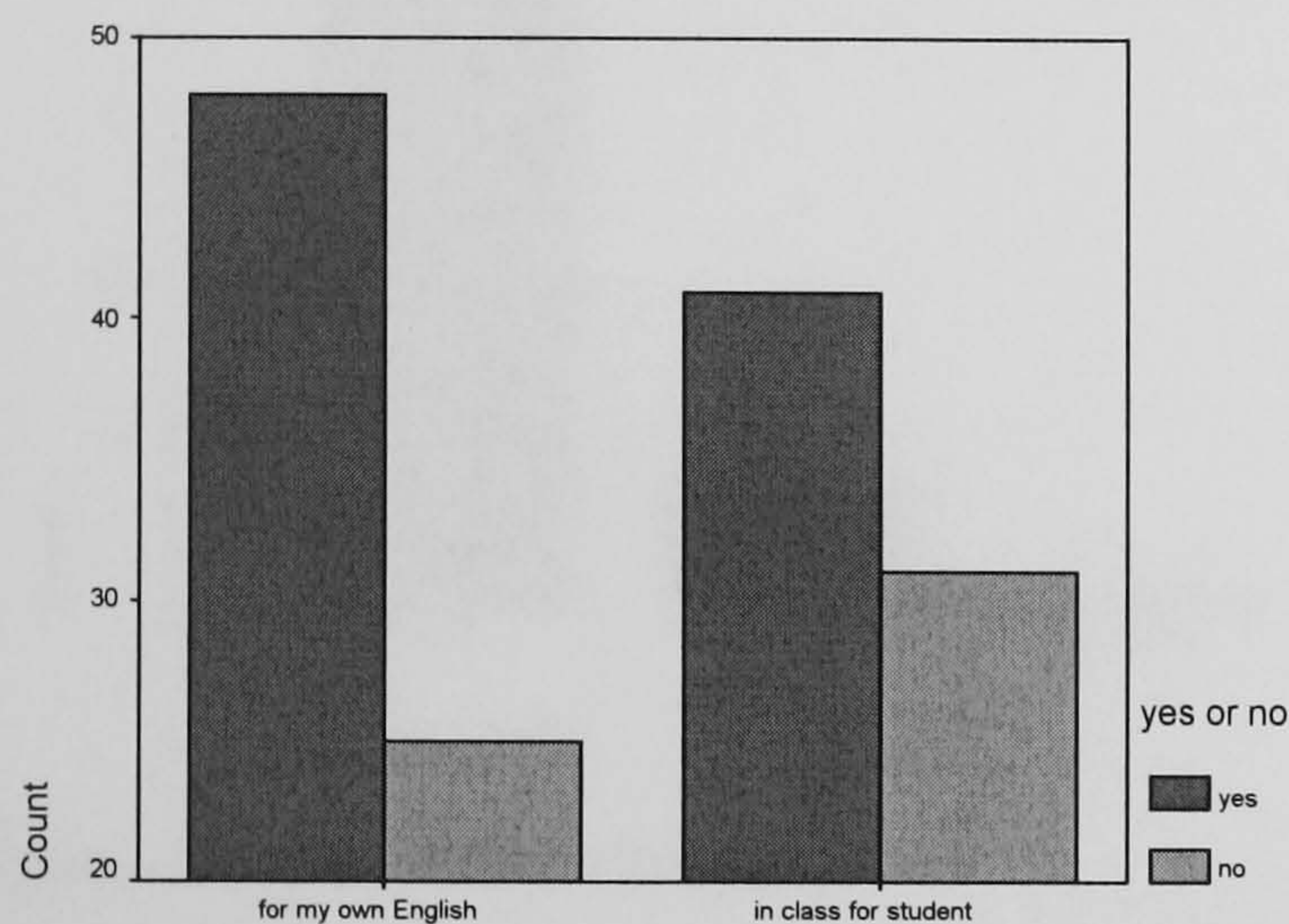


Figure 4.4-5 Have you used video?

The binomial test was conducted to confirm whether the ratio of teachers with experience of using video to teachers with no experience is statistically different. The results of the test reveal that the proportion of the two groups is 0.66 to 0.34 and the difference of the frequency of the two groups is statistically significant.

In other words, because the probability of obtaining the results by chance is low, the difference between the observed result and the hypothesised frequency is significant. Therefore, the ratio of video users to non-users is not 1 to 1 as hypothesised in the test, and the difference in the number of users and non-users is significant. In short, it can be concluded that the number of video users is significantly higher than that of non-users.

As seen above, the number of video users is significantly higher than that of non-users. However, all the users are not necessarily conscious of using it as a way of improving their English. Some users might use video as a means of studying English, being fully conscious of it, while others do not take it that seriously and just try to be exposed to spoken English. Therefore, it seems to be important to know how the users use video, which will be explored in 4.4.6.4.

4.4.6.1.2 Do the teachers think using video can be an effective way of improving their own linguistic proficiency?

This question was directly addressed in V 5 of the survey questionnaire. 50 teachers answered this question including two non-users of video. As illustrated in Figure 4.4-6, 41 teachers (82 %) answered that video is an effective way of improving their own linguistic proficiency. However, eight teachers (16 %) answered in the negative about that, and one teacher (2 %) stated that it depended on the situation.

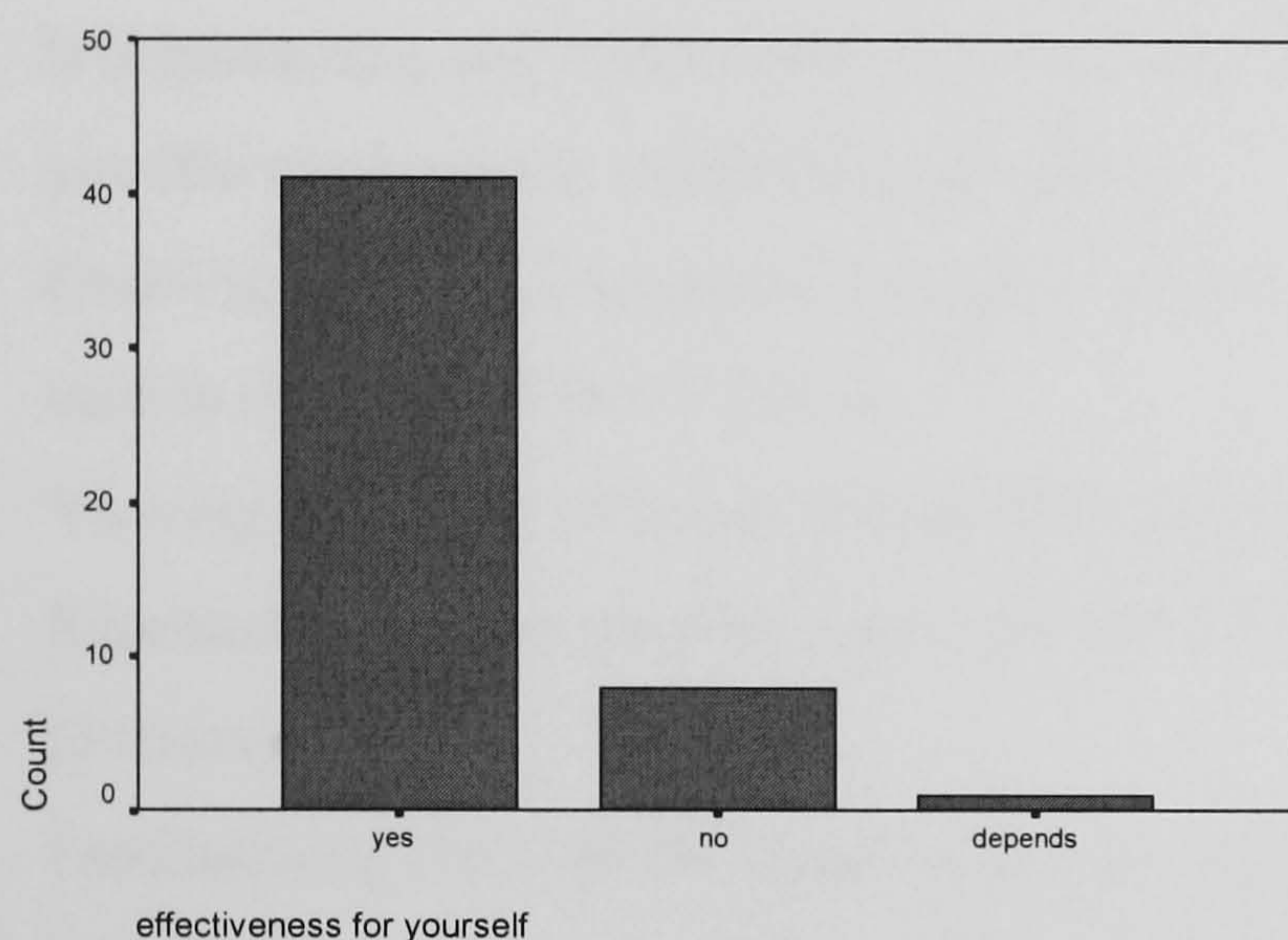


Figure 4.4-6 Is video effective?

A chi-square test was conducted to check if there are significant differences in frequency among these three categories of answers. The results of the chi-square reveal that the differences are significant at the 2-tailed 0.01 level:

$$\chi^2 = 54.760; df = 2; p < 0.01.$$

The results of the chi-square show that there are statistically significant differences in frequency among the three categories. In other words, the number of teachers who find video an effective medium is significantly higher than that of teachers who do not or who do not have any clear idea about the effectiveness of video.

Therefore, the frequency in the two categories is significantly different and significantly more teachers agree that video is effective in language improvement than disagree. In particular it seems worth noting that even some of the teachers, who did not agree on the effectiveness of video, attributed the reason to their own lack of efforts rather than to video as a medium.

4.4.6.1.3 Why do the teachers think video was useful in improving their English?

This question was asked in question V 5 of the survey questionnaire. The respondents were asked to give the reasons why they thought video was effective for their own language improvement. 29 teachers replied to this question, giving their own reasons why they considered video an effective medium. Their answers were divided into 10 categories. Some teachers gave more than one reason. The 10 categories and the frequencies with which they are mentioned by teachers are given below.

- Familiarising you with native speaker's pronunciation and normal speaking speed and authentic expressions they use and, as a result, helps extend appropriate use of vocabulary and expressions (10 times)
- It is interesting and it stimulates your interest / the expressions you hear in the film which you like can be easily remembered (6 times)
- Enabling you to be exposed to a range of situations which could happen and to expressions used in those situations (7 times)
- Viewing as well as listening/ picture with sound makes understanding a lot easier (5 times)
- Repeated viewing is possible / you can watch it at any time and as many times as you want (3 times)
- Familiarising you with the target culture as well as the target language (2 times)
- You can learn slang from it / you can learn something you cannot learn from textbooks (2 times)
- Helping guess the meaning of the new expressions in a context (2 times)
- Because of the difficulty of finding study materials for advanced levels equal to my level of proficiency other than video (1 time)
- Helping keep up my proficiency by exposing me to English without any conscious efforts to study (1 time)

The best characteristic of the video as a medium praised by the respondents turned out to be its capability of showing native speakers on screen. 10 teachers (34.5 %) claimed that the reason why video is such an effective medium for language learning was that it could familiarise you with native speakers' pronunciation, their normal speaking speed, and authentic expressions they used. Some of the teachers stated that being exposed to those could eventually help them use appropriate vocabulary and expressions. In the EFL context of Korea, the opportunities for exposure to authentic language input do not seem to be abundant. On the contrary, they can be said to be few and far between, and the respondents seem to be fully aware of this. In relation to the above category, two teachers (6.9 %) indicated the benefit of being exposed to the target culture as well as the target language through video. In line with that, two university level teachers (6.9 %) focused on what video could provide but the textbooks could not. They said

that learners could learn something they could not learn from the textbooks such as slang and idioms.

Seven teachers (24.1 %) appreciated the wide range of situations and expressions that video could provide. They believed that video could enable the learners to be exposed to a wide range of real-like situations, and the expressions used in those situations. In the same vein, two teachers (6.9 %) emphasised the significance of the context video could provide when they stated that video could help them guess the meaning of the new expressions in a context.

Another attraction of video is that it can stimulate the learners' interest. Six teachers (20.7 %) totally agreed on this, and one of them mentioned the positive effect of studying with fun by saying that the expressions learners heard in their favourite programmes could be easily remembered.

One of the special merits of using video is that it gives the learners picture as well as sound. Five teachers (17.2 %) pointed that out, admiring the two-channel nature of the medium. This merit was well explained in 2.5.9.

Another merit of video is already mentioned in the answers above. Three teachers (10.3 %) pointed out that repeated viewing was possible on video. One of them articulated it well when he said that learners could watch it at any time and as many times as they wanted.

One university teacher (3.4 %) revealed one peculiar merit of video she perceived. She claimed that video helped keep up her proficiency without any conscious effort to study, by means of exposing her to English.

Another university teacher (3.4 %), who had a hard time in finding any study materials equal to her level of proficiency, found her solution in video. She maintained that there were not many materials around for people at a fairly advanced level. It can be discouraging for learners at an advanced level, where most teachers may belong, not to have a good selection of study materials to work with. Therefore, it can be good news for teachers that video can be a useful textbook for advanced level learners like them who suffer from the lack of appropriate study materials, which was also highlighted by Allan (1985) and Rifkin (2000) .

All the above reasons clearly show the merits of video as a language learning medium. However, the appreciation of the merits can become varied according to the learners. In 4.4.6.2.3, merits of video will be discussed in terms of teaching material.

4.4.6.2 Have the teachers used video in class?

Under this question, there are 3 sub-questions. These questions ask whether or not the teachers have used video in class for their students' language improvement, whether or not using video in class was useful for themselves as well as for their students, and why they thought video could be an effective means of language learning, if they thought it was.

4.4.6.2.1 Have the teachers used video in class to help improve their students' English?

Question V 6 in the survey questionnaire addressed this question. It was expected that easy accessibility to the video player in Korean classrooms would have enabled a number of teachers to use it with their students.

Figure 4.4-5 reveals how many teachers have used video for their students in class. A little more than half of the respondents (41 teachers/ 56.9 %) have the experience of using it whereas 31 teachers (43.1 %) do not. Even though more than half of the teachers have the experience of using it with their students, it is not as high a number as expected by the researcher.

A binomial test was conducted to find out whether the difference in the frequency between the two categories is significant. The results in appendix 8-6 show that the difference between the obtained frequency and the hypothesised one is not statistically significant with a much larger p-value than the critical 0.05 level. It can be concluded that the difference in frequency between the two categories is not significantly different.

Therefore, even though the number of teachers who use video in class with their students is slightly larger than that of teachers who do not, it is not statistically significant. It can be said that the number of teachers who use video in class with their students is not much greater than that of teachers who do not.

4.4.6.2.2 Do the teachers think they have incidental/indirect learning by teaching students through the use of video as well as benefiting students?

Question V 7 ('Do you think using video in class is effective for students' language learning?') and V 8 ('Do you think you can have indirect learning by teaching students using video?') addressed this question in the survey questionnaire.

- Students' language improvement through the use of video in class

Question V 7 asked whether or not using video in class is an effective way of improving students' English. 26 non-users also answered this question, making the total number of respondents 67. As revealed in Figure 4.4-7, 52 teachers (77.6 %) answered in the positive that video was useful for students' language improvement. However, 11 teachers (16.4 %) did not agree that video was effective for that purpose. Four teachers (6 %) said that it depended on the particular situation where the video was used.

A chi-square test was carried out to check if these differences in frequency among the three categories are significant. The results of the chi-square test show that the differences are statistically significant:

$$\chi^2 = 57.735; df = 2; p < 0.01.$$

The results of the chi-square show that there are statistically significant differences in frequency among the three categories. In other words, the number of teachers who find video an effective medium for students' language learning is significantly higher than that of teachers who do not or who do not have any clear opinion about the effectiveness of video. In other words, the number of teachers who think using video in class can benefit their students is significantly larger than the number of teachers who do not.

- Teachers' indirect learning by teaching students through the use of video

Once again, 27 non-users also answered this question, making the total number of respondents for the question 67. Figure 4.4-7 displays that 55 teachers (82.1 %) agreed that they could have indirect learning by teaching students using video. However, 11 teachers (16.4 %) did not think that using video in class could benefit the teachers. One teacher (1.5 %) stated it depended on the situation.

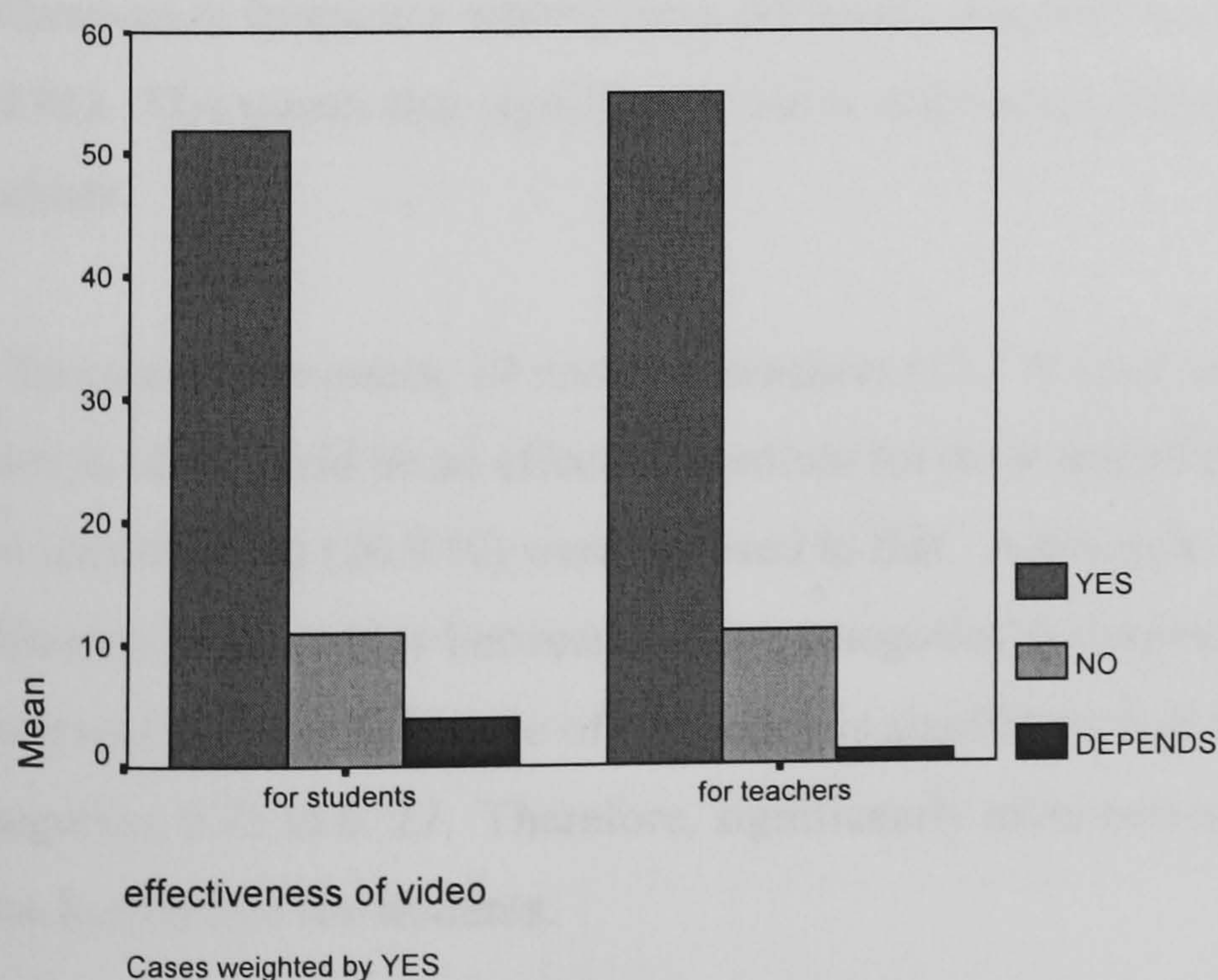


Figure 4.4-7 Effectiveness of video in class

A chi-square test was administered to confirm if the differences in frequency among three categories are statistically significant. The results of the test indicate the significant differences among the three.

$$\chi^2 = 73.910; df = 2; p < 0.01.$$

In other words, the number of teachers who think they have direct learning by teaching students using video is significantly higher than that of teachers who do not or who do not have any clear opinion about indirect learning.

From the above results, it can be concluded that teachers believe that using video in class can benefit both the teachers themselves and their students. Surprisingly enough, more teachers (55 teachers) agree that using video in class can benefit the teachers than agree that it can help students (52 teachers).

- Comparison between users' and non-users' opinions

Effectiveness of using video for students' learning:

Among the 67 respondents, 41 video-users and 26 non-users voiced opinions in favour of its effectiveness for students and for themselves. It was investigated whether or not there were differences in opinions between users and non-users. First of all, the opinion about the effectiveness of using video in class for students' learning was examined. Among 41 users who answered the question, 33 (80.5 %) believed that using video in class was useful for students, four (9.75 %) did not, and four (9.75 %) did not show any clear opinion by saying 'depends'. A chi-square test was administered to confirm whether or not differences in frequency between different opinions are statistically significant. The results of the chi-square test show that the differences in frequency among three different categories are significant ($\chi^2 = 15.244; df = 2; p < 0.01$). This means that significantly more video-users believe that using video benefits students.

In the case of non-users, 19 non-user teachers (73.1 %) out of 26 teachers agreed that using video in class could be an effective medium for their students' language learning, whereas seven non-user teachers (26.9 %) were opposed to that. A binomial test was conducted to check if the difference of frequency between the two categories is statistically significant. The results of the test reveal that the difference of frequency is significant with the obtained ratio of the two categories, 0.73 to 0.27. Therefore, significantly more non-users believe that using video in class is effective for students.

A comparison between users and non-users shows that a slightly higher proportion of users believe that using video in class benefits students' learning.

Teachers' indirect learning by teaching students

As for whether the teachers have indirect learning by teaching students through the use of video, 34 video-users out of 40 (85 %) answered positively and six (15 %) video-users negatively. A binomial test was conducted to confirm whether or not frequency between the two categories is statistically significant. The results of the test find the ratio between the positive and negative answers as 0.85 to 0.15. In other words, much more video-user teachers think that teachers have indirect learning by teaching students using video.

21 teachers (80.8 %) out of 27 non-user teachers believe that teaching students using video in class can benefit the teachers themselves. The number of non-users who do not agree to that is only five (19.2 %), with one teacher (3.8 %) saying that it depends on the situation. A chi-square test was carried out to confirm if there are any significant differences of frequency among the three categories. The results of the chi-square test clearly display that there are significant differences with a low p-value, and more non-users believe that teaching students through the use of video benefits teachers:

$$\chi^2 = 24.889; df = 2; p < 0.01.$$

The results of the tests clearly show that there are a lot more teachers who believe in the effectiveness of video in language learning even though they are not using video at the moment. One interesting point is that the larger number of non-user teachers think it is beneficial to the teachers than to the students.

Once again, a slightly more proportion of video-users believe that teachers can have indirect learning by teaching students through the use of video. This implies that both users and non-users have a positive opinion about the effectiveness of video as a language learning/teaching medium, and that a higher proportion of users are in favour of it than non-users.

4.4.6.2.3 Why do the teachers think video can be useful in improving their students' English?

This question was asked in V 7 of the survey questionnaire. The respondents were asked to give reasons why they thought video could be effective for students' language learning. Out of 78 subjects, there were 42 responses to this question. The answers the respondents gave were slightly different from the reasons why video was effective for the teachers themselves in 4.4.6.1.3. Explanations for the effectiveness of video as a medium for language students was divided into 10 categories according to the patterns showed in the respondents' answers. The 10 categories and their frequencies mentioned by teachers are below.

- Not boring, interesting, stimulating students' interest/ catching students' attention (16 times)
- Two-channel medium (it can give picture as well as sound) / students can concentrate and understand better because they watch them as well as listen (9 times)
- Exposing learners to the target language and culture easily / social issues and cultural issues can be shown on video (7 times)
- Positive washback effect (students can find the large amount of vocabulary and expressions they could pick up from the video and gain confidence in listening comprehension)/ boosting students' confidence in listening comprehension (4 times)
- Because most videos have a plot, it helps guess unknown vocabulary or expressions in a context (4 times)
- Familiarising learners with native speakers' pronunciation and normal speaking speed, and thus helping improve learners' L/C and possibly speaking (3 times)
- You can learn slang or swear words from it / something you cannot learn from textbooks/ through video teachers can show students something different which cannot be covered in the textbook (6 times)
- Exposing learners to a variety of topics from films, music videos, to national geography (2 times)
- The habit of listening to English during watching video will be helpful for them forming a study habit, and can get them engrossed in English (1 time)
- It can bring some variety to the traditional classroom (1 time)

Not surprisingly, unlike the reasons for seeing video as an effective medium for teachers themselves, the reasons given to explain why video should be used for their students seemed to focus on the students' needs. Therefore, even though many of the reasons were similar to the reasons why video was effective for teachers themselves, the priorities seemed to be different. For students, the best reason why video could be effective in language learning focused on the entertainment part of video. 16 teachers (38.1 %) pointed out that video was not boring, thereby stimulating students' interest. Furthermore, they maintained that video could catch students' attention, which was very important from the teachers' standpoint. One of them perceptively claimed that video could stimulate and satisfy students' curiosity about the language and everything related to it.

The fact that video could give picture as well as sound was well appreciated by nine teachers (21.4 %). Some of the teachers argued that students could concentrate more easily and understand better because they were watching as well as listening.

Another merit of video comes down to its ability to show culture. Seven teachers (16.7 %) claimed that video was effective in showing the target culture as well as the language, thereby enabling the students to be aware of social and cultural issues.

Exposing students to something different from textbooks was pronounced as another merit of video (4.8%).

In addition, it was claimed by three university level teachers (7.1 %) that video was useful in familiarising students with native speakers in general: their pronunciation, speaking speed, etc. The teachers believed that the familiarity with native speakers could help improving learners' listening skills and hopefully speaking skills. One of the teachers observed that young learners would benefit from video by imitating expressions in the video even without understanding, and by familiarising themselves with the English rhythm.

Two teachers (4.8 %) focused on the variety which video could provide whereas four teachers (9.5 %) emphasised the context video could offer. Two teachers saw that video could bring in a variety of topics, using different formats ranging from films, documentaries, to music videos. On the other hand, four teachers revealed that video could be useful in language learning because it could provide a context. One of them went on to say that video could help in guessing unknown vocabulary or expressions by providing a context where things were happening.

Another attraction of video is its positive washback indicated by four secondary school teachers (9.5 %). This was noticed by the teachers when students were doing some activity using video. Some teachers asked the students to try to pick up expressions they heard from the video while watching it, and wrote all the expressions that students volunteered, which took up a lot of space on the blackboard. And the teachers found that their students saw the large number of expressions they picked up from the video, took pride in it, and thereby their confidence in listening skills was boosted. Also it could work the other way, as one of the teachers observed. It could motivate students by making them realise the need for studying English more.

The final way in which video was effective for students was observed by one secondary school teacher (3.5 %). The teacher maintained that video could bring some variety to the traditional classroom by providing sources for different activities.

4.4.6.3 What kinds of video have been used and found effective?

The teachers were asked about the kinds of video they used and found effective.

4.4.6.3.1 What kinds of video have the teachers used?

This question was addressed in question V 3 of the survey questionnaire. Respondents were required to choose as many types of video as they had used, from among three types: ELT videos, films on video, or other types of video. As illustrated in Figure 4.4-8, among 48 video users, films on video turned out to be the most popular with 41 teacher users (85.4 %). ELT videos were used by 14 teachers (29.2 %), and other types of video were used by only five teachers (10.4 %). Under the category of ELT videos, two teachers reported they used ELT videos to go with a textbook, and one teacher used ELT videos for children for herself. Other types of video used were specified by the teachers. Animations on video were put to use by two teachers. Two teachers stated that they used video recordings of TV programmes and 1 teacher said that he used the video employed in teacher training he participated in.

Therefore, it can be concluded that more than three quarters of the video users have used films on video rather than any other kinds of video. One of the reasons for this could be its availability. Films can be rented or bought fairly easily from any local video rental shops, or be recorded onto a videotape by the users at any time. On the other hand, ELT videos are expensive to buy or relatively hard to get. Another reason is probably the attraction of films. Films have a storyline and this can interest many viewers. In addition, viewers can choose the films which interest them. The third possible reason for using films is their accessibility. Watching films on video is not threatening or does not give the intense atmosphere of studying. It tends to give viewers more the feeling of enjoyment rather than studying. One teacher even pointed out that it was hard to make the students focus on the lesson points while using video.

- The kinds of video used in class with students

The kinds of video the teachers reported as using with their students varied. 15 university level and 12 secondary level teachers gave their lists. The total number of different kinds of video was six. Among the six, films on video were most frequently used in class (13 teachers/ 48.1 %). Animations used by 11 teachers (40.7 %) proved to be popular. Seven teachers (25.9 %) mentioned in favour of general ELT videos such as *Family Album USA*. Recordings of children's programmes were also used (three teachers/ 11.1 %). Two teachers (7.4 %) employed the textbook accompanied by the video. One university teacher (3.7 %) used other recordings of TV programmes.

Understandably, the priorities when choosing the kinds of video for the students were not the same as the ones for choosing for the teachers themselves. As mentioned in 4.4.6.1.3, teachers wanted to be exposed to a variety of situations and expressions through video. Nevertheless, for their students, teachers seemed to look for something easier. One secondary school teacher reported her priority in choosing videos for the students. She stated that she chose animations on video because of the short sentences and low level vocabulary used in them, hoping that her students could understand them without much trouble.

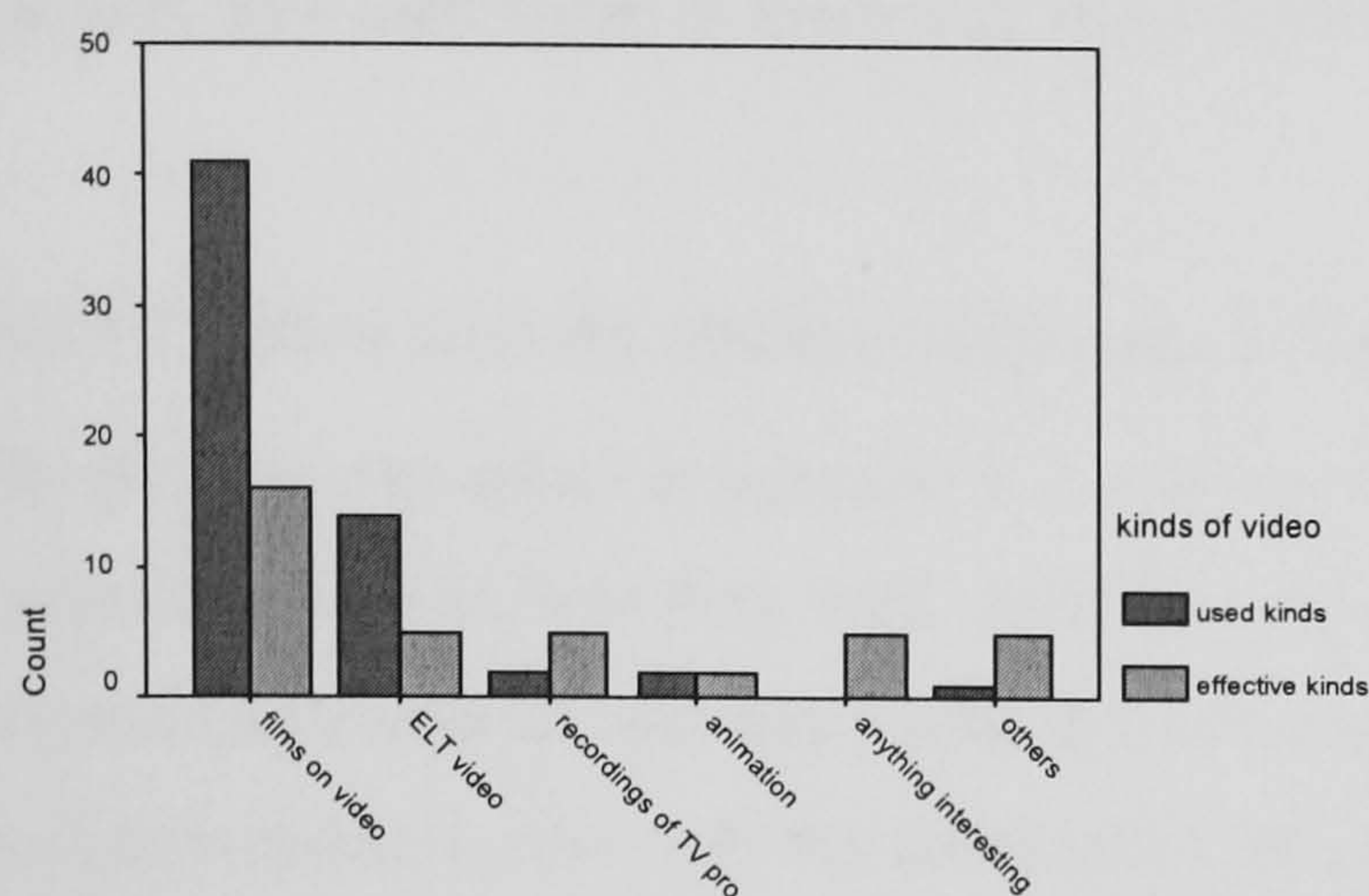


Figure 4.4-8 The kinds of video

4.4.6.3.2 What kinds of video have the teachers found effective?

This question was addressed in question V 4 of the survey questionnaire. Respondents were asked to give the type of video they found most useful.

29 (12 university level+17 secondary school level) teachers gave their opinions about the useful kinds of video they found in their own study. Films on video were nominated the most potentially useful video by slightly more than half of the teachers (16 teachers/ 55.2 %), who gave their opinion. ELT videos were mentioned by 5 teachers (17.2 %), showing that it attracted secondary school teachers more than university level teachers. Five teachers (17.2 %) claimed that any videos the learner was interested in would work. Five teachers (17.2 %) were in favour of recordings of TV programmes such as documentaries or news. Two secondary school teachers (6.9 %) found animations on video useful.

Other than those, five different kinds of videos were mentioned once (3.4 %) each. These are video recordings of children's programmes, advertisements on video, pop song videos (pop songs and explanations of the words), screen English (film clips and explanations of the dialogues), and authentic videos such as home video. One of the teachers gave the criteria she used to choose video. She stated that she would choose videos with conversations arranged according to situations, showing her ambition to learn expressions used according to situations.

Another secondary school teacher showed her preferences for videos without subtitles where speakers' pronunciation is clear.

4.4.6.4 How have the teachers used video?

There are two sub-questions under this question. The first question asked how the teachers had used video when they used it for their own language improvement, and the second question dealt with how they used video in class with their students.

4.4.6.4.1 How have the teachers used video themselves?

This question was asked in question V 2 of the survey questionnaire. The respondents were asked to give details about how they used video for themselves. For this question, 35 teachers (12 university level and 23 secondary school level) expressed how they used video. Among them, 8 secondary teachers gave only the information about the kinds of video they used. Therefore, the actual number of teachers who gave the answers to the question was 27. It seemed that most of the teachers who answered this question tried to give specific methods of using the video. The respondents' methods of using video were divided into five categories, according to their pattern, and these, their sub-categories, and the frequency with which they were mentioned by the respondents are below.

The first group of ways of using video is 'repeated viewing', which reflects one of the advantages of the medium:

- Repeated viewing as many times as possible (10 times)
- Repeatedly watching the video together in a group, and asking and answering questions in a group (1 time)

The next group of methods used can be called 'using video with the help of scripts or subtitles':

- Watching video and checking vocabulary and expressions, using scripts (5 times)
- Watching video with subtitles / Checking vocabulary and expressions using subtitles (3 times)

Another group of methods can be grouped under the name of 'observation':

- Just watching a wide range of videos (1 time)
- Trying to observe how and what kinds of expressions native speakers use (Observation) / watching and trying to understand / just watching (7 times)

'Dictation' was mentioned as a method used by one teacher:

- Doing dictation from the video (1 time)

The final group of ways of benefiting from video is to 'pick up expressions in it, writing down them, and possibly trying to memorise them':

- Taking down new expressions you picked up and trying to memorise (4 times)
- Looking up in the dictionary new expressions you picked up while watching (1 time)

It cannot be denied that one of the advantages of video as a medium for language learning is its capability of repetition because it goes without saying that language learners need repeated exposure to the spoken language sample. Many respondents seemed to fully agree with this. 10 teachers (37 %) revealed that they repeatedly watched video as many times as possible.

Another way of benefiting from repetition was revealed by one university school teacher (3.7 %) when she stated that she had done this in her study group, asking and answering questions of one another about the contents after viewing.

Using script and subtitles can be another advantage of using video, because ordinary TV programmes do not usually provide their scripts or subtitles. Five teachers (18.5 %) indicated they had used the script of the video, mainly to check vocabulary and expressions. One secondary school teacher (3.7 %) specified her ways of making the most of the script, by saying that she watched the film first, studied the script, then watched again, learned the lines by heart, and finally watched it without sound. In the case of subtitles, in Korea subtitles are not available on ordinary TV sets unless you have a special machine that provides captions. Three respondents (11.1 %) mentioned they had used subtitles, checking vocabulary and expressions. One of the university level teachers (3.7 %) revealed that she went back to the part of the video where she did not catch the expressions and checked them using subtitles.

Another advantage of video as a medium is its capacity of showing native speakers on screen. This advantage enables the viewers to observe the native speakers, their ways of speaking, expressions they used, etc. Just watching them can be beneficial to learners. The respondents seemed to realise this benefit. Seven teachers (25.9 %) said that they observed native speakers on video and one of them emphasised that she tried to understand the contents while watching. One university level teacher (3.7 %) stated that she tried to watch a wide range of videos for the same purpose. Watching a wide range of videos can probably expose the viewers to a variety of native speakers using a variety of expressions in different situations.

One secondary school teacher (3.7 %) indicated he tried to do the dictation from the video to improve his listening skills.

The final category of methods used by the teachers was to pick up, write down, and try to memorise the expressions they heard on video. Four university teachers (14.8 %) said they tried this method, and one of them stated more specifically how she did that. She watched the whole video first, wrote down some new expressions she heard, tried to memorise them, and finally repeated the lines aloud on video. One secondary school teacher stated he gave some variety to that by looking up the new expressions in the dictionary. These methods seem to require a lot of effort from the learners, but can be a good opportunity to see how much they can pick up from the particular video without any help.

4.4.6.4.2 How have the teachers used video in class with their students?

This question was asked in question V 6 of the survey questionnaire. The respondents were asked to give details about how they used video in class with their students. Not surprisingly, the methods the teachers reported they had used with their students were slightly different from the methods they used for their own study. 24 teachers (11 university level teachers and 13 secondary school teachers) revealed the methods they used with video in class. These methods are categorised into six groups. These six categories are again divided into sub-categories. The categories and their frequencies mentioned are set out below.

The first category is ‘methods used along with subtitles or scripts’:

- Giving out handouts of important expressions to students and watching the video, checking vocabulary and expressions using subtitles / ask the students to repeat the lines (3 times)
- Showing a video and doing cloze activity / giving students a script and filling in the blanks in the script while viewing, and afterwards practising vocabulary / showing videos with subtitles and handing out the script and filling in the blanks in the script (3 times)
- Showing the video and handing out the script and doing comprehension check-ups about the contents (1 time)
- Showing video with subtitles and explaining the contents intermittently and also explaining cultural or historical aspects, focusing on the important expressions in the video (1 time)

The second group of category has to do with ‘some pre-viewing activities’:

- Before watching the video, explaining the situation along with the new expressions, and then showing the video. Afterwards, the reconstruction of the situation of the video in a role-play / or students were asked to set up a dialogue using those expressions (2 times)

- Giving students some questions they should answer in advance and then showing video (1 time)

The third group of methods has to do with ‘showing the video and doing some post-viewing activities’:

- After showing the video, asking students to tell/write down/try to catch what expressions they heard from it. Writing what the students contributed on the blackboard and explaining those things to them (3 times)
- Showing a video without sound and eliciting students’ guesses about what is happening in the video (1 time)
- Showing the whole video first, pausing at several important points and practising expressions (1 time)
- Showing a short clip of the video and checking students’ comprehension and repeating the procedures until the end of the video, and telling the students to take down the vocabulary they hear from the video (1 time)
- Showing the video several times, doing the dictation activity, and explaining the contents (1 time)

Another category is focusing on ‘just showing the video’ rather than on activities:

- Just showing and possibly giving some explanations (3 times)
- Showing ELT video to go with the textbook at the beginning of the lesson (2 times)

The next category is ‘repeated viewing of video’:

- Showing the whole video first and then repeatedly showing the important bits (1 time)

‘Using video as a supplementary means to teach target forms’ is the final category:

- Using examples from the video to teach vocabulary and pronunciation (1 time)

The first group of methods has four different sub-categories. The first method of this category (used by three university level teachers/ 12.5 %) was to give out handouts of vocabulary and expressions before viewing, and to ask the students to check them using subtitles while viewing. One of the teachers invited the students to repeat the lines after watching. The subtitles were used in a different way by another secondary school teacher (4.2 %). She showed video with subtitles and explained the contents intermittently while showing. She also explained cultural or historical aspects where needed. The cloze activity in the script was used by three secondary school teachers (12.5 %). They asked the students to fill in the blanks in the script while viewing the video and gave them some vocabulary practice afterwards. One of the teachers who

employed the method used the video with subtitles. The script was put to use by one secondary school teacher (4.2 %). She showed video, handed out the script, and did some comprehension check-up about the contents.

The second group of methods was used only by university level teachers. Two university level teachers (8.3 %) asked their students to do a kind of reconstruction of the situation on video. One of them had her students do some role-plays, reconstructing the situation on video, and the other asked her students to set up dialogues, using the expressions on video. Another method in this category was used by another university level teacher (4.2 %). She gave some questions to the students beforehand and then showed the video, inviting students to find out the answers to the questions.

The third group of methods does not seem to share many similarities. The first of the methods employed by three secondary school teachers (12.5%) put its emphasis on the students' participation. These teachers, after showing the video, encouraged their students' active participation by inviting them to tell/write down/try to catch expressions they heard from the video. Then, these teachers explained the expressions. Another method in this category is encouraging students' active participation. One university teacher (4.2 %) showed video without sound and elicited her students' guesses about what was happening in the video. The third method was employed by one university teacher (4.2 %). She showed the whole video first, and on second showing paused at important points, letting the students practise the expressions. She then tested the students with a quiz. The fourth method also encourages the students to pick up expressions in the video. One secondary school teacher (4.2 %) explained her way of using video. First, she showed a short clip of the video, checked students' comprehension, and repeated the procedures until the end of the video. Students were invited to take down the expressions they heard from the video. The last method of this category is giving the students the dictation activity used by one university level teacher (4.2 %). She asked her students to do the dictation of the video, and explained the contents afterwards.

The next two categories of methods do not seem to require as much action on the students' part as the above methods. Three teachers (12.5 %) focused on showing the video rather than on doing activities with it. They said they just showed the video and gave some explanations where necessary. Two teachers (8.3 %) showed their students an ELT video to accompany the textbook. One university teacher (4.2 %) highlighted the repeated viewing of the important bits in the video.

In the final category, one university teacher (4.2 %) used video to teach some vocabulary and pronunciation, not the other way around. Instead of teaching the expressions in the video, she employed the video as supplementary material to teach the target vocabulary and pronunciation. This seems to be a good way of using video, but it seems to involve more effort on the teacher's part to locate an appropriate video.

As has been seen, the methods of using video with students differed from the methods used by the teachers themselves. Repeated viewing and observations of the native speakers on screen seem to be appreciated for teachers themselves whereas activities (pre-, while-, and post-viewing activities) to go with a video clip seem to be focused on for students. It is important to have an effective medium, but it is also important to use it in an appropriate way.

4.4.6.5 What do the teachers think are the advantages of video compared to other methods?

This question was dealt with in question V 9 of the survey questionnaire. This question was meant to elicit more comments from the subjects who did not answer the above two questions, 4.4.6.1.3. and 4.4.6.2.3. In addition, it was meant to invite the subjects to think again so that they could think of other aspects of advantages, if any, of using video in language learning they missed in the above answers, if any.

In total 35 teachers answered this question, revealing some other potential advantages of video which were not mentioned in the above question. Some teachers gave the same reasons as the ones they had already given in the above questions, but others offered some different ideas, making the list of advantages even longer. The reasons why video should be used are divided into 17 categories. The 17 reasons and their frequencies are as below.

- Not boring, interesting, stimulating students' interest/ catching students' attention/ giving learners more enjoyable class than using only textbooks /it can motivate you (8 times)
- Two-channel medium (it can give picture as well as sound) / students can concentrate and understand better because they watch them as well as listen (8 times)
- You cannot experience everything yourself, so through video you can be exposed to various situations and expressions used in those situations (8 times)
- Authenticity: familiarising you with native speakers' pronunciation and normal speaking speed and authentic expressions they use and thus help improving your listening comprehension / accent / showing a range of speakers (6 times)

- Exposing you to the target language and culture easily / social issues and cultural issues can be shown on video (5 times)
- Through video, you can observe native speakers' facial expressions, gestures, ways of speaking even though it is an indirect way (3 times)
- Enabling repeated viewing (2 times)
- Using video, teaching methods can be various (2 times)
- Expressions in a context (1 time)
- You can learn slang or swear words from it / something you cannot learn from books/ through video teachers can show students something different which cannot be covered in the textbook (1 time)
- It can motivate learners by making them aware of their own level of English ability (1 time)
- It can familiarise the learners with the native speakers and their way of thinking (probably through exposing learners to the target culture and language) (1 time)
- It can be a stimulus for discussion for advanced level students (1 time)
- It can give a sense of achievement to the listening activities (1 time)
- It can be a very comprehensive medium for language acquisition. (1 time)
- Familiarity with the medium (1 time)
- Enabling to use subtitles (1 time)

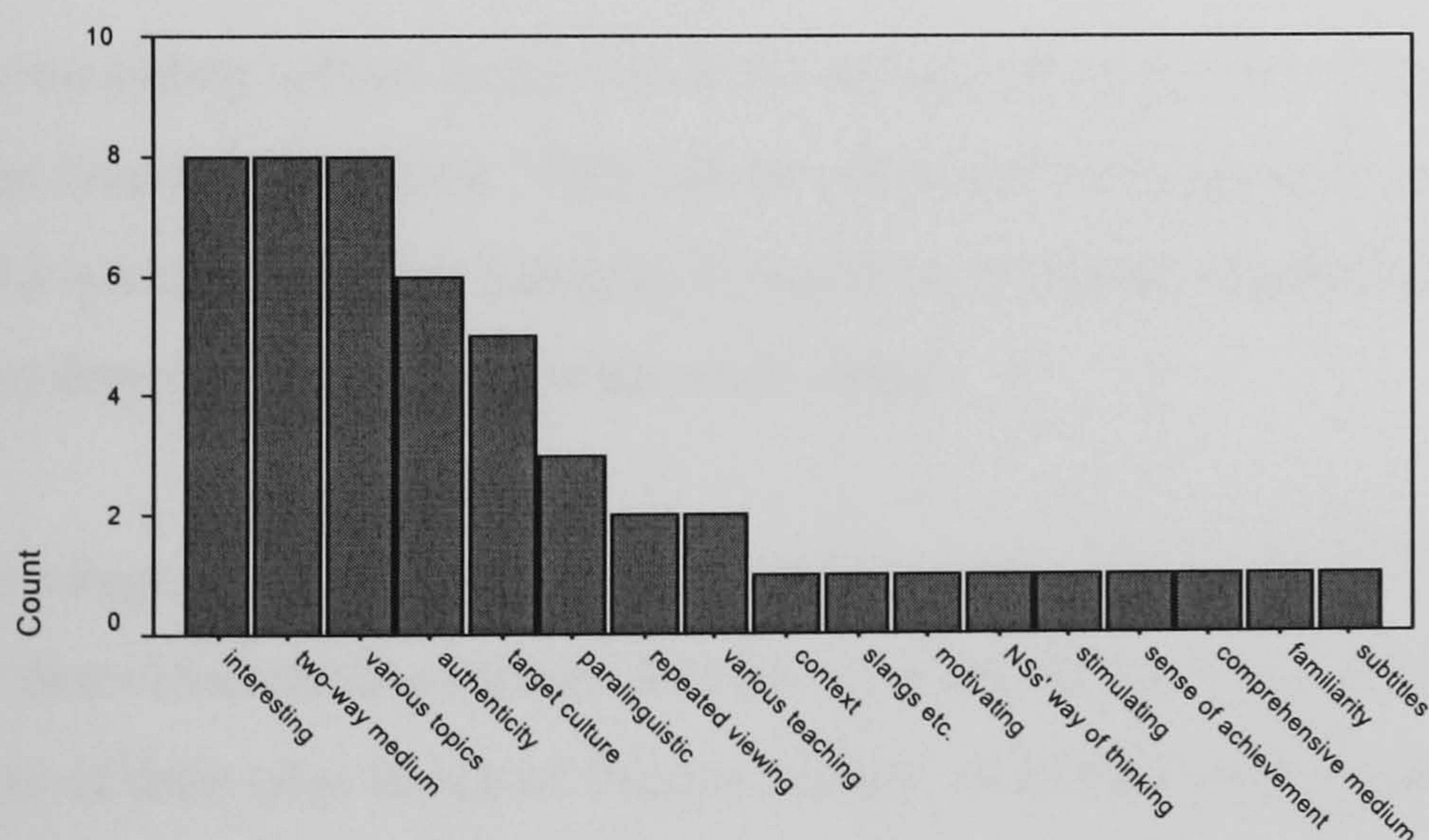


Figure 4.4-9 Advantages of video

To the positive aspects mentioned in the above questions, 4.4.6.1.3. and 4.4.6.2.3, eight more advantages of using video in language learning were added. The first of the 8 advantages was about some paralinguistic aspects of video. Three university level teachers (8.6 %) pointed out that through video learners could observe native speakers' facial expressions, gestures, ways of speaking, and etc. These teachers spotted something beyond the language level, which video could offer to the viewers.

Another interesting category was offered by one secondary school teacher (2.9 %). The teacher also focused on something which could be more fundamental than the language itself. He argued that video could familiarise learners with the native speakers' way of thinking by exposing them to it in a way few other media could.

One university level teacher (2.9 %) sensibly argued that video could be a stimulus for discussion amongst advanced level students, which has been pointed out in the literature (Allan 1985; Rifkin 2000; Stempleski 1991; Stoller 1991). Video does not have to end as excellent language input. It could also act as a starting point for something else. Using video does not necessarily mean showing the native speakers and their language. It could act as something to spark off discussions among students, i.e., video could provide some issues to talk about for learners.

Another advantage of video was that it could enable the learners or teachers to use subtitles (argued by one secondary school teacher (2.9%)). In Korea, most of the foreign videos available have Korean subtitles, which can open another possibility for language learning. Because the subtitles are not exactly the language spoken on video, learners could be encouraged to pick up the real expressions used on video with the help of the subtitles if necessary.

One secondary school teacher (2.9 %) maintained that video could give a sense of achievement to the listening activities. This can be compared to the positive washback mentioned in the above question, but this category focused on the sense of achievement that students could get when they could finish activities with video.

This category of merit seems to be related to the above. One secondary school teacher (2.9 %) saw that video could motivate learners to study the language harder by making them more aware of their own levels of English ability, or at least their listening ability. This kind of awareness of their own abilities in English could work both ways, negatively and positively. However, the teacher seemed to observe the positive effect it could have on his students.

One distinctive feature of video as a medium, at least in Korea, is that it is easily available. The household without a video player can hardly be found in Korean cities. This was appreciated by two secondary school teachers (5.7 %). Therefore, although video cannot be the best technology known, it has its own advantage over other state-of-the-art technologies: its availability and accessibility. Because video has been around for some time now, many people are familiar with it and possibly know how to handle it than they are with other technologies.

This is potentially of great merit for language teachers and learners. They could easily get the player and the tapes and use them without many difficulties.

The last advantage newly listed was that video could be a very comprehensive medium for language acquisition, observed by one secondary school teacher (2.9 %). This category seems to encompass all the things that video could offer to the learners in the word 'comprehensive': picture, sound, authentic language, context, culture, and more.

Other than the above eight newly listed advantages, there are nine categories of merits of video which were already mentioned in the above questions. Their frequencies mentioned by the teachers were slightly different. The three most frequently praised merits of video were its capability of stimulating learners' interest (eight teachers/ 22.9%), of giving picture as well as sound (eight teachers/ 22.9 %), and of providing variety (eight teachers/ 22.9 %).

Six teachers (17.1 %) indicated that video could help to familiarise learners with native speakers' pronunciation, normal speaking speed, and authentic expressions. One university teacher (2.9 %) once again pointed out that video could give something that textbooks could not, and five teachers (14.3 %) emphasised that video could show culture as well as the language. One secondary school teacher (2.9 %) called attention to the context video could provide.

The possible variety of teaching methods used by the teachers through video was called attention to once again by two university level teachers (5.7 %). Finally, repeated viewing made possible by the medium was mentioned again by two secondary school teachers (5.7 %).

All these advantages of video as a medium for language learning seem to be appreciated by many of the respondents and other researchers who have supported using video, as shown in 2.5.4 and 2.5.5. Because of all the merits of video as a medium, video was used in the case studies, which will be discussed in 4.5.2.

4.5 RESULTS FROM THE CASE STUDIES

Case studies were used for two main purposes. Firstly, they were employed to compare between the subjects' self-assessment results and language test results, thereby triangulating with the findings from the self-assessment tests on the larger-scale survey. Another purpose of case studies was to identify how using video would affect the teachers' actual and perceived spoken language proficiency.

4.5.1 What is the Relationship between Korean Teachers' Perceived Spoken Language Proficiency and Other Measures of Their Spoken Language Proficiency?

This question was asked to confirm if the teachers' self-assessment would reflect other views of their spoken language proficiency. In other words, it investigated whether the self-assessment scores correlated with the actual test scores in a language test. The subjects' self-assessment scores from the self-assessment tests were compared with the test scores.

4.5.1.1 Do the self-assessment scores for listening skills reflect the test scores?

In total, six teachers (five case study subjects and one volunteer) took the language test comprising listening and speaking tasks after answering the self-assessment tests. Five questions were asked about their listening skills on the self-assessment test and five tasks were assigned for the subjects to perform on the language test. The questions on the self-assessment test are in appendix 1-1 and the tasks on the test are in appendix 2-1.

The five tasks for listening skills on the test consist of several sub-questions the subjects were asked to answer. As explained in 3.5.7.2.1, the subjects wrote the answers in their written test paper after listening to tapes or watching video clips. Two Korean-English bilingual raters individually double-marked their tests.

Below are the six subjects' self-assessment and test scores.

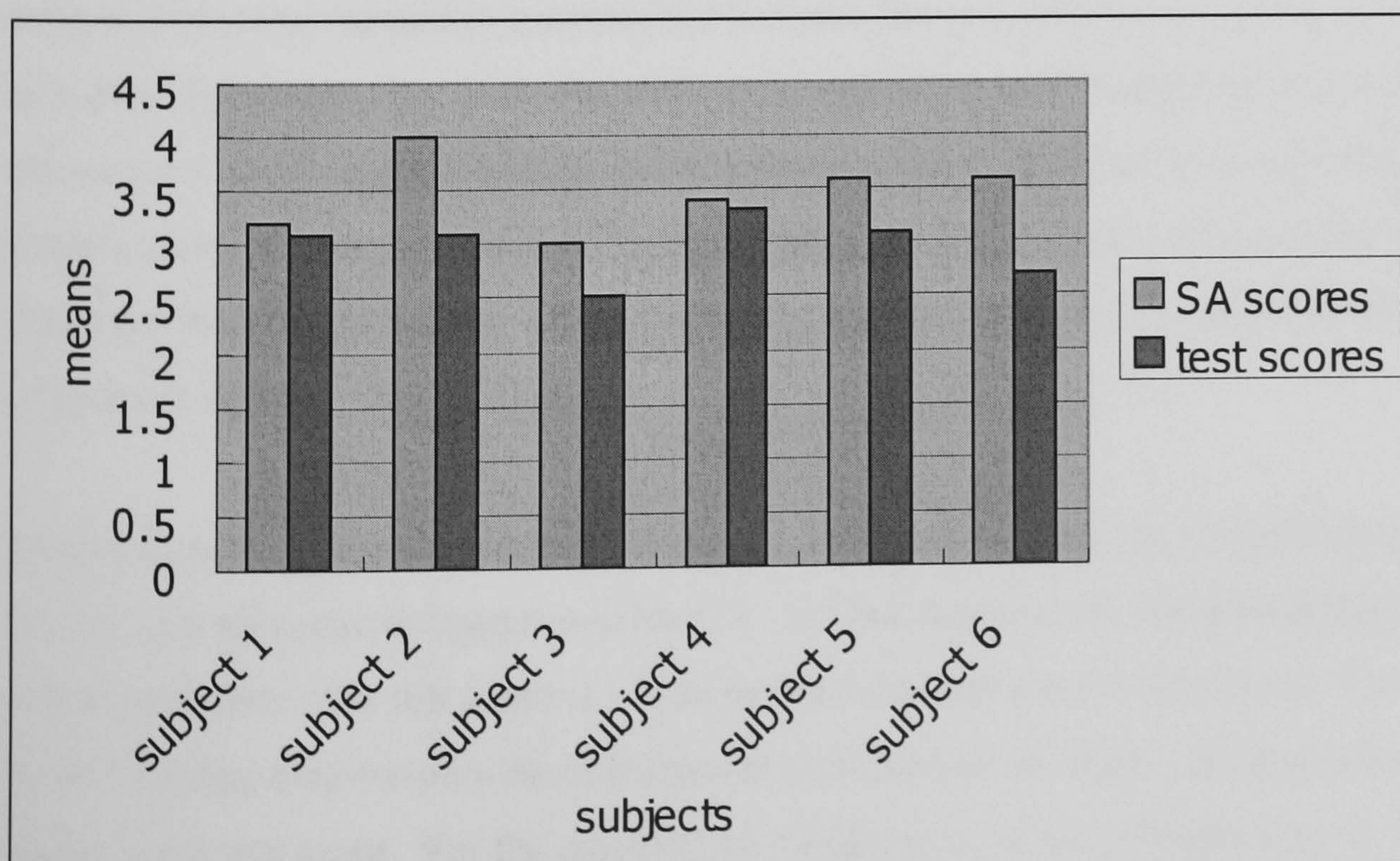


Figure 4.5-1 SA/ test scores for listening

As seen in Figure 4.5-1, among the six subjects, no subject's self-assessment mean matches exactly her test mean. It seems clear that all the subjects rated themselves higher than the test results suggested. All the subjects' test totals are lower than their self-assessment totals (see Figure 4.5-2). For subject 1 and subject 4, the difference is very small with only 0.5 point lower test scores than their self-assessment. However, for the others, the difference seems bigger. For subject 3 and 5, the difference between the self-assessment total and the test total is 2.5 points. The difference is even bigger for the other two subjects. Subject 2 and 6's test totals are 4.5 points lower than their self-assessment totals.

Question No./case	1 sa	1 test	2 sa	2 test	3 sa	3 test	4 sa	4 test	5 sa	5 test	6 sa	6 test
1	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	4
2	4	3.5	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	3
3	4	3	4	2.5	3	2	4	3.5	3	3.5	3	2.5
4	2	2	4	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	3	2
5	3	3	4	3	3	2.5	3	3	4	3	4	2
Total	16	15.5	20	15.5	15	12.5	17	16.5	18	15.5	18	13.5

Figure 4.5-2 SA vs. test scores for individual questions

As can be seen above in Figure 4.5-2, a comparison of scores for the individual questions also reveals a discrepancy between the two sets of scores. Subject 1 has 2 noticeable mismatches between her self-assessment and test scores. For the question of 'understanding English films without subtitles', the test score is 1 point lower than the self-assessment score. On the other hand, she has one 'under-report' case on her self-assessment test. For the question of 'understanding a native speaker when they are talking at a normal speed with one another', the test score is 1 point higher than the self-assessment score.

Subject 3 has two noticeable mismatches between the self-assessment scores and test scores for the individual questions. For both, the self-assessment scores are higher than the actual test scores. In the question about 'understanding native speakers who are talking to you as they would to another English speaker', her test score is 3 whereas her self-assessment score is 4. For the questions about 'understanding English films without subtitles' her test score is 1 point lower than her self-assessment score.

Subject 2 has also three mismatches between the two sets of scores. Nonetheless, the gap between the two sets of scores is bigger in subject 2. For the question of 'understanding English films without subtitles', her test score is 1.5 lower than her self-assessment score. For the question of 'understanding play-by-play descriptions of sports events on radio', the gap is even bigger with 2 points lower test score. For the question of 'understanding news broadcasts on TV', the actual test score is 1 point lower than the self-assessment score.

Subject 5 and 6 have three noticeable mismatches out of five questions between the self-assessment scores and test scores for the individual questions. For subject 5, the gap between two sets of scores does not seem large, and she has one 'under-report' on her self-assessment test. For the other questions of 'understanding a native English speaker when they are talking at a normal speed with one another', 'understanding play-by-play descriptions of sports events on radio', and 'understanding news broadcasts on TV', the gap is 1 point between the self-assessment scores and the test scores. For subject 6, the gap is much bigger. For the questions of 'understanding native speakers who are talking to you as they would to another English speaker', and of 'understanding play-by-play descriptions of sports events on radio', the test scores are only 1 point lower than the self-assessment scores. However, the gap is 2 points for the question of 'understanding news broadcasts on TV'.

As can be seen, a comparison between the two sets of scores for each question also indicates a strong tendency to over-estimate. Among the five questions about their listening proficiency, 'understanding English films without subtitles' turns out to be the one in which majority of people over-estimate their own ability, when it is over-estimated on the self-assessment tests by five subjects. Four subjects over-estimated their ability of 'understanding news broadcasts on TV'. 'Understanding native speakers who are talking to you as they would to another English speaker' and 'understanding play-by-play descriptions of sports events on radio' are over-estimated on their self-assessment tests by three subjects each. Only one subject over-estimated her ability to 'understand a native English speaker when they are talking at a normal speed with one another'.

Overall, the results show the subjects' evident tendency to over-report in proficiency in listening. Cases of under-report are found only in two subjects: subject 1 and subject 5. For subject 5, there is only a 0.5 point gap in the score for one question, but there is a 1 point gap in the score for one question for subject 1. For two subjects (subject 1 and 4), the gap of totals between the two sets of scores is only 0.5 point, which can probably be ignored, but it is bigger for the rest 4 subjects. The gaps range from 2.5 to 4.5.

Subjects seem to over-estimate their own listening proficiency in most cases, as seen in the above results. To identify how closely the two sets of scores match, the Wilcoxon Matched-pairs Signed-

ranks test³ (because a t-test is not suitable due to a small sample size) was conducted to identify if there was any difference between them.

The results of the Wilcoxon test show that there is a significant difference between the sets of scores with a smaller p-value than the critical 0.01 ($Z = -2.220$). In other words, the two sets of scores are significantly different from each other. This result confirms the subjects' tendency to over-estimate. Correlation tests, Kendall's tau and Spearman's rho, were administered to identify how strong the relationship between the two sets of scores was. The results of the correlation tests indicate that there is no correlation between the subjects' self-assessment scores and the test scores of their listening skills.

Therefore, from the above results, it can be concluded that the subjects' self-assessment scores are significantly different from their test-scores for listening skills.

4.5.1.2 Do the self-assessment scores for speaking skills reflect the test scores?

The same six teachers as in the listening test took the speaking test after completing the self-assessment tests. Five questions were asked about the teachers' speaking skills and five tasks were assigned for the subjects to perform. The questions on the self-assessment test are appendix 1-1 and the tasks on the test are in 0.

As explained in 3.5.7.2.1, the subjects were asked to talk about the topic given in English and their answers were recorded. Two native speaker EFL teachers individually double-marked their tests (see 3.5.7.2.1 and 3.5.7.2.2).

Below are the 6 subjects' self-assessment and test scores.

³ The Wilcoxon matched-pairs Signed-ranks test is a non-parametric equivalent to the related samples t-test. Ref.: a non-parametric test does not have the constraints of parametric tests so there are no assumptions about the type of data or normal distributions for interval data (Black 2002).

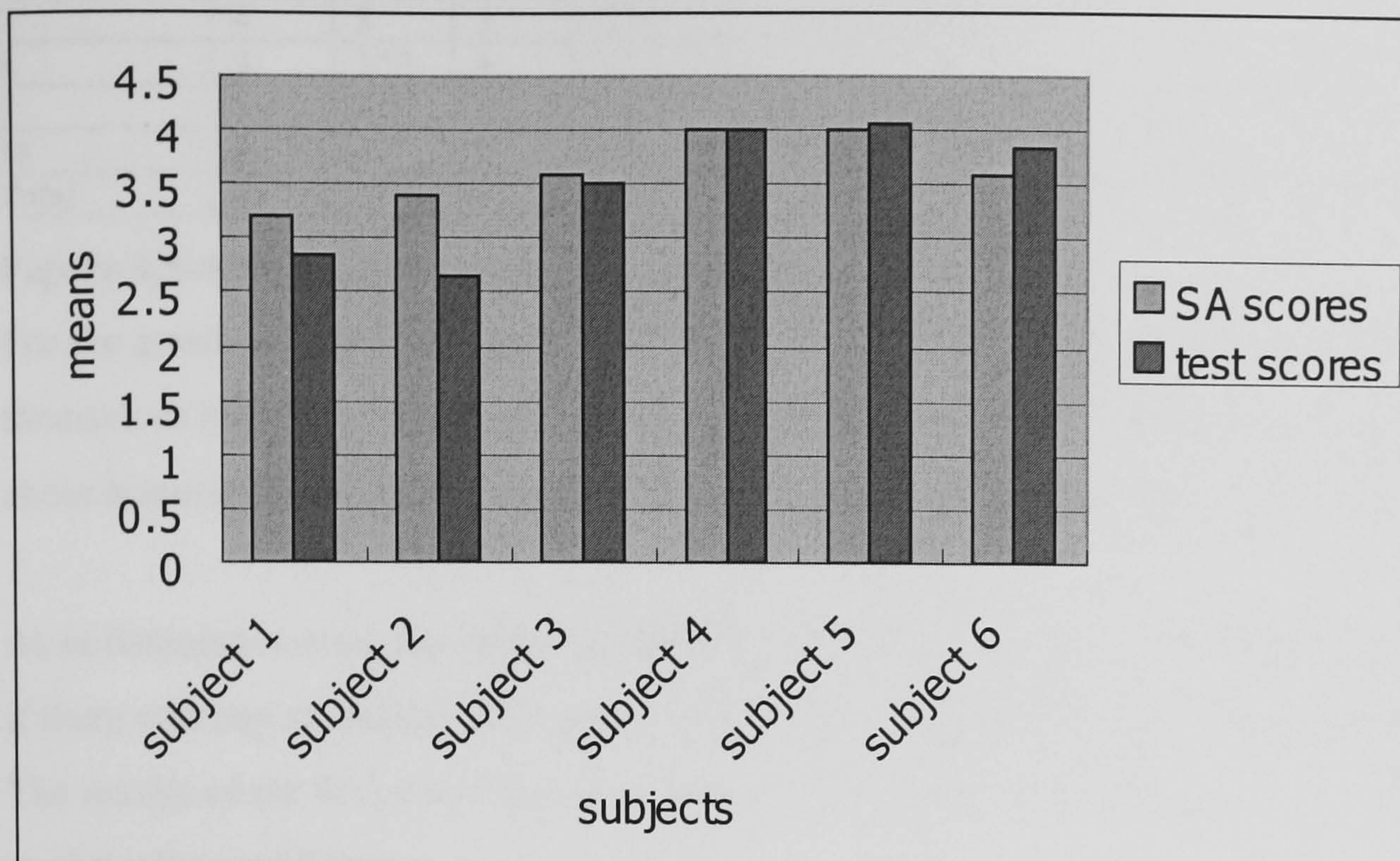


Figure 4.5-3 SA/test scores for speaking

Unlike the overall tendency of over-reporting on the listening test, the subjects' self-assessment of their speaking skills turns out to be more reliable. As seen in Figure 4.5-3, the two sets of scores are closer than they were for listening.

Nonetheless, a comparison of the totals between self-assessment and the test (in Figure 4.5-4) indicates that there are some mismatches. Three subjects' test totals (subject 1, subject 2, and subject 3) are lower than their self-assessment, but two subjects (subject 5 and 6) show an under-reporting tendency. Among the three over-reporting cases, one subject's (subject 3) over-reporting is small enough to be ignored. The difference between the two sets of scores is only 0.5. Another subject's difference (subject 1) in scores is 1.5 points: her test total is 1.5 points lower. The biggest mismatch is found in subject 2. The difference between the two sets of scores is 3.75 in her case. In other words, her test total is 3.75 points lower than her self-assessment. On the other hand, subject 5's test total is 0.25 point higher than her self-assessment total and subject 6's test total is 1.25 points higher than her self-assessment.

A comparison of the two sets of scores for each question (Figure 4.5-4) reveals that there are not many noticeable discrepancies between them. Almost all the discrepancies are within 0.5 point with the exceptions of subject 2. Subject 2 has two noticeable mismatches between two sets of scores. In both cases, she rated herself higher than the test scores. For the task of 'talking about hobbies' subject 2's test score is 1.25 points lower than her self-assessment and for the task of 'talking about a film' it is 1.5 points lower.

Question No./Case	1 sa	1 test	2 sa	2 test	3 sa	3 test	4 sa	4 test	5 sa	5 test	6 sa	6 test
6	3	3	3	2.75	4	3.5	4	4	4	4	4	4

7	4	3	3	2.75	3	3.5	4	4	4	4	3	3.75
8	3	2.75	4	2.75	4	3.5	4	4	4	4	4	4
9	3	2.5	4	2.5	4	3.5	4	4	4	4	4	4
10	3	3	3	2.5	3	3.5	4	4	4	4.25	3	3.5
Total	16	14.25	17	13.25	18	17.5	20	20	20	20.25	18	19.25

Figure 4.5-4 SA vs. test scores for individual questions

For the questions, ‘talking about a film’ and ‘talking about hobbies’, three subjects rated themselves higher than the test scores. For the other three questions of ‘telling a joke’ ‘talking about Korean educational system’, and ‘talking about Korean politics’, only two subjects did.

As in listening scores, the Wilcoxon Matched-pairs Signed-ranks test was administered to check if there was any statistical difference between the self-assessment scores and the test scores.

The results of the Wilcoxon test show that the difference between the two sets of scores is not statistically significant.

Two correlation tests, Kendall’s tau and Spearman’s rho, were administered to identify the strength of the relationship between the two sets of scores. The results of the correlation tests indicate that there is a (very) high correlation between the subjects’ self-assessment scores and the test scores of their speaking abilities:

$$\tau = 0.788; n = 6; p < 0.05;$$

$$r_s = 0.912; n = 6; p < 0.05.$$

Therefore, it can be assumed that high self-assessment scores correspond to high test scores in the subjects.

In the case of speaking skills, the subjects seem to rate their own abilities closer to the test results than in their listening abilities. It seems, therefore, be a significant finding that the correlation value for the speaking skills is higher than that for listening skills. As opposed to the subjects’ consistent tendency to rate themselves higher than the test results in listening proficiency, in self-assessment of the subjects’ speaking proficiency, over-report is not a main tendency. There are even cases of under-estimate of their speaking proficiency.

4.5.2 What is the Effect of Video on the Teachers’ Language Proficiency?

This question was intended to identify the effect of video on the case study subjects. A comparison of the subjects’ scores in the before- and after-treatment language test will be made, the effects of the change (if any) in their proficiency levels on their self-assessment will be investigated through a comparison of the before- and after-treatment self-assessment scores, and evidence of change in their use of English in class before- and after-treatment will be carried out by means of an analysis of the classroom observation data.

4.5.2.1 Can video help improve the teachers' spoken language proficiency?

This question will be answered by comparing the subjects' two language test scores (before-treatment and after-treatment tests) for listening and speaking skills (for the two tests, see 0), focusing on whether the post-test scores are higher than the pre-test scores, and if so, how great the difference is. As explained earlier, the five case study subjects took a listening and speaking test twice, before and after the case study. It was hypothesised that video users in the case study would find their proficiency improved as a result of the case study while the proficiency of the subjects under the control condition would stay the same. First, it was determined if there were any changes in the scores for the second listening test compared to those for the first test. Then the scores for the second speaking test were compared to the scores for the first speaking test.

4.5.2.1.1 Can video help improve the teachers' listening skills?

This question is answered by comparing the subjects' scores in the pre- and the post-tests. The pre-test scores are assumed to stand for the subjects' initial linguistic levels, and the post-test scores are assumed to represent any change in their level of proficiency. Cases 1 and 2 used video for their own language improvement and case 3 used it in class with her students (see 3.6.2.2). For the two subjects (case 4 and 5) under the control condition, the post-test scores would not be expected to change, at least not dramatically.

Figure 4.5-5 shows the results of the subjects' scores for the 1st and 2nd language test.

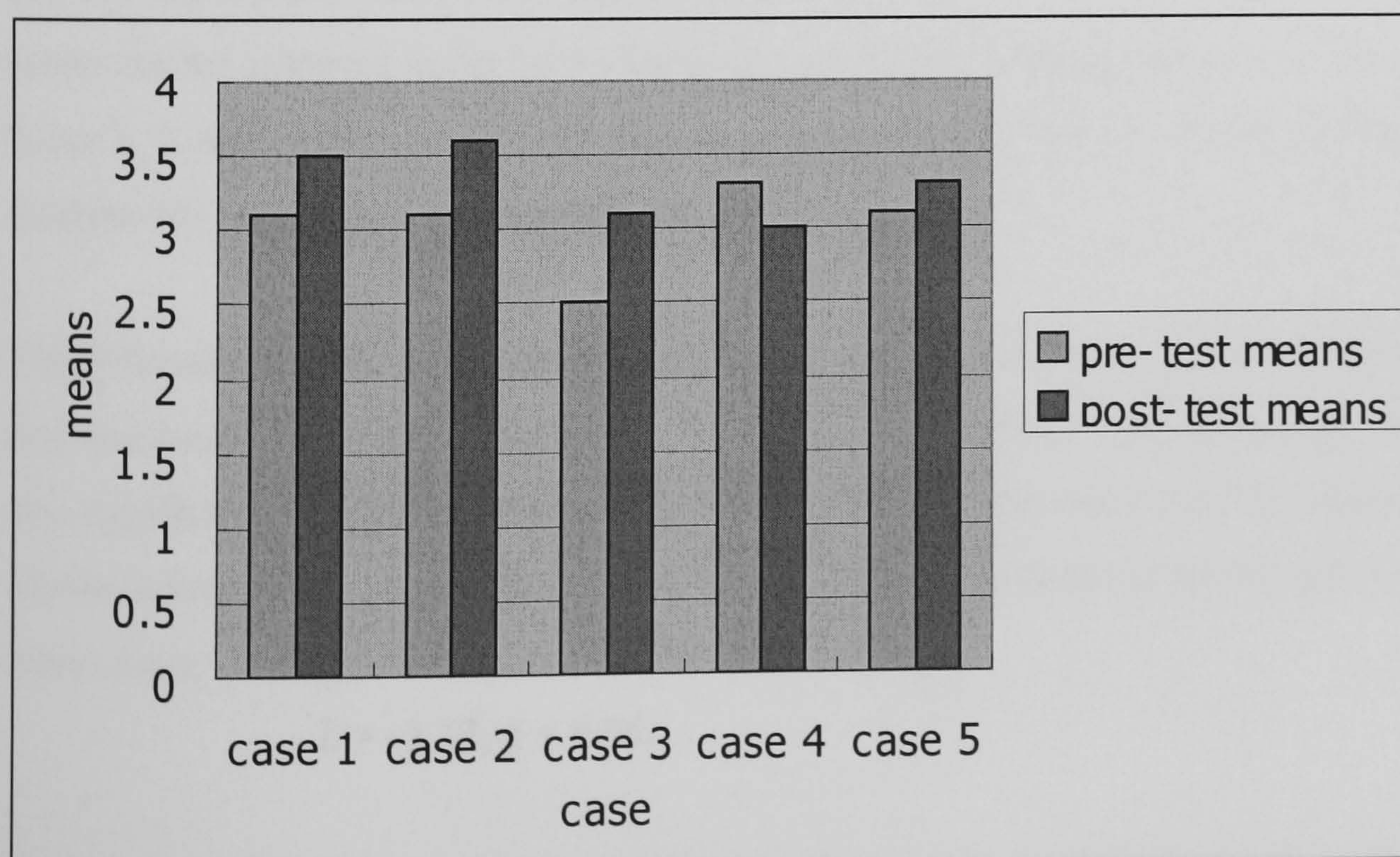


Figure 4.5-5 Pre-/post-test scores for listening

As the total scores of the pre- and post-test show (Figure 4.5-6), the subjects' overall scores for listening skills have gone through some changes. For four subjects, the changes are upwards while they are downwards for one subject. Case 4's (non-user of video) second total score is 1.5 points lower than her first total. Case 5's (non-user) second total score, however, is 1 point higher than her first total. Case 1's (video-user) second total is 2 points higher than her first, and case 2's (video-user) second total is 2.5 higher than her first. Case 3's (video-user in class) second total score is 3 points higher than her first total.

The differences in two non-users' total scores for the pre- and the post-test are not very big (1/ 1.5 points) and do not show any clear direction because case 5's total has gone up and case 4's has gone down. On the other hand, the differences in three video-users' totals for the pre- and the post-test are bigger (2/ 2.5/ 3) and the directions are consistently upwards.

A comparison of the point scores for the individual questions reveals that there are changes in the subjects' scores for individual questions, as shown in Figure 4.5-6.

Question No./ Case	1 pre-	1 post-	2 pre-	2 post-	3 pre-	3 post-	4 pre-	4 post-	5 pre-	5 post-
1	4	3.5	4	3.5	3	3	4	3	3	4
2	3.5	3.5	4	3.5	3	3.5	4	3	4	3.5
3	3	3.5	2.5	4	2	3.5	3.5	4	3.5	4
4	2	3	2	3.5	2	2	2	2	2	2
5	3	4	3	3.5	2.5	3.5	3	3	3	3
Total	15.5	17.5	15.5	18	12.5	15.5	16.5	15	15.5	16.5

Figure 4.5-6 Changes in Individual Scores

For two video-users (case 1 and 2), the changes are more evident. All five of case 2's point scores for the listening skills have changed. Case 1 has 4 changes of score. The other three (Case 3, 4, and 5) have three score changes on their second test. For case 3 (video-user), the changes are bigger than for two non-users (case 4 and 5).

The Wilcoxon Matched-pairs Signed-ranks test was carried out to confirm if the changes on the post-test were statistically significant. First of all, the Wilcoxon test measured whether there are any significant differences between the pre-test and the post-test scores for video users. The results indicate that the post-test scores are significantly different from the pre-test scores for video users:

$$Z = -2.27; p < 0.05.$$

The Wilcoxon test was once again administered to test the statistical significance of the difference between the two sets of scores for the non-users of video. The results of the test show that there is no statistically significant difference between the two sets of scores.

All in all, it is evident that for the three subjects, who used video for themselves or for their students, the changes in the 2nd test score are bigger than those of two non-users. In addition, all three video users' 2nd scores have gone up, whereas the non-users' post scores do not show any consistent direction, upward or downward. The results of the Wilcoxon tests indicate that the video users' post-test scores statistically differ from their pre-test scores but that the non-users' post-test scores do not differ from their pre-test scores. Therefore, it can be concluded from the above results that it is very likely that using video helped improve the subject teachers' proficiency in listening skills.

4.5.2.1.2 Can video help improve the teachers' speaking skills?

This question will be answered by comparing the subjects' pre-test and the post-test scores for speaking skills, focusing on whether the post test scores are higher than the pre scores, and if so, how great the difference is. The pre-test scores are assumed to represent the subjects' initial linguistic levels, and the post-test scores are assumed to represent any change in their level of proficiency. As explained, case 1 and 2 used video for their own language improvement and case 3 used it in class with her students. For two non-users of video (case 4 and 5), the post-scores would not be expected to change, at least not dramatically.

Figure 4.5-7 presents the results of the subjects' scores for the 1st and 2nd speaking test.

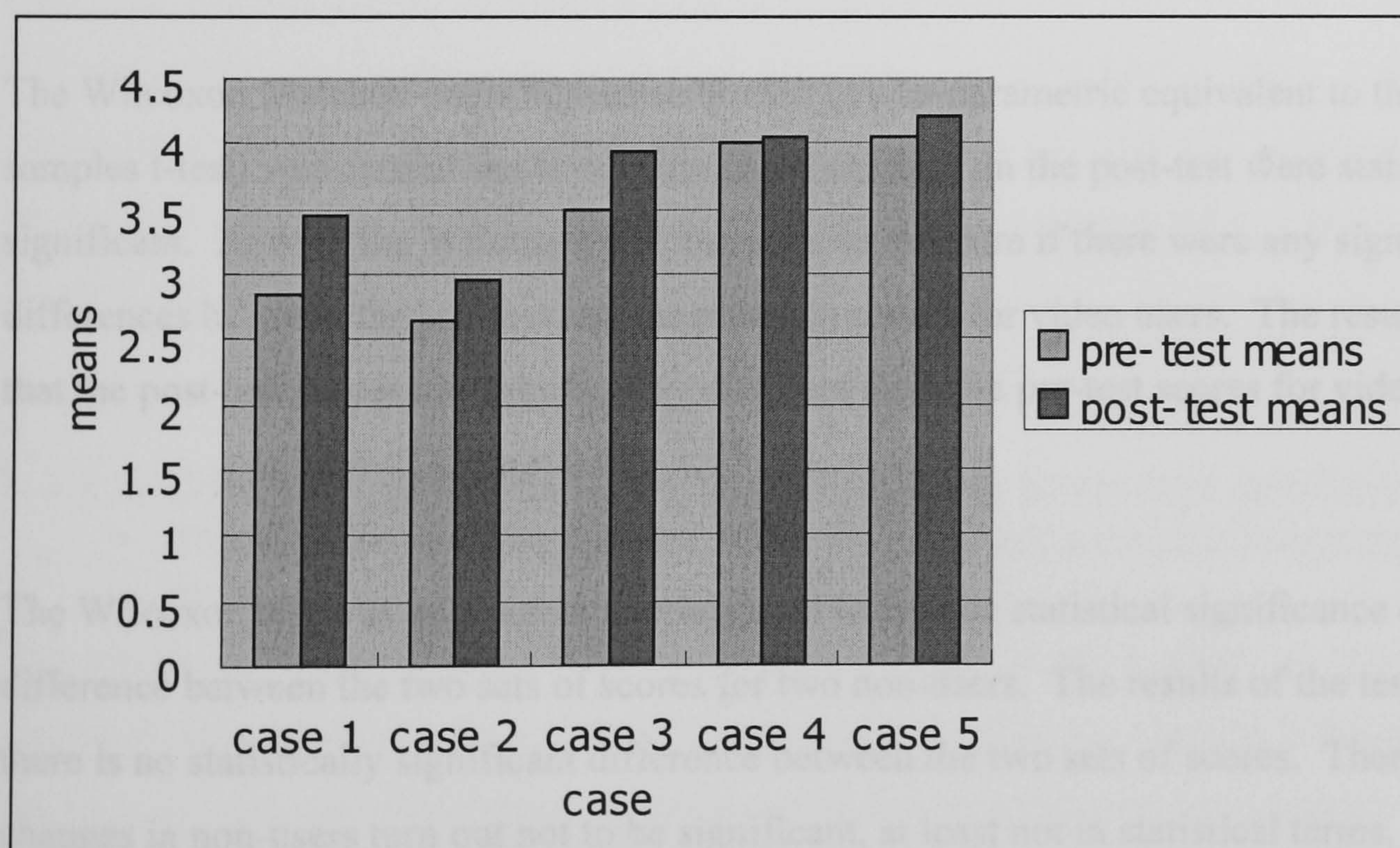


Figure 4.5-7 Pre-/post-test scores for speaking

As shown in Figure 4.5-7, all the 5 subjects' scores have gone through some changes. A comparison of the two sets of totals (Figure 4.5-8) indicates that no subjects' post score stayed the same as her pre score. All the changes happened in a positive direction, i.e., everybody's

post total has gone upwards. When comparing each subject's change of totals, differences are found. In two non-users of video, the gap between the pre-test and the post-test total appears smaller than the others'. For case 4 (non-user), the gap is only 0.25 point, and case 5 (non-user) has a 0.75 point gain in her post score. Among the other 3 video-user subjects, case 2 shows the smallest gap between the two totals with 1.5 points. The post-test scores for case 1 and case 3 have gone through a bigger change with 3 points and 2.25 points upwards each.

When comparing the changes in individual scores for each question in each subject, the pattern of changes becomes evident, as shown in Figure 4.5-8.

Question No./ Case	1 pre-	1 post-	2 pre-	2 post-	3 pre-	3 post-	4 pre-	4 post-	5 pre-	5 post-
6	3	3.5	2.75	3.25	3.5	4	4	4	4	4.
7	3	3.5	2.75	3	3.5	4	4	4	4	4
8	2.75	3.75	2.75	3	3.5	4	4	4	4	4
9	2.5	3.5	2.5	3	3.5	4	4	4.25	4	4.5
10	3	3	2.5	2.5	3.5	3.75	4.	4	4.25	4.5
Total	14.25	17.25	13.25	14.75	17.5	19.75	20.	20.25	20.25	21

Figure 4.5-8 Changes in Individual Scores

Once again, two non-users (case 4 and 5) show the least changes between the two sets of scores. Both subjects' differences in scores are within 0.5 point. On the other hand, the other three video-users have gone through more and bigger changes.

The Wilcoxon Matched-pairs Signed-ranks test (a non-parametric equivalent to the related samples t-test) was carried out to confirm if the changes on the post-test were statistically significant. At first, the Wilcoxon test was used to measure if there were any significant differences between the pre-test and the post-test scores for video users. The results indicate that the post-test scores are significantly different from the pre-test scores for video users:

$$Z = -3.27; p < 0.01.$$

The Wilcoxon test was once again administered to test the statistical significance of the difference between the two sets of scores for two non-users. The results of the test show that there is no statistically significant difference between the two sets of scores. Therefore, the changes in non-users turn out not to be significant, at least not in statistical terms.

In addition, the question of whether or not any aspects of language proficiency changed as a result of using video was investigated. A comparison of the four different aspects of language proficiency was made between each subject's pre-test scores and post-test scores. Those 4 areas are syntax, vocabulary, phonology and cohesion, which were marked separately by markers, as

explained in 3.5.7.2.2. In case of the three video-users, each aspect seems to have been improved on the post-test. In case 1, the frequency of score increase for syntax, vocabulary, and cohesion is noticeable on the post-test. Out of five possible increases each, her scores for syntax have four increases, scores for vocabulary also 4, and for cohesion 5. Case 2 has noticeable increases for two aspects of the language proficiency (vocabulary and cohesion) on the post-test. Case 3 has noticeable increases for two aspects of the language proficiency (syntax and cohesion). On the other hand, two non-users show fewer increases. Case 4 does not have any noticeable increases in any aspects of language proficiency, and case 5 has one noticeable increase for only one aspect of language proficiency (phonology). Score decreases, however, are found more in non-users. Among video-users, only case 2 has experienced 1 score drop, in syntax on the post-test. Nevertheless, two non-users of video have more score decreases.

Therefore, for video-users, cohesion is the aspect of language proficiency, for which the scores have increased in all cases for all three subjects.

All the three subjects who used video have a higher post score on the speaking test. However, two non-users also have gains in their post scores, although the gains are not as great as those of video-users. The results of the Wilcoxon tests indicate that the video users' post-test scores statistically differ from their pre-test scores but that the non-users' post-test scores do not differ from their pre-test scores. In addition, cohesion is the aspect of language proficiency in which all video-users' post scores have gone up in all cases. From the above results, it can be concluded that using video appears to have helped improve the subjects' speaking proficiency, which is an encouraging result given that using video was not expected to directly help to improve speaking skills.

4.5.2.2 Does the teachers' perception of their language proficiency change according to the change in their spoken language proficiency as a result of using video?

This question will be answered by comparing the two sets of self-assessment scores, before-treatment and after-treatment self-assessment scores. At first, the changes between the scores of the 'can-do' self-assessment pre-test and scores in the post-test were investigated. Then whether there were any changes in the scores of the self-assessment post-test (a modified version of Bachman & Palmer self-assessment test) from the scores of the pre-test was investigated.

4.5.2.2.1 Are there any changes in the scores of the second ‘can-do’ SA test from the scores of the first test?

The ‘can-do’ self-assessment test is closely related to the language tests because the tasks in the language test are taken directly from the questions on the ‘can-do’ self-assessment test.

Therefore, it was expected that the post self-assessment scores (at least the scores for the listening and speaking skill questions) would be affected by the case study and changed from the pre-test scores.

- Total scores

The comparison of the first and the second self-assessment scores is set out below. First of all, the pre-treatment self-assessment total scores will be compared with the post-treatment self-assessment totals. Scores for the listening skill questions will follow. Then scores for the speaking skill questions will come. Finally, the post-test scores for the reading and writing skill questions will be compared with the pre-test scores.

	1	1	2	2	3	3	4	4	5	5
	sa1	sa2	sa1	sa2	sa1	sa2	sa1	sa2	sa1	sa2
Total	68	75	78	56	70	73	69	68	78	76

As seen above, non-users (case 4 and 5) do not show a great change in their second self-assessment total scores. In particular, case 4 (non-user of video) has gone down only 1 point in her second self-assessment total. Case 5 (non-user) has gone 2 points down in her second self-assessment total. Case 3’s (video-user in class) second self-assessment total has gone up to 73 with 3 points difference from her first total. The other two video-users (case 1 and 2) show a great change in their second self-assessment totals. In case 1, the direction is evidently upward. Her second self-assessment total is 7 points higher than her 1st total. On the other hand, case 2 shows a clear decrease with a 22-point lower post self-assessment total.

- Scores for listening

Figure 4.5-9 shows the subjects’ pre- and post-self-assessment scores for their listening skills.

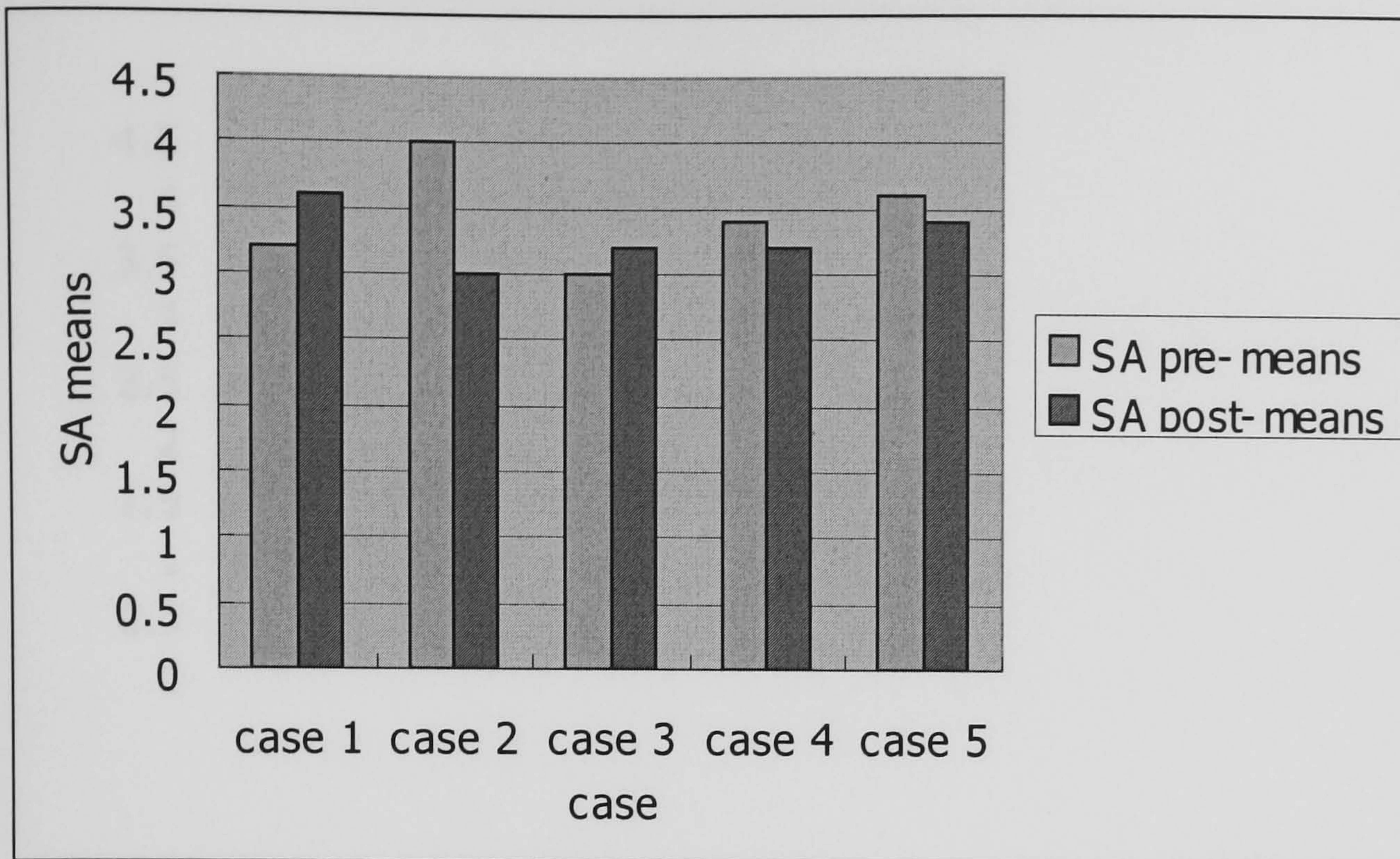


Figure 4.5-9 SA Pre-/post-scores for listening

First of all, all subjects' total scores for listening skills (Figure 4.5-10) have changed in the second self-assessment test. Case 3, 4, 5's total score differences are not big with only 1 point each. Non-users' (case 4 and 5) second total scores have gone 1 point down while case 3's (video-user in class) second total has gone 1 point up. Case 1's (video-user) second total has gone 2 points up to 18. Nevertheless, case 2's (video-user) post total has dramatically down to 15 from 20 of her pre total.

Question No./ Case	1 sa1	1 sa2	2 sa1	2 sa2	3 sa1	3 sa2	4 sa1	4 sa2	5 sa1	5 sa2
1	3	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4
2	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4
3	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	4
4	2	3	4	3	2	2	2	2	3	2
5	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	3
Total	16	18	20	15	15	16	17	16	18	17

Figure 4.5-10 Changes in Individual Scores

In the self-assessment post-scores for individual questions for listening skills, two video-users (case 1 and 3) have only upwards changes, as shown in Figure 4.5-10. On the other hand, two non-users' self-assessment post-test scores show downward changes (although case 5 has one upward change). The biggest change of scores for individual questions is found in case 2 (video-user). All five of Case 2's scores for listening skills have changed in her second self-assessment test. The direction is without exception downwards.

- Scores for speaking

Figure 4.5-11 shows pre- and post-self-assessment scores for the subjects' speaking skills.

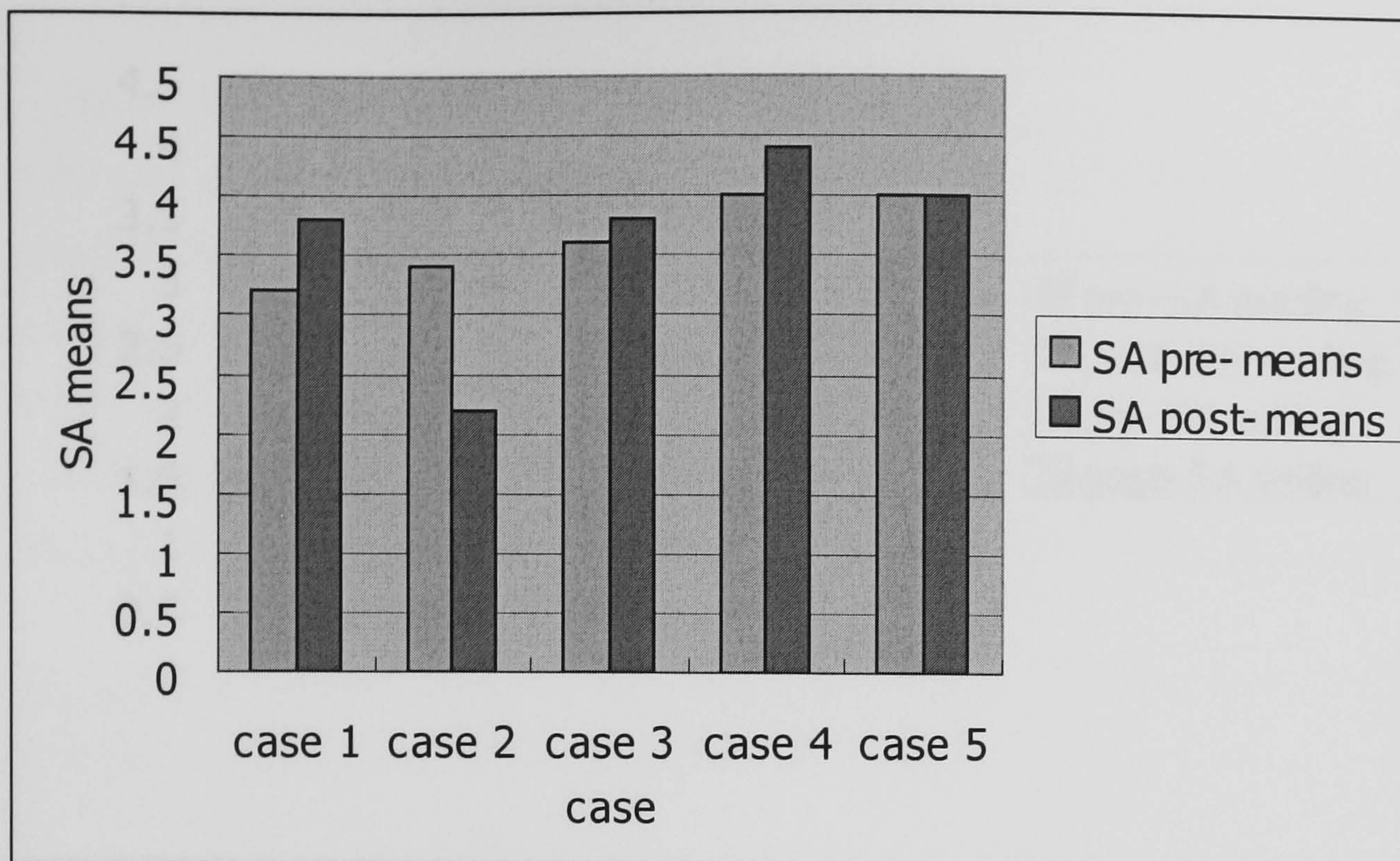


Figure 4.5-11 SA Pre-/post-scores for speaking

A comparison of the self-assessment pre- and the post-test scores for the subjects' speaking skills shows that there are some changes except for case 5. Case 1, 3 (video-users), and 4 (non-user) have higher second total scores than their first. On the other hand, case 2's (video-user) second total is 6 points lower than her first.

Question No./ Case	1 sa1	1 sa2	2 sa1	2 sa2	3 sa1	3 sa2	4 sa1	4 sa2	5 sa1	5 sa2
6	3	3	3	2	4	4	4	4	4	4
7	4	4	3	2	3	3	4	4	4	4
8	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	5	4	4
9	3	4	4	2	4	4	4	5	4	4
10	3	4	3	2	3	4	4	4	4	4
Total	16	19	17	11	18	19	20	22	20	20

Figure 4.5-12 Changes in Individual Scores

The only subject who does not show any changes in the second self-assessment test on speaking is case 5 (non-user). Other than case 5, the others all show big or small changes in their point scores for individual questions about the speaking skills, as seen in Figure 4.5-12. For three subjects (two video-users and one non-user), all changes are upwards. Once again, case 2 (video-user) shows the greatest change in the point scores for individual questions. All her point scores for the five questions have gone down on her second self-assessment test.

- Scores for reading and writing

Figure 4.5-13 shows the subjects' pre- and post- self-assessment scores for reading skills and writing skills.

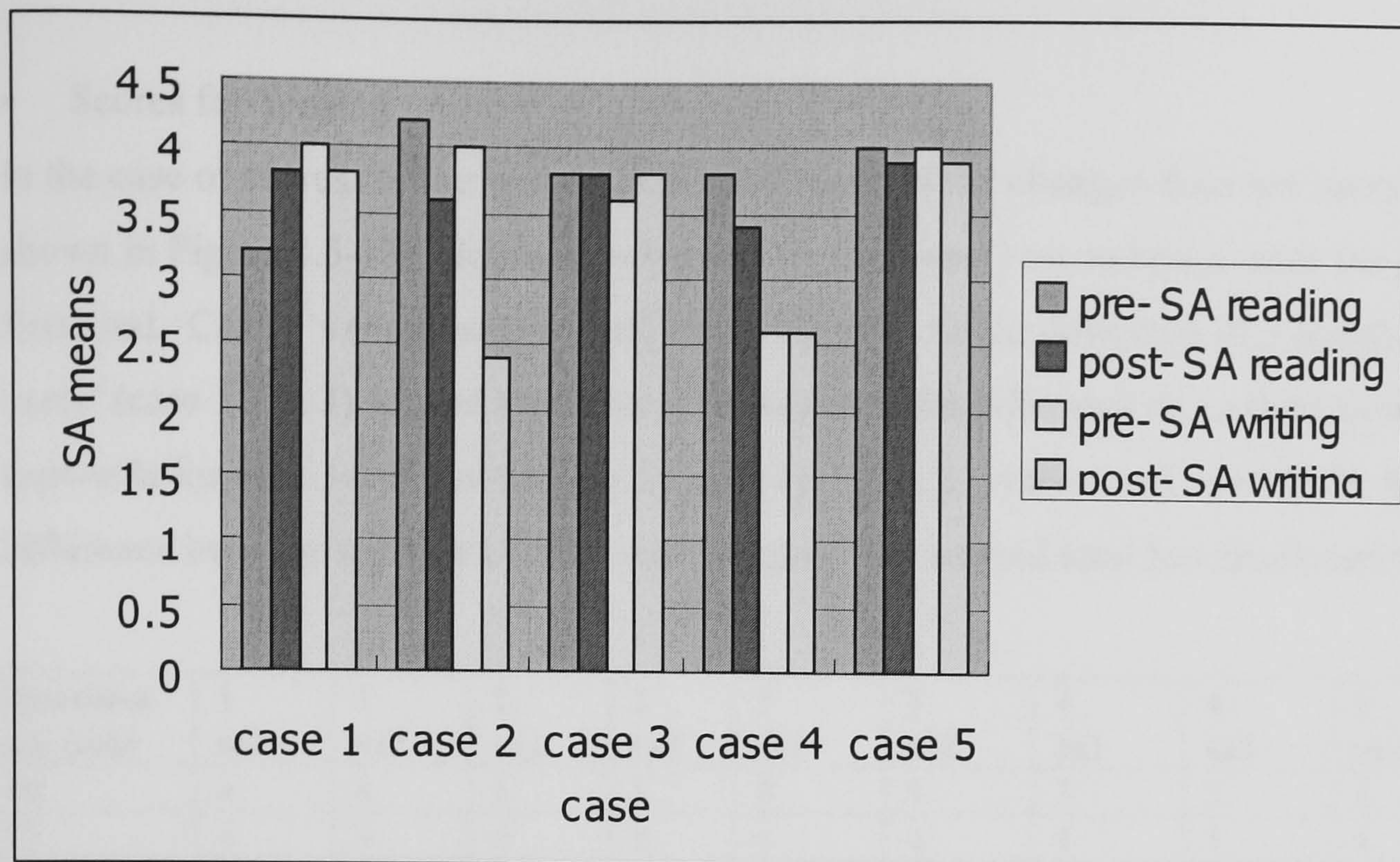


Figure 4.5-13 SA Pre-/post scores for reading and writing

- Scores for Reading

Surprisingly, the subject's self-assessment scores for reading and writing skills, which were not expected to be affected by the case study scheme, also show changes. In the case of the total scores, scores for both skills show a slight change in the second self-assessment test. In the totals for the reading skills, case 1 and 2's (video-users) scores have 3 points difference on the second self-assessment test. The direction, however, is the opposite. While case 1's total has increased, case 2's total has decreased. Case 4's (non-user) second total has gone down 2 points to 17, and case 5's (non-user) second total displays a slight decrease (0.5 point). The only subject whose second total has not changed is case 3 (video-user in class).

Question no. /case	1 sa1	1 sa2	2 sa1	2 sa2	3 sa1	3 sa2	4 sa1	4 sa2	5 sa1	5 sa2
11	3	4	5	5	4	4	3	4	4	4
12	3	4	4	3	4	4	3	3	4	4
13	3	4	5	3	4	4	4	3	4	4
14	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	4	3.5
15	3	3	3	4	4	4	5	4	4	4
Total	16	19	21	18	19	19	19	17	20	19.5

Figure 4.5-14 Changes in Individual Scores for Reading

As far as the point scores for individual questions about reading skills are concerned, two video-users (case 1 and 3) do not show any changes. Case 5 (non-user) has only one small change in her score. Both case 4 (non-user) and 2 (video user) have four changes each in their point scores for reading skills. Case 4 has 1 upwards and 3 downwards changes. On the other hand, case 2 has 3 downwards and 1 upwards changes.

- Scores for Writing

In the case of scores for the writing skills, the range of the changes does not seem to be large (as shown in Figure 4.5-13), although only case 4's (non-user) second total stays the same as the first total. Case 5's (non-user) second total displays a slight downturn (0.5 point). Two video-users' (case 1 and 3) second total scores show one point difference from their first total (upwards for case 3 and downwards for case 1). Case 2 (video-user) reveals the biggest difference between the first and the second total. Her second total has decreased to 12 from 20.

Question no. /case	1 sa1	1 sa2	2 sa1	2 sa2	3 sa1	3 sa2	4 sa1	4 sa2	5 sa1	5 sa2
16	4	4	5	3	4	4	3	3	4	4
17	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4
18	4	4	3	2	3	4	2	2	4	4
19	4	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	4	3.5
20	4	4	5	2	4	4	2	2	4	4
Total	20	19	20	12	18	19	13	13	20	19.5

Figure 4.5-15 Changes in Individual Scores for Writing

As for the point scores for the individual questions about the writing skills as shown in Figure 4.5-15, changes are also observed in most subjects. Only case 4 (non-user) does not show any changes. Three subjects (case 1, 3, and 5) have one change of score each. The change is upward for case 3 (video-user), but downwards for case 1 (video-user) and 5 (non-user). Case 2 (video-user), once again, displays a dramatic change. Her scores for all the 5 questions about the writing skills have all decreased.

The changes in the scores for listening and speaking skills are understandable. However, it was not expected that work on spoken English would affect scores for reading and writing skills. Another interesting finding is that the changes do not always reflect the changes in the language test scores.

4.5.2.2.2 Are there any changes in the scores of the second Bachman & Palmer SA test from the scores of the first test?

The modified version of Bachman & Palmer's self-assessment test was not directly related to the language test used in the study. However, it seems still interesting to see if there would be any changes in the scores between the self-assessment pre- and post-test.

Figure 4.5-16 is the five subjects' pre- and post- self-assessment scores on Bachman and Palmer self-assessment test.

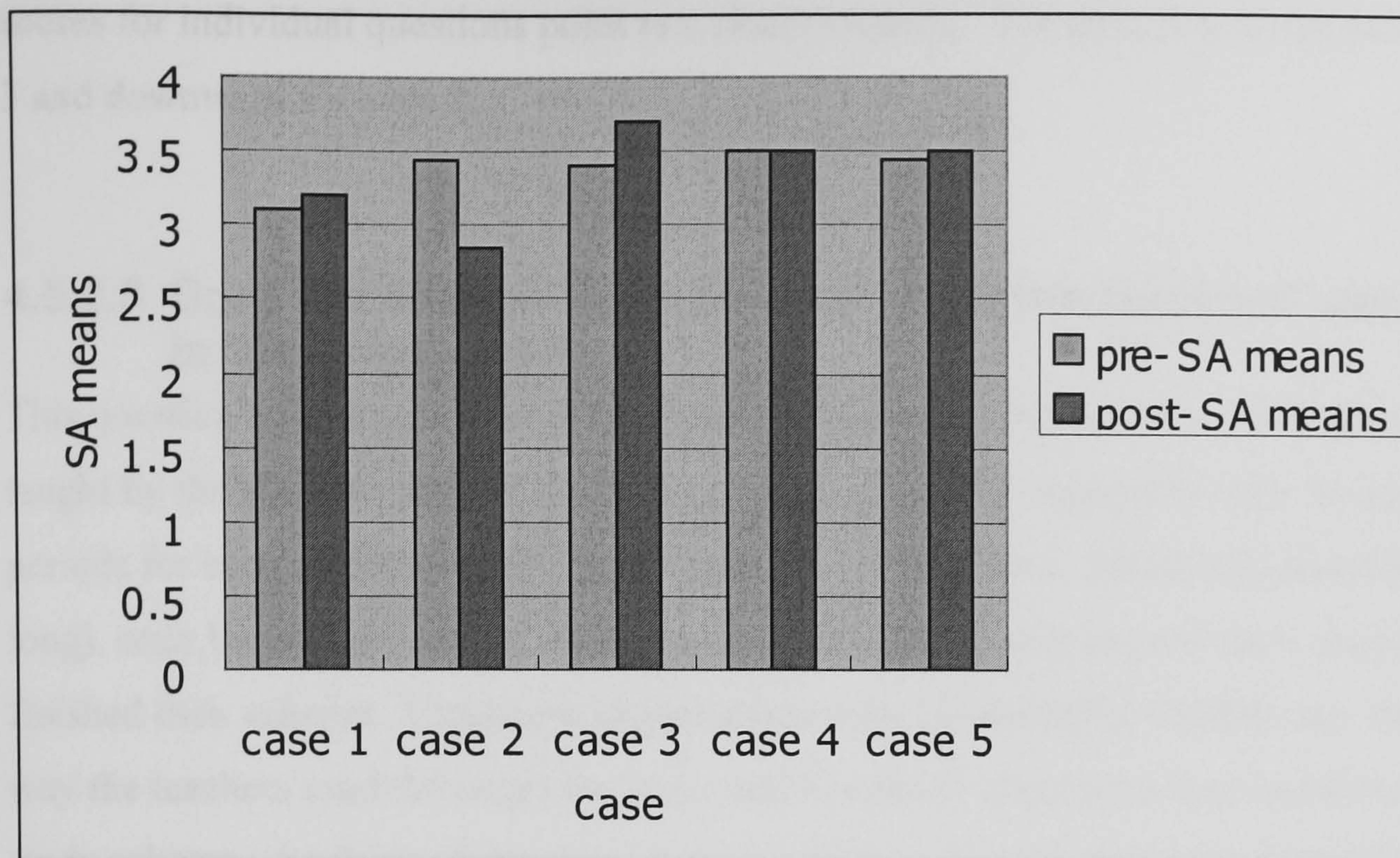


Figure 4.5-16 Pre-/post-SA scores (Bachman & Palmer SA test)

It is evident that the post-scores have changed from the pre-scores. When comparing the changes in the total scores, the smallest changes are found in the two non-video users (case 4 and 5). Both of them have a difference of two points in their total scores. As for the video users, the changes are greater. The post-test scores for case 1 and 3 have gone up. Case 2 shows the most radical change in the total score among 5 subjects. However, her change is in a negative direction (down 27 points).

When comparing the changes in point scores for individual questions, once again, the two non-video users (case 4 and 5) show the smallest changes among the 5 subjects. In the cases of the 3 video-users, the changes are more evident. Case 1's scores show a tendency to go upwards in many instances (seven upwards and four downwards). In case 3 (video-user in class), there are 15 changes found in the point scores for individual questions (14 upwards and one downwards).

The most dramatic change is found in case 2 (video-user). She has 26 changes in the point scores for individual questions. Among 26 changes in the point scores, only 1 has gone upward and the others have gone down in the second self-assessment test. Another distinctive characteristic in case 2 is that a two-point decrease (from 4 to 2) is only found in her case among the 5 case study subjects.

To sum up, two non-users do not show big changes in terms of total scores, and their individual point scores do not show any clear direction either upwards or downwards. Nevertheless, three video-users show very evident changes in their second self-assessment scores. Their total scores indicate there is an evident difference between the two sets of scores and their point

scores for individual questions point to a clear direction. The direction is upward for case 1 and 3 and downward for case 2.

4.5.2.3 Does the change in proficiency affect the teachers' use of English in the classroom?

This question will be answered through the analysis of classroom observation data. Ten classes taught by the five case study subjects were observed by the researcher, two 50-minute class periods for each subject (except for the case 2's 2nd classroom, which was about 40 minutes long), once before they started their respective case study scheme, and once more after they finished their scheme. Classroom observations were conducted to identify any changes in the way the teachers used the target language and Korean in class once they had finished the case study scheme. Analysis of the classroom observation data has therefore focused on teacher talk (refer to 3.6.2). The results of the classroom data analysis will be presented in the following order:

- Difference between the before-treatment and after-treatment class in the amount of English and the ratio of English to Korean the teachers used,
- Difference between the before-treatment and after-treatment class in the amount of and the ratio of Outer language (to Inner) the teachers used,
- Difference between the before-treatment and after-treatment class in the range of functions of the teachers' English displayed.

4.5.2.3.1 Do the teachers use more English in their after-treatment class than in their before-treatment class?

The main point of interest in this classroom observation data is the ratio of the target language use to the use of the mother tongue on the part of the teachers, and the possible changes in the ratios between before-treatment and after-treatment for each subject teacher.

In the first observed class, the teacher in case 1 (video-user) did not speak much English. As shown in Figure 4.5-17 below, more than half of her talk was carried out in Korean. On the other hand, in the teacher's second class, much more use of the target language was found, from 45.65% (or 38.99% when excluding repetitions of the Outer language)(see 4.5.2.3.2 for explanation for case 1's repetition) in the first class to 90% (or 89.06% when excluding repetitions of the Inner language). The amount of and ratio of English (to Korean) used go up from 468 words (45.65%)/356 words (38.99% when excluding repetitions) to 1794 words (90%)/1597 words (89.06% when excluding repetitions). All in all, the number of English words used in the second class has climbed to almost three times (or more than four times when excluding repetitions of the Inner language) as many as in the first class.

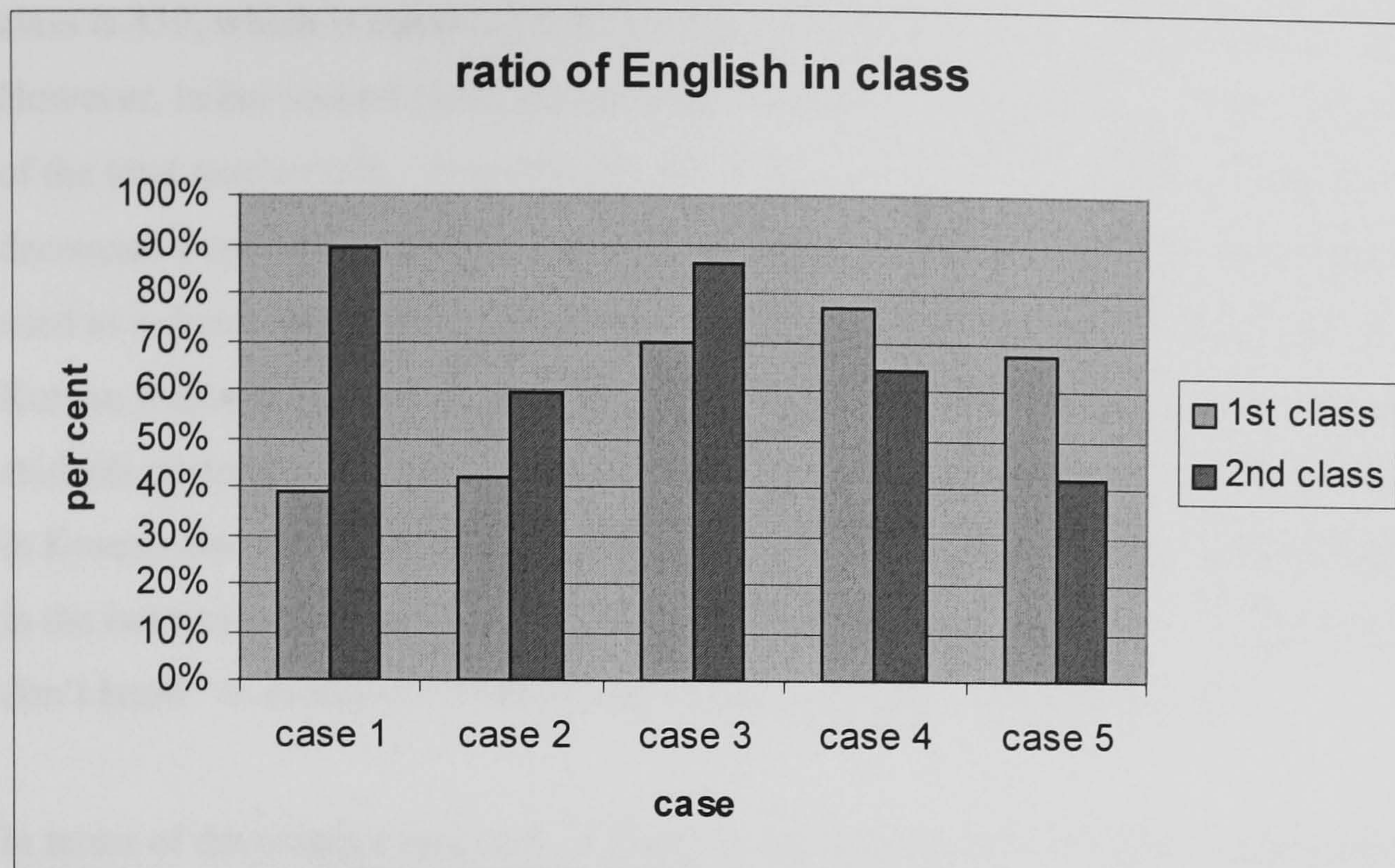


Figure 4.5-17 The proportion of English in class

In the second class, case 1 seems to try to explain target forms in the target language instead of in Korean. Explanations of the target language forms and the activities the students were involved in are conducted mainly in English. As a result, her use of Korean has dramatically decreased from her first class to her second. The actual number of Korean words used is 557 in the first class, which amounts to 54.34% (or 61% when excluding repetitions of the Outer) of total teacher talk and it drops down to 196 in the second, marking 10% (or 10.93% when excluding repetitions of the Inner).

The actual amount of English used by case 2 (video-user) has not changed much between the two classes. The first class contained 644 English words used by the teacher, and 669 English words were used in the second class, showing a slight rise in amount in the second class. However, given the fact that the second class was shorter than the first one, it can be presumed that the teacher might have used more English words if she had been recorded during the full 50-minute session. Therefore, in this case, looking at the ratio of English words to Korean used seems to make more sense. In the first class, the ratio of the English words she used is 41.84% whereas it rises to 59.25% in the second class. In the second class, there are several instances where the teacher took fairly long turns in English, especially at the beginning of the lesson. She began her lesson with a very long review in English (188 words) of what was learned in the previous lesson.

As for case 3 (video-user), a simple comparison of the number of the English words she used in the first class and the second shows that the teacher actually uses almost twice as much English

in her second class as in her first class. The total number of English words she used in her first class is 839, which is equal to 69.85% of the total teacher talk, as Figure 4.5-17 shows.

However, in her second class, the number of words goes up to 1659, which is equal to 86.22% of the total teacher talk. Accordingly, the actual amount of Korean used in the second class has decreased from 362 words (30.14%) to 265 words (13.77%). In addition, Korean seems to be used as a direct translation from the English expressions used just before them. In other words, Korean seems to be used only to support English when she feels the need to make sure that the students understand the meanings she explains in English. It seems that the students' questions in Korean also forces her to use Korean. But still the tendency to go back to English is shown in the examples such as '(Student: "what is 'draught beer' in English?" in Korean), Teacher: ("I don't know" in Korean) I'll check and I'll let you know, Ok? (in English)'

In terms of the number and ratio of English words used, case 4's (non-user) second class shows a slight decline from her first class (from 1634 words/ 77% to 1333 words/ 64.21%), even though the difference between the two is not as big as that of the rest of the teachers.

Case 5 (non-user) seems to try to speak more English herself and to make her students speak more English in her first class, but in her second she seems to try to give the students more opportunities to translate Korean sentences to English and vice versa. In the teacher's first class, which is a conversation course, she also uses many repetitions in her talk. However, in contrast to case 1 or 4 who repeats the same English sentences, case 5 tends to code-switch very often. In other words, instead of repeating the same or similar sentences twice, she translates the sentences or phrases into Korean. There are a lot of examples such as 'why were you so tired? (the same expression in Korean)' or 'invite somebody to do something with you (the same expression in Korean), the person should refuse (the same expression in Korean). You're going to go this way around (the same expression in Korean)'.

Clearly because of the fact that she is teaching a different subject in the second class, many changes are evident when comparing her two classes. Above all, the number of English words, and the ratio of English to Korean words has dropped from 1040 words (67.53%) in the first class to 874 words (42.12%) in the second. On the other hand, the use of Korean has climbed from 500 words (32.46%) in the first class to 1201 words (57.87%) in the second, showing quite the opposite result to that found in the first three cases of the case studies.

Overall, in case 1, 2, and 3's 2nd classes (video-users), it is clear that the three teachers use much more English than they did in their first observed classes, as shown in the number of English words and ratio of English words against Korean words used by them. Also there is clear

evidence that the teachers tried to use and actually used the target language instead of the mother tongue even in explaining the target forms of the language more in their 2nd classes than in their 1st classes.

4.5.2.3.2 Do the teachers use more Outer Language in their After-treatment Class than in their Before-treatment Class?

As explained above, the language classified as Inner will be the target language forms of the lesson whereas the Outer language will be the language used for genuine communication. Outer language will be differentiated from Inner language. In addition, a comparison will be made between before-class and after-class in terms of use of Inner and Outer language.

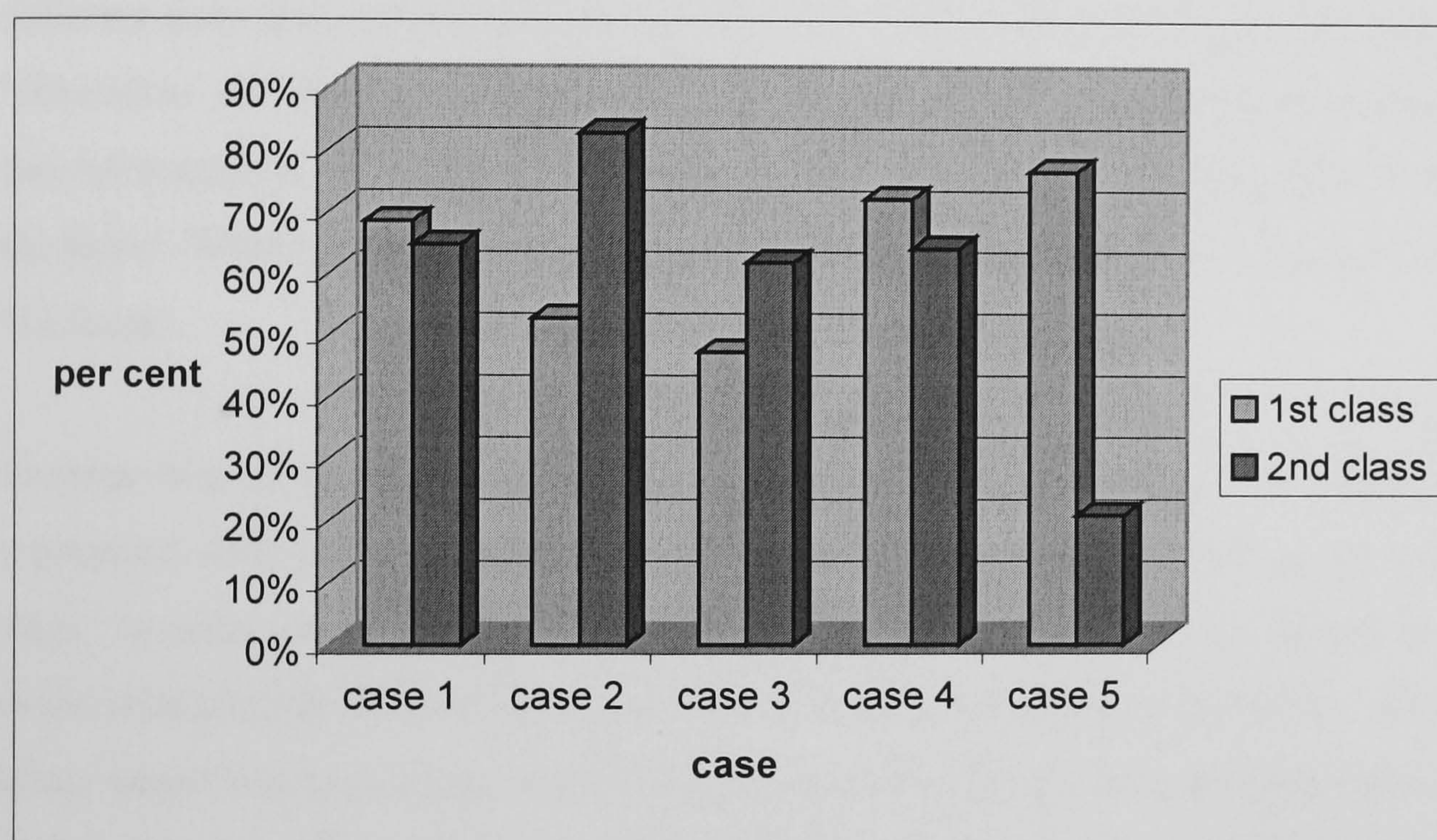


Figure 4.5-18 The ratio of outer language

In case 1's first class (video-user), her Outer language is used more than her Inner language even if there are noticeable repetitions in the Outer language, especially in the form of 'elicitation' and 'directives'. Case 1's 'elicitation' of students' verbal responses and 'directives' of students' non-verbal replies are not always conducted using whole sentences. The most frequently used elicitation was 'and then?' (which was used 12 times), and there are some variations of the form which are also used frequently such as 'then?' (four times), 'and?' (once). The second frequently used elicitation form is conducted at sentence level which is 'what colour is next?' (which was used 11 times). In addition, the most frequently used 'directive' form is not carried out at sentence level, which is simple 'one, two, three' (which was used 12 times). As observed in the amount of the Outer and the Inner language used, and in the ratio of the Outer to the Inner language, the number of instances of Outer language and the ratio of Outer language to Inner language is noticeably smaller in the first class. The actual number of Outer language words used is 244 (68.53 %) whereas the number of Inner language words used is 112 (31.46

%) when excluding the repetitions (there are 112 Outer language words repeated which is 31.46% of the total number of Outer language words). In addition, even in the Inner, she does not give many language models in the target language. The language models she gives to the students in English are mainly at word level instead of sentence level.

In case 1's second class, though the ratio of the Outer language to the Inner does not go up, the actual number of Outer language words used increases from 356 (or 244 when excluding repetitions) to 1033. The ratio of Outer to Inner is 64.68% (1033 words) to 35.31% (564 words) when excluding the repetitions (167 words) of the Inner. One noticeable thing in her second class is that the teacher does not repeat Outer language, at least not as much as to become noticeable. Instead, she repeats mostly Inner language. The pattern of the repetition is also different from that in the first class. In the second class, instead of using the same cue words for 'elicitation' or 'directives' for different turns, the teacher repeats the same sentences without any interruptions. The repetitions used are mainly at sentence level this time, such as 'where are the keys? Where are the keys?', 'the keys are under the briefcase. The keys are under the briefcase'.

Besides, in most cases, the repetitions take place once only right after the original questions or statements unlike many instances of repetitions of the same expressions in the Outer in the first class. In other words, instead of repetitions of the same 'elicitation' or 'directives' in the Outer, in the second class the teacher repeats the target language forms in the Inner. These repetitions of the target language forms in the Inner can be expected to have a positive effect on her beginner level students. In other words, the remarkable repetitions of the Outer language in the first class and of the Inner in the second class can be interpreted as two very different types of repetition. The first type of repetition of the Outer language can be explained as the lack of real language (or communicative language) used by the teacher and the second type of repetition can be ascribed to the teacher's attempts to give consolidated input to the students through repeating the target forms.

As for case 2 (video-user), the comparison of the Inner and Outer division between the two classes shows that there is a big change between the two classes. In the teacher's first class, the percentage of the Outer language she used is 52.79% (340 words), which is slightly higher than the percentage of the Inner language of 47.20% (304 words). However, in her second class, she employs more than 4 times as much Outer language as Inner language, using 82.66% (553 words) of the Outer and 17.33% (116 words) of the Inner language. In her first class, the Inner language used is very repetitive. Some expressions from the textbook such as 'I changed my mind. Let's take the group on the nature tour', 'I know the palace tour is cheaper' are found

repeatedly throughout the whole lesson. In contrast, those kinds of repetitions are rarely found in the second class.

A comparison of the Inner and Outer division between case 3's two classes (video-user) shows that the amount of Outer language used has increased in the second class, as has the ratio of Outer to Inner language. In the first class, the ratio of the Outer to the Inner is 47.31% (397 words) to 52.68% (442 words), with Inner language therefore making up more than half of the total English used. On the other hand, in the second class, the ratio of the Outer to the Inner has changed considerably, with the Outer language making up the majority of the English used. The percentage of the Outer language used is 61.78% (1025 words) and that of the Inner drops to 38.21% (634 words). In the first class, it is noticeable that the teacher uses both English and Korean (not together) in explaining target forms. Nevertheless, in the second class, the teacher seems to use English even for explaining things and she hardly uses Korean for that purpose, as seen in this example, “‘skip classes”, what does that mean? Ok. You miss classes. You don't attend classes. You go somewhere instead of attending class’.

As for case 4 (non-user), there is a slight change between the two classes in terms of the amount of and ratio of the Outer language to the Inner language used. The amount of Outer language used has decreased from 1178 words (72.09%) in the first to 854 words (65.06%) in the second class. However, the change is not as big as that of the rest of the teachers. It is found that she repeats herself almost all the time when she says something to the students using Outer language in both classes. The repetitions tend to be in English. Most of the repetitions are exactly the same as the original, but some second sentences which are slightly different are also often found. These repetitions can be interpreted as her attempts to make sure that her beginner level students understand what is being said.

As for case 5 (non-user), the difference in the Inner and Outer division between the two classes is even bigger. In the teacher's first class, the amount of Outer language, and ratio of the Outer language to Inner language used is very high, which amounts to 797 words (76.63%). As a matter of fact, the ratio of the Outer language used is the highest among all the 5 first classes. Case 5's second class, however, shows a sharp decline in the amount of and ratio of the Outer language used (175 words/ 20.92%). Meanwhile, the amount of Inner language, and ratio of Inner language used to Outer has risen from 243 words (23.36%) to 699 words (79.97%).

All in all, in case 2 and 3's second classes (video-users), the use of Outer language has gone up noticeably in terms of the actual words used and the ratio to Inner language. In case 1 (video-user), the actual number of Outer language words has increased greatly (from 244 words to

1033 words) in the second class, but the ratio of Outer to Inner has not changed much. The main reason for this seems to be the small amount of English she used in her first class. Because she did not use English much in the first class, the ratio of Outer turned out to be much in favour for Outer. On the other hand, the other two teachers under control condition (case 4 and 5) showed the opposite trend. They seem to use more Inner language in their second classes.

4.5.2.3.3 Does the English the teachers use have a wider range of functions in their after-treatment class than in their before-treatment class?

In order to see the variety of English used by the teachers, the range of functions of English the teachers use was checked as explained above. The different functions found in the Outer language used by the teacher were counted and a comparison was made between the use in the before- and after-treatment classes in Figure 4.5-19.

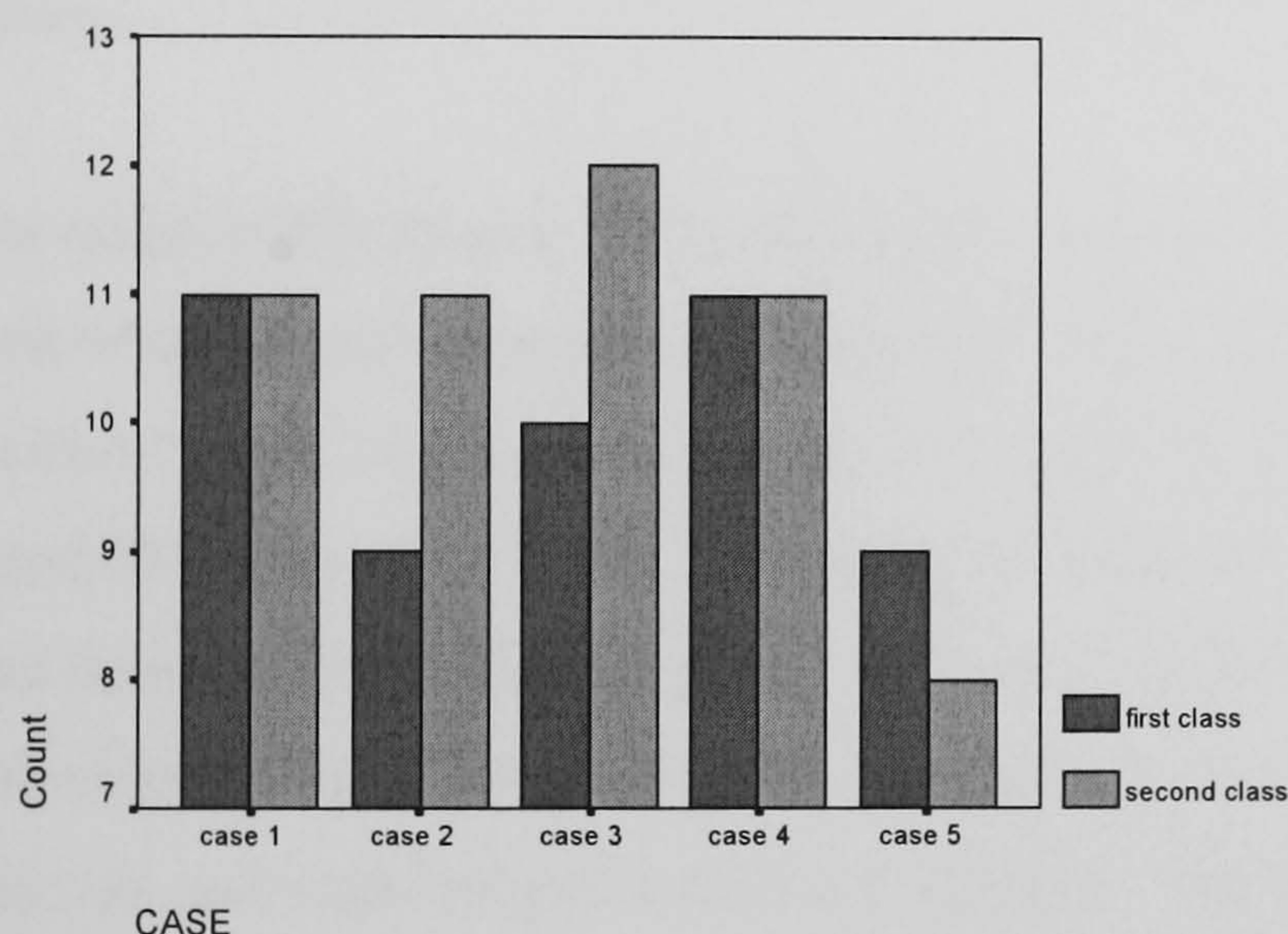


Figure 4.5-19 The range of functions used

As for case 1 (video-user), the range of the functions found in her Outer language is the same between two classes, but in terms of how frequently certain functions were used, there are changes between the two classes. In the first class, the most frequently used function is 'elicitation' (45 times) and 'directives' (24 times) comes second. The other functions are not very commonly observed, at least not in the target language. Examination of the use of the mother tongue actually shows that most of the functions not often observed in the target language are carried out in the mother tongue. On the other hand, in her second class, almost all the functions are observed to be carried out in the target language. 'Informative' is the most frequently used function (79 times) in the second class, 'marker' comes second (51 times), and 'evaluative' and 'directive' third (47 times) and fourth (46 times) respectively. The fact that 'informative' is used so commonly in the second class also shows that the teacher used English in explaining things and giving examples instead of Korean, which she uses for the same

purposes in her first class. She also uses more 'evaluative' in the second class than in her first, which can indicate that she is able to give feedback on the students' performance, no matter how short the feedback is.

The range of the language functions used by case 2 (video-user) in the two classes also show a difference. The most commonly used function in the first class is 'directive' (which is used 18 times) and then 'informative' comes second (used 13 times). The other functions are used less than 10 times each. Because the number of occurrences of Outer language itself is not very big, the range of the Outer language do not seem to show any significant pattern. In the second class, however, 'informative' is the most frequently used function (used 32 times). 'Elicitation' and 'marker' come later (both of them are used 12 times). Then, 'metastatement' and 'nomination' come together (used 11 times). The fact that 'informative' is used most commonly indicates that the teacher tried to use English in explaining the target forms. 'Elicitation', 'marker', 'metastatement', and 'nomination' are used evenly throughout the lesson.

The range and frequency of the language functions used by case 3 (video-user) also show differences in both classes. In the teacher's first class, the most frequently used function is 'marker' (used 24 times). 'Informative' comes second (used 21 times) and 'evaluative' third (used 20 times). Then, come 'check' (used 16 times) and 'directive' (used 14 times). The other functions are not frequently used, as shown in appendix 7. Nonetheless, in her second class, 'informative' (used 54 times) comes in the first place, showing it is the most commonly used function, and right behind it comes 'evaluative' (used 52 times). 'Elicitation' (used 46 times) and 'marker' (used 42 times) also appear to be used very often. In the second class the teacher uses English in explaining things as shown by the frequent use of 'informative'. In addition, she seems to be very active in giving feedback to the students (the 'evaluative' function). Another noteworthy item is that the use of the 'aside' function has risen a great deal from 3 times to 28 times in the second class, which can mean that she tried to use English even for things not directly related to the direction of the lesson. In this second class, she even tells a joke about a student, using 'aside', 'you don't live with your parents...that's why. He doesn't have time to have an argument. Good. Yeah, he doesn't have time to have an argument. Ok, he's a good son'.

As for case 4 (non-user), the range of the functions found in her Outer language in the two classes show a similar pattern. There is a small difference between the two classes, but the difference is not as great as for the video-users. In case 4's first class, 'elicitation' is the most frequently used (75 times) and then comes 'aside' (used 34 times). After that, 'informative' (32

times) and 'directive' (30 times) are also used very often. Similarly, in her second class, 'elicitation' comes first as 64 times. After that, 'aside' and 'directive' come together (both are used 26 times). Then comes 'informative' (19 times). Therefore, the range of the language functions shows a similar pattern in both classes using the four language functions commonly in both classes in spite of the difference in the actual frequency.

As for case 5 (non-user), as a result of all the differences mentioned above, the range of the functions seems to be significantly affected. In case 5's first class, the most frequently used function is 'elicitation' (used 58 times). 'Directive' comes second (used 29 times) and 'aside' third (used 24 times). On the other hand, in her second class 'informative' is used most commonly (23 times), and after that, 'metastatement' and 'reading' 7 times. In the second class where the teacher taught composition, she seems to focus on passing information onto the students (as seen in the frequent use of 'informative') unlike her first class of Conversation where she seems to urge students' participation through 'elicitation' and to use natural language for real communication with the students as shown in the frequent use of 'aside'.

In short, in case 2 and 3 (video-users), the range of functions the teachers' English has increased in their second classes. In case 1 (video-user) and 4 (non-user), the range stayed the same in the second classes. In case 5's second class (non-user), the range has slightly decreased. In terms of frequency of use of the functions used has increased noticeably in case 1, 2, and 3 (video-users). In case 4 and 5 (non-users), a decrease is evident in terms of frequency of use of the functions. In case 4, the decrease is slight while it is noticeable in case 5.

4.6 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the data gathered by the research project, and considered the results in relation to the questions they were intended to provide answers to. The structure of the chapter is to report results from each research tool separately. First of all, the nature of the Korean English teachers' perception of their language proficiency was revealed by means of self-assessment of their proficiency. The teachers' self-assessment of their English was revealed as low. Secondly, results from the first part of the survey questionnaire were presented. The teachers' confidence in using the target language and the proportion of time they spend using English in class were examined. The factors related to self-assessment, confidence, and the proportion of time were also investigated. That the teachers' perception of their proficiency and confidence were low was revealed as a result. Thirdly, results from the second part of the survey questionnaire were presented. The teachers' need to improve their English was investigated in conjunction with the methods of achieving the aim. Most of the teachers turned

out to feel the need and have tried a lot of methods to improve their English proficiency. Video was investigated as a method, and many respondents were in favour of its use and sure of its effectiveness. Finally, results from case studies were presented. The relationship between the teachers' perception of their spoken language proficiency and other measures of their spoken proficiency was explored. The tendency to over-estimate their listening ability was evident, but self-assessment of speaking was more reliable. The effect of video was also explored in the case studies. The video-users showed a much bigger improvement both in listening and speaking than non-users of video. In addition, video-users turned out to use more English, more Outer language, and wider range of functions in English in their after-treatment classes whereas non-users did not show any meaningful improvements in their after-treatment classes.

Further discussions about the results will be found in the next chapter.

5 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the results of the study with some discussion where appropriate. In this chapter important findings will be summarised, and discussed in more depth, and an attempt will be made to interpret the findings. It will also be shown if the four research hypotheses were confirmed or rejected, along with discussion of the results. This chapter comprises (1) discussion of the nature of Korean English teachers' perception of their language proficiency as non-native speakers of English; (2) discussion of the relationship between Korean teachers' perceived spoken language and other measures of that proficiency; (3) discussion of the need for and ways of boosting teachers' proficiency in the target language; (4) discussion of the effect of using video on the teachers' linguistic proficiency; (5) summary.

5.2 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION: *What is the Nature of Korean Teachers' Own Perception of their Proficiency as Non-native Speakers of English?*

5.2.1 What is the Korean English Teachers' Assessment of their own Language Proficiency?

In the self-assessment tests, 37.2 % of the teachers scored between 3.0 and 3.49 on a 5-point scale, signifying that they feel that their proficiency is average (point 3) or a little higher than average. 15.4 % of the teachers believed that their proficiency was getting toward the average by choosing scores between 2.5 and 2.99, and 5.1% of the teachers revealed that their perceived proficiency was poor or not much better than poor by giving themselves marks between 2.0 (standing for "poor") and 2.49. Therefore, it can be said that as many as 88.5 % of the teachers, who scored between 2.0 and 3.99, assess their English as not high: it is below average, around average, slightly higher than that, or getting toward high, but not high yet. In other words, the teachers' self-assessment of their proficiency is not high in the language they are teaching. The proportion of teachers, who think their proficiency does not even reach average, is as many as 20.5 %.

The results are very surprising because common sense tells us that English teachers should be good at English. There are doubts about teachers' spoken language proficiency as indicated in 1.2.1, but teachers' linguistic proficiency in general was expected to be 'high' although not 'very high'.

These results can be interpreted in different ways. First of all, they could be related to the teachers' poor spoken proficiency. Since most teachers perceive their spoken proficiency as not good (speaking was the most frequently mentioned area of difficulty in using English by the teachers, see 4.3.4), this could have affected their self-assessment of their general proficiency. In other words, because they feel that they are not good at spoken communication in English, they tend to think they are poor in the language irrespective of their knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, and good reading skills, which most of them teach and were tested for to become a qualified teacher.

Another way of interpreting the result is to simply accept the teachers' self-assessment as the truth. Most of the teachers might not be good at the language they are teaching.

A third way of looking at the result is to link it up with the teachers' teaching situation where English is only a foreign language. A lot of teachers argue that their English is decaying because of non-use or limited use. Because teachers interact mainly with their students, whose proficiency levels are understandably lower than the teachers, they feel there is no stimulus to make them try to improve their English. Instead, they feel it is deteriorating. One of the teachers pointed this out, saying:

Sometimes I think my English is decreasing because I don't have much opportunity to use it. If you go abroad and talk with foreign people, you feel you can speak faster and the expressions you use can be even more various because you are surrounded by English speaking people. If you are in Korea, however, you feel you don't really use English that often and your English might decrease as a result of non-use.

In other words, because the teachers feel their English is deteriorating they might think that their proficiency is not high.

Another interpretation might be that the teachers' English is better than they think it is, because they are applying the criteria for their self-assessment differently from the way they were intended.

These results reveal an image the teachers have of themselves: not very proficient teachers in the language they are teaching. The results also show that the teachers perceive that there is a lot of room for improvement for their language proficiency.

5.2.2 How Confident are the Teachers in Using English?

In line with the results above, more than half (55.1%) of the teachers admitted that they were not very confident of their own English proficiency, with 10 teachers who are 'hardly confident' (12.8%) and 33 teachers who are 'a little confident' (42.3%). On the other hand, the number of

teachers who are 'very confident' of their English proficiency is only two (2.6%). Another 33 teachers (42.3%) showed a reasonable degree of confidence in their English by answering that they are 'confident' in it.

When directly asked about how they felt about their proficiency in interviews, the subjects in the case studies gave diverse answers, but one thing they had in common was that they were not confident of their own proficiency. One teacher said that she was good at reading and listening, but not good at speaking. And another teacher said she was good at speaking, but not at listening. Two other teachers pointed out the same problem when they said they could communicate with people in English without much difficulty, but they were not sure if the expressions they used were native-like expressions. One of them said:

I am asked from students a lot of questions such as 'how can I say this in English?' Many of the questions come from the students' Korean way of thinking, that is, for many of the questions you cannot come up with the English expressions the students want because those do not exist in English, at least no cut-out expressions for those. However, sometimes I find myself wondering if there are more appropriate English expressions for those, and I do not feel that I know many English expressions. As a result, I am not that confident in my own linguistic proficiency. However, I still feel there are a lot of things that I can teach to the students even though I have to constantly put efforts into improving my linguistic proficiency.

The other one said:

I didn't have much confidence until I studied in Hawaii for two years, but after that I had the opportunity to live only with English native speakers for 8 months. It was a kind of training programme for Christians and I had to live in a flat with a group of Americans, which boosted my confidence in English a lot. Now I think I can express myself and talk about what I want to, but somehow I feel that those might not be the best expressions. Even though I am not as good in listening as English native speakers, I don't have problems with communicating with them. I can always ask them to repeat. Lately, however, I feel I have the limitation of my English proficiency, when I can't find best expressions for the situations and make mistakes.

Most of the respondents seem to have doubts about their own English proficiency, especially in their spoken proficiency, as seen in the interviews. This seems to be in agreement with the teachers' low self-assessment of their linguistic proficiency. The current findings corroborate previous research findings on non-native teachers' language related difficulties and low self-confidence (see 2.5.12), and moreover the investigation of teachers' self-assessment of linguistic proficiency provides systematic evidence to support subjective impressions among the teachers, and claims reported in the literature (De Almeida Mattos 1997; Kamhi-Stein 2000; Maum 2002; Pessoa & Sacchi 2002; Tang 1997; Zhou 1999). Section 5.2.4 will investigate what could be related to this low self-assessment and confidence in using the language.

5.2.3 What Proportion of Time in Class do the Teachers Spend Using English?

70.8 % of the respondents used English for 50% or less of the time in class. On the other hand, only 29.2 % of the respondents used English for more than half of the time in class with only 6.2% of the teachers instructing an English-only class.

The proportion of time in class the teachers spend using English turns out to be very low with most of the teachers. As many as 10.8 % of the respondents do not use English at all for communication in class, and 70.8 % of the teachers use English for 50 % of the time in class or less than that. The reasons why the teachers do not use English much in class are many and varied, as shown in 4.3.2. Among those reasons, it is noteworthy that 15.7 % of the respondents blamed teachers' low level of speaking proficiency for not using English widely in class and that another 11.8 % of teachers identified teachers' lack of confidence in their own proficiency, especially in speaking.

Therefore, using English in class seems to be closely related to the teachers' proficiency and confidence. Because the subjects in the study are teachers, their proficiency is bound to affect their teaching and their students. One of the areas affected greatly by the teachers' proficiency and confidence seems to be the teachers' use of the target language in class.

The results clearly show that even after *the 6th and 7th National Curriculum* innovations (refer to 1.2.1) the proportion of time teachers spend using English in class (in particular secondary school teachers, none of whom spend using English more than half of the time in class) is still very low. This demonstrates that the government initiative to encourage using English only as a medium of instruction in secondary schools does not look as if it is succeeding, considering that the data collection for the study was conducted long after the introduction of the innovations.

5.2.4 What has Influenced the Teachers' Perception of their Proficiency, Confidence in Using English, and/or the Proportion of Time they Use English in Class?

5.2.4.1 The relationships among the teachers' perception of their proficiency, confidence, and the proportion of time they spend using English in class

To investigate what has influenced the teachers' self-assessment scores, confidence in English, and the proportion of time they spend using English in class, 13 different variables were tested. The 13 variables are age, gender, amount of teaching experience, experience of staying in English speaking countries, level of institution they teach in, possession of degree in ELT, level of students they teach, number of students in class, number of teaching hours, teacher training, the emphasis placed

upon language improvement during teacher training, number of NS colleagues, frequency with which they use English outside the classroom.

Before investigating the statistical associations of the teachers' self-assessment scores, confidence, and the proportion of time of the teachers spend using English in class with 13 variables, the relationships between the three were explored. First of all, the results of ANOVA show that there are differences in self-assessment scores among the groups with different levels of confidence. In addition, a modest correlation is found between the self-assessment scores and the degree of confidence. Therefore, it can be concluded that teachers with higher self-assessment scores are more likely to be the ones with higher confidence and vice versa.

Then the relationship between the teachers' self-assessment scores and the proportion of time the teachers spend using English was tested. ANOVA was administered to identify if there were any statistically significant differences among the groups. The differences are identified between the group of teachers who use no English at all in class and the group who uses English only. The latter group also differs from the group who uses English for between 1 % and 25 % of the time in class. The results of correlation tests reveal a positive, but not very high (low or modest) correlation of 0.338 or 0.442 between the teachers' self-assessment scores and the proportion of time. From these results, it can be inferred that the teachers of English who perceive themselves as more proficient tend to use more English in class.

Finally, the statistical associations between the proportion of time in class the teachers spend using English and their confidence were examined by correlation tests in conjunction with cross-tabulation. The correlation tests report a modest correlation between the proportion of time teachers spend using English in class and their confidence level. This can be interpreted in two ways. Either the more confident the teachers are, the more English they use in class, or the more they use English in class, the more confident they become.

Therefore, statistical associations were found among the teachers' self-assessment scores, their confidence in using English, and the proportion of time they spend using English in class. In other words, there is a modest correlation found between any two of the three. Therefore, it seems that teachers who perceive themselves as proficient tend to be more confident about using English and use more English in class, or that the teachers who use English more in class tend to perceive themselves as more proficient and be confident about using English. These results corroborate previous research findings that teachers' language proficiency is closely related to their confidence (see 2.2.2.3). The study further suggests that teachers' linguistic proficiency and confidence are also related to the proportion of time they spend using English in class.

5.2.4.2 Relationships among the teachers' perception of their proficiency represented by the self-assessment scores and 13 variables

To sum up, the subjects' self-assessment scores were investigated in relation to the above 13 variables. Among the 13 variables, 10 variables turned out to correlate with self-assessment scores. The 10 variables were age, amount of teaching experience, experience of staying in English speaking countries, level of institution, possession of a degree in ELT, students' level, average number of students in class, teacher training, frequency with which they talk to NS colleagues, and frequency with which they use English outside the classroom in five situations. In most cases, the correlation of self-assessment scores with these variables tended to be low or modest. Among them, three variables, age, amount of teaching experience and average number of students in class had a negative correlation with the self-assessment scores. On the other hand, the variables that did not correlate with the subjects' self-assessment scores were gender, average teaching hours a week, and the emphasis placed upon language improvement in teacher training courses they have taken.

Gender does not have any statistically significant associations with teachers' perceived language proficiency. Therefore, as mentioned earlier, the widespread belief that women are better at language learning is not supported by the results of the study. Or at least the female teachers do not perceive their proficiency as higher than male teachers. The average number of teaching hours a week does not seem to make any difference in teachers' self-assessment scores, either. Long teaching hours may be just a workload issue, nothing more than that. How much emphasis was placed upon the language improvement factor during their teacher training courses also turns out not to be connected to the teachers' perceived language proficiency. However, this result needs to be accepted with reservations, and will be discussed in more detail later.

Age shows a low negative correlation with the teachers' self-assessment scores. The results of ANOVA also identify a significant difference in self-assessment scores between those teachers aged 25–30 and those aged 36–40. The older group of teachers aged 36 – 40 shows a tendency to have lower self-assessment scores than their younger counterparts. In fact, in Korea, younger teachers are generally believed to be more proficient in English than older teachers for several reasons. First of all, it is related to the environment they found themselves in as learners. Older teachers are more likely to have been taught English using more traditional methods whereas younger teachers are more likely to have been taught in a less traditional and a more communicative way. Secondly, it is related to whether or not they had the opportunity to visit

English speaking countries. Until 1989 foreign travel was subject to a lot of restrictions, so few people were able to go to and stay in English speaking countries. After 1989, however, it was easier to travel abroad and many more people took the opportunity to do so. Young people especially travelled to English speaking countries and some of them stayed for an extended period of time to learn the language. Younger teachers are therefore more likely to have had this kind of opportunity.

The amount of teaching experience the teachers have is likely to be linked with age. Naturally, in most cases, older teachers tend to have more teaching experience and younger teachers less. Therefore, the fact that the amount of teaching experience has a negative correlation with the subjects' perceived proficiency could be explained in connection with age. In other words, younger teachers with less teaching experience tend to believe themselves to be more proficient than older teachers with more teaching experience. Nevertheless, some teachers who lived in English speaking countries for an extended period tend to have less teaching experience than might be expected for their age. That could in part explain why the two variables, age and amount of teaching experience have different correlation values with self-assessment scores.

Length of stay in English speaking countries shows a modest correlation with the teachers' self-assessment scores. Therefore, it can be concluded that the longer the teachers stayed in any English speaking countries, the more proficient they tend to perceive themselves to be. This is not surprising at all. People in general believe that the best way to learn a foreign language is to go to and stay in the country where the language is spoken. In addition, some research findings support this widely accepted notion of the effect of staying in the country where the language is spoken. After investigating Russian learners who stayed in Russia for a year, Davie (1996) argues that 'the year abroad...resulted in greater proficiency in terms of the perceived linguistic performance of the students. Indeed, all 14 respondents felt that their overall knowledge of Russian had improved as a result of living and studying in Russia, and the reasons given mainly referred to the skills used in conversation' (74). He also reports that students answered that the most improved skills were those 'required for conversation: listening was the most developed skill, as all students mentioned this, and speaking was mentioned 13 out of a possible 14 times' (Ibid.).

Meara (1994) also maintains when reporting on the effect of foreign language students' year abroad that 'a great deal of their linguistic development actually takes place during these extended stays abroad' (37). In the study, the most significant improvement was found in the area of spoken language 'with the majority of respondents clearly holding the view that their ability to speak the foreign language and their passive listening skills had improved a lot' (Ibid.:

35). Also Meara (1994) reports that respondents were very confident that their cultural understanding had improved. Weidmann Koop (1995) also reports that the French teachers in her summer programme who stayed in France definitely improved their language skills, updated their knowledge of contemporary French society and Normandy, and upgraded their teaching.

In addition, in Korea going to and staying in English speaking countries for an extended period is considered to be one of the best ways of learning English and a lot of people, regardless of their profession, try this. In fact, some parents have even sent their children to the schools in English speaking countries in the hope that these children could pick up English and become good speakers of the language. Women's magazines and education sections of newspapers are full of these kinds of articles: how to do it, and success and failure stories, etc. (Newspapers such as *Chosun Ilbo* 29/10/2001; *The Korea Herald* 24/3/2001; 9/5/2001; 30/11/2001).

The Level of institution at which the subjects are teaching also shows a modest correlation with self-assessment scores. As shown in the results of the t-test, the two groups of teachers differ significantly in their perceived proficiency. University level teachers turn out to perceive themselves as much more proficient than secondary school level teachers. This could be explained in connection with the teachers' qualifications and their stays in English speaking countries. Secondary school teachers are supposed to have a teaching certificate, which they could obtain after completing 4-year studies in university, whereas most university level English teachers have a degree from an English speaking country, which means that they had to stay in the country at least during the period of the degree programme. Therefore, it seems reasonable to expect that university level teachers, who most likely had the chance to stay in an English speaking country, will have higher self-assessment scores than secondary school level teachers.

Possession of a degree from an English speaking country is thus related to the teachers' self-assessment scores. The results of ANOVA show that teachers with no degree from English speaking countries differ significantly from teachers with a degree awarded in an English speaking country in terms of their self-assessment scores. These results could be explained in association with an extended stay in English speaking countries. As pointed out above, people with English degrees are people who have stayed in English speaking countries for an extended period. Therefore, it is not surprising at all to find that the people who have degrees from English speaking countries have significantly higher self-assessment scores than people without them, most of whom might not have stayed in any English speaking countries for a substantial length of time. However, teachers with an ELT degree are not significantly different from teachers with other degrees awarded in English speaking countries in terms of self-assessment scores. Indeed, teachers with other degrees have a slightly higher mean score, even if it is not

statistically significant. This could also be related to the length of stay in English speaking countries. In most of the cases, the teachers with an ELT degree did not stay longer than 2 years in an English speaking country. However, the 11 teachers with other degrees have stayed much longer (more than 2 years) in English speaking countries. This seems to indicate that staying in an English speaking country itself is a more important factor in perceived proficiency than the degree they pursued.

Although a t-test does not show any difference in self-assessment scores between those who have attended teacher training and those who have not, teacher training turns out to correlate with self-assessment scores. The correlation value is low for both groups of teachers, university level and secondary school level. For university level teachers, participants' self-assessment scores tend to be higher than non-participants while it is the opposite for secondary school level teachers. How much emphasis was placed on language improvement during the teacher training courses the teachers have attended does not show any correlation with their self-assessment scores. Both results however need to be accepted with caution, because many university level teachers have not participated in teacher training, and the quality of teacher training the respondents received were not investigated.

The average number of students in class correlates negatively with the teachers' self-assessment scores. The correlation value is low but significant. Nonetheless, it does not seem to be small class size that directly affected teachers' perceived proficiency. Rather, it can be explained in connection with the level of institution and the subjects the teachers are teaching, because, in university, the class size tends to be smaller than in secondary schools. Therefore, teachers teaching smaller classes are more likely to be university level teachers, who perceive themselves as more proficient than secondary level teachers.

However, some university level teachers are teaching big classes. In particular, teachers at language schools tend to be teaching big classes and yet their perceived proficiency is not low. Therefore, this might be explained in conjunction with the subject the teachers are teaching. Teachers teaching big classes tend to be teaching a grammar or reading class rather than conversation. The teachers who teach these subjects do not necessarily need to use English in class, which might be the reason for the negative correlation of class size with the amount of English they use in class. Because they do not use much English in class, they might think that their English is deteriorating due to non-use instead of being maintained or improving. In short, teachers teaching a big class are likely to speak less English in class and are more likely to feel that their English is deteriorating, which might have affected their perceived proficiency.

Students' level of proficiency has a low correlation with the teachers' self-assessment scores. Teachers teaching elementary/pre-intermediate levels especially differ significantly from intermediate or mixed level teachers in terms of their self-assessment scores according to the results of ANOVA. However the two level teachers, elementary and pre-intermediate do not show differences between themselves. This means that teachers teaching higher levels are likely to perceive themselves as more proficient. This can be interpreted as meaning that because they were given higher level classes, their perceptions of their proficiency in English changed accordingly. Or it can be interpreted in relation to the level of institution the subjects are teaching in. Apparently since university level teachers are teaching higher levels of students than secondary school teachers, it seems natural that these teachers teaching higher levels perceive themselves to be more proficient.

The frequency with which the teachers talk to NS correlates with the teachers' perceived proficiency. The correlation value is low or modest. The results of ANOVA indicate that among 5 groups of different frequency with which they talk to NS, two groups show significant differences in terms of the self-assessment scores. The two groups are teachers who 'rarely' talked to native speakers and teachers who 'very often' talked to native speakers. Interestingly, teachers who 'never' talked to NS have higher self-assessment scores than the teachers who 'rarely' talked to NS. This could be interpreted as meaning that talking to NS functions as a means for them to judge their English. Presumably some teachers, who never talk to NS, never test themselves in real situations, so probably they do not know their own level of proficiency. On the other hand, teachers who do talk to NS, even if only rarely, do test themselves and realise how poor their language skills are. Nevertheless, in general, teachers who frequently talked to NS are more likely to perceive themselves as more proficient, as the correlation indicates. This was pointed out earlier in 4.3.3.15. Because they perceive themselves as proficient, they may talk to NS more frequently or they may perceive themselves as more proficient as they talk to NS more frequently, and as a result perhaps they become more proficient.

In addition, the statistical relationship between the number of NS colleagues at school/university and frequency with which they talk to native speakers turns out to be correlated. This seems to show that having NS colleagues at school/university guarantees, to a certain degree, the teachers' opportunity to talk to native speakers. In other words, if the teachers have no or few native speaker colleagues, the teachers' chance to talk to any native speakers is very limited. This in turn suggests that the opportunity to contact native speakers is very limited in Korea and that the main opportunity to talk to NS occurs in school.

The frequency with which the teachers use English outside the classroom in five situations correlates with the teachers' perceived proficiency. Teachers who use English often by contacting foreigners, reading professional literature, listening to the radio, writing letters/ emails, or watching TV tend to perceive themselves as more proficient. In other words, the teachers using English often in those five situations tend to have higher self-assessment scores. These results do not reveal which comes first; whether using English in those situations was effective in language improvement or whether teachers with higher self-assessment scores are more likely to use English in those situations. The results however show a pattern of situations where the teachers who perceive themselves as more proficient use English.

5.2.4.3 Relationships among teachers' confidence in using English and 13 variables

The teachers' confidence in using English was tested against 13 variables. Among those 13 variables, the teachers' confidence correlated with age, amount of teaching experience, length of stay in English speaking countries, level of institution, degree in ELT, frequency with which the teachers talk to NS colleagues, and frequency with which they use English outside classroom in four cases. In most cases, the correlation of confidence with the variables was low or modest. Among the aforementioned variables, age and amount of teaching experience correlated negatively with the teachers' confidence. On the other hand, six variables did not correlate with the teachers' confidence. Gender, students' level, average number of students in class, average teaching hours a week, teacher training, and the emphasis placed upon the language improvement factor during teacher training failed to show any statistically significant correlation with the teachers' confidence.

Gender is one of the variables which do not correlate with the teachers' confidence in using English. Therefore, it is evident that being a woman or a man does not make the person more or less confident in using English.

The average number of teaching hours a week does not show any significant relationship with the teachers' confidence. It was hoped that because teachers tended to repeat the same lesson with different students several times, they might become more confident after the first few classes (see 2.5.3.3 for more). In other words, because the teachers teach the same contents over and over again, the first few lessons might serve as practice and it would become easier in the later lessons, which might help boost the teachers' confidence in using English. However, this does not seem to be the way teachers regard their teaching hours. Long teaching hours seem to be regarded as part of a heavy workload.

Although students' level correlates with the teachers' perceived proficiency, it does not correlate with the teachers' confidence in using English. From the results, it seems evident that teachers who perceive themselves as proficient are not necessarily confident teachers.

Therefore, teachers teaching higher levels might perceive themselves as more proficient, but they are not always more confident teachers of English.

In contrast to its correlation with the teachers' perceived proficiency, the average number of students in class does not correlate with the teachers' confidence. Therefore, class sizes have nothing to do with the teachers' confidence, which is surprising because it was expected that small class size might help to boost the teachers' confidence in using English. In other words, the teachers do not run as big a risk of losing face with a small number of students as with a large number of students so it could help boost the teachers' confidence in using English.

Neither teacher training nor the emphasis placed upon language improvement in the teacher training courses the teachers attended correlates with their confidence in using English. This could mean that teacher training to a degree succeeds in boosting the participants' perceived proficiency but not in boosting their confidence in using English. The results should be accepted with caution, however, as the teacher training participants in the current study did not always attend the same kind of teacher training; there are some problems of standardisation. In addition, the number of participants in teacher training is not great at the university level.

In line with its significant relationship with the teachers' perceived proficiency, age shows a low or modest negative correlation with the teachers' confidence in using English. These results seem to show that younger groups of teachers tend to have more confidence in using English along with their perceived proficiency.

In line with age, the amount of teaching experience also shows a low negative correlation with the subjects' confidence. This result can be linked with age. Age and amount of teaching experience turn out to be negatively correlated with the subjects' confidence, and in most cases older teachers have more teaching experience. Older groups of teachers with more teaching experience show the tendency to be less confident in using English.

Length of stay in English speaking countries has a modest correlation with the subjects' confidence. The correlation value is a little lower than that for the self-assessment scores. These results could mean that an extended length of stay in an English speaking country was

able to boost the subjects' perceived proficiency and their confidence in using the language, but that the subjects' perceived proficiency could be affected more than their confidence.

Level of institution also shows a modest correlation with the subjects' confidence. Therefore, the university level teachers who perceived themselves as more proficient seem to be more confident in using English than secondary school level teachers.

Degrees in English speaking countries show a modest correlation with the teachers' confidence. In conjunction with higher self-assessment scores for the teachers with a degree from an English speaking country, these results indicate that teachers with a degree awarded in any English speaking country tend to be more confident than teachers with no degree from an English speaking country. The distinction between an ELT degree and other degrees fails to show any noticeable differences in terms of teachers' confidence as was also the case with teachers' perceived proficiency.

The frequency with which the teachers talk to native speakers has a low or modest correlation with their confidence. As pointed out earlier, these results show that there are statistically significant associations between the two, but do not indicate which one affected the other. In other words, it can be said that more confident teachers are more likely to talk to native speakers more often, but the results fail to indicate whether confident teachers talk to native speakers more frequently or whether high frequency of talking to native speakers helps the teachers to become more confident.

The frequency with which the teachers use English outside the classroom in four situations correlates with the teachers' confidence. The pattern is similar to the cases with self-assessment. The teachers' confidence correlates with using English in order to contact foreigners, read professional literature, and write letters/emails, or watch TV, but not with using it in order to listen to the radio. Therefore, it can be said that the four situations where they use English reveal a pattern whereby teachers perceive themselves as more proficient and are confident in using English, although it does not indicate whether or how those situations help boost their perceived proficiency or confidence in using English.

5.2.4.4 Relationships among the proportion of time in class the teachers spend using English and 8 variables

The proportion of time the subjects spend using English in class was tested against eight variables. Among them, it correlated with level of institution, possession of a degree in ELT,

average number of students in class, and frequency with which they talk to NS colleagues. In most cases, the correlation was modest. The average number of students in class however had a negative correlation with the proportion of time in class the teachers spend using English. On the other hand, the proportion of time in class the teachers spend using English did not correlate with four variables. Students' level, average teaching hours a week, teacher training, and the emphasis placed upon language improvement in teacher training courses the teachers have received, did not indicate any statistically significant correlation with the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class.

Students' level is one of the four variables which do not correlate with the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class. This is interesting because 54.9 % of the subjects, when they were asked the reasons for not using English most of the time in class, attributed this to the students' low level of proficiency. In contrast, only 15.7 % of the respondents blamed the teachers' low level of speaking proficiency, and 11.8 % blamed the teachers' lack of confidence in speaking. Nevertheless, the results tell a different story, as shown earlier. In other words, teachers' self-assessment scores and confidence in using English correlate with the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class. Therefore, the results seem to indicate that the teachers' low level of speaking proficiency should take more of the blame for the small proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class than the students' low level of understanding, in spite of the teachers' answers to the contrary.

The average number of teaching hours a week does not correlate with the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class, either. It was hoped that because the teachers teach the same contents over and over again, it might function as speaking practice and make it easier for them to speak in English, as in the relationship between average teaching hours and confidence. However, it does not seem to work that way. As pointed out earlier, long teaching hours seem to be regarded as just workload.

Neither teacher training nor the importance placed upon language improvement in teacher training courses correlates with the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class. Initially both variables were expected to affect the proportion of time teacher training participants spend using English although it might not greatly improve the quality of their output. However, these results need to be accepted with reservation as pointed out earlier.

In contrast to four variables which fail to show any significant associations with the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class, there are four variables which turn out to correlate with it. One of them is the average number of students in class, which has a low or modest negative

correlation with the proportion of time. Class sizes seem to affect teachers' use of English as pointed out by some of the respondents, who attributed the low usage of English to the big class size. It seems that the teachers use more English when they teach a small class. However it could be interpreted in relation to the subject they are teaching. Small classes are more likely to be conversation classes than grammar or reading classes, so teachers need to use more English themselves to encourage students to speak more English.

Level of institution shows a modest correlation with the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class. The results of the t-test clearly show that university level teachers differ significantly from secondary school level teachers in the proportion of time they spend using English in class. They evidently use much more English than secondary school level teachers. This could be interpreted in several ways. First of all, in university, the students' level of proficiency is expected to be higher than that of secondary school students. In secondary schools, the focus of the lessons is on written exams whereas in university it is more on various aspects of English use including spoken communication. Some university teachers indicated that an English-only class was their departmental policy. In addition, as seen in the results, university teachers' self-assessment scores and confidence in using English are higher than secondary school teachers, which could have led them to use more English.

The possession of a degree from English speaking countries has a modest correlation with the proportion of time the subjects spend using English in class. As indicated by the results of ANOVA, teachers with no degree awarded in English speaking countries show a significant difference in the proportion of time in class they spend using English from those teachers with a degree awarded in English speaking countries, who use English for a higher proportion of time. The teachers with an ELT degree however do not differ from the teachers with other degrees in the proportion of time. In other words, a degree in ELT does not seem to lead to the teachers using more English than teachers with other degrees. Therefore, it can be concluded from the results that perceived proficiency or confidence seems to lead to the teachers speaking more English rather than the subject of their degree or what they learned in the degree programme.

The frequency with which the teachers talk to native speakers shows a modest or high correlation with the proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class. Therefore, it can be said that teachers who talk to native speakers more often seem to spend more time using English in class. Talking to NS very often can be interpreted as an indication of teachers' proficiency or confidence in using English.

5.2.4.5 Concluding comments

Teachers' perceived proficiency is revealed as somewhat different from the teachers' confidence in using English, as seen in the results above. Confidence in using English is likely to involve perceived competence in English and the lack of anxiety of using it (Clement 1986). Therefore, teachers might need to improve the spontaneity of using English to boost their confidence. Proficiency (perceived/ actual) seems to need to be boosted first before confidence can be established, because it is a prerequisite for language teachers' confidence as explained in 2.2.2.3 and in 2.2.2.4. The proportion of time they spend using English in class seems to be strongly affected by the two.

5.2.5 What Do the Teachers Think Their Main Difficulties are in Using English?

The most frequently mentioned area of difficulty in using English is speaking, which was identified by more than half of the teachers (52.1 %). The second most frequently mentioned area of difficulty in using English is appropriate use of vocabulary (49.3 %). 47.9 % of the teachers found using appropriate idiomatic expressions difficult. Then, writing was mentioned as another difficult area (37 %). 35.6 % of the teachers indicated that they found listening difficult. Pronunciation was found to be difficult by 32.9 % of the teachers. The least difficult areas in using English are reading and grammar, identified by only 5.5 % of the teachers each.

When asked about which skill areas they wanted to improve in an interview, most subjects nominated listening and speaking skills. To the question one of the teachers answered 'naturally, speaking and listening skills', which strongly hinted that the need to improve those areas is widely accepted. She used the word 'naturally' as if it were a matter of fact. Three other teachers expressed the need to improve their listening skills while admitting that they were not very strong in these areas. One of them said, 'especially, I want to learn a lot of English expressions. I reckon a lot of expressions I use are not the very ones English native speakers might use in the same situations. I want to learn those expressions English native speakers would use and to use them myself in appropriate situations'.

These results are in line with areas of difficulty identified in other studies whose subjects are non-native teachers in other parts of the world (refer to 2.5.12). This shows that the problems Korean non-native teachers perceive are shared by other non-native teachers in other countries, which in turn suggests the current study can benefit not only Korean teachers but also other non-native teachers in a wider context.

5.2.6 How Do the Teachers Think It Affects Themselves if They Have a Negative Perception of Their Own Language Proficiency?

Teachers' opinions about the negative effects of their not very positive perception of their own language proficiency were sought. Not surprisingly, the respondents (67.6 %) point out that the area most affected by the teachers' insecurity about their own English proficiency is their teaching (by sticking to one fixed teaching method). Another most frequently mentioned negative effect is related to the use of L1 rather than L2 (66.2 %) and a frequent switch to L1 while using L2 (56.3 %). Teaching materials were also pointed out as affecting confidence in teachers of English (by depending too much on the prescribed textbooks (63.4 %)). Another negative effect of teachers being insecure in their own proficiency is on the students (by not encouraging students' questions (54.9 %), being defensive towards students' comments (50.7%), and not encouraging discussion of the contents of the lessons openly in class (35.2 %)).

In other words, Korean teachers believe that less confident teachers of English could have negative effects on various aspects of teaching: teaching methods, use of English, code-switching, teaching materials, students, and the openness of the lessons. Most of those negative points were pointed out by more than half of the respondents, which suggests that most teachers perceive these negative effects very strongly. This, in turn, indicates how much importance these teachers place upon teachers' confidence in English. In other words, teachers could have these negative effects on almost all aspects of teaching if they were not very proficient or confident. Therefore, in order to avoid those negative effects, teachers need to be proficient and confident in the language they are teaching.

5.2.7 The Test of Hypothesis 1

Therefore, hypothesis 1, 'most of the teachers will not perceive their own linguistic proficiency as very high', was confirmed with 88.5% of the subjects rating themselves as not high in English proficiency, more than half of the respondents (55.1%) showing their lack of confidence in using English, and 70.8 % saying that they used English less than 50% of the time in class. In addition, the respondents admitted that they had difficulty in some skill areas in using English. Speaking skills, appropriate use of vocabulary, idiomatic expressions, writing and listening skills, and pronunciation were pointed out as the areas of difficulty in the use of English by a considerable number of respondents. These results make up the self-image of Korean English teachers, teachers who are not very confident in the language they teach, which shows that there is clearly room for language improvement of these teachers.

5.3 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION: What Is the Relationship between Korean Teachers' Perceived Spoken Language Proficiency and Other Measures of their Spoken Language Proficiency?

5.3.1 Do the Self-assessment Scores for Listening Skills Reflect the Test Scores?

The teachers who took the language test rated themselves higher than the test results. None of the six teachers' test totals are higher than or as high as their self-assessment total scores for the listening test. A comparison between the two sets of scores for each question also indicates a discrepancy between two sets of scores. Among the five questions about their listening proficiency, 'understanding English films without subtitles' turns out to be the one for which majority of people over-estimated their own abilities, since it is over-estimated in self-assessment by five subjects. On the other hand, only one subject over-estimated her ability to 'understand a native English speaker when they are talking at a normal speed with one another'.

The results of the Wilcoxon Matched-pairs Signed-ranks test show that there is a statistically significant difference between the self-assessment scores and the test scores for listening proficiency, which means that the two sets of scores are significantly different. In addition, the results of the correlation tests for the strength of the relationship between the two sets of scores indicate that there is no statistically significant correlation between the subjects' self-assessment scores and the test scores.

These results indicate that there is a discrepancy between self-assessment and test results. In most cases, subjects rated themselves higher than the test results. Discussion of these results can be found in 5.3.3.

5.3.2 Do the Self-assessment Scores for Speaking Skills Reflect the Test Scores?

Unlike the overall tendency of over-reporting in listening skills, the subjects' self-assessment of their speaking skills turns out to reflect test results more closely. Nevertheless, there are some mismatches between the two sets of scores. Three subjects' test totals are generally lower than their self-assessment, but two subjects show a tendency towards under-reporting in their self-assessment totals.

A comparison between two sets of scores for individual questions indicates that there are not many discrepancies. All the discrepancies between two sets of scores are within 0.5 point except for subject two's scores for two of the questions.

The results of the Wilcoxon Matched-pairs Signed-ranks test show that the difference between the self-assessment scores and the test scores for speaking proficiency is not statistically significant, which means that the self-assessment scores are not significantly different from the test scores. In addition, the results of the correlation tests for the strength of the relationship between the two sets of scores indicate that there is a very high correlation between the subjects' self-assessment scores and the test scores for their speaking skills.

The results of the two statistical tests indicate that since the teachers' self-assessment of their own speaking proficiency does not statistically significantly differ from their speaking proficiency as measured by the language test, self-assessment of speaking proficiency can be a reliable representative of the subjects' speaking proficiency measured by language tests.

5.3.3 The Test of Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2, 'the teachers' perception of their own spoken language proficiency will not accurately reflect other measures of their spoken proficiency', was partially rejected in the study because subjects were able to accurately rate their speaking proficiency, although self-assessment of their listening skills differed from their language test scores. The subjects indicated a tendency to rate themselves higher than their test results in listening skills. The discrepancy can be interpreted as meaning that the subjects and the test markers interpreted testing criteria differently. Alternatively, it can be interpreted as a tendency to genuinely over-estimate their own proficiency. This tendency to over-estimate their listening abilities found in the subjects is in line with some other research findings (Anderson 1982). Windeatt (1981) found that his subjects tended to rate themselves more highly on receptive than productive skills and to give themselves lower ratings for pronunciation and subject related work.

This kind of tendency can be interpreted in relation to the feedback they receive as learners or as participants in an act of communication. On productive skills such as speaking and writing, learners tend to get feedback from their teachers right after they perform whereas receptive skills such as listening and reading tend to go without feedback or with little feedback. Past experience of lack of feedback might have corroborated the subjects' tendency to over-estimate by depriving the subjects of the opportunities to correct their misjudgements of their own abilities. In addition, receptive skills tend to be regarded as being easier than productive skills by many learners (Bachman & Palmer 1996). This kind of widespread view of receptive skills might have affected the subjects' self-assessment of their own receptive skills and led them to over-estimate their listening proficiency.

5.4 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION: Is There the Need for and are There Ways of Boosting Teachers' Proficiency in the Target Language?

5.4.1 Do the Teachers Feel the Need to Improve Their Proficiency in the Target Language?

The teachers with one exception (98.7 %) stated that they felt the need to improve their own proficiency although how often they felt this differed. There were 84.7 % of the teachers who expressed the need to improve their English rather strongly by answering that they 'very often' or 'often' felt the need. The remaining teachers (14.1 %) also felt the need, but only 'sometimes'.

The results of negative correlation between the teachers' confidence levels and felt need evidently show that less confident teachers tend to feel the need to improve their English more strongly, which is understandable. Nevertheless, the need to improve English proficiency was felt not only by these less confident teachers, but by almost all the teachers. Even some of the 'confident' teachers expressed their needs strongly. This seems to show that the teachers feel there is room for improvement in their language proficiency.

5.4.2 Why do They Want to Improve Their Linguistic Proficiency?

According to the results, the most frequently pinpointed reason why they want to improve their language proficiency is that they are not satisfied with their current proficiency. Eighty percent of the teachers stated that they were not satisfied with their proficiency in English. The second most frequently mentioned reason (74.7%) is that they want to have a better self-image. The teachers also wanted to improve their proficiency to be more confident teachers (69.3 %), to teach better (64%), to watch or listen to English programmes (28.5%), to take some English test (12%), or to go abroad (6.7 %).

There are a lot of different factors which affect foreign language teacher's confidence. However, as pointed out earlier in 2.2.2.3, many consider one of the most important factors in non-native speaker language teacher confidence to be language competence. Thomas (1987) and Reves & Medgyes (1994) regard language competence as the pre-requisite of language teacher competence, and Cullen (1994) also claims that a poor or rusty command of English on the part of the teacher 'undermines the teacher's confidence in the classroom, [and] affects his or her self-esteem and professional status'(165). Murdoch (1994) reports that 89% of the teacher trainees on a teacher training course in his study agreed that 'a teacher's confidence is most dependent on his or her own degree of language competence'(258).

As discussed earlier in 2.2.2.3, foreign language teachers' linguistic proficiency is closely related to their confidence as teachers. Most of the teachers want to improve their proficiency and their reasons are diverse. However, one thing that is clear is that the teachers do not seem to be satisfied with their own current level of proficiency, and that they want to improve this for their own sake as well as for their students.

5.4.3 Have the Teachers Tried any Ways of Improving their Proficiency?

A large proportion of teachers (85.5 %) stated that they had tried at least one method to improve their English proficiency. The number of teachers who had not tried any methods was only 11 (14.5 %). Therefore, it seems that the majority of teachers have tried some methods to improve their proficiency. However, the results of Cramer's V do not show that that teachers' perceived need to improve their English has statistically significant associations with whether or not they have tried methods to improve. Therefore, it can be concluded that most respondents tried methods to improve their proficiency regardless of the strength of their felt need. It seems significant that there is a high proportion of the teachers who tried to improve their English proficiency even when they did not feel the need strongly. Therefore, it can be said that most teachers (even the teachers who perceive themselves as proficient and do not feel the need strongly) wish to improve their proficiency and have tried to do so.

Because Korean teachers were also language learners before they started teaching the language, and they still are learning in many ways, their desire to improve English seems understandable. In addition, the need to improve their proficiency did not end with its perception but it actually moved on to the next stage, action. In contrast to native speaker teachers who do not need to think of their own proficiency in the target language, Korean teachers as non-native speaker teachers seem to perceive that they need to do something with their own English no matter how proficient they are at that moment. The fact that 85.5 % of the respondents tried methods to improve their proficiency indicates once again how strongly the teachers' need to improve their proficiency is felt.

5.4.4 What Kinds of Methods Have the Teachers Tried to Improve their Proficiency?

Watching and listening to programmes are the methods the respondents most frequently mentioned among the methods they have tried to improve their proficiency in the hope of improving their listening skills. The respondent teachers tried to improve their listening abilities by watching films or other TV programmes and listening to the radio or tapes.

As seen in 4.4.4, the respondents claimed they had tried a variety of methods. In particular, one of the teachers answered that she had tried almost all the methods. The long list of methods produced by the respondents along with her claim shows how many methods are being tried by the teachers, and furthermore, it indicates how desperately the teachers want to improve their English proficiency.

It seems very meaningful that the methods tried most frequently to improve their proficiency are watching and listening to programmes, which are directly connected to listening skills. This in turn shows what kinds of areas most teachers perceive as needing to be improved. In other words, most Korean teachers perceive that they need to improve their listening skills. It also indicates that this method of watching TV or video, listening to the radio or tapes, and going to see films is relatively easy for them to try. Therefore, it can be said that teachers tend to regard using video along with TV and radio as one of the easiest ways they could try for their language improvement, and that listening skills are the area most in need of improvement.

5.4.5 What do the Teachers Think can Boost their English Proficiency?

Effective and/or practical methods to boost teachers' English proficiency were investigated. The respondents considered 'going to see films' and 'watching English programmes on TV' along with 'reading English books or magazines' as the most helpful methods in improving their proficiency. And 'going to see films' and 'watching TV' are not only the methods most teachers tried but also the ones the teachers considered effective in improving their English. These methods come before 'staying in English speaking countries' and 'frequent contacts with native speakers', which seems to show how highly the respondents think of those methods. However, this could mean that those teachers who have not been to any foreign countries do not fully appreciate the effect of being in the situation where the target language is spoken.

The three methods, 'watching TV', 'going to see films' and 'reading books or magazines' were also found to be the most practical methods to try as well as effective methods. Although 'stays in English speaking countries' or 'frequent contacts with native speakers' were appreciated in terms of their value and effectiveness in learning English, they were not found practical for the respondents to try with ease. Therefore, the most practical, realistic and effective ways of improving the respondents' English turn out to be those three aforementioned methods, over English immersion through stays in English speaking countries.

This seems to indicate that the teachers found TV and films easily accessible, and good media for language learning at the same time. This also suggests that video can be a good medium because

the two are so closely linked to video that most teachers do not consider those two separately from video. Many people think that video means those TV programmes taped on video or films on video. This became very clear in answers to the questions about video in the survey questionnaire where many respondents used video as a synonym for taped TV programmes or films.

5.4.6 The Test of Hypothesis 3

Therefore, hypothesis 3, 'the teachers will feel the need to improve their linguistic proficiency' was confirmed in the study with the vast majority of the teachers (98.7 %) perceiving the need. As pointed out in 2.2.2, a great many non-native speaker teachers seem to feel an overwhelming desire to improve their own language proficiency, and this desire is not only limited to Korea. Rather, it is wide-spread all over the world as shown in Strevens (1968), Britten (1985), Berry (1990), Reves & Medgyes (1994), Spezzini & Oxford (1998). Therefore, Reves & Medgyes (1994) suggest that this need to improve the non-native speaker teachers' language proficiency should be acknowledged, legitimised, and various ways of satisfying these needs need to be sought.

The results of the study show that Korean English teachers not only felt the need to improve their language proficiency, but also acted on it. A large proportion of teachers (85.5 %) claimed that they had tried to improve their English using various techniques. Using video as one of those techniques was also tried by 65.8 % of the respondents and praised by a high proportion of the users (see 5.5.1). 82 % out of 50 respondents were in favour of using video to improve their own linguistic proficiency, and 82.1% out of 67 respondents believed that teachers could have indirect learning by teaching students through the use of video. The results suggest that the teachers are eager to improve their English and to try using video as a means of doing so.

5.5 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION: What is the Effect of Video on the Teachers' Linguistic Proficiency?

Video was chosen as a medium for improving the subjects' spoken language proficiency in the case studies. It was hoped that video could function as pseudo-immersion for the subjects, an easy and accessible alternative to being in the English speaking countries although it was not able to give feedback on the subjects' performance. If taking English classes is not an option, talking to/contacting NS colleagues must be the other way of getting feedback in the EFL context of Korea. As shown in 4.3.3.14 and in 4.3.3.15, however, the chance of contacting native speakers is not very high for some teachers. Although there are some language learning computer software packages which make interaction possible, they tend to be expensive and the

degree of interaction is still limited. Therefore, video was chosen as a more practical alternative.

5.5.1 Do the Teachers Think Video Can be an Effective Way of Boosting Linguistic Proficiency?

5.5.1.1 Have the teachers used video for themselves and have they found it an effective way of improving their own linguistic proficiency?

More than half of the respondents (65.8 %) have the experience of using video in their own time for their own language improvement. On the other hand, 34.2 % of the respondents stated they had no experience of using video for themselves. The results of the binomial test confirmed that the ratio of the teachers who used video is statistically higher than the ratio of the teachers who did not with 0.66 to 0.34. Therefore, the number of video users is significantly higher than that of non-users. This indicates how popular using video is among these people who want to improve their English.

50 teachers including two non-users of video answered the question about the effectiveness of video. 41 teachers (82 %) answered that video is an effective way of improving their own linguistic proficiency, but eight teachers (16 %) answered negatively. The results of the chi-square test revealed that the differences are significant and that significantly more teachers think that video is an effective way of improving their own proficiency.

The reasons why the respondents think video can be useful for themselves are many and varied. The best characteristic of video as a medium according to the respondents turned out to be its ability to show native speakers on screen.

The interviews with the subjects in case studies shed light on how they think of video. Among the five subjects in the case study, four teachers have the experience of using video previously. Among them, two subjects were very enthusiastic about using video for their own language improvement.

One of them said:

Yes, I have been trying to use video in class as often as I can. I don't think I use it very often, but maybe once in a while. I normally use films on video, and *Family Album, USA* is one of those I used with my students. For my own English proficiency, I also try to watch video. Before, I tried to watch a film on video once a week, but not for long, and now it is about once a month. Rather than watching video, I go to the cinema, which is not very often.

To the question of whether using video can help improve linguistic proficiency, all 5 subjects in the case study answered positively. One of the teachers said:

For a non-native speaker, using video can be very useful. Let's say, if you want to show your students some sort of clips, you still have to study the clips in advance and that involves more preparation than just picking and showing the clips....For teachers to study for themselves, video can be very good. Watching lots of films and news on video can be very useful. The main reason for video to be a good medium is that you can get the spoken language from the video accompanied with picture, which makes easier for you to focus on, and that you can see the speaker's mouth, how it moves when he/she speaks. In addition to learning English, you can get other useful information from the video.

These results support video as a useful medium for language learning in conjunction with the research results about the effectiveness of video for language learning shown in 2.5.7.

5.5.1.2 Have the teachers used video in class and do they think they have indirect learning by teaching students with video?

Slightly more than half of the respondents (56.9 %) had experience of using video in class whereas 43.1 % of the respondents did not. However, the results of a binomial test show that there is no statistically significant difference in the frequency between users and non-users.

Therefore, the ratio of the teachers who use video in class with their students is not as large as the ratio of the teachers who use video on their own for their own language improvement. These results indicate that there might be some external factors which discourage the teachers from using video in class. Nonetheless, the results could also indicate that the teachers feel very strongly their own need to improve their English and find that video can help them.

In response to the question of whether video was effective for students' language improvement, 77.6 % of the respondents answered positively. The results of the chi-square show that a much larger number of respondents think video is effective than those who do not.

To the question of whether the teachers have indirect learning through the use of video in class with students, 27 non-users also responded, making the total number of respondents for the question 67. 55 teachers (82.1 %) agree that teachers can learn indirectly through the use of video in class. The results of the chi-square test show that a significant majority of respondents think that teachers can have indirect learning through the use of video in class.

From the above results, it can be concluded that teachers believe that using video can benefit both themselves and their students. It could be interpreted as meaning that the respondents appreciate

the process of preparing for the video class. To use video in class, needless to say, teachers need to do some preparation, which can involve watching the video repeatedly, checking and possibly memorising the expressions used in the video clips. This process can benefit the teachers themselves. In 4.4.4, some teachers mentioned indirect learning through teaching as a technique they had tried to improve their English.

Nevertheless, it is interesting that slightly more teachers (82.1 %/ 55 teachers) agree that using video in class can benefit the teachers than those who think it can benefit the students (77.6 %/ 52 teachers). This also seems to indicate that teachers appreciate the effectiveness of video for themselves as advanced learners (Allan 1985; Rifkin 2000).

The reasons why video is useful for students in class are also various, according to the respondents. The best reason why video could be effective in language learning focused on the entertainment value of video for students. 16 teachers (38.1 %) pointed out that video was interesting, thereby stimulating students' interest.

The reasons why video is effective for students are different in their perceived importance from the reasons for teachers themselves to use video. This seems to reflect the different needs felt by teachers and by students as learners at a different point on a continuum of learning English. It is clear, however, that video seems to be recognised as a useful medium for language learning for both parties.

5.5.1.3 What kinds of video have been used and found effective?

Among the kinds of video the teachers used, films on video turned out to be the most popular with 85.4% of the teachers out of 48 video users. ELT videos were used by 29.2% of the teachers, and other types of video were used by only 10.4 % of the teachers.

29 teachers gave their opinions about the kinds of video they found useful in their own study. Films on video were nominated as the most potentially useful video by slightly more than half of the teachers (55.2 %). ELT videos were mentioned by 17.2% of the teachers, showing that it attracted secondary school teachers more than university level teachers. 17.2 % of the teachers claimed that any videos the learner was interested in would work.

The video used most frequently by the respondents for themselves and for their students was films on video (85.4 % for themselves/ 48.1 % for students). Apart from that, animations on video turn out to be very frequently used for students (40.7 %). Films on video are also considered a very effective kind of video by the majority of respondents. These results seem to show that video users

not only look for learning aspects but also some entertainment in the process. That seemed to be the reason why some teachers claimed that any videos the learners were interested in would be good.

5.5.1.4 How did the teachers use video?

27 teachers stated how they used video on their own for themselves. Their responses are divided into five categories. The first method is 'repeated viewing of video'(37 %). The next group of methods used can be called 'using video with the help of scripts or subtitles' (29.6 %). Some other teachers appreciated the importance of 'observation' (29.6 %). 'Dictation' was also mentioned as a method (3.7 %). The final group of techniques is to 'pick up expressions in it, write them down, and possibly try to memorise them' (18.5 %).

24 teachers provided the techniques with which they used video in class with their students. These methods are categorised into six groups. The first category is 'methods used along with the subtitle or the script' (33.4 %). The second group of techniques has to do with 'some pre-viewing activities' (12.3 %). The third group of methods has to do with 'showing the video and doing some post-viewing activities afterwards' (29.3 %). Another group of methods is focusing on 'showing the video' rather than on activities (20.8 %). The next category is 'repeated viewing of video' (4.16 %), and 'Using video as a supplementary means to teach target forms' is the final category (4.16 %).

As seen in 2.5.6, how video is used is very important. The techniques the teachers used for themselves appear different from the methods they used with their students. For themselves, the teachers focused on being exposed to spoken English as much as possible through repeated viewing or observation rather than doing some activities about the contents of the video. On the other hand, with the students they used some activities to go with the video. While repeated viewing is mentioned as having been used for themselves by 37 % of the respondents, it is mentioned as having been used for their students only by 4.2 % of the respondents. Therefore, teachers seem to perceive the value of video for different learners in different learning situations. For themselves as advanced learners doing self-study, they seem to appreciate the secondary immersion state video could provide. For their students as lower level learners in classroom situations, however, they seem to value the variety and fun video could offer.

5.5.1.5 What do the teachers think are the advantages of video compared to other methods?

Among the 35 teachers who answered this question, some teachers repeated the same reasons as the ones they had already given in the above questions, but others offered some different ideas, making the list of advantages even longer. The reasons why video should be used are divided into 17 categories. Among those, the fun, picture as well as sound, and the variety that video could provide them with were most frequently mentioned (22.9% of the respondents each).

This long list of advantages of video clearly shows how much it is appreciated by the respondents as a medium for language learning. In addition, all these advantages of video pointed out by the respondents correspond to the merits of video indicated in the literature on video in language learning in 2.5.5.2. In other words, the usefulness of video seems to be well accepted not only by researchers but also by practising teachers.

Apart from the respondents' comments about advantages of video as a medium for language learning, the subjects in the case study gave valuable insights into the usefulness of video in their post interviews. When asked if using video was helpful for improving their spoken language proficiency, all the three subjects who used video answered in the positive. One of the teachers said:

Definitely it was helpful. The most effective way to use it is to do it steadily every day. The number one advantage of video is that it gives you the opportunity to get exposed to English native speakers' spoken English, not only the so-called clear RP English, but also a variety of spoken English from different people. Through that, you learn how not to be afraid of a variety of spoken English. In addition, video is interesting and more, it gives you the very expressions English native speakers use, and possibly daily expressions you could use, not just hard formal English. I was very much interested in picking up those daily expressions, so it was a good opportunity for doing that.

Another teacher commented:

Even the parts you didn't understand can become understandable with the picture on video. When you listen to a tape, it takes time to get the whole picture of what is happening because the tape does not provide the picture part, whereas on video you can comprehend the situation with picture much quicker. Moreover, you can recollect more easily the expressions you picked up from video if you can remember the particular scene where the expressions are used. I've tried to use and sometimes actually used the words or expressions I picked up from the videos. There were some new words and idioms on the video workbook I had not known before, so I used to consult the dictionary to find out the meanings of those expressions. I also got to know some other meanings of the same words I had known, which was very interesting. And I think the whole scheme helped a bit.

All the comments made by the case study subjects can be said to be really valuable because these were made by the subjects who actually used video to improve their spoken language proficiency. In other words, they were not just theoretical arguments, but very practical

comments made through their own experience. It seems significant that the subjects were able not only to identify video as useful, but also to point out why it was useful for them.

5.5.2 Can Video Help Improve the Teachers' Spoken Language Proficiency?

A comparison was made between the case study subjects' pre-test scores and post-test scores in order to identify the effects of video on their spoken language proficiency. First, the subjects' two sets of listening scores were compared and then their speaking scores on the two tests were also compared.

5.5.2.1 Can video help improve the teachers' listening skills?

A comparison between the case study subjects' pre-test and post-test total scores for listening shows that subjects' overall scores for listening skills have gone through some changes. The gaps between the three video users' (in the case study) two sets of scores are greater than those of the non-users and the directions of the changes in scores are without exception upwards. However, for non-users of video the change is downwards for one, upwards for the other. In short, it is evident that for the three video users the changes in the post-test score are greater than for those of the non-video users under the control condition.

The results of the Wilcoxon test show that the video users' post-test scores for listening are significantly different from their pre-test scores, but that the non-users' post scores do not significantly differ from their pre-test scores. Therefore, the video-users' gains in the post-test scores turn out to be statistically significant but the non-users' changes in their post-test scores are not statistically significant. In conclusion, it is very likely that using video helped improve the teachers' proficiency in listening skills.

In addition, the three video-users' opinions also support the assertion that video was helpful in boosting their listening skills. When asked in which skill areas video was most helpful in the post interview, the three video-users agreed that it was most helpful for listening skills. One of them said, 'it has been most helpful to listening. Apart from listening to tapes, watching videos makes the situation taking place easier to comprehend through providing picture as well as sound for the viewers. It helped my listening'. Another user stated her opinion as follows:

Watching video helped listening part most, I reckon. No matter how simple expressions you get on video, they seem to help you develop your listening skills if you keep listening to them. It might be as well important to listen to difficult and complicated expressions and understand them, but I think that if you could make those simple expressions yours through repeatedly listening to them, you would catch them in any situations where they were said.

The third video-user said, 'perhaps helpful to listening and speaking skills. To be more specific, because I haven't practised speaking alone, it probably helped mostly my listening skills. These videos can help your understanding a lot because they have themes to pass onto the viewers'. In sum, all three subjects agreed its usefulness in improving listening skills and one subject suggested that it could possibly have helped improve her speaking skills, too. None of the subjects, however, mentioned other skill areas it was helpful for.

Video-users' perception in their study notes also supports the results. In several places of their study notes, case 1 recorded her perception of her increased listening abilities, in particular, when she found the topic of the video interesting or relevant to her situation. Case 2 also reported in her study notes her perception of her increased listening towards the end of the case study. Case 3 also nominated listening skills as well as speaking skills in response to the question about improved skill area in the study notes toward the end of the case study.

Using video was originally intended to focus on helping the subjects' listening skills and possibly speaking skills. Therefore, these results of higher post-listening test scores for video-users are very encouraging. The results agree with other research findings (Ramsay 1991; Secules et al. 1992). Instead of language students, however, language teachers' language improvement has been demonstrated in the study. The current study shows that video can benefit teachers as advanced level learners as well as students. In addition, using video in class with students can positively affect teachers' language improvement.

However, the results need to be treated with caution for several reasons. First of all, we need to ask if the change in the scores of the video-users could be due to some factors other than video. The possibility cannot be ignored that familiarity with the tasks and the testing procedures could have positively affected the test-takers' performance on the post-test. In other words, the possibility cannot be excluded that these factors could affect the test-takers' improved performance on their post-test. Nonetheless, this does not explain why video users have more gains in their post-test scores than non-users.

The subjects' motivation could have played a role. The fact that they were participating in the case study could have motivated them to perform better, which could have positively affected their better performance on the post-test in conjunction with their feeling of contributing something in the case study.

It could also have been related to the Hawthorne effect. In other words, because the subjects knew they were participating in the case study, the simple consciousness of taking part in the study could have led them to perform better on their post-test.

In addition, the sample size is not big enough to generalise the results to the whole population of Korean teachers. Sample distribution is another point to be borne in mind because the samples were not selected to represent the entirety of Korean English teachers. On the contrary, strategic sampling was adopted (see 3.5.1.4). The samples were chosen to test theories and, in particular, real life situations. The samples met some requirements, i.e. their willingness to participate in the study and comparability among samples, as mentioned in 3.3.2. The five subjects are all female, university level teachers who have lived in an English speaking country for an extended period of time and the length of their teaching experience ranges from one to six years. Therefore, the results need to be treated as findings in conjunction with the specific nature 'a case study' has (see 3.4.2 and 3.5.1.4).

5.5.2.2 Can video help improve the teachers' speaking skills?

A comparison between the subjects' pre-test and the post-test scores for speaking shows that subjects' overall scores for speaking skills have also gone through some changes. The results indicate that none of the subjects' post scores stayed the same as their pre-test scores. All the changes were in a positive direction, i.e., each subject's post-test total has gone up.

Nonetheless, in the two non-users under the control condition, the gap between the two scores appears smaller than that for the video-users.

The results of the Wilcoxon test reveal that the video-users' post-test scores for speaking skills are significantly different from their pre-test scores but that the non-users' post scores do not differ significantly from their pre-test scores.

Therefore, the video-users' gains in the post-test scores turn out to be statistically significant but the non-users' gains in their post-test scores are not statistically significant. In addition, among four aspects (syntax, vocabulary, phonology, cohesion) of speaking proficiency which were marked separately by markers, cohesion turns out to be the aspect of language proficiency in which all the three video-users' scores have increased at all cases. In addition, two video-users indicated that video might have helped improve their speaking skills. In her post-interview, case 1 stated that video was possibly helpful to speaking as well as listening, although she did not explain why. Case 3 also mentioned in her study notes that her speaking skills had

improved as a result of using video as well as her listening. In conclusion, it is highly likely that using video has helped improve the subjects' speaking proficiency.

The results are in line with other research findings (Dodds 1997; Rifkin 2000). Just as video classes helped students' speaking proficiency in those studies, it also helped non-native teachers' speaking skills improve in the study. This suggests that using video can benefit advanced level learners' speaking proficiency and that teachers can benefit from incidental learning in their speaking skills from using video in class.

In spite of the above positive results, it needs to be asked again if the change in the subjects' scores could be due to some other factor than simply because they used video. As in the listening tests, there is a possibility that the familiarity of the tasks and the testing procedures could have affected the test-takers' performance on the post-test. As in the listening tests, the subjects' motivation could have played a role in the speaking post-test. This motivation could have positively affected the subjects' better performance on the post-test. The Hawthorne effect could also be a factor here, as in the listening tests.

Another consideration is the fact that the non-users of video under the control condition were better speakers than the video users in the first place, as revealed in their pre-test scores for speaking. The results show that all the subjects' post-test scores went up. The non-users' post scores however did not go up as much as those of the three video-users. It could be that the two non-users under the control condition were already very proficient speakers and so it is harder for them to improve their speaking skills than for the initially less proficient video-users.

In addition, the same caution (as explained in 5.5.2.1) needs to be exercised in considering the results because of the sample size and distribution. In other words, the nature of 'a case study' focusing on the specific situation of the samples with more human interest needs to be considered in interpreting the results.

5.5.3 Does the Teachers' Perception of Their Language Proficiency Change According to the Change in Their Spoken Language Proficiency as a Result of using Video?

5.5.3.1 Are there any changes in the scores of the second 'can-do' SA test from the scores of the first test?

On the 'can-do' self-assessment test, all 5 subjects' post self-assessment totals have changed from their pre self-assessment total scores. For the two non-users (case 4 and 5) under the control condition, the post self-assessment totals are 1 or 2 points lower than their pre self-assessment totals. For the other three video-users (case 1, 2, 3), the changes are greater and upwards for 2 subjects and downwards for one.

Initially it was expected that the video users' test and self-assessment scores both would go up noticeably on their post-tests. Surprisingly enough, however, the changes in scores between the two sets of self-assessment tests do not look great in listening skills. It is totally the opposite from the subjects' own perception as revealed in the post-treatment interviews with the researcher where they answered that listening was the area affected the most by the case study. Two video users' post self-assessment scores have gone up but 3 subjects' (1 video user and 2 non-users) post score has gone down.

- **Listening and speaking**

The post-test scores for listening tend to be between the pre self-assessment scores and post self-assessment scores for the three video users. For the two non-users of video under the control condition, both sets of their self-assessment scores are higher than their test scores.

The scores on the subjects' post self-assessment test for speaking skills have also gone through changes. Only one non-user stayed the same. The other non-user shows a slightly bigger change than one video user. The other two video users show bigger changes.

These results can be explained in relation to the subjects' awareness of their own levels through taking the language test and studying with video. In other words, it is possible that the subjects came to have a clearer idea of the criteria they should use to evaluate their proficiency and of how well they could perform certain tasks by being exposed to video and language tests.

- **Reading and writing**

Even their scores on reading and writing skills have changed on their post self-assessment scores, which was noted with some surprise. In the scores for the reading skills, two video users' scores have 3-point difference (up for one and down for the other) on the second self-assessment test. Non-users' post scores experience less changes. The third video user's second score has not changed. In the case of self-assessment scores for the writing skills, the changes

do not seem to be significant except one video-user, whose second self-assessment total score has decreased to 12 from 20 in her first.

Initially, the two skill areas (reading and writing skills) were judged not to be directly affected by the case study scheme mainly because the case study project focused on spoken proficiency and the subjects did not take any language tests in these skill areas. So, in theory because they did not have the chance to correct their misconception (if any) of their proficiency by comparing their perceived proficiency with other measures of their proficiency, their self-assessed proficiency in these skill areas should have stayed more or less the same on their post-tests.

These changes in their scores on their reading and writing skills can be explained as the subjects' rethinking or more careful thinking about how they assess their proficiency. Because it was the second time that they answered the questions about how well they were able to perform certain tasks on reading and writing skills, they might be more familiar with the procedures. They might also have become more aware of the criteria and how to apply them in order to assign themselves to a certain level of proficiency. Thus, they might have thought more carefully when they chose how well they could perform a certain task on the post self-assessment test. Or the experience of taking language tests on listening and speaking skills might have influenced their assessment of performing other tasks in other skill areas. In other words, the perception of how well/poorly they performed the given tasks in listening and speaking tests might have led them to adjusting judgement of their performance in other skills.

- Non-users and their changes in self-assessment scores

The reasons why the non-users of video under the control condition have different scores on their post self-assessment test can be explained in several ways. One of the reasons is related to the language test they took. Because they became aware of how good/poor they were in performing those tasks through taking the first test, they came to have a more objective and clearer idea of their own proficiency. Another reason could be related to the Hawthorne effect. Although they did not use video or study for themselves, they were probably aware that they were participating in the case study. Writing a report twice a week might have helped the idea. The awareness of participation in the study could have affected them.

5.5.3.2 Are there any changes in the scores of the second Bachman & Palmer SA test from the scores of the first test?

As explained earlier in 4.5.2.2.2, the modified version of Bachman & Palmer's self-assessment test is not directly related to the language test used in the study. Therefore, it is interesting that

the subjects' post self-assessment scores have changed considerably from the pre-scores. When comparing the changes in the total scores, the changes are the smallest for the two non-users of video under the control condition. As for the three video-users, the changes are larger.

It seems clear that the video users' self-assessment scores have gone through more changes than non-users'. For two video-users, the changes are positive and their post self-assessment scores have gone up. This could be explained in relation to the increased confidence through using video and/or taking the language tests. The increased confidence in their listening proficiency might have positively affected the two subjects' perception of their proficiency. For the third video-user, the change is even bigger with 27 points difference. Her scores, however, have gone down instead of going up on the post-test.

When asked directly in the post interview about how they felt about their proficiency after the case study finished, the subjects' answers were varied. The two non-users of video under the control condition stated that they did not feel any improvement in their proficiency in their post interviews. The three video users (case 1, 2, 3) however gave more positive answers but to different degrees.

The reasons why the three video-users' post self-assessment scores have changed can be interpreted in various ways. In case 1, she did not show a noticeable change in her second self-assessment score probably because she was not sure about her language improvement after the case study. She seemed to feel guilty about not abiding by the self-study routine as shown in her post-treatment interview:

I am not quite sure. I think I would have improved a lot if I had studied the videos every day. In reality, I didn't have time for every day study. I did the self-study twice a week at first, and then in the middle of the 10-week period something came up so I wasn't able to keep going steadily. I had to stop for a bit and then start again when things became better. However, I'm quite positive about the effectiveness of using video. In other words, I'm sure I would have improved much more if I had done it properly.....Whenever I listen for something, I feel it's easy to understand in spite of some incomprehensible bits if it is about what I am interested in. Nonetheless, if it is about what I am not interested or don't want to know about, I find it hard to understand in spite of easy English. I felt the same thing during this self-study process.

Case 1's study notes also reflect her guilty conscious mind. Her perception of her own proficiency had increased until she temporarily stopped studying for about a month. The first week she resumed her study, her perception of proficiency declined sharply although she recovered the second week.

Case 3 showed a clear upturn in her perceived proficiency on the post self-assessment test. She seemed to be very positive that her proficiency had improved. One of the reasons why she was

convinced is that she had the opportunities where she could use some expressions she had picked up from the video. She stated in her interview:

Take an example from 'big-headed', again. The other day, I was talking with an English Native speaker colleague at work and I felt that he was showing off a bit, so I said to him, 'you're big headed', but not in an offensive way. And then I realised that I made the expression mine by using it in an appropriate situation. I felt delighted with that. So I thought if I watch more videos and spend more time on learning new expressions on video, my English could enormously improve. That is how I felt because I didn't invest much time this time in this case study business.

That kind of instance seemed to give her a solid conviction about her improved proficiency.

Case 3 stated her confidence in her improved proficiency as follows:

I feel my English proficiency has improved. What I thought was the most useful point in this case study is that through watching the short video clips I had the opportunities to recall and to consolidate some simple but good expressions which I probably had heard of but never used before. For example, I had heard of the word, 'big-headed' before, but I had never used that before, which I think I'm going to use in an appropriate context in the future. When I watch some of those video clips you gave, I very often said to myself, 'oh, that is the expression you should use in the situation. Why haven't I thought of and used that simple expression before?' As a result, I think this case study was a good experience in that I could get access to those expressions English native speakers are actually using.

In contrast to the other two video-users, case 2 records a sharp drop in her post-score, on both self-assessment tests (the can-do test and Bachman & Palmer test). This does not reflect her test scores, however, because she has gains in both listening and speaking scores on her post-test. Therefore, in theory, her self-assessment scores on the post-test should have gone up instead of going down.

One of the reasons why case 2's post self-assessment scores have gone down could be due to over-estimation of her proficiency on the pre self-assessment test. In fact, she showed solid confidence in her own proficiency in the pre-interview with the researcher as saying, 'I think I am better in writing and listening than other people. And reading is above average. I find myself faster in reading than other people. However, speaking is not very good'. Therefore, she could be the one that was disappointed most in her own performance on the language test. Out of this disappointment experienced on her pre-test, she might have thought that she should not give too generous marks to herself on the post self-assessment test. On the contrary, she became too tough a marker on herself on her post self-assessment test. Although her measured proficiency through the language test has increased on the post-test, she does not seem to have overcome the disappointment experienced on the pre-test, yet.

Another reason why case 2 showed such under-estimation on her post self-assessment test could be lack of familiarity with British English. Case 2, who had lived in America for about four

years, was very confident of her listening skills before the case study started. Her confidence however was shattered during the case study. She admitted to the shock she experienced when she listened to British English on video. She said in the post interview after the case study finished:

This is almost the first time I listened to British English. So at first it was very hard to understand British English on videos but, as time went by, I found myself gradually getting used to the British English on video.....The whole period of watching the 10 videos seemed to me a slow process of getting familiar with British English.

In her study notes, she frequently mentioned her unfamiliarity with a British accent. In the first week, she wrote, 'this time, I couldn't tune my ears to the British accent. That's why I cannot see any improvement from this week's study'. In the second week, however, she showed more positivism by writing 'I think I'm getting used to the British accent. My listening comprehension ability seems to have improved'. This positivism however seems to reduce in the 4th week and 6th week with more mentions of the British accent. She also reports that when she knew about or was interested in the topic of the particular video, she felt her listening abilities had improved.

The unfamiliarity with British English and the difficulty of understanding the videos she experienced during the case study could have seriously shaken her confidence in her proficiency. This sharply decreased confidence could have led her to seriously under-estimate her own proficiency on the post self-assessment test.

5.5.4 Does the Change in Proficiency Affect the Teachers' Use of English in the Classroom?

This question was answered by focusing on three aspects of the teachers' English used in class. First of all, the amount/ ratio of English to Korean the teachers used in class was counted in both classes (before-treatment and after-treatment class). Then how much of the English the teachers used in class was Outer language (refer to 2.2.3 for definition of the term) rather than Inner language was investigated in both classes. Finally, the range of different functions the teachers' English demonstrates was investigated in both classes.

The amount/ ratio of English to Korean used in class by the teachers was identified. In video users' 2nd classes, it is clear that the three teachers used much more English than they did in their first observed classes, as shown in the number of English words and ratio of English words against Korean words used by them. Also there is clear evidence that the teachers tried to use and actually used the target language instead of the mother tongue even in explaining the target forms of the language more in their 2nd classes than in their 1st classes. However, for non-users

of video, the results are the opposite. Both of them used slightly less English in their second classes.

As far as the subjects' use of Outer language is concerned, a bigger ratio (or amount) of Outer language is used in the video-users' second classes. In two video users' second classes, the use of Outer language has gone up noticeably in terms of the actual words used and the ratio to Inner language. In the third video user, her actual number of words on the Outer has increased sharply in the second class, but the ratio of Outer language to Inner language has not changed much. The main reason for this seems to be the small amount of English used in her first class. Because she did not use English much in the first class, the ratio of Outer turned out to be large. On the other hand, the two teachers under control conditions showed the opposite trend. They seem to use slightly more Inner language in their second classes.

As far as the variety of functions the subjects used in English is concerned, the three video-users' second classes show changes in a positive direction. For two video users, the range of functions used in English has increased in their second classes. For the third video user and one non-user, the range stayed the same in the second classes. In the other non-user's 2nd class, the range has slightly decreased. These results also seem to point to the positive effect of using video. The video-users' variety of English as represented by the range of functions of their English in their second classes seems to show that the subjects' English is not as limited to several fixed patterns as it used to be in their first classes.

The study is similar to other earlier studies (Allwright & Bailey 1991; Dickson 1996; Nunan 1998) in that it focused on the amount of target language input the learners had in class (in the form of teachers' use of English), but went a step further than the emphasis on the target language input when it identified the improved quality of teachers' English on the basis of evidence of improved proficiency gathered from test results (shown by teachers' use of Outer language and the variety of functions their English demonstrated), and not just by counting the amount or proportion of English and the mother tongue used in class. Nonetheless, how improved quality of teachers' English affects learners still needs researching.

These positive results in the video users' second classes invoke several possible explanations. First of all, they can be explained in relation to the effect of using video. In other words, it could be attributed to the video users' improved spoken language proficiency as a result of using video. In contrast to the non-users of video, the three video-users used more English, more Outer language, and more varied functions of English in their second observed classes. Because the three subjects used video in the case study, their spoken proficiency could have

improved as a result, which could also have led to them gaining more confidence in their spoken proficiency. In other words, the boosted proficiency could also have led to their gaining more confidence in actually using the language, and, consequently, they used a variety of English in class.

Another explanation is that video users could have become more aware of English input in class during participation in the case study, regardless of their proficiency. Therefore, taking this explanation, this increased use of English in class does not necessarily mean an improvement in the subjects' proficiency. The teachers simply become more aware of the importance of English input in class and tried to use more and varied English to expose their students to as much English input as possible. However, there are some unexplained points if this explanation is accepted. During the case study, the subjects did not talk about or get any input about the pedagogical side of things. The case study focused only on improving the subjects' spoken language proficiency through using video. Therefore, it seems unlikely that the subjects appreciated more the importance of English input in class all of a sudden only because they participated in the case study.

A third possible explanation could be the subjects' awareness of being observed. However, because they were already observed once before, it is hard to explain why they suddenly become more aware of being observed.

The fourth possible interpretation is the video-users' motivation. Because the video users were fully aware that they were doing something to improve their spoken proficiency during the case study, the feeling of doing something through the case study could have positively affected their use of English in their second classes.

The Hawthorne effect might have worked. In other words, the subjects were well aware that they were taking part in the case study, so they used more and varied English in their second classes to impress the researcher.

5.5.5 The Test of Hypothesis 4

From the results above, hypothesis 4, 'the use of video in class or on their own will have a significant positive effect on teachers' spoken language proficiency' was confirmed with video-users' better performance on their post tests and in their second observed class. Video-users' test results in their post-tests, both listening and speaking tests, showed a significant increase whereas non-users did not. In addition, in their second observed class video-users tended to

speak more English, to use more Outer language, and their English had a wider range of functions than in their first class. Video-users' perception about their increased proficiency as a result of using video both in their post-interviews and in their study notes (three video-users' perception of an improvement in their proficiency shown in the graph drawn by them) also ties in with the results. On the other hand, non-users' second observed classes did not show any clear direction. Therefore, it is very likely that using video in class or on their own affected the teachers' spoken language proficiency positively. This can be a basis of using video in self-directed learning and in class.

5.6 SUMMARY

This chapter furthered the discussion of the results. The findings of the study were summarised for each research question and interpretations of the results were made.

The findings about the teachers' perceived proficiency and their confidence draws a rather negative image of the subjects as language teachers. Hypothesis 1, 'most of the teachers will not perceive their own linguistic proficiency as very high' was confirmed with 88.5 % of the subjects' perception of their linguistic proficiency as being below score 4.00 (which stands for high proficiency). Hypothesis 2, 'the teachers' perception of their own spoken language proficiency will not accurately reflect other measures of their proficiency' was partially rejected. Hypothesis 3, 'the teachers will feel the need to improve their linguistic proficiency' was confirmed. The findings from the case study about the effect of video help to confirm hypothesis 4, 'the use of video in class or on their own will have a significant positive effect on teachers' spoken language proficiency' with all three video-users showing test score increases on the post-test.

In addition, using video seems to have positive washback effects according to the subjects in the case study (also satisfying the condition of catalytic validity: see 3.5.1). Interviews with the three-video users seem to reveal that the subjects were motivated to do more to improve their English instead of finishing doing what they were given under the case study scheme. When asked in the post interview, the three video-users pointed out a positive side effect of using video under the case study scheme. One of the subjects said, 'when I started this case study, I also tried to watch CNN and AFKN on TV. I just left that on even while I was doing something else. That way, I was trying to get used to the rhythm of English'. Another subject said that because she thought that video mainly covered listening skills, she tried to cover other skill areas such as reading skills in her free time. The third subject said that she saw more films and tried to catch the expressions used in those films.

6 CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The study was intended to answer the question, ‘how proficient in English do Korean English teachers perceive themselves to be and is there a way of helping these teachers improve their English without having to attend classes?’, and in order to answer the question the study gathered data about Korean English teachers’ self-assessment of their own proficiency, the relationships between self-assessment of spoken proficiency and other measures of that proficiency, the teachers’ need for and ways of improving their proficiency, and finally the effect of video as a medium for language learning. The study resulted in a number of findings that provide insights into Korean English teachers and non-native speaker teachers in other countries.

This final chapter deals with the final review of the research findings and their implications for language learning and teaching. First of all, the most important research findings will be summarised, including the results of testing the hypotheses. Then recommendations for applying the research results to language classes, teacher training and self-study will be made. Suggestions for further research will also be made. Finally, special comments on the research environment in Korea will be made along with some suggestions for improving the situation.

6.2 SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

The research findings will be summarised in four parts, corresponding to the order of the main research questions.

6.2.1 What is the nature of Korean English Teachers’ Assessment of their own Language Proficiency as Non-native Speakers of English?

1. As many as 88.5 % of the respondents assess their English proficiency as not high: they believe their English to be below average, around average, slightly higher than that, or getting towards high, but not high yet.
2. More than half (55.1 %) of the teachers admit that they are not very confident of their own English proficiency. On the other hand, the number of teachers who are ‘very confident’ is only two (2.6 %).
3. As many as 70.8 % of the respondents (46 teachers) turn out to be using English for 50 % or less than 50 % of the time in class. On the other hand, only 29.2 % (19 teachers) use English for more than half of the time. The number of teachers who lead English only class is only four (6.2 %).

4. The subjects' self-assessment scores correlate with their confidence level (a modest correlation) and with the proportion of time they spend using English in class (a low or modest correlation).
5. The subjects' confidence has a modest correlation with the proportion of time they spend using English in class.
6. The subjects' perceived proficiency correlates (a low or modest correlation in most cases) with age (negative correlation), the amount of teaching experience they have (negative correlation), the amount of experience they have of staying in English speaking countries, level of institution, possession of a degree in ELT, students' level, average number of students in class (negative correlation), teacher training, the frequency with which they talk to NS colleagues, and the frequency with which they use English outside the classroom in five different situations (to contact foreigners, read professional literature, listen to the radio, write letters/emails, and watch TV). On the other hand, it does not correlate with gender, average teaching hours a week, or the emphasis placed upon language improvement in teacher training courses they have received.
7. The subjects' confidence correlates (a low or modest correlation in most cases) with age (negative correlation), the amount of teaching experience they have (negative correlation), the amount of experience they have of staying in English speaking countries, level of institution, possession of a degree in ELT, the frequency with which they talk to NS colleagues, and the frequency with which they use English outside the classroom in four different situations (to contact foreigners, read professional literature, write letters/emails, and watch TV). On the other hand, it does not correlate with gender, students' level, average number of students in class, average teaching hours a week, teacher training, or the importance placed upon language improvement in teacher training courses they have received.
8. The proportion of time the teachers spend using English in class correlates with level of institution, possession of a degree in ELT, average number of students in class (negative correlation), and the frequency with which they talk to NS colleagues (a modest correlation in most cases). On the other hand, it does not correlate with students' level, average teaching hours a week, and teacher training, or the importance placed upon language improvement in teacher training courses they have received.
9. The most frequently mentioned area in using English due to its difficulty is speaking, pointed out by more than half of the respondents (52.1 %).
10. The most frequently mentioned negative effect of less proficient teachers is that they tend to stick to one fixed teaching method, agreed by 67.6 % of the respondents (48 teachers).
11. From the above results, hypothesis 1, 'most of the teachers will not perceive their own linguistic proficiency as very high' was confirmed.

12. The current findings corroborate previous research findings on non-native teachers' language related difficulties and low self-confidence and moreover the investigation of teachers' self-assessment of linguistic proficiency provides systematic evidence to support subjective impressions among the teachers, and claims reported in the literature.
13. These results clearly suggest that teachers perceive there is room for their language improvement. This could be a basis of working on teachers' perceived and/or actual language improvement.

6.2.2 What is the Relationship between Korean Teachers' Perceived Spoken Proficiency and Other Measures of Their Spoken Proficiency?

1. The subjects rated their listening ability higher than the test results suggest. The Wilcoxon test shows that the two scores (self-assessment and test scores) are significantly different and correlation tests indicate that there is no correlation between the two sets of scores.
2. As for their speaking skills, the Wilcoxon test shows that the self-assessment scores are not significantly different from the language test scores and correlation tests indicate that there is a very high correlation between the two sets of scores.
3. From the above results, hypothesis 2, 'the teachers' perception of their own spoken language proficiency will not accurately reflect other measures of their proficiency' was partially rejected.
4. The results suggest that teachers are able to identify their level of speaking proficiency (although not their level of listening proficiency), so this could be a basis of teachers' self-directed learning.

6.2.3 Is there the Need for and are there any Ways of Boosting Teachers' Proficiency in the Target Language?

1. 98.7 % (77 teachers) of the respondents stated that they felt the need to improve their proficiency although the degree of how often they felt it differed.
2. The most frequently mentioned reason (pointed out by 80 % of the teachers) for wanting to improve their own proficiency is that the subjects are not satisfied with their current proficiency.
3. A large proportion of the respondents (85.5 %) turn out to have tried at least one method to improve their English proficiency.
4. Watching and listening to English programmes are the methods the respondents most frequently mentioned among the methods they have tried to improve their proficiency, possibly in the hope of improving their listening skills.

5. 'Going to see films in English' and 'reading English books or magazines' are the effective methods of improving English that respondents most frequently mentioned (68 teachers/ 87.1 % each).
6. Watching English programmes on TV', 'going to see films in English', and 'reading English books or magazines' are the most frequently mentioned practical methods by being regarded as 'practical' methods by 66 teachers (85.7%) each.
7. From the above results, hypothesis 3, 'the teachers will feel the need to improve their linguistic proficiency' was confirmed.
8. The results clearly show that teachers wanted to improve their linguistic proficiency, and tried to do so. This, therefore, provides evidence of the need for working on teachers' language improvement.

6.2.4 What is the Effect of Video on the Teachers' Language Proficiency?

1. More than half of the teachers (48/ 65.8 %) have the experience of using video in their own time for their own language improvement. On the other hand, 25 teachers (34.2 %) had no experience of using video for themselves.
2. As many as 41 teachers (82 %) out of 50 answered that video is an effective way of improving their own linguistic proficiency. However, eight teachers (16 %) answered in the negative about that, and one teacher (2 %) stated that it depended on the situation.
3. The reasons why the respondents think video can be useful for themselves are many and varied. The best characteristic of the video as a medium identified by the respondents turned out to be its capability of showing native speakers on screen.
4. A little more than half of the respondents (41 teachers/ 56.9 %) have the experience of using video in class whereas 31 teachers (43.1 %) do not.
5. In response to the question of whether video was effective for students' language improvement, 52 teachers (77.6 %) answered positively. However, 11 teachers (16.4 %) did not agree that video was effective for that purpose. Four teachers (6 %) did not make up their minds.
6. 27 non-users also answered the question of whether teachers would have indirect learning through the use of video in class for students. 55 teachers (82.1 %) answered positively, 11 teachers (16.4 %) negatively, and one teacher (1.5 %) stated it depended on the situation.
7. The reasons why video is useful for students in class also varied according to the respondents. The most frequently mentioned reason why video could be effective in language learning focuses on the fun part of video for students. 16 teachers (38.1 %) said that video was not boring, but interesting, thereby stimulating students' interest.

8. Among the kinds of video the teachers used, films on video turned out to be the most popular with 41 users (85.4 %) out of 48. Among the diverse kinds of video the teachers used for their students, films on video again were most frequently used in class (13 teachers/ 48.1 %). About the useful kinds of video they found for their own learning, films on video were again nominated the most potentially useful video by slightly more than half of the teachers (16 teachers/ 55.2 %).
9. 27 teachers gave their methods of using video for themselves, which are divided into five categories. They are 'repeated viewing of video', 'using video with the help of scripts or subtitles', 'observation', 'dictation', and 'picking up expressions in video'.
10. The methods used for the students in class are divided into six categories. They are 'with the subtitles or scripts', 'some pre-viewing activities', 'some post-viewing activities', 'just showing the video', 'repeated viewing of video', 'using video as a supplementary means to teach target forms'.
11. As many as 17 advantages of video compared to other media are pointed out by the respondents.
12. Video-users' post-test scores for listening have gone up and they turn out to be significantly different from their pre-test scores, but non-users' post-test scores do not differ from their pre-test scores. It is very likely that using video helped improve the subjects' proficiency in listening skills.
13. Video-users' post-test scores for speaking have increased and the score gains are greater for video-users than for non-users of video. In addition, video-users' post-test scores turn out to be significantly different from their pre-test scores whereas non-users' post-test scores do not. It is highly likely that using video has helped improve the subjects' speaking proficiency. This is very encouraging because although using video was expected to affect listening skills, speaking skills were not expected to be directly influenced.
14. Cohesion turns out to be the aspect of language proficiency in which all the three video-users' scores have increased in all cases on the post-test for speaking.
15. The subjects' post self-assessment scores have also changed from the pre self-assessment scores. Even the scores for reading and writing skills have changed on the post self-assessment, even if the changes are not big.
16. When comparing the changes in both the totals and the individual scores on Bachman & Palmer's self-assessment test, the two non-users show the smallest changes among five subjects.
17. One video-user, case 2, shows the most dramatic changes in her post self-assessment scores, and the direction is downwards.
18. Video-users used more English in their second observed classes but non-users did not.

19. Video-users used more Outer language in their second classes (although case 1's ratio of Outer language did not increase) but non-users did not.
20. Video-users used a wider range of functions in English in their second classes (except for case 1's range of functions which stayed the same).
21. From the above results, hypothesis 4, 'the use of video in class or on their own will have a significant positive effect on teachers' spoken language proficiency' was confirmed.
22. The results clearly show that video can be used effectively in language learning and teaching contexts. This could be a basis of using video in the classroom or in self-directed learning.

6.3 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY FOR NON-NATIVE TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

This study can shed light on non-native teachers' problems and can suggest ways of dealing with problems shared by teachers in all corners of the world that share similar kinds of educational and social backgrounds with Korea. Since attention in the literature is more directed towards learners' problems and language improvement (understandably so), relatively little attention is given to teachers' problems, in particular to their language problems. The study findings, which clearly pin down non-native teachers' perceptions of their needs for target language improvement, suggest that teachers' needs should be, and can be catered for. Formal recognition therefore of these needs of non-native teachers should be made, and efforts to meet the needs should be made, preferably in the form of teacher training.

Teacher training focusing on non-native teachers' language improvement should be offered. In particular, the common problem areas identified by the teachers such as speaking skills and appropriate use of vocabulary need attention in the design of the training courses. Furthermore, second hand experience of the target culture on the courses in the form of video or other media can help teachers overcome the difficulty they face due to the lack of knowledge of the target culture, as pointed out in 2.5.12.

Study materials for non-native teachers should be designed and widely distributed to help these teachers learn the target culture as well as the language. These materials can not only help the teachers who might not be able to attend teacher training courses, but can also encourage teachers to continue with their study in their own time even after training courses are completed.

The research findings also suggest that improving teachers' English can positively affect teachers' use of English in class with the subjects' increased use of English and the variety of

functions their English demonstrated in their after-treatment classes. This clearly suggests that helping teachers can also mean helping students. In other words, helping teachers improve their English can lead them to use more and varied English in class, which may positively affect students' use of English.

6.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

The study findings suggest that using video can be a good way of learning the target language. Therefore, video could be usefully applied to different learning situations. First of all, it can be used in classroom teaching and learning, as one of the case study subjects did. A lot of research findings indicate that video could help students' learning, as shown in 2.5.7. Especially, in Korea there are practically no large-scale programmes such as a year abroad for foreign language students except for a small number of exclusive student exchange programmes. Therefore, video can be used as an accessible alternative. At the same time, it is likely that using video in class can also help teachers improve their language proficiency as seen in the current study findings.

Secondly, video can be used for advanced level learners' self-study for language improvement. It could be very good study-material for advanced level learners such as teachers. The effect of video was demonstrated in the current case study results. The two teachers who used video for their own language improvement are both in favour of video as shown in the post-interview with them.

Finally, video can also be used in teacher training. The self-study course using video in the current case study could also be converted into one form of teacher training. Trainee teachers participating in training could study the video in their own time, and in class use the video for speaking or writing practice as well as for listening and pronunciation. Alternatively, the video could be used in the training session itself. In other words, teacher trainers could use it in sessions with trainees for various purposes such as trainees' listening skill improvement, discussion topics, pronunciation practice, etc. Video can also be used to present the target culture to the teachers. Discussion of the similar or different cultural aspects may greatly interest teachers on the course. In addition, it may be helpful for them to use the self-assessment tests and language tests used in the study on teacher training courses, because those tests could pinpoint the teachers' problem areas, and tell many things about the respondents. It would also help teachers develop an awareness of the criteria they use in assessment.

Teacher training to provide teachers with techniques of how to use video or how to incorporate it into the classroom would not only be useful but also encourage more teachers to use it, since

one of the reasons for not using video may be due to the teachers' lack of confidence in techniques of using it (which can be inferred from the fact that a great proportion of video-users either did not provide techniques they had employed or stated that they simply had showed the video to the students or that they simply watched it in their own time without using any particular techniques). Teacher training sessions can also be designed as video lessons from which teachers can get ideas about how to conduct their own video lessons in class or in their own time. Theoretical input about using the two-channel medium in learning can also provide teachers with much-needed theoretical support for their choice of the medium, i.e. confirmation that video is not only for distraction from the traditional classroom or for fun, but indeed an effective learning medium.

In addition, production of video materials closely related to classroom teaching objectives should be encouraged. There may be teachers who are deterred from using video because of the burden of finding suitable materials for use in class. These teachers can be persuaded easily to use video if appropriate video materials are provided.

Because all the videos used in the current study are authentic and contain a variety of examples of different native and non-native speakers' speaking, they can expose teachers to a variety of situations where English is used. In addition, as this study suggests that learners can benefit from these authentic videos (as the videos used in the study are 'self-made' by students rather than commercially available, they present a case for using videos containing authentic language), it also seems to suggest that production of authentic videos should be encouraged.

6.5 IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Although the current study seems to open the door for the investigation into teachers' perceived and measured proficiency, more research is needed in the area because of its importance in language teaching and learning, and because there is relatively little research that focuses on that. As an individual researcher, the author could not persuade as many teachers as initially planned to take the self-assessment tests and the language tests. Therefore, the larger scale study is needed to provide results which can be more confidently generalised to the whole population of Korean English teachers. It might be possible to persuade more teachers to participate if the project were led and funded by government or the ministry of Education because in Korea the power of authority is still very strong and could affect the teachers' decision to take part.

Also it might be valuable to investigate further the effect of using video on the teachers' teaching behaviours in the teachers' self-study or in class. The current study focused only on the teachers' use of English, but it may also be important to look at the effect of using video on other aspects of teaching.

In addition, it has yet to be investigated how much emphasis was placed on the language improvement factor in teacher training courses on a larger scale. Even if the current research findings fail to show any relationship between the emphasis placed upon language improvement in teacher training courses the teachers have received and their perceived proficiency, it still seems worth investigating, because teacher training was one of the most important forms of teacher improvement. In addition, many teachers pointed out the need for teacher training focusing on teachers' language improvement in the survey questionnaire. As shown in the findings, the teachers are in need of language improvement. Therefore, teacher training needs to be designed to cater for the needs of teachers. As Barnes (1996) argues, teacher training should 'concentrate primarily on the improvement of confidence in spontaneous target language use and grammatical accuracy' (63). Consequently, research into the effect of teacher training focusing on teachers' language improvement on the teachers' proficiency needs to be conducted on a large scale. Because this study is not based on the effect of teacher training, the question of whether or not participants in teacher training focusing on language improvement would have higher self-assessment scores after training than before was not investigated, although it would be an interesting research topic.

6.6 COMMENTS ON THE RESEARCH ENVIRONMENTS IN KOREA AND SUGGESTIONS FOR BETTER RESEARCH ENVIRONMENTS

The data gathering process was accompanied by a number of problems because the current research topic dealt with the very sensitive issue of the teachers' linguistic proficiency. Some of the teachers approached seemed to find it very offensive and insulting to be asked about their own proficiency. Some teachers did not hesitate to give direct comments about the insulting characteristics of some of the questions in the questionnaire, and others pointed it out in person.

The difficulties faced with by the researcher are summarised as follows:

1. Individual researcher versus government or the ministry of education funded projects
2. Lack of co-operation on the side of the practising teachers: no tradition of co-operation with researchers
3. The teachers are the subjects, not the students
4. Teachers' fear of losing face by revealing their (low) proficiency

5. Teachers' strong reluctance to take tests
6. A good deal of time involved in the case study

Most of the subjects in the case study were found through the researcher's personal connections. Because the case study involved a lot of time, participation in it was considered as a big personal favour for the researcher.

From this experience, the following suggestions might improve the research environments. First of all, the tradition of co-operation with the researchers should be established. Instead of being reluctant to make small personal sacrifices as a result of participating in research, co-operation with a greater cause needs to be cherished. In order to do that, an atmosphere in which research is very active and practising teachers are interested in the research findings needs to be established. It may be valuable for the practising teachers themselves to become researchers.

In addition, the government or ministry of Education needs to become more interested in more research projects originating from below, and to encourage them by helping and funding them.

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Appendix 1-1: The Modified Version of McIntyre et al Self-assessment test

Self-assessment of Linguistic Proficiency

: Below are 20 questions asking about your perceived English proficiency. Please answer as accurately as possible by choosing one category out of five based on the scale.

SCALE

1	2	3	4	5
Very Poorly				as well as most English speakers

CAN DO ITEM	SCALE				
1., Can you understand a native English speaker when they are talking at a normal speed with one another?	1	2	3	4	5
2. In face-to-face conversation, can you understand native English speakers who are talking to you as they would to another E speaker?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Can you understand English films without subtitles?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Can you understand play-by-play descriptions of sports events on radio?	1	2	3	4	5
5. Can you understand news broadcasts on TV?	1	2	3	4	5
6. Can you describe in English the educational system of your home province in some detail?	1	2	3	4	5
7. Can you tell jokes in English you know?	1	2	3	4	5
8. Can you talk about your favourite hobby at some length, using appropriate vocabulary?	1	2	3	4	5
9. Can you describe in English any film you saw?	1	2	3	4	5
10. Can you describe in English your views on Korean politics?	1	2	3	4	5
11. Can you understand cooking instructions in English, such as those in a recipe?	1	2	3	4	5
12. Can you understand newspaper articles in English?	1	2	3	4	5
13. Can you read and understand formal letters or notes written in English?	1	2	3	4	5
14. Can you understand popular novels without using a dictionary?	1	2	3	4	5
15. Can you understand personal letters or notes written to a native speaker?	1	2	3	4	5
16. Can you fill out a job application form requiring information about your interests and qualifications?	1	2	3	4	5
17. Can you write a letter to an English friend at some length?	1	2	3	4	5
18. Can you write a letter of complaint to the city council about problems with the water supply?	1	2	3	4	5
19. Can you write about your opinion of Korea's reunification and of both the Korean governments' attitudes towards reunification?	1	2	3	4	5
20. Can you write an advertisement to sell a car?	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 1-2: The Original Self-assessment Test (MacIntyre, Noels & Clement 1997)

Language Use Tasks

<i>Can do Item</i>	<i>Instructions for experimental task</i>
1. On the telephone, understand a native French speaker who is speaking slowly and carefully (i.e., deliberately adapting his or her speech to suit you).	1. Here is an audio tape of a telephone conversation in French. Listen to it and then tell us what they said.
2. Understand two native French speakers when they are talking rapidly with one another.	2. In this second conversation, the speakers will talk more rapidly. Again, listen to the conversation and tell us what they said.
3. In face-to-face conversation, understand a native French speaker who is speaking slowly and carefully (i.e., deliberately adapting his or her speech to suit you).	3. Here is a videotape of two people talking in French. Listen to it and then tell us what they said.
4. In face-to-face conversation, understand native French speakers who are talking to you as quickly and colloquially as they would to another French speaker.	4. In this videotape, the conversation happens more rapidly. Again, listen to the speakers and tell us what they said.
5. Understand very simple statements or questions in French ("Hello," "How are you," "What is your name," "Where do you live," etc.).	5. This is a tape used to teach (basic) French conversation. There will be pauses and you should respond as if you were talking to the person.
6. Understand French movies without subtitles.	6. This videotape has an excerpt of a French movie (<i>Cyrano De Bergerac</i>), without subtitles. What is happening in the movie?
7. Understand play-by-play descriptions of sports events on radio.	7. Here is a passage from a hockey game on the radio. Do your best to translate it into English.
8. Understand news broadcasts on the radio.	8. Here is a portion of a news broadcast. What are the stories about?
9. Buy clothes in a department store.	9. Describe what you are wearing today, in French.
10. Describe the educational system of your home province in some detail.	10. In French, describe the provincial education system in some detail.
11. Describe the role played by parliament in the Canadian government system.	11. Describe the role played by parliament in the Canadian government system.
12. Order a complete meal in a restaurant.	12. Order a complete meal, in French.
13. Talk about your favourite hobby at some length, using appropriate vocabulary.	13. Talk about your favourite hobby or interest for three minutes in French.
14. Give a brief description of a picture (e.g., photograph or picture in an art gallery) while looking at it.	14. Describe in French all that is happening in this picture.
15. Count to 10 in French.	15. Count to 100 by 10's in French.
16. Give directions in the street.	16. Give directions from this room to the (nearby shopping centre) to somebody who speaks only French.
17. Understand cooking directions, such as those in a recipe.	17. Here is a recipe for a French dish. Explain in English what you need to do to make it (fondue aux tomates).
18. Understand newspaper headlines.	18. Here are 7 newspaper headlines; explain what they mean in English (obtained from a French language daily newspaper).
19. Read personal letters or notes written to you in which the writer has deliberately used simple words and constructions.	19. Here is a postcard written in French; explain what it means (a postcard written in French to one of the authors).
20. Read popular novels without using a dictionary.	20. The following passage is from a French novel; explain in English what is happening in the story.
21. Read personal letters or notes written as they	21. This memo is written in French; what does it

would be to a native speaker.	mean in English?
22. Make out a shopping list.	22. In one minute, list in French all the things that you would put in a refrigerator.
23. Fill out a job application form requiring information about your interests and qualifications.	23. Complete the following job application listing in French (obtained from the local employment centre).
24. Write a letter to a friend.	24. In French, write a postcard to a friend describing the University.
25. Leave a note for somebody explaining where you will be or when you will come home.	25. Leave a note for somebody, in French, explaining where you are now and when you will return home.
26. Write an advertisement to sell a bicycle.	26. Write an advertisement to sell the bicycle pictured below (photo obtained from a national catalogue).

Appendix 1-3: The Modified Version of Bachman & Palmer Self-assessment Test

SELF-RATINGS OF COMPONENTS OF COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE ABILITY

Method 1 : Ability to use trait (productive)

- 1.
- (a) How much English grammar do you know?
- | | | | | |
|-------------|--------------|------------|------------|-----------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| almost none | little of it | some of it | most of it | all of it |
- (b) How many English words do you know?
- | | | | | |
|----------|----------|-----------------|--|---------------------------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| very few | not many | reasonably many | a lot, but not as many as most English speakers know | as many as most English speakers know |
- 2.
- (a) How many English sentences about a topic can you usually say in a row?
- | | | | | |
|------|----------------------------|---|---|----------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| None | One or two short sentences | Three or four reasonable length sentences | A lot, but not as many as most English speakers can | As many as I want to |
- (b) How many English sentences about a topic can you usually write in a row?
- | | | | | |
|------|----------------------------|---|---|----------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| None | One or two short sentences | Three or four reasonable length sentences | A lot, but not as many as most English speakers can | As many as I want to |
- 3.
- (a) Can you use humour in spoken English?
- | | | | | |
|----------------|--------|-------|------------|----------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| no, not at all | rarely | often | very often | as many as I want to |
- (b) Can you use humour in written English?
- | | | | | |
|----------------|--------|-------|------------|----------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| no, not at all | rarely | often | very often | as many as I want to |
- (c) Can you use metaphors in spoken English?
- | | | | | |
|----------------|--------|-------|------------|----------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| No, not at all | Rarely | often | Very often | As many as I want to |
- (d) Can you use metaphors in written English?
- | | | | | |
|----------------|--------|-------|------------|----------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| No, not at all | Rarely | often | Very often | As many as I want to |
- 4.
- (a) Do you use different kinds of English depending on the person you are talking to? (For example : a child, a close friend, a teacher)
- | | | | | |
|----------------|--------|-----------|---------------|-------------------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| no, not at all | rarely | sometimes | in most cases | as freely as English speakers |
- (b) Do you use different kinds of English depending on the type of writing you are doing? (For example : a letter to a friend, an application form, a road sign)
- | | | | | |
|----------------|--------|-----------|---------------|-------------------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| no, not at all | rarely | sometimes | in most cases | as freely as English speakers |

- no, not at all rarely sometimes in most cases almost always
- (d) When you use English, can you usually write just the same words and sentences that English speaking people would use?
- 1 2 3 4 5
- no, not at all rarely sometimes in most cases almost always
- (e) How many different names of well-known American or British people and places do you know?
- 1 2 3 4 5
- almost none only a few reasonably many a lot, but not as many as most English speaking people do as many as most English speaking people do

Method 2 : Difficulty in using trait

1.

- (a) How many grammar mistakes do you make in English, when you speak?

1 2 3 4 5

in almost everything many not a few a few almost none

- (b) How many different kinds of grammar mistakes do you make in English, when you write?

1 2 3 4 5

in almost everything many not a few a few almost none

- (c) how often do you think you don't know enough English words?

1 2 3 4 5

almost always very often often rarely never

2.

- (a) How hard is it for you to put several English sentences together in a row, when you speak?

1 2 3 4 5

almost impossible very hard not very hard easy very easy

- (b) How hard is it for you to put several English sentences together in a row, when you write?

1 2 3 4 5

almost impossible very hard not very hard easy very easy

3.

- (a) How hard is it for you to use humour in spoken English?

1 2 3 4 5

almost impossible very hard not very hard easy very easy

- (b) How hard is it for you to use humour in written English?

1 2 3 4 5

almost impossible very hard not very hard easy very easy

- (c) How hard is it for you to use metaphors in spoken English?

1 2 3 4 5

Almost impossible Very hard Not very hard Easy Very easy

- (d) How hard is it for you to use metaphors in written English?

1 2 3 4 5

Almost impossible Very hard Not very hard Easy Very easy

4.

- (a) How hard is it for you to use different kinds of English with different kinds of people you are talking to? (For example : a child, a close friend, a teacher)

1 2 3 4 5

almost impossible very hard not very hard easy very easy

- (b) How hard is it for you to use different kinds of English depending on the type of writing you are doing? (For example : a letter to a friend, an application form, a road sign)

1 2 3 4 5

almost impossible very hard not very hard easy very easy

- (c) When you use English, how hard is it for you to say just the same words and sentences that English speaking people would use?

1 2 3 4 5

almost impossible very hard not very hard easy very easy

- (d) When you use English, how hard is it for you to write just the same words and sentences that English speaking people would use?

1	2	3	4	5
almost impossible	very hard	not very hard	easy	very easy

(e) How hard is it for you to use names of well-known American or British people and places in your speaking?

1	2	3	4	5
almost impossible	very hard	not very hard	easy	very easy

(f) How hard is it for you to use names of well-known American or British people and places in your writing?

1	2	3	4	5
almost impossible	very hard	not very hard	easy	very easy

Method 3 : Recognition of input (receptive)

1.

(a) How often can you tell when someone makes a grammar mistake in his/her speaking?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	rarely	sometimes	in most cases	almost always

(b) How often can you tell when someone makes a grammar mistake in his/her writing?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	rarely	sometimes	in most cases	almost always

(c) Do you understand the English words you hear?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	rarely	sometimes	in most cases	almost always

(d) Do you understand the English words you see?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	rarely	sometimes	in most cases	almost always

2.

(a) How easy is it for you to understand several English sentences in a row, when you hear them?

1	2	3	4	5
almost impossible	very hard	a little hard	easy	very easy

(b) How easy is it for you to understand several English sentences in a row, when you see them in a written form?

1	2	3	4	5
almost impossible	very hard	a little hard	easy	very easy

3.

(a) Can you understand humour when you hear them?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	rarely	sometimes	in most cases	almost always

(b) Can you understand humour when you see them in a written form?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	rarely	sometimes	in most cases	almost always

(c) Can you understand metaphors when you hear them?

1	2	3	4	5
Almost impossible	Very hard	Not very hard	Easy	Very easy

(d) Can you understand metaphors when you see them in a written form?

1	2	3	4	5
Almost impossible	Very hard	Not very hard	Easy	Very easy

4.

(a) Can you tell how appropriate the kind of English a speaker use is, when you hear it?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	rarely	sometimes	in most cases	almost always

(b) Can you tell how appropriate the kind of English a writer use is, when you see it in a written form?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	rarely	sometimes	in most cases	almost always

(c) When other people use English, can you tell when they are not saying the same words and sentences that English speaking people would use?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	rarely	sometimes	in most cases	almost always

(d) When other people use English, can you tell when they are not writing the same words and

sentences that English speaking people would use?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	rarely	sometimes	in most cases	almost always

(e) When English-speaking people say names of well-known American or British people and places, do you understand what they mean?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	rarely	sometimes	in most cases	almost always

(f) When English-speaking people write names of well-known American or British people and places, do you understand what they mean?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	rarely	sometimes	in most cases	almost always

Please comment on this questionnaire. You may use the back sheet if necessary.

(Thank you very much.)

Appendix 1-4: The Original Self-assessment Test

(Bachman & Palmer 1989: Self-ratings of components of communicative language ability)

Method 1: Ability to use trait

	BAD			GOOD
G. How much English grammar do you know?	Almost none	Some of it	Most of it	All of it
PY. How many English words do you know?	Very few	Several hundred	A lot, but not as many as most English speakers know	As many as most English speakers know
PC. How many English sentences can you usually say or write in a row?	Only one short sentence	Three or four sentences	A lot, but not as many as most English speakers know	As many as I want to
PO. Can you organise a speech or piece of writing in English with several different ideas in it?	No, not at all	Only a very short one	Yes, usually	Yes, even a long one
SR. Do you use different kinds of English depending on the person you are using it with? (For example: a child, a close friend, a teacher.)	No, not at all	Only a very short one	Yes, usually	Yes, even a long one
SN. When you use English, can you usually use just the same words and sentences that English speaking people would use?	No, almost	Sometimes	Usually	Yes, almost always
SCR. How many different names of well-known American people and places do you know?	Almost none	Only a few	A lot, but not as many as most English-speaking people do	As many as most English speakers know

Method 2: Difficulty in using trait

	BAD			GOOD
G. How many different kinds of grammar mistakes do you make in English?	I make grammar Mistakes in almost everything	Many kinds	Only a few kinds	I almost never Make grammar mistakes
PY. How often do you think you don't know enough English words?	Almost always Impossible	Often	Not very often	Never
PC. How hard is it for you to put several English sentences together in a row?	Impossible	Very hard	Not very hard	Very easy
PO. How hard is it for you to organize a speech or piece of writing in English with several ideas in it?	Impossible	Very hard	Not very hard	Very easy

SR. How hard is it for you to use different kinds of English with different kinds of people? (For example: a child, a close friend, a teacher.)	Impossible	Very hard	Not very hard	Very easy
SN. When you use English, how hard is it for you to use just the same words and sentences that English speaking people would use?	Impossible	Very hard	Not very hard	Very easy
SCR. How hard is it for you to use names of well-known American people and places in your speaking and writing?	Impossible	Very hard	Not very hard	Very easy

Method 3: Recognition of input

	BAD			GOOD
G. How often can you tell when someone makes a grammar mistake?	Almost never	Sometimes	Usually	Almost always
PY. Do you understand the English words you see or hear?	No, almost never	Sometimes	Usually	Yes, almost always
PC. How easily is it for you to understand several English sentences together in a row?	Almost impossible	Very hard	Not very hard	Very easy
PO. When you hear or read something in English, how easy is it for you to tell how well it is organised?	Almost impossible	Very hard	Not very hard	Very easy
SR. can you tell how polite English-speaking people are by the kind of English they use?	No, almost never	Sometimes	Usually	Yes, almost always
SN. When other students of English use English, can you tell when they are not using the same words and sentences that English speaking people would use?	No, almost never	Sometimes	Usually	Yes, almost always
SCR. When English-speaking people use names of well-known American people and places, do you understand what they mean?	No, almost never	Sometimes	Usually	Yes, almost always

Appendix 1-5: The Survey Questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is not intended to report or assess respondents, but for research. Personal details are for statistical purposes only, not for release. So, candid responses would be truly appreciated. Thank you very much.

I. Personal details

1. Age: ____
2. Sex: Male ____ Female ____
3. How long have you taught English? _____
4. At what level of institution are you teaching?
 junior high school ____ high school ____
 university ____ private language school for adults ____
5. How many students on average are there in your class? _____
6. What is your students' level of English proficiency as a whole? _____
7. How many hours a week on average do you teach? _____
8. Have you ever been in any English-speaking countries?
 Yes. ____ No. ____
9. If your answer is 'yes' to the above question.
 - a. Which English-speaking countries have you been to and for how long?

 - b. Did you follow any courses there?
 Yes ____ No ____
 - c. If yes to the above question, specify your course title and the length of the course.

10. How many native speakers of English do you have at your school? _____
11. How often do you speak to native speakers of English? _____
12. Other than the classroom, where have you had the chance to use English?
 (put the appropriate number in the blank.)

1	2	3	4
<i>hardly ever</i>	<i>sometimes</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>Very often</i>

- Contacts with other English-speaking people or foreigners ____
- Taking some extra English classes ____
- Participating in teacher training ____
- Reading professional literature in English ____
- Reading newspapers/books in English ____
- Listening to programmes in English on the radio ____
- Writing an English letter or email ____
- Watching programmes in English on TV ____
- Seeing films in English ____
- Other _____

II. Learning experience as a student

At secondary schools and university (for questions 1-6, put the appropriate number in the blank)

1	2	3	4
<i>hardly ever</i>	<i>sometimes</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>Very often</i>

- | | SCHOOLS | UNIVERSITY |
|--|---------|------------|
| 1. did you have any contacts with native speakers? | _____ | _____ |
| 2. did you have opportunities to learn listening skills in class? | _____ | _____ |
| 3. did you have opportunities to learn speaking skills in class? | _____ | _____ |
| 4. did you have opportunities to learn reading skills in class? | _____ | _____ |
| 5. did you have opportunities to learn writing skills in class? | _____ | _____ |
| 6. did you have opportunities to learn about the culture-related issues of English speaking countries? | _____ | _____ |

III. Teacher training experience

1. Have you ever participated in teacher training?

Yes ___ No ___

2. What was the period of time and the total amount of time you spent in teacher training? (if you took part several times, please specify each training period and time)(please specify if the training was pre-service or in-service)

Pre-service: _____

In-service: _____

3 How was teachers' target language improvement dealt with in the teacher training you received?

a	b	c	d
hardly	Yes, a little	Yes, reasonably importantly	Yes, very importantly

4. If yes to the above question, in what way was it conducted?

IV. Exploration of ways of improving proficiency

1. As a non-native speaker of English, are you confident of using English? ___

1	2	3	4
<i>Hardly confident</i>	<i>A little confident</i>	<i>confident</i>	<i>Very confident</i>

2. What are your areas of difficulty in using English?

Listening comprehension _____

Idiomatic expressions _____

Pronunciation _____

Appropriate use of vocabulary _____

Speaking _____

Writing _____

Reading comprehension _____

Grammar _____

Others _____

3. why do you think you have difficulties with the above aspects of English? (Please specify.)

4. What percentage of the time do you spend using English in class as a medium of instruction?

5. If you don't use English in class 80-100% of the time, what are the reasons?

6. When the teacher does not feel very confident of her proficiency, how do you think it affects her teaching? (Check as many as you want.)

Not liking to have questions from students ___

Becoming defensive towards students' comments ___

Being reluctant to encourage students to be active participants ___

Not liking to have a variety in teaching methods ___

Tending to stick to one fixed teaching method ___

Depending too much on the prescribed fixed texts ___

Not trying other materials other than the textbook ___

Not wanting to discuss the contents of the particular lesson openly in class ___

Not trying to teach through the medium of English rather than L1 ___

Frequent switch into L1 ___

Other _____

7. Have you ever felt the need to improve your own proficiency in the target language? _____

- | | | | |
|-------------|-----------|-------|------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Hardly ever | Sometimes | Often | Very often |
8. Why do you want to improve your proficiency?(Check as many as you want.)
- Not satisfied with my present proficiency ____
 - To teach students better ____
 - To get a better self-image ____
 - To be a more confident teacher ____
 - To go abroad ____
 - To watch or listen to English speaking programmes ____
 - To read materials written in English ____
 - To take a test (e.g.: TOEFL) ____
 - To get a promotion ____
 - Other _____
9. Have you tried any methods of improving your own language proficiency?
- Yes ____ No ____
10. If yes to the above question, please list down the methods you have tried to improve your language proficiency.

11. What do you think can help improve “your” proficiency in English?

- Teacher training ____
- Taking extra English classes yourself ____
- Staying at English speaking countries ____
- Frequent contacts with native speaker colleagues ____
- Frequent contacts with foreign people ____
- Listening to English speaking programmes on the radio ____
- Watching English speaking programmes on TV ____
- Seeing films in English ____
- Reading English books or magazines ____
- Working on vocabulary ____
- Reading grammar books ____
- Writing English letters or emails ____
- Trying to think in English ____
- Keeping a diary in English ____
- Others _____

12. What methods do you think would be practical for you to try?

- Teacher training ____
- Taking English classes yourself ____
- Staying at English speaking countries ____
- Frequent contacts with native speaker colleagues ____
- Frequent contacts with foreign people ____
- Listening to English speaking programmes on the radio ____
- Watching English speaking programmes on TV ____
- Seeing films in English ____
- Reading English books or magazines ____
- Working on vocabulary ____
- Reading grammar books ____
- Writing English letters or emails ____
- Trying to think in English ____
- Keeping a diary in English ____
- Others _____

V. Video Use

1. Have you used video in your own time as a way of improving your language proficiency?
- Yes ____ (go to question 2) No ____ (go to question 5)
2. If yes to the above question, please explain your methods of using the video.

3. What kind of video have you used?
ELT videos ____ films on video ____ Others _____

4. Which type of video did you find most useful? _____

5. Do you think it is effective in your language improvement?

Yes ____ No ____

Why do you think so?

6. Have you used video with students in class?

Yes ____ (go to question below) No ____ (go to question 7)

If yes to the above question, please explain how you used the video?

7. Do you think using video in class is effective for students' language learning?

Yes ____ No ____

Why do you think so?

8. Do you think you can have indirect learning by teaching students using video?

Yes ____ No ____

9. If you can think of any good reasons for using video, please write them down.

Please add any comments you would like to make.

(Thank you very much.)

Appendix 2-1: Language Test 1 (pre-test)

Comprehension Questions for Listening Q 1 -- 5.

You may answer in either Korean or English. (한국말로 대답하셔도 좋습니다.)

1. Audiotape of a conversation

1) What course is Simon on?

2) Previous to that, what did Simon do?

3) What possibilities did Simon have in mind when he started the course?

4) Is he still interested in the media side of things? How can you say that?

5) What is the Careers Officer's advice for Simon?

2. Videotape of a conversation

1) What is the girl involved in?

2) Give some reasons why she decided to join that.

3) Name all different kinds of drama she's played including the one she's doing now.

4) The girl answered "yes, I think so" to the last question. What was the guy's last question?

3. A scene from a film: Vampire Louis (Brad Pitt) is talking to a writer (Christian Slater). Listen carefully and answer the questions.

1) Describe what he(the vampire Louis: Brad Pitt) said to the writer at the beginning of the scene as precisely as possible. (Lestart 라는 이름이 첫부분에 나옵니다.)

2) What is the writer's response to what Louis said above no. 1?

3) What does the writer (Christian Slater) say the reason why Louis brought him up there is?

4) Describe what Louis the vampire's response to the above no. 3.

4. A portion of a football game: You are going to hear a football match between the Newcastle United and the Manchester United. The following are the names of some footballers you are going to hear.

Marcellino/ Cordone/ Given/ Ruud Guillit/ Aaron Hughes/ David Beckham/ Bartz/ Sherringham/ Goma/

Describe what is happening as precisely as you can. (밑의 인물들 각각에 대해 해설자가 하는 말(혹은 논평 등)을 써주시면 됩니다. 그리고 덧붙일 것이 있으면 해주세요.)

Marcellino

Cordone

Given

Aaron Hughes

David Beckham

Bartz

Sherringham

Goma

Old Trafford (사람이름이 아닙니다.)

5. News Broadcast

Describe the news you just heard as precisely as possible.

(다음은 뉴스에서 듣게 될 몇가지 고유명사입니다: Kuosk/ the Barran Sea/ Murmansk)

Questions for Speaking Q 6 – 10.

6. In English, describe the Korean educational system in some detail.
7. Tell a joke or two in English you know.
8. Talk about your favourite hobby or interest for three minutes in English.
9. Describe in English the film you saw recently or any film you like.
10. Describe your views on Korean politics.

Appendix 2-2: Listening Test 2 (post-test)

Comprehension Questions for Listening Q 1 -- 5.

1. Three people (a guy having a problem, his guy friend, and his woman friend) are having a conversation about the guy's problems. After listening to the tape, answer the questions.

1) What is the problem they are talking about?

2) What is George like?

3) What is the guy friend's advice for the situation?

4) What is the woman friend's advice for the situation?

5) What is the response to the above advice?

2. Watch the video where two native speakers are talking and answer the questions.

1) Where do the boys come from?

2) What is the main reason for the joint production?

3) The teacher mentioned two main things in the process of answering question 2). What are the two things mentioned?

4) What is the teacher talking about at the end of the conversation? Explain as precisely as you can.

3. Watch the scene from the film, 'Indiana Jones III'. In the scene, Indiana Jones (Harrison Ford) is walking and talking with a man (Marcus) and a woman (Elsa). Answer the questions.

1) Describe as precisely as possible what happened to Indiana Jones's Dad according to what the woman (Elsa) said at the beginning of the scene.

2) What did they say the library look like?

3) Elsa explained about the background of the library. Describe about the library based on what Elsa said, as precisely as possible.

4) What did they find in the library?

5) What did Indiana Jones say his Dad was looking for?

4. You will listen to a radio broadcast of the football match between Newcastle United and the Manchester United. Listen carefully and write a short summary about the footballers' actions. Below are the names of the footballers.

Robert Lee/ Aaron Hughes/ Fabien Bartex/ Domi/ Ronnie Johnson/ Bobby Robson/ Beckham/ Andy Cole/ Steve Lodge/ Keene/ Giggs/ Given/ Whipped/ Cort

Robert Lee
Aaron Hughes
Fabien Bartex
Domi
Ronnie Johnson
Bobby Robson
Beckham
Andy Cole
Steve Lodge
Keene
Giggs
Given
Whipped
Cort

5. You will watch a piece of TV news. Listen carefully and write a summary about the news you heard. (A-level : an explanation in Korean)

Questions for Speaking Q 6 – 10

6. In English, describe the Korean university system in some detail.
7. Tell a joke or two in English you know.
8. Talk about your weekend for three minutes in English.
9. Describe in English the book you read recently or any stories you like.
10. Describe your views on Korean reunification.

Appendix 3: The results of Bachman & Palmer SA test

4.5.2.2. Bachman & Palmer's self-assessment test scores
(pre self-assessment vs. post self-assessment scores)

No./case	1 sal	1 sa2	2 sal	2 sa2	3 sal	3 sa2	4 sal	4 sa2	5 sal	5 sa2
I.1.a.	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	4
I.1.b.	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
I.2.a.	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4
I.2.b.	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4
I.3.a.	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4
I.3.b.	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4
I.3.c.	4	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3
I.3.d.	4	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	4	3
I.4.a.	3	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	4
I.4.b.	3	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	4
I.4.c.	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3.5	3.5
I.4.d.	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3.5	3.5
I.4.e.	3	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3
II.1.a.	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4
II.1.b.	4	4	3	2	4	4	4	4	4	4
II.1.c.	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3
II.2.a.	3	4	2	3	3	4	4	4	4	4
II.2.b.	3	4	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	4
II.3.a.	3	4	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	3
II.3.b.	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	3
II.3.c.	3	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3
II.3.d.	3	2	2	2	3	4	3	3	3	3
II.4.a.	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3
II.4.b.	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3
II.4.c.	3	3	3	2	3	3	4	4	3	3
II.4.d.	2	2	4	3	3	4	4	4	3	3
II.4.e.	2	2	4	3	3	3	3	3	2.5	2.5
II.4.f.	2	2	4	2	4	4	3	3	2.5	2.5
III.1.a.	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4
III.1.b.	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	4
III.1.c.	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
III.1.d.	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4
III.2.a.	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	4
III.2.b.	3	3	4	3	4	4	3	3	4	4
III.3.a.	3	4	4	2	4	4	3	3	3	3
III.3.b.	3	4	4	2	4	4	3	3	3	4
III.3.c.	2	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3
III.3.d.	2	2	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3
III.4.a.	3	3	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4
III.4.b.	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4
III.4.c.	3	3	4	3	3	3	4	3	4	4
III.4.d.	3	3	4	3	3	4	4	3	3	4
III.4.e.	2	2	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	3
III.4.f.	2	2	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	3
Total	137	140	152	125	150	163	156	154	152	154

Appendix 4: Marking scales for speaking

Levels of ability/ mastery		Syntax	Vocabulary	Phonology (pronunciation)	Cohesion
1	Zero (No evidence of knowledge of __)	Range: zero Accuracy: not relevant	Range: zero Accuracy: not relevant	Range: zero Accuracy: not relevant	Range: zero Accuracy: not relevant
2	Limited (Limited knowledge of __)	Range: small Accuracy: inaccurate use of many basic structures; rare and inaccurate use of complex structures; frequent problems with intelligibility	Range: small Accuracy: vocabulary items frequently used imprecisely, hesitation in selection at most times	Range: limited range Accuracy: utterances frequently confusing	Range: few markers of cohesion Accuracy: relationships between sentences frequently confusing
3	Moderate (Moderate knowledge of __)	Range: medium Accuracy: Accurate use of most basic structures; frequent inaccurate use of complex structures	Range: moderate size Accuracy: vocabulary items sometimes used imprecisely, some hesitation in selection	Range: moderate range Accuracy: utterances generally intelligible and clear	Range: moderate range of explicit devices Accuracy: relationships between sentences generally clear but could often be more explicitly marked
4	Extensive (Extensive knowledge of __)	Range: large, few limitations Accuracy: mostly accurate, few errors	Range: large Accuracy: vocabulary items seldom used imprecisely, little hesitation in selection	Range: wide range Accuracy: highly accurate with only occasional errors in phonological rules	Range: wide range of explicit cohesive devices including complex subordination Accuracy: highly accurate with only occasional errors in cohesion
5	Complete (Evidence of complete knowledge of __)	Range: evidence of unlimited range Accuracy: evidence of complete control	Range: evidence of complete range of vocabulary Accuracy: evidence of complete accuracy of usage	Range: evidence of complete range of phonology Accuracy: evidence of complete accuracy of usage	Range: evidence of complete range of explicit cohesive devices Accuracy: evidence of complete accuracy of use

Appendix 5: Study notes

Study Notes

This is to review and confirm what you have learned or consolidated from your self-study using video / from the video you used in class/ from the lesson you just taught.

Title of the video you used this time/ title of the lesson you taught this time:

From the study using video/from the class I taught, I learned or consolidated the following:

A. Words

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

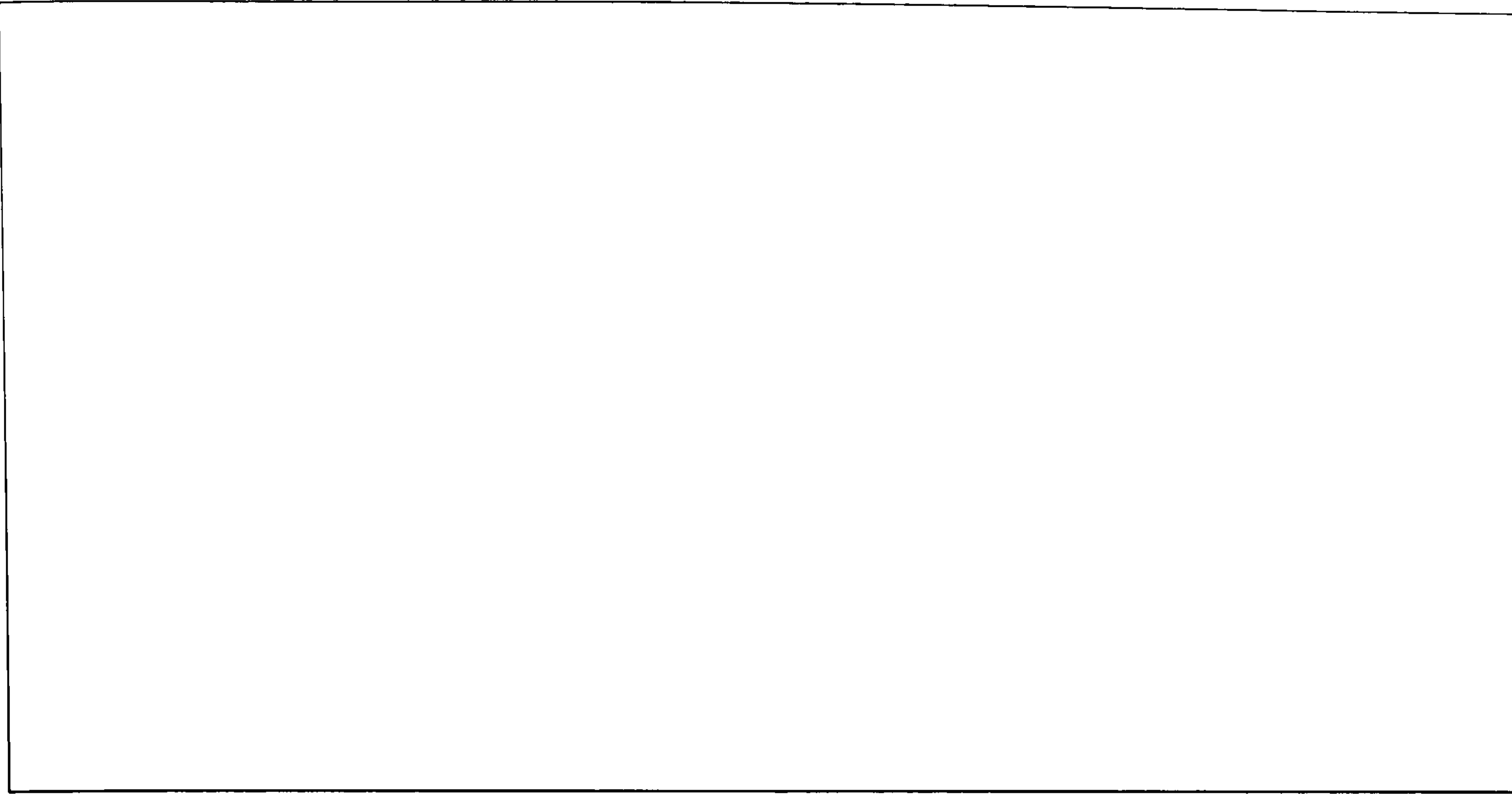
B. Idioms

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.
- 7.
- 8.
- 9.
- 10.

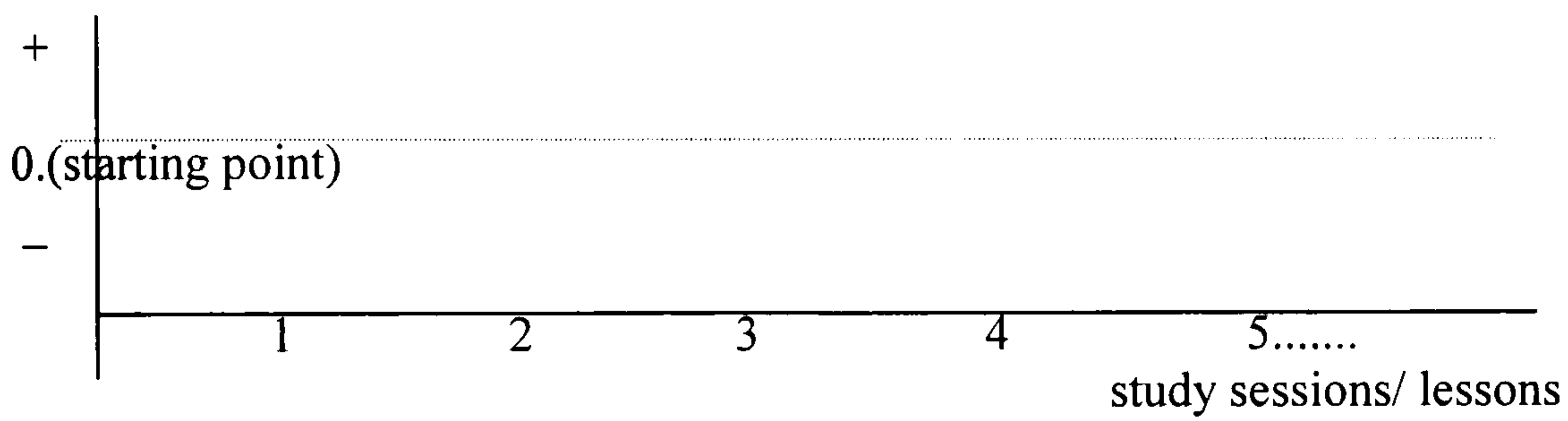
C. Grammatical Structures

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.
- 7.
- 8.
- 9.
- 10.

D. Write down anything you couldn't catch without the script when you listened to the video./ write down anything you learned or consolidated from the lesson you taught.



E. Draw a graph to show your self-perceived increase or decrease in your English performance each time you study/ you teach.



Q1: in which linguistic skills do you think you have improved? Why do you think so?

Q2: in which linguistic skills do you think you don't show any improvements? Why do you think so?

Appendix 6: Classes of acts

(Inside brackets are Sinclair & Coulthard's (1975) (1992) original definitions):

Marker (m): (realised by a closed class of items—'well', 'OK', 'now', 'good', 'right', 'alright'.) 'so', 'anyway', 'then', 'and'...

Elicitation (el): (realised by a question. Its function is to request a linguistic response.) Also questions asked of students not related to the lesson and so the ones the teacher doesn't know the answer to.

Check (c): (realised by a closed class of polar questions concerned with being 'finished' or 'ready', having 'problems' or 'difficulties', being able to 'see' or 'hear'. They are 'real' questions, in that for once the teacher doesn't know the answer. If he does know the answer to, for example, 'have you finished', it is a directive, not a check. The function of checks is to enable the teacher to ascertain whether there are any problems preventing the successful progress of the lesson.)

Directive (d): (realised by a command. Its function is to request a non-linguistic response).

Informative (i): (realised by a statement. It differs from other uses of statement in that its sole function is to provide information. The only response is an acknowledgement of attention and understanding.) Clue in Sinclair & Coulthard's (1975: 1992) belongs here. The teacher's explanation about the activities the students should perform. The teacher's reply to the pupils' questions

Prompt (p): (realised by a closed class of items—'go on', 'come on', 'hurry up', 'quickly', 'have a guess'. Its function is to reinforce a directive or elicitation by suggesting that the teacher is no longer requesting a response but expecting or even demanding one.)

Nomination (n): (realised by a closed class consisting of the names of all the pupils. 'you' with contrastive stress, 'anybody', 'yes', and one or two idiosyncratic items such as 'who hasn't said anything yet'. The function of nomination is to call on or give permission to a pupil to contribute to the discourse.) 'next', 'whose turn?', 'your team', 'who do you want to start first?'

Evaluate (e): (realised by statements and tag questions, including words and phrases such as 'good', 'interesting', 'team point', commenting on the quality of the reply, react or initiation, also by 'yes', 'no', 'good', 'fine', with a high-fall intonation, and repetition of the pupil's reply with either high-fall (positive), or a rise of any kind (negative evaluation)) Accept in Sinclair & Coulthard's (1975: 1992) belongs here.

Metastatement (ms): (realised by a statement which refers to some future time when what is desired will occur. Its function is to help the pupils to see the structure of the lesson, to help them understand the purpose of the subsequent exchange, and see where they are going) things said to remind the students of what was taught during the previous lessons, and said related to homework,

Loop (l): (realised by a closed class of items—'pardon', 'you what', 'eh', 'again', with rising intonation and a few questions like 'did you say', 'do you mean'. Its function is to return the discourse to the stage it was at before the pupil spoke, from where it can proceed normally) 'excuse me', 'did you hear that?', 'please speak up!' and some expressions asking for clarification of the students' remarks

Aside (z): (realised by statement, question, command, moodless, usually marked by lowering the tone of the voice, and not really addressed to the class. As we noted above, this category covers items we have difficulty in dealing with. It is really instances of the teacher talking to himself: 'it's freezing in here', 'where did I put my chalk?') greetings, any remarks not directly related to the lesson, however the teacher's questions directed at the students' answers are classified as elicitation because they are trying to instigate students' answers.

Reading (r): the teacher's reading of any part of the textbook. 'number 1', 'fill in the blanks'.

Appendix 7: The Range of Functions

Functions	Case1 1st	Case1 2nd	Case2 1st	Case2 2nd	Case3 1st	Case3 2nd
Marker	5	51	5	12	24	42
Elicitation	45	17	9	12	5	46
Check	1	25	5	1	16	13
Directive	24	46	18	6	14	36
Informative	8	79	13	32	21	54
Prompt	4	1		3		8
Nomination	2		1	11	4	22
Evaluative	8	47	6	7	20	52
Metastatement		15	6	11	8	7
Loop	4	2		3	1	2
Aside	1	6	2		3	28
Reading	11	12		6		1
Total	113	51	65	104	116	311

Functions	Case4 1st	Case4 2nd	Case5 1st	Case5 2 nd
Marker	12	8	16	3
Elicitation	75	64	58	3
Check	11	8		
Directive	30	26	29	4
Informative	32	19	21	23
Prompt	8	1		
Nomination	6	13	16	
Evaluative	29	16	22	7
Metastatement	16	13	10	1
Loop				
Aside	34	26	24	4
Reading	13	31	1	7
Total	266	225	197	52

Appendix 9: Interviews (in case studies)

Case 1

Pre-Interview

1. Why did you agree to participate in this case study?
: Above all, I heard that the main aim of the study is to help the teachers, so-called advanced level learners improve their English, and I thought that it is not easy to find the opportunities to improve your English if you are above average level except that you go to English speaking countries. I felt the necessity myself and so I voluntarily participated.
2. How do you feel about your own English proficiency?
: I think I'm not bad. But Sometimes I think my English is decreasing because I don't have much opportunity to use it. If you go abroad and talk with foreign people, you feel you can speak faster and the expressions you use can be even more various because you are surrounded by English speaking people. If you are in Korea, however, you feel you don't really use English that often and your English might decrease as a result of non-use.
3. In which skill areas do you want to improve?
: Among the four skill areas, I want to improve writing first because I am thinking about pursuing another degree, and then listening. As a matter of fact, listening skills tend to be ignored in most of the cases if you can express yourself. I don't think I have that much difficulty in speaking, but listening is the area I am not strong in.
4. Have you ever used video to improve your own linguistic proficiency? If so, what kind and how often?
: Yes. Several times I used video. I had been trying to figure out some ways to improve my listening skills and decided to use the film, 'Full Monty' on video, which is a British film.
5. Do you think using video can help improve your linguistic proficiency? Why do you think so?
: I watched 'Full Monty' quite a few times, and at first it was so hard to understand mainly because of the Scottish accent in the film. I don't think I was able to catch the whole expressions in the end, but with repeated viewing I felt my understanding has gradually increased.

Post-Interview

1. Do you think your English has improved as a result of this case study scheme?
: I think so, but am not quite sure. I think I would have improved a lot if I had studied the videos every day. In reality, I didn't have time for every day study. I did the self-study twice a week at first, and then in the middle of the 10-week period something came up so I wasn't able to keep going steadily. I had to stop for a bit and then start again when things became better. However, I'm quite positive about the effectiveness of using video. In other words, I'm sure I would have improved much more if I had done it properly.....

Whenever I listen for something, I feel it's easy to understand in spite of some incomprehensible bits if it is about what I am interested in. Nonetheless, if it is about what I am not interested or don't want to know about, I find it hard to understand in spite of easy English. I felt the same thing during this self-study process.

2. Why do you think so?
: There were some points that were really helpful to me in this self-study. I found the video 'Good Will Learning' was very interesting because it dealt directly with teachers and students. Especially it was talking about who are good teachers or bad teachers to people's eyes, the differences between good teachers and bad teachers.

In the second part of the same video, there was a student teacher, Bob. Seeing him, I thought that teachers should constantly try to improve themselves. Otherwise, the teachers would face a limit. The teachers who try to learn more and study for himself/herself can definitely be better teachers for students, I suppose.

3. In which skill areas has it been most/least useful/helpful?

: It wasn't that useful to reading and writing. Perhaps helpful to listening and speaking skills. To be more specific, because I haven't practised speaking alone, it probably helped mostly my listening skills. These videos can help your understanding a lot because they have themes to pass onto the viewers. One thing I feel the lack of in the videos is that some of the speakers have too strong accent for me to understand. Even looking at the script didn't help much in that case. I think it would have been better if it had been recorded clearly in the RP English.

4. Did you find using video useful for improving linguistic proficiency?

: Yes, I myself find it very helpful. But there are some limitations in it. I am one big advocate for using video, and it turned out to be fairly useful to improving listening skills through my case study. But the snag is I haven't found any good ways of applying what I learned to class.

Definitely it was helpful. It was the best way of improving your listening skills, I suppose because it gives you the opportunity to listen and watch at the same time. The frequency of watching the same video and the interval of time between one study session and the next seem to be also important factors to affect the effectiveness of the study. In other words, how many times you've seen the video is important and whether or not you are steadily going in your study is as important.

5. Did you find yourself watching more videos other than the ones provided by me since you started this scheme?

: when I started this case study, I also tried to watch CNN and AFKN on TV. I just left that on even while I was doing something else. That way, I was trying to get used to the rhythm of English.

Case 2

Pre-Interview

1. Why did you agree to participate in this case study?

: When I heard about this, I thought it would be interesting. I don't expect my linguistic proficiency to be improved that much as a result of this case study. I just thought that it would be better off than doing nothing (never trying to improve).

2. How do you feel about your own English proficiency?

: I think I am better in writing and listening than other people. And reading is above average. I find myself faster in reading than other people. However, speaking is not very good.

3. In which skill areas do you want to improve?

: I want to improve my speaking ability in English best of all.

4. Have you ever used video to improve your own linguistic proficiency? If so, what kind and how often?

: I have never used video for improving my linguistic proficiency. Instead, I have read books and tried writing in English, but I have not thought of using something like video. Even though I have not used ELT videos, I have watched CNN on cable.

5. Do you think using video can help improve your linguistic proficiency? Why do you think so?

: Yes. I think watching something on screen accompanied with sound can help understanding the situation taking place.

Post-Interview

1. Do you think your English has improved as a result of this case study scheme?

: I think so, but am not quite sure.

2. Why do you think so?

: This is almost the first time I listened to British English. So at first it was very hard to understand British English on videos but, as time went by, I found myself gradually getting used to the British English on video.....

The whole period of watching the 10 videos seemed to me a slow process of getting familiar with British English.

3. In which skill areas has it been most/least useful/helpful?
: It has been most helpful to listening. Apart from listening to tapes, watching videos makes the situations taking place easier to comprehend through providing picture as well as sound for the viewers. It helped my listening.
4. Did you find using video useful for improving linguistic proficiency?
: Even the parts you didn't understand can become understandable with the picture on video. When you listen to a tape, it takes time to get the whole picture of what is happening because the tape does not provide the picture part, whereas on video you can comprehend the situation with picture much quicker. Moreover, you can recollect more easily the expressions you picked up from video if you can remember the particular scene where the expressions are used.

I've tried to use and sometimes actually used the words or expressions I picked up from the videos. There were some new words and idioms on the video workbook I had not known before, so I used to consult the dictionary to find out the meanings of those expressions. I also got to know some other meanings of the same words I had known, which was very interesting. And I think the whole scheme helped a bit.
5. Did you find yourself watching more videos other than the ones provided by me since you started this scheme?
: Because I felt that video helped mainly listening part, I tried to cover other part such as reading in my free time rather than using more videos. I reckoned, otherwise I would have had the opportunity to improve other skills of my English.

Case 3

Pre-Interview

1. Why did you agree to participate in this case study?
: I found the topic of your research was very interesting. Even teachers in Korea do not have the opportunities to be evaluated of their proficiency in the language they are teaching, especially speaking and listening parts. Therefore, I thought it was good to be offered the opportunity, and in addition, I wanted to know if my English proficiency could be improved by means of participating in the case study scheme.
2. How do you feel about your own English proficiency?
: As a teacher of an elementary English conversation class, I am asked from students a lot of questions such as 'how can I say this in English?' Many of the questions come from the students' Korean way of thinking, that is, for many of the questions you cannot come up with the English expressions the students want because those do not exist in English, at least no cutout expressions for those. However, sometimes I find myself wondering if there are more appropriate English expressions for those, and I do not feel that I know many English expressions. As a result, I am not that confident in my own linguistic proficiency. However, I still feel there are a lot of things that I can teach to the students even though I have to constantly put efforts into improving my linguistic proficiency.
3. In which skill areas do you want to improve?
: Naturally, speaking and listening. Especially I want to learn a lot of English expressions. I reckon a lot of expressions I use are not the very ones English native speakers might use in the same situations. I want to learn those expressions English native speakers would use and to use them myself in appropriate situations.
4. Have you ever used video to improve your own linguistic proficiency? If so, what kind and how often?
: Yes, I have been trying to use video in class as often as I can. I don't think I use it very often, but maybe once in a while. I normally use films on video, and *Family Album, USA* is one of those I used with my students.
For my own English proficiency, I also try to watch video. Before, I tried to watch a film on video once a week, but not for long, and now it is about once a month. Rather than watching video, I go to the cinema, which is not very often.
5. Do you think using video can help improve your linguistic proficiency? Why do you think so?

: When I watch video or see a film, I try to pick up expressions used in the film. In most of the cases, I found a lot of easy and good expressions and said to myself, 'oh, I can use that in that kind of context. What an easy expression!' I feel I pick up better expressions than I might have used myself in the same context. Because I try consciously to pick up those expressions, I find myself using the expressions if the similar sort of situations happens again.

Post-Interview

1. Do you think your English has improved as a result of this case study scheme?

: I feel my English proficiency has improved. What I thought was the most useful point in this case study is that through watching the short video clips I had the opportunities to recall and to consolidate some simple but good expressions which I probably had heard of but never used before. For example, I had heard of the word, 'big-headed' before, but I had never used that before, which I think I'm going to use in an appropriate context in the future. When I watch some of those video clips you gave, I very often said to myself, 'oh, that is the expression you should use in the situation. Why haven't I thought of and used that simple expression before?' As a result, I think this case study was a good experience in that I could get access to those expressions English native speakers are actually using.

2. Why do you think so?

: Take an example from 'big-headed', again. The other day, I was talking with an English native speaker colleague at work and I felt that he was showing off a bit, so I said to him, 'you're big headed', but not in an offensive way. And then I realised that I made the expression mine by using it in an appropriate situation. I felt delighted with that. So I thought if I watch more videos and spend more time on learning new expressions on video, my English could enormously improve. That is how I felt because I didn't invest much time this time in this case study business.

3. In which skill areas has it been most/least useful/helpful?

: I did not find that this whole process of watching video and using it with students was directly related to reading and writing, at least not that much. The reason why I say this is that I have not done anything related to reading and writing during the process. Sure, I read the script provided after watching video, but I did not think that reading the script helped my reading ability or that I learned any new grammatical structures by doing that. It is mainly because the spoken English on video was not as difficult or complicated as the ones you might very often meet in a reading text. Therefore, watching video helped listening part most, I reckon. No matter how simple expressions you get on video, they seem to help you develop your listening skills if you keep listening to them. It might be as well important to listen to difficult and complicated expressions and understand them, but I think that if you could make those simple expressions yours through repeatedly listening to them, you would catch them in any situations where they were said.

4. Did you find using video useful for improving linguistic proficiency?

: Definitely it was helpful. The most effective way to use it is to do it steadily every day. The number one advantage of video is that it gives you the opportunity to get exposed to English native speakers' spoken English, not only the so-called clear RP English, but also a variety of spoken English from different people. Through that, you learn how not to be afraid of a variety of spoken English. In addition, video is interesting and more, it gives you the very expressions English native speakers use, and possibly daily expressions you could use, not just hard formal English. I was very much interested in picking up those daily expressions, so it was a good opportunity for doing that.

5. Did you find yourself watching more videos other than the ones provided by me since you started this scheme?

: I saw films mainly. I wanted to watch more videos, but I did not have much spare time for that. However, one of my new year's resolutions is to work on my own English proficiency, so I am thinking about buying some videos with scripts for them, and using them for improving my English.

Case 4

Pre-Interview

1. Why did you agree to participate in this case study?

: Initially I did not have much interest in this, but hearing about this several times, I got to think it might be interesting to be part of it.

2. How do you feel about your own English proficiency?

: I think my proficiency level is about average. I don't think I'm very very good. In my personal opinion, I am better at practice than at theories while some others are the other way around. I mean, I did not get a good mark on tests at school because I was not very good at memorising theories and stuff, which is required of every student in our Korean school system. However, I was strong in actually doing things. When I was studying in university in America, I was able to get a good mark by means of actively participating in class, giving a lot of presentations and showing that I was actually doing something, which seemed to be suitable surroundings for me. Anyway, I came to have the idea that I am stronger in doing things than in receiving and understanding knowledge. The same kind of think also applies to my language performance, I think. I feel I am better at speaking and listening than at reading skills and learning vocabulary by heart. As a matter of fact, listening is not my strong point, either, but I feel that I am better in that than in reading skills and memorising vocabulary. I think that is because I don't like doing things at desk. When it comes to writing, I like writing letters to foreign friends and keeping a diary in English.

3. In which skill areas do you want to improve?

: I am mostly confident in speaking skills, then come listening and writing. I am not quite sure about my listening skills, how proficient I am in listening in an objective way, but I rarely have difficulty in understanding my conversation partners. Reading comes to the least confident category among 4 skills.

I don't find the importance of reading skills that much, because I don't like office work and my job is more about speaking to the students. If I think I want to improve reading skills, I would start reading novels and some like that. The areas I want to improve are listening, writing and speaking skills. Especially listening because I don't have many opportunities to listen to English native speakers at the moment. I speak with students in English in class, but I don't think that is useful for my listening skills. When it comes to listening skills, you better practice it with English native speakers, otherwise it would not be very helpful, I suppose.

4. Have you ever used video to improve your own linguistic proficiency? If so, what kind and how often?

: I used to watch films on video and watch a lot of American programmes on TV.

5. Do you think using video can help improve your linguistic proficiency? Why do you think so?

: Naturally. At the moment I am teaching basic English grammar, so I don't feel the need of using video very often. However, it would be useful to use video for students, especially for those students who seldom focus on the lesson.

For teachers themselves, it would be helpful to use video because most of video contents are not as easy as, and possibly higher at level than the ones they are teaching. Therefore, for a non-native speaker, using video can be very useful. Let's say, if you want to show your students some sort of clips, you still have to study the clips in advance and that involves more preparation than just picking and showing the clips.....

For teachers to study for themselves, video can be very good. Watching lots of films and news on video can be very useful. The main reason for video to be a good medium is that you can get the spoken language from the video accompanied with picture, which makes easier for you to focus on, and that you can see the speaker's mouth, how it moves when he/she speaks. In addition to learning English, you can get other useful information from the video.

Most of the Korean English teachers are better in listening and reading than in speaking and writing, because most of them have been taught to develop reception skills rather than production skills of the language. On average, they need to improve their speaking and writing skills, I suppose.

One of the ways of improving speaking is to have many opportunities to speak with English native speakers. To do that is not easy except that you have English native speaker friends, I feel. I think it would be nice for the language school to give us more opportunities to get to know our native speaker colleagues through social gatherings. It might help a bit to talk to non-native speakers in English as well, but if it is really helpful, the person should be at native like level. Even better when this person can't speak Korean because you have to think hard to make yourself understood only in English.

Personally I speak only Korean with the people who can speak Korean, so I think where you are is very important to improve your English.

Post-Interview

1. Do you think your English has improved as a result of this case study scheme?
: I really don't think so.

2. Why do you think so?

: Why? I told you. I didn't have enough time to study. I told you that the biggest reason is the level of my students. If I teach the low level classes, I also become the same level, if I teach the high level students, I also have to be the same level as the students, right?

In the beginning, preparation, yes. But as time went by, you know, I get changed, since I didn't have that much talk in that 2nd language, yeah. But if I go to other country, I'll be different. So I think atmosphere all around me is very important. It depends where I am, what I am doing, what language I use most of the time, you know in my life.

If I really make a big decision not to teach that much, instead, you know, have some more time for myself, I'll improve myself very much and very fast. So I didn't get a chance, yet.

Just a little bit of input I got from preparing the classes, I think. If I teach all different textbooks almost every month, then I'll be much more improved than now. But as you know, I teach only one textbook for whole year, sometimes, more than one year, then I'll be in the same position.

3. In which skill areas has it been most/least useful/helpful?

: Speaking is not that bad because...

In the beginning, I think I was pretty much focusing on my teaching strategy in all different areas, listening, speaking, whatever, but after all, I kind of forgot. I stopped thinking about it because maybe this project is too long I don't know. But anyway, it was that much useful for me.

4. Did you find using video useful for improving linguistic proficiency?

: N/A

5. Did you find yourself watching more videos other than the ones provided by me since you started this scheme?

Case 5

Pre-Interview

1. Why did you agree to participate in this case study?

: I have thought about the importance of co-operation of colleague teachers when I was doing my master degree in Hawaii. When I was preparing my questionnaires and lesson plans as part of my degree, I was really conscious about those and hoped that would go well. Anyway, good work comes from close co-operation between researchers and teachers, and the first step toward that should begin from me, shouldn't it?

2. How do you feel about your own English proficiency?

: I didn't have much confidence until I studied in Hawaii for two years, but after that I had the opportunity to live only with English native speakers for 8 months. It was a kind of training programme for Christians and I had to live in a flat with a group of Americans, which boosted my confidence in English a lot. Now I think I can express myself and talk about what I want to, but somehow I feel that those might not be the best expressions. Even though I am not as good in listening as English native speakers, I don't have problems with communicating with them. I can always ask them to repeat. Lately, however, I feel I have the limitation of my English proficiency, when I can't find best expressions for the situations and make mistakes.

3. In which skill areas do you want to improve?

: Every skill area. I want to speak better and write better, and I think if you are good at those things, you're also good at reading and listening. Receptive skills seem to be easier to pick up than productive

skills, don't they? Speaking and writing are, in most cases, poorer than reading and listening, so I want to improve those skill areas.

I want to improve my English for myself rather than for my students. Otherwise, I wouldn't feel satisfied with myself. I really want to do it well...for contentment.

4. Have you ever used video to improve your own linguistic proficiency? If so, what kind and how often?

: No, not really.

5. Do you think using video can help improve your linguistic proficiency? Why do you think so?

Yes, I think so. It will do you good to use all the possible media.

Post-Interview

1. Do you think your English has improved as a result of this case study scheme?

: I really don't think so.

In particular, because the subject I am teaching now is different from that I taught before, I think I am approaching the class in a different way. I tried to use more English with my Conversation class students, but with my Composition class students I can't see the need. Naturally, the students in my Composition class want to practise their writing more than their speaking or listening. As a result, I don't bother to try to speak in English in class, at least not very often. And when I explain grammar and other things, they want me to do it in Korean so that they can understand without much difficulty. So mostly I do it in Korean. It is a kind of time conscious way of doing it, and as a result, I don't feel my English has improved.

2. Why do you think so?

: Well, I learn things from teaching such as vocabulary, some expressions, but not many. It is when I use sub-materials other than the textbook that I learn something. When I find something I didn't know before in the process of preparing class, I feel I am learning things.

3. In which skill areas has it been most/least useful/helpful?

: N/A

4. Did you find using video useful for improving linguistic proficiency?

: N/A

5. Did you find yourself watching more videos other than the ones provided by me since you started this scheme?

: Not really. I am not watching TV very much, not listening to the radio. I don't go to the cinema very often, either.

Appendix 10-1. Video Workbook for self-directed learning

Chinese Festivals

1. Pre-viewing

- a) brainstorm about the video contents. Think about the possible differences and similarities between Korean festivals and Chinese.
- b) brainstorm about big festivals in the Far East such as 'New Year's' and 'Autumn' and write down some vocabulary which could be used in the video.

2. While-viewing

- a) watch the whole video without stopping if you want.
- b) watch the first sequence as many times as you want without looking at the worksheet provided.
- c) watch the same sequence again. This time you can do some work about the sequence you are watching. The following are the key vocabulary and expressions you are going to hear in the video. Tick the vocabulary and expressions when you hear them and double tick if you do not know the meaning of the vocabulary or the expressions.
- d) work on the other sequences in the same way.

SEQUENCE NO.	VOCABULARY	EXPRESSIONS
S1. the Chinese New Year 1	festival ___ traditionally ___ signify ___ theme ___ renewal ___ climax ___ feast ___ set off ___ firecracker ___ bottle rocket ___	a fresh start ___ out with the old, in with the new ___ the climax of the celebration ___ set off firecrackers and bottle rockets ___ to welcome the new year ___
S2. the Chinese New Year 2: sons and daughters always go home...	reunion ___ lucky money ___ relatives ___ customary ___ officially ___ re-open ___ a bad of fortune ___ spread around ___ merchant ___	in a family reunion ___ money-filled red envelop ___ a 3-day holiday ___ is believed to be the God of Fortune's birthday ___ brings a bad of fortune to Earth ___ light firecrackers ___ to attract his attention ___
S3. the Dragon Boat festival	annual ___ lunar month ___ dumpling ___ commemorate ___ commit suicide ___ corrupt ___ feed on ___ row ___ incense ___	to commemorate the death of the poet ___ a well loved poet ___ by throwing himself into the M River ___ to protest against ___ the king's corrupt practices ___ to keep the fish from feeding on his body ___ so as to keep the fish away ___ wear bags of incense around their necks ___
S4. the Mid-autumn festival 1	harvest ___ agriculture ___ worship ___ generosity ___ moon cake ___ unlit ___ date back to ___ pre-Christian era ___	fall on the 15th day of the 8th lunar month ___ far removed from agriculture ___ a festival fro viewing the moon ___ for the most part ___ in thanks for his generosity ___ in the form of the year's harvest ___ at its fullest and brightest ___
S5. the Mid-autumn festival 2: people get together with their families to gaze at the...	gaze at ___ despotic ___ emperor ___ elixir ___	people get together with their families ___ fly up to the moon ___ is filled with her beauty ___ turn very bright ___

	immortality	
S6. the Ghost festival 1	gate ___ spirit ___	get the chance to visit the world ___ they make people suffer and fear ___
S7. the Ghost festival 2: a long time ago there were..	pork ___ heads of cows ___ float ___	every seventh month of the lunar calendar ___ prepared a lot of food and things for the spirits ___ burned paper money and floated paper boats ___ go back to their own place and leave people in peace

e) write down whatever you think is an useful expression but not in your worksheet when you hear them.

f) Below are some comprehension questions about the video contents. Have a careful look at them and try to answer them after you finish your viewing.

QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
S2. why do Chinese people set off fireworks?	
S3. why people throw rice dumplings into the river on the Dragon Boat Festival day?	
S4. what do people do on the 15th of the 8th lunar month?	
S5. what is the 'lady on the moon' and why is it called that way?	
S6. how are ghosts like?	
S7. why do they prepare food for the spirits?	

g) go back and forth the video as many times as you want and fill in the blank of the script.

S1. The Chinese New Year is our biggest _____, our _____ celebration. Traditionally _____ Festival, it, _____, signifies _____ a fresh start every year--out with the old, in with _____.

S2. It is _____ a 3-day _____, but most businesses don't _____ the 5th day of the new year. The 5th day of the first _____ is _____ to be the God of Fortune's _____.

S3. Chu Yuan was _____ by the people, and after _____ they made rice _____ and threw them _____ to keep the fish from feeding on _____. They also _____ boats so as to keep the fish _____.

S4. Farmers for the most part still _____ the _____ on this day, in _____ his _____ in the _____ of the year's harvest. However, most others enjoy _____ and watching the moon _____ a _____, _____ place. This practice _____ the pre-Christian _____.

S6. The Ghost Festival is an important holiday for _____. The _____ of _____ are open in the _____ month _____ month. Many _____ get the chance to visit the world. _____ are _____ human beings.

S7. A long time ago there were _____ people _____ or _____ every seventh month of the lunar calendar, _____ people prepared a lot of food and things _____ such as _____, heads of cows or _____, wine, _____ and _____.

3. Post-viewing

- Here is the whole script of the video you just watched. Underline the expressions you couldn't catch.
- write down the vocabulary and expressions you newly learned from the video.
- write a short essay about 'Korean festivals' or 'the similarities and differences between Korean and Chinese festivals'.

Good Will Learning

1. Pre-viewing

- brainstorm about the video contents
- brainstorm about 'learning' and 'teaching' and write down some vocabulary which could be used in the video.

2. While-viewing

- watch the whole video without stopping if you want.
- watch the first sequence as many times as you want without looking at the worksheet provided.
- watch the same sequence again. This time you can do some work about the sequence you are watching. The following are the key vocabulary and expressions you are going to hear in the video. Tick the vocabulary and expressions when you hear them and double tick if you do not know the meaning of the vocabulary or the expressions.
- work on the other sequences in the same way.

SEQUENCE NO	VOCABULARY	EXPRESSIONS
S1. what makes a good teacher?	grasp ___ rivet ___ motivate ___ autonomy ___	in a relaxed way ___ take account of ___ take charge of ___ plenty of opportunities ___ unless you can sell them your ideas
S2. what makes a bad teacher?	organised ___ overwork ___	the opportunity to make mistakes ___ to learn at different paces ___ if you are overworked and tired ___ if you maybe've worked a very long day
S3. what makes a good student?	competitive ___ source ___ definitely ___	consider the class as the only place... ___ the only source they can learn from ___ make use of ___
S4. what makes a bad student?	lecture ___ beforehand ___ self-discipline ___ systematic ___ pub ___ attentive	prepare for their lectures ___ it becomes too little or too late ___ who lacks motivation ___ a systematic approach to work ___ spends all his life in the pub ___ some bad experience in the past
S5. what happens in a typical session on your course?	tutor ___ presentation ___	too scared to speak ___ a very interactive class ___ their brains are gonna blow up ___ start off with a bit of a game ___ a grammar point ___ crack a couple of jokes
S6. what should the	mutually	an element of respect

relationship between teachers and students be like?	dependent ___ supportive ___ uncertainties ___ congregate ___	cross that line ___ nothing threatening ___ expressing doubts ___ a close relationship ___
S7. can teachers and students be friends?	hinder ___ radically ___	whatever age ___ I reckon ___ it depends what kind of friends really ___ if I could really cope ___
S8. voice-over (introducing Bob Gilmour)	part-time ___	at the moment ___ a Master's degree
S9. Bob's interview question: how do you feel about being a student and a teacher at the same time?	theories ___ media ___	in many ways related to teaching ___ different types of methods ___ I can apply the things I'm studying ___ as the course is going on ___ to fit in the teaching time in with the studying ___
S10. Bob's interview question: does it help you in dealing with your students?	particularly ___ environment ___ postgraduate ___ insight ___ appropriately ___	better insight into the way ___ clearer idea into the way ___ give students advice ___ help them with situations ___ they are going to face ___
S11. Bob's interview question: do your students know you are a student as well?	react ___ fairly ___ quality ___ research ___ assignment ___ appreciate ___	doesn't make any difference ___ the quality of teaching they're getting ___ could have continued teaching ___ my assignments built up ___ spending time helping them ___
S12. Scott's interview: how do you feel about Bob being a student and a fellow teacher as well?	ideal ___ colleagues ___	that's how I see the MA. a group of colleagues ___
S13. what is the difference between teaching teachers and students?	mature ___ contribute ___ accommodating ___ ordinary ___ personality ___ impatient ___	tend to contribute more actively ___ to participate more actively ___ what goes on in the classroom ___ react in exactly same way ___ it depends very much on their personality ___

e) write down whatever you think is an useful expression but not in your worksheet when you hear them.

f) Below are some comprehension questions about the video contents. Have a careful look at them and try to answer them after you finish your viewing.

Comprehension Questions	Answer
1. Put down some characteristics of a good teacher.	
2. Put down some	

characteristics of a bad teacher.	
3. Put down some characteristics of a good student.	
4. Put down some characteristics of a bad student.	
5. What are good points of being a teacher and student at the same time.	
6. How does the interviewee feel about Bob being a student and a fellow teacher as well?	

g) go back and forth the video as many times as you want and fill in the blank of the script.

(S 1) to try to teach _____ and, err, if _____ take account of where students are _____ already, what they are _____ doing. Try and _____ sort of problems that they seem to be having.

(S 2) a bad teacher is someone who doesn't _____ students the _____ to _____, to learn _____ different _____.

(S 3) a good student could be someone _____ just _____, err, the class as the only place _____ can _____.

(S 5) I _____ go in and _____ what the _____ the _____ is, and I talk, and _____ so often I _____ and _____ or ask _____ any questions.

(S 6) It should be _____ from the part of the teacher, _____ students can _____ that there is nothing _____ in asking question, _____ or _____.

(S 7) I think _____ they can all go out. Well, when I get a house, I'm _____ my _____ to my parties...

(S 9) because we're _____ language teaching and different types of methods and different media for teaching as well.

(S 9) sometimes I can _____ the things I'm studying in my classes.

(S 10) I mean I was teaching _____ before and I was always going on _____ told me about the way _____...

(S 11) As my _____ their _____ were _____ as well. And I think they are really appreciate the fact that

(S 13) it would be nice to _____ that teachers are _____ of _____ in the classroom and more _____ of problems that you have. I don't think that's _____ though.

3. Post-viewing

- a) Here is the whole script of the video you just watched. Underline the expressions you couldn't catch.
 b) write down the vocabulary and expressions you newly learned from the video.
 c) write a short essay about 'the kind of teacher you want to be' or 'your ideal type of student'.

Lonely Saturday

1. Pre-viewing

- a) brainstorm about the video contents.
 b) brainstorm about 'films' and 'cinema' and write down some vocabulary which could be used in the video.

2. While-viewing

- a) watch the whole video without stopping if you want.
 b) watch the first sequence as many times as you want without looking at the worksheet provided.
 c) watch the same sequence again. This time you can do some work about the sequence you are watching. The following are the key vocabulary and expressions you are going to hear in the video. Tick the vocabulary and expressions when you hear them and double tick if you do not know the meaning of the vocabulary or the expressions.
 d) work on the other sequences in the same way.

SEQUENCE NO.	VOCABULARY	EXPRESSIONS
S1. His monologue: What a dreary Saturday afternoon!	dreary ___ on holiday ___ telly ___ be sick of ___	what a dreary afternoon! ___ playing at the other end of country ___ going to pubs ___ not far from here ___ a place which can make us laugh ___ away from reality ___
S2. Cinema: a book shop, a café	a quick exit ___ candidate ___	a book shop where we can ... ___ she looks like my ex-girlfriend ___ time for a quick exit ___ I wonder what... ___ he looks like a candidate
S3. Interview question: interviewee's background (I've always wanted to...)	media production ___ degree ___ finance ___ publicity ___ be aware of ___ chain ___	I wasn't from this area ___ I went to college in B ___ part of the degree was to... ___ people went off to the BBC ___ through the holidays ___ primarily for the finances ___ work behind the scenes to put the films ___ when the job came up for market and publicity ___ this sort of chain of cinema ___
S4. I Q : the cinema's background (most obvious one is this auditorium)	auditorium ___ theatre ___ news reels ___ be restored ___ mended ___ film director ___ feature ___ plaque ___ range ___	in the 30's as a news theatre ___ see news reels ___ it's been restored a bit, been mended over the years ___ one of the original ones ___ curtain that rises rather than separates ___ to look around the place ___ the other main feature of this cinema ___ the range of the films
S5. I Q : what's your criteria for selecting film?	Programmer ___ released ___ big budget ___ multiplex ___ distributor ___ headquarters ___ retrospective film ___ nomination ___ recognition ___	what's being released ___ in the major circuit ___ money making films are good at big multiplexes. ___ ___ have the right of the film ___ the release lists ___ has an idea of what's coming up ___ a lot of films coming out ___ we have got his film on ___

		we have a chance for people to take recognition of it.
S6. I Q : do you have special contact with certain directors and film makers?	reaction ___ audience ___ phenomenally ___	they didn't do particularly well, we do very well with it ___ the tickets were sold out ___ it's not something you would think necessarily quite very popular
S7. I Q : how would you describe your audience?	not necessarily ___ matinee ___	have any particular audience in mind ___
S8. I Q : you also have film festival every year?	sponsorship ___ be financed by ___ press ___ box office ___ big names ___ boost	it's been going for years ___ it'll be worthwhile thing to do ___ we've moved the date a little bit to November ___ that's run by sponsorship ___ we get no grant for that ___ that has to be financed by ourselves
S9. (voice-over) an empty auditorium	factory ___ atmosphere ___ fantasy ___ gossip ___ giggle ___ the machine ___ steam out ___ particle ___ dust ___ old-fashioned ___ homely ___ traditional	looks like a factory ___ totally different atmosphere from... ___ through one small hole ___ you know the feeling ___ in a row ___ an air of excitement and expectation ___ light streams out towards the big screen ___ particles of dust hang in the air ___ with a bit of character ___ place of the homely, personal touch ___ cinema complex ___ you're just another customer
S10. I Q : what's your attitude towards multiplexes?	competition ___ blockbuster ___ once in a while ___ big budget ___ profit ___ foreign subtitle films ___ grant ___	any real competition between us and multiplexes ___ we're not a business ___ their business's a profit making business ___ they've got a big profit at the end of the year to survive ___ we are granted ___ which put off certain audience ___ we have to put up with some ___ they're encroaching on our business
S11. (voice-over) commentary and a short dialogue	director ___ enchanted ___	in the past ___ I lost myself in the beautiful scenes ___ some films stay with you for a long time after ___ in the mood for ___

e) write down whatever you think is an useful expression but not in your worksheet when you hear them.

f) Below are some comprehension questions about the video contents. Have a careful look at them and try to answer them after you finish your viewing.

QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
S1. give some reasons why he	

has to go to the cinema.	
S2. where does he look around at the cinema?	
S3. how did the man working at the cinema get the job?	
S4. How is the film director, Ridley Scott's great uncle related to this cinema?	
S5. what is the programmer Briany Hansen's job?	
S5. from what countries have a lot of films come out for the last four/five years?	
S6. what was phenomenally successful?	
S8. what is the Tyneside cinema going to concentrate on at this year's film festival?	
S9. describe what he says is his kind of cinema.	
S10. how is the Tyneside cinema different from other multiplexes?	

g) go back and forth the video as many times as you want and fill in the blank of the script.

S1. my girlfriend has _____ me _____. Hugh! It's _____. Funny, _____? My friends are all _____.

S1. music sounds _____ when I _____. There's _____ to do. What am I _____ myself?

S1. A place of moving images... _____ reality, a world _____ anywhere else, _____ books, _____ TV...a place we can always buy _____ and _____ as well.

S3. I've wanted to ___ a bit of _____ and hopefully, you know, _____ the scenes to _____ like so on.

S3. if you enjoy _____, enjoy _____, you know, _____ cinema, you know, hopefully _____...

S4. in the 30's as a news theatre, _____ people _____ to _____ news reels _____. This auditorium now is _____, er...what was _____ then aren't...

S4. He came back _____ to _____ the place. There's _____. I think also the other main _____ of this cinema is a bit _____ from the other cinemas...was the _____ of films we show and ...

S5. But in April, probably _____ some of his _____, because we want to _____ a lot of his films _____ the _____ wouldn't _____. So, er...if the Oscar is announced,...

S6. Mike Leigh's *The Naked* got put into the _____. They didn't _____ particularly _____, we _____ very _____ with it. Peter Greenway was shown _____, he actually _____ to _____... and the tickets were _____, very _____ from the _____.

S8. We get _____ for that, so that has to be financed by ourselves. But we've _____ some _____ films, you know, *True Romance* shown first last year...

S9. There's an air of _____ and _____. Something _____ is going to _____. The woman _____ at the side is _____ her ice-cream. And then, _____ the machine _____...lights _____ out towards the big _____, particles of _____ in the air.

S10. They get the _____ American films, and once in a while they get _____, *Much Ado about Nothing* something like that whereas we are _____ out _____, we're not a _____...

S10. We are _____ which means we get _____ from the government and from the BFI, British Film Institute to help _____, which is _____. I'm sure the films aren't that _____, maybe, you know, foreign subtitle films which _____ certain _____. We'll still _____.

3. Post-viewing

- Here is the whole script of the video you just watched. Underline the expressions you couldn't catch.
- write down the vocabulary and expressions you newly learned from the video.
- write a short essay about 'the kind of cinema you want to go to' or 'your favourite film star or director'.

The National Lottery

1. Pre-viewing

- brainstorm about the video contents. Think about the possible differences and similarities in how lotteries are run between Korea and the UK.
- brainstorm about 'lottery' and 'scratch card' and write down some vocabulary which could be used in the video.

2. While-viewing

- watch the whole video without stopping if you want.
- watch the first sequence as many times as you want without looking at the worksheet provided.
- watch the same sequence again. This time you can do some work about the sequence you are watching. The following are the key vocabulary and expressions you are going to hear in the video. Tick the vocabulary and expressions when you hear them and double tick if you do not know the meaning of the vocabulary or the expressions.
- work on the other sequences in the same way.

SEQUENCE NO.	VOCABULARY	EXPRESSIONS
S1. (voice-over) what is this National Lottery that people keep hearing about?	publish ___ capture ___ tasteful ___ generate ___ fund	across the country ___ seen as a tasteful and acceptable way to win money ___ generating funds for good causes ___
S2. Interview: why do people buy 'National Lottery' tickets?	a lottery ticket ___ board ___ extravagant ___ select ___ relatives ___	filling in a lottery ticket ___ play the national lottery ___ nearly every week ___ one board a week ___ a number of ___ a couple of ___ have you won a prize yet?
S3. (voice-over) National lottery, national gambling	fortune ___ stroke ___ slip ___ winner ___	the dream of making a fortune ___ at one stroke ___ plan anybody could possibly dream up ___ let a chance slip through your fingers ___ maybe you will be the next winner
S4. Sheila & Bruce at	dabble	that is really down at the moment

the tea-room	stock market ___ investment ___ stake ___ mansion ___ on the way	I'm into the National Lottery right now ___ it's a chance to make money ___ it's putting money up for a risk ___ I only play for low stakes ___ I'd treat you to dinner at Amigo's
S5. (voice-over) where does the money go?	prize ___ retailer ___ commission ___ profit ___ treasury duty ___ cause	
S6. Interview: Anna	gambling ___ win ___ set up ___ charity ___ jackpot ___ excessive ___ be tempted ___ blow ___ Ping-Pong ball ___	a form of gambling ___ get a chance to win ___ what's your opinion about...? ___ taxing our income ___ get money from it ___ be limited to.. ___ it'd take some of the fun out of it ___ if you hit the jackpot ___ try not to blow it all in one go ___ smaller prizes aren't such big odds
S7. Interview: Kevin	lead to ___ a vast amount ___ debatable ___ pay off ___ mortgage ___ take a trip ___ a cruise ___ give up ___ the odds ___ forecast	put the money in trust for the children ___ I've been on trips to Europe ___ the odds of you winning the lottery ___ about 13 million to one ___ the actual figure given by Camelot ___ as long as the money is used for good effect ___ boost the National Health Service ___ frittered away on useless projects ___ I don't mind whatsoever ___
S8. Interview: Eric	meagre ___ draw	I guess it's really meagre ___
S9. voice of Right Rev. John Taylor, Bishop of St. Albans	bishop ___ increasingly ___ be operated ___ hype ___ spiritualise ___ distressing	strong feelings expressed by... ___ the media hype surrounding it ___ I find deeply distressing ___
S10. (voice-over) the national lottery challenges people...	challenge ___ come forward ___ reveal ___ opposition ___ preserve ___ heritage ___ moral code ___ punter ___ persuasive	reveal their nature ___ whether they are risk lovers, risk averters or risk neutral ___ in spite of ___ crowding into the shops ___ dreaming of winning a jackpot ___ both sides have persuasive arguments ___ government involvement ___ which side is right? ___

e) write down whatever you think is an useful expression but not in your worksheet when you hear them.

f) Below are some comprehension questions about the video contents. Have a careful look at them and try to answer them after you finish your viewing.

QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
S2. when did the National Lottery get started and what is a board?	
S4. what do they decide to do?	
S6. what is Anna's opinion about the way the lottery money goes?	
S6. how does Anna choose the numbers?	
S7. what does Kevin say he would do if he won the lottery?	
S8. what is Eric's opinion about the jackpot?	
S9. what does the bishop think about the lottery?	

g) go back and forth the video as many times as you want and fill in the blank of the script.

S1. It will _____ the _____ of the nation with a series of _____ and simple, high _____ games that are _____ to adults _____ the country.

S3. the dream of _____ at one stroke seems to be _____, but it would be the most wonderful _____ anybody could possibly _____. Don't _____ a chance _____ your fingers.

S4. Are you still _____ in the _____?/ No. No. That is really _____ at _____.

S4. Don't you think it's _____ money _____ for a risk?/ No. No. I don't think so. It's all right. I only _____, anyway.

S6. Well, they _____ it _____ so that they _____ some money, so I suppose it's _____ taxing our income and _____, so I suppose it's quite a good thing that they _____ money _____ it.

S6. How do you _____ your numbers?/ My mum has _____ lottery balls which she...Ping-Pong _____ with the _____, and she's _____ our dog to go and _____ 6 numbers each week, so the dog chooses _____ for me.

S7. This is a _____ opinion. It can _____ problems...I can see _____ it can lead to problems, being _____, such as the large _____ a few weeks back with the 18 million.

S7. I would _____ in the family, in the relatives, and _____ the money _____ the children and grandchildren. And I'd take _____ the world--perhaps a _____...

S7. I think the odds are _____ at something like 14 million to 1, is the _____ given by Camelot who were _____ of the lottery.

S9. The media _____ surrounding it, the _____, the almost _____ spiritualising of suggesting that God is _____ and saying it _____ to you is something that I find _____ and many other people do _____.

S10. The National Lottery challenges people to _____ and _____ their natures--whether they are risk lovers, risk _____ or risk _____. In spite of _____ from those who wish to _____ Britain's traditional _____ and _____...

3. Post-viewing

- Here is the whole script of the video you just watched. Underline the expressions you couldn't catch.
- write down the vocabulary and expressions you newly learned from the video.
- write a short essay about 'your opinion about lotteries' or 'what you would like to do with the prize money if you hit the jackpot'.

Lord Hollytree and His Mysterious Bump

1. Pre-viewing

- brainstorm about the video contents.
- brainstorm about 'mystery' and 'detective stories' and write down some vocabulary which could be used in the video.

2. While-viewing

- watch the whole video without stopping if you want.
- watch the first sequence as many times as you want without looking at the worksheet provided.
- watch the same sequence again. This time you can do some work about the sequence you are watching. The following are the key vocabulary and expressions you are going to hear in the video. Tick the vocabulary and expressions when you hear them and double tick if you do not know the meaning of the vocabulary or the expressions.
- work on the other sequences in the same way.

SEQUENCE NO.	VOCABULARY	EXPRESSIONS
S1. it was a hot day in June...	investigate ___ respected ___ aristocrat ___ keen to (do) ___ murder weapon ___ staircase	I had been sent to... ___ keen to discover... ___ certain people might have murdered him for his money ___ I pushed open the front door ___ at the foot of the staircase
S2. I approached the body to see if I could find out...	blow ___ bang ___ walking stick ___ banister ___ saucepan ___	to see if I could find out... ___ it was obvious that... ___ caused by a blow to the head ___ did he merely fall and bang his head? ___ a walking stick hanging on the banisters a pool of water ___ began to doubt that ...
S3. I decided to look in the living room for more clues.	clue ___ tray ___ item ___ golf clubs ___ rest against ___ putter ___ examine ___ fingerprint ___	look in the living room for more clues ___ looked around ___ a number of things of interest ___ on the floor ___ it had a large dent in it ___ the set of golf clubs I found resting against the sofa ___ it had no putter in it ___ I should examine these for fingerprints
S4. the next room I looked in was the Hollytree's study.	study ___ straight away ___ wheelbrace ___ study table ___ cellar ___ bicycle lock and chain	my attention was drawn to the wheelbrace lying on the study table ___ a strange place to keep a wheelbrace ___ at the top of the stairs ___ this proved to be the only clue in the cellar
S5. I went upstairs and...the only bedroom I found...	elegant ___ amiss ___ fireplace ___ tools	the only bedroom I found anything of interest in was ... ___ certain things looked amiss ___ at the bottom of the fireplace

	mend ___ gas heating ___ bloodstains ___ trowel	looked heavy enough to have caused ___ I examined it closely for bloodstains ___ resting upon it was a gardener's trowel ___ have anything to do with
S6. from lady Hollytree's window, I could see part of...	thorough ___ reveal ___	take a more thorough look outside ___ the garden was very well kept ___ a quick round
S7. at the side of the house I found a red hairbrush...	look up ___	it could have fallen from ... ___ I don't know what to make of all this ___ maybe it will become a bit clearer
S8. it was a homely kitchen with ...	homely ___ Aga ___ screw up ___ paperweight ___ suspicious ___ spice bottle	an old-fashioned Aga ___ an apron screwed up on the floor ___ I became suspicious of everything ___ did the spice bottles really contain spices? ___
S9. it was five past six and time to leave...	reflect upon ___ mystery ___ murder case ___ look down ___ wastepaper basket ___ detective work	I had one last room to visit ___ I began to reflect upon my findings ___ whether I was any closer to solving the mystery ___ more detective work to be done ___

e) write down whatever you think is an useful expression but not in your worksheet when you hear them.

f) Below are some comprehension questions about the video contents. Have a careful look at them and try to answer them after you finish your viewing.

QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
S2. what caused Lord Hollytree's death?	
S3. what did he find in the living room?	
S4. what did he find in the cellar?	
S5. what was amiss in the lady Hollytree's bedroom?	
S8. what were in the kitchen?	
S9. what did he think in the toilet?	

g) go back and forth the video as many times as you want and fill in the blank of the script.

S1. I had been _____ Hollytree Hall to _____ the death of a _____ local _____, Lord Hollytree.

S1. since there was _____, I pushed _____ the front door and there at the _____, I saw the body.

S2. it was obvious that the _____ had been _____ a blow to the head and that Lord Hollytree had been _____ 1 1/2 hours.

S2. further up _____ I found a saucepan. I began to _____ that it had been an _____.

S3. the first thing _____ is the _____ that I found on the floor. It had a large dent in it. I _____ how that _____.

S3. thirdly, I found a _____ of _____ and some glasses that had _____ been used. Maybe I should _____ these for _____.

S4. straight away my _____ was drawn to the wheelbrace _____ the study table. Why, I _____, was that there?

S5. at the _____ of the _____ were some tools. It looked like someone had been _____ the gas heating. One of the _____ looked _____ to...

S6. _____ lady Hollytree's window, I could _____ the garden. I decided to _____ outside. The garden was very well kept.

S7. Well, I don't know _____ to _____ of all this. I've found a lot of _____. I wonder what they all _____. Maybe it will become a bit _____ if I go _____ some of the other rooms and have a look _____.

S8. in the pocket was a _____. I examined it _____. Suddenly I became _____ everything.

S9. I _____ don't know whether I was _____ solving the mystery. But it looked like _____ I looked down and noticed a bottle...

3. Post-viewing

- Here is the whole script of the video you just watched. Underline the expressions you couldn't catch.
- write down the vocabulary and expressions you newly learned from the video.
- write a short essay about 'the detective story you read or saw on TV'.

Perfect Partners

1. Pre-viewing

- brainstorm about the video contents.
- brainstorm about 'what your ideal type would be' and write down some vocabulary expressing the type and some more vocabulary which could be used in the video.

2. While-viewing

- watch the whole video without stopping if you want.
- watch the first sequence as many times as you want without looking at the worksheet provided.
- watch the same sequence again. This time you can do some work about the sequence you are watching. The following are the key vocabulary and expressions you are going to hear in the video. Tick the vocabulary and expressions when you hear them and double tick if you do not know the meaning of the vocabulary or the expressions.
- work on the other sequences in the same way.

1. The Interview Sequences

Interview Questions:

- (Q1) what would you find attractive in a man/woman? (sequences 1 to 3)
(Q2) have you done anything on impulse for someone? (sequences 4 to 5)
(Q3) what about British? Are they romantic people? (sequences 6 to 8)

SEQUENCE NO.	VOCABULARY	EXPRESSIONS
S1. start by asking what your ideal woman...?	ideal ___ physical ___ good-looking ___ patient ___ hips ___ curvaceous ___ personality ___ fun ___	no physical types ___ good manners ___ well-dressed ___ big-headed ___
S2. (a girl) the main thing I find very sexy is a tan...	sexy ___ tan ___ muscles ___ fit ___ turn on ___ attractive ___ smiling ___ at the moment ___	the main thing ___ I find very sexy ___ looks healthy ___ might fit your type ___ wearing not many clothes ___ don't turn me on ___ gone out with ___ seems to be rather difficult ___
S3. (a girl) big, really. Tall. Dark...	dark ___ openly ___ package ___ ground ___ click ___	having the same ground with them ___ what attracted you to your wife ___ in the first place ___ working in the pub ___ clicked immediately ___
S4. have you done anything on impulse for her?	impulse ___ hard ___ be pushed ___ propose ___ that way ___	if you ask me what, ___ kept in touch by letter ___ over the phone ___
S5. (a guy) bringing breakfast in bed...	bring in ___ a couple of ___ anniversary ___ to book ___	bringing breakfast in bed ___ taking out to meals ___ she came and visited me ___ on the spur of the moment ___ booked a holiday ___
S6. do you think British people are romantic...?	romantic ___ inhibited ___ open ___ easygoing ___ dull ___	romantic at heart ___ I wouldn't say so ___ find them not open enough ___
S7. (a girl) the French are more romantic...	lecherous ___ depend on ___ individual ___ reputation ___ drunken ___ slob ___ comfortable ___	have got a bad reputation ___ hard drunken slob ___ generally speaking ___ do their own thing ___
S8. (an old lady) I think so. we've been married for 47 years no...	exception ___ definitely ___ completely ___ slimy ___	be married ___ compare--with-- ___

II. The Dating Agency Sequences

S1. from the beginning scene...	dating agency ___ desperate ___ occupation ___ plasterer ___ character ___ extrovert ___ rugged ___ forest ___ gear ___ star sign ___	if I've got the right place ___ be of service ___ we better ___ haven't been working recently ___ not in current employment ___ meet our fee ___ employment ___ a man of the hills ___ the outdoor type ___ with my hunting gear on ___
---------------------------------	--	--

		going through
S2. Secretary: the lion....what type of girl are you looking for?	fussy ___ statuesque ___ degree ___ keen ___ passionate ___ politics ___ thrive ___ dress-sense ___ trousers ___ a suit ___ conservatively	degree from Oxford ___ interest in politics ___ to match my own strength of my character ___ the will to thrive ___ a will of iron ___ iron-willed ___ as long as ... ___ wear the trousers in the relationship ___ partnership of equals ___
S3. Secretary: that's all the detail we need to know for now...	detail ___ up-to-minute ___ data ___ facilities ___ modest ___ featuring	for now ___ the selection of the videos ___ pay with American Express ___ that'll do nicely ___
S4. Video of the first girl...	hobbies ___ height ___ appearance ___ mouthy	get married ___ in that case ___ try something else ___ have a look at
S5. Video of the second girl...	intelligent ___ insanity ___ combination ___ revolutionist ___ remind ..of..	to the point of ___ wine and dine me ___ never mind ___ I've got the very thing ___
S6. Video of the third girl...	badminton ___ squash ___ preferably	the one right at the bottom ___ if you insist ___
S7. Video of Margaret Thatcher	cabinet ___ view ___ tempt ___ minister ___ straight ___ prime minister ___ grasp ___ come up ___ claim	the cabinet room ___ take the place ___ went straight passed ___ all of a sudden ___ it came to him ___ the possibility of ... ___ slip from ___
S8. Norman: I want that woman now!	schedule ___	very much in demand ___ don't mention it

e) write down whatever you think is an useful expression but not in your worksheet when you hear them.

f) Below are some comprehension questions about the video contents. Have a careful look at them and try to answer them after you finish your viewing.

QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
S1. describe the first interviewee's ideal type.	

S3. how do the old couple say they were attracted to each other?	
S4. what does the man with a woman say he did on impulse?	
S5. what does the old lady say she and her husband are going to do?	

The Dating Agency Sequences

S1. how does Norman describe his own character?	
S2. what is Norman's ideal type?	
S5. what kind of man is the girl in the video looking for?	
S6. what kind of man is the girl in the video looking for?	
S8. who is Norman going to date?	

g) go back and forth the video as many times as you want and fill in the blank of the script.

I. Interview Sequences

S1. shorter than me...usually friends and _____ but ...just people I like...

S2. I don't really _____ people wearing not many _____. They don't _____ me _____. I like foreigners really. I've gone out with a _____...

S4. I suppose I would...I have. If you ask me _____, I would probably be _____ to be pushed to think about it now, but I'm sure _____ longer than last three years, I've done something _____.

S7. I think it depends on the _____. Especially Northeast _____ have got a _____ of being hard _____, but I think, generally speaking, I think...people _____ own _____ whatever way they are _____.

II. Dating Agency Sequences

S1. N: it's like this. I like to think of _____ as an _____ person, a rugged person. Very much a man of _____. The _____ type. Driving through the _____ with my hunting _____.

S2. S: can I say a will of iron, sir?

N: I think you can say a will of iron. An _____ woman. Then, dress-sense. I'm a _____, but I don't like women _____ trousers very much. so I very much like somebody _____ dresses _____ in, say, skirt, a _____ even...

S6. N: I think perhaps the one _____ at _____ there, she looks _____.

S: number _____. I'm not sure about number _____. You know she _____ be _____ by now.

S8. S: Let's see, shall we? Hello Margaret. It's the _____ here. That's right. I know you have a very very _____ and very much _____, but we've got somebody _____ would like to meet you.

3. Post-viewing

- Here is the whole script of the video you just watched. Underline the expressions you couldn't catch.
- write down the vocabulary and expressions you newly learned from the video.
- write a short essay about 'what you are looking for in a man/woman as your partner' or 'what are important factors in a relationship'.

Sari's Christmas in Newcastle

1. Pre-viewing

- a) brainstorm about the video contents. Think about the possible differences and similarities between Korean supermarkets and English.
- b) brainstorm about 'shopping' and 'supermarket' and write down some vocabulary which could be used in the video.

2. While-viewing

- a) watch the whole video without stopping if you want.
- b) watch the first sequence as many times as you want without looking at the worksheet provided.
- c) watch the same sequence again. This time you can do some work about the sequence you are watching. The following are the key vocabulary and expressions you are going to hear in the video. Tick the vocabulary and expressions when you hear them and double tick if you do not know the meaning of the vocabulary or the expressions.
- d) work on the other sequences in the same way.

SEQUENCE NO.	VOCABULARY	EXPRESSIONS
S1. Sari's letter	homesick ___ exchange student	feel a little homesick ___
S2. Interview: plans for Christmas	flat ___ buffet ___ reunion ___ brakes ___ quality time ___	I haven't decided yet. ___ I'm not sure yet ___ we all get together about 7 in the evening ___ buffet food on a table ___ disco music to dance to ___ have family Christmas together ___ that's what I really need ___
S3. Sari's letter	amazing ___	wish me luck ___ take care
S4. Sari's visit to her tutor: knocks on her office	grab ___ tutee ___ drop by	grab the seat ___ we are almost finished ___ going away with a friend of mine
S5. Sari's flat: Andy's phone call		can I leave a message for Eleni? ___ I like her to come to my party, which is soon ___ make sure Eleni gets the message ___ Thanks for inviting
S6. Interview: what should I buy for him?	perfume ___ sweets ___ scarves	I usually buy three presents for each person ___ I don't think I better tell you what I'm planning to buy
S7. In Sari's room: Eleni comes in	shopping ___	where have you been? ___ make a phone call ___ Let's go out for shopping
S8. In Sari's room: what should I wear for the party? followed by interviews	make up ___ embroidered ___ trousers ___	don't forget to make up ___ I prefer wearing trousers ___
S9. Christmas party	Christmas cracker ___ fortune ___ come true ___	on one's way ___ have you met before? ___ I'll take it for you. ___ I'll show you ___ a piece of paper telling the fortune
S10. University campus		

- e) write down whatever you think is an useful expression but not in your worksheet when you hear them.

f) Below are some comprehension questions about the video contents. Have a careful look at them and try to answer them after you finish your viewing.

QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
S2. what does the first interviewee say he will do for Christmas?	
S2. what does the third interviewee Andy say he is going to do?	
S2. what does the last interviewee Najat say she is going to do?	
S3. how does Sari say Christmas is different in England from in Korea?	
S6. what kind of presents does the third interviewee Edith have in mind?	
S8. what is Eleni's advice for Sari?	
S9. what is a Christmas cracker and what do people do with it?	
S9. what happened when Sari and Andy pulled their own Christmas crackers each?	

g) go back and forth the video as many times as you want and fill in the blank of the script.

S2. And some _____ and some _____, disco music _____. By the end of _____, most people are quite quite _____, and they all _____ in the _____ of the room, on the _____. To some _____. It's a great _____, pretty _____.

S2. I'm going down to Devon for a week, _____ probably. I'm gonna drive there without _____, my car without _____.

S2. I'm going home, _____ is a really good _____. I'm going back home because I miss my family so much and miss my friends. What I'm going to do is just _____ my friends and _____ my family, doing nothing _____ having a relax, breaks. That's _____ I really _____.

S5. Can I _____ Eleni, please? Yeah, I really like her _____ my Christmas party, _____. Could you tell her?

S6. That's not a _____ question for me because I don't _____ presents. If I happen to _____ something which makes me _____ somebody and whoever, then, I might buy it if it's not too expensive.

S9. Where is Eleni?/ She is _____. She's _____ soon./ Oh, she's not here?/ Yeah, not here _____. I think she will be _____.

S9. _____ it with your friend. Inside are a small _____, a _____ and you get a piece of paper _____ the _____.

S9. if you don't _____, it doesn't _____. Who is gonna meet someone special this Christmas? It's you.

3. Post-viewing

- Here is the whole script of the video you just watched. Underline the expressions you couldn't catch.
- write down the vocabulary and expressions you newly learned from the video.
- write a short essay about 'your happiest Christmas ever' or 'your saddest Christmas ever'.

Shopping in the Supermarket

1. Pre-viewing

- brainstorm about the video contents. Think about the possible differences and similarities between Korean supermarkets and English.
- brainstorm about 'shopping' and 'supermarket' and write down some vocabulary which could be used in the video.

2. While-viewing

- watch the whole video without stopping if you want.
- watch the first sequence as many times as you want without looking at the worksheet provided.
- watch the same sequence again. This time you can do some work about the sequence you are watching. The following are the key vocabulary and expressions you are going to hear in the video. Tick the vocabulary and expressions when you hear them and double tick if you do not know the meaning of the vocabulary or the expressions.
- work on the other sequences in the same way.

SEQUENCE	VOCABULARY	EXPRESSIONS
S1. British People's eating habits	pension ___ spend on ___ convenient ___ take-away ___ single ___ engaged ___ socialise ___ rush around ___	to begin with ___ eating habit ___ older customers ___ pension day ___ family credit ___ the other way around ___ obviously not ___ go out ___
S2. different types of food	dieter ___ vegetarian ___ range ___ calory ___ massive ___ prepared ___	fat free ___ control calory diet ___ in vegetarian ranges ___ take off ___ grow in sizes ___ ready-to-cook ___
S3. the nutritional content of the product	nutritional ___ product ___ packaging ___ technologists ___	the nutritional content of the product ___ on the actual packaging ___ nutritional values ___ independent source ___ calorific values ___
S4. the various types of international foods	notice ___ buyers ___ be entitled with ___ spread out ___ sellers ___ discontinue ___ regional ___ recipe ___ foreign chefs ___ expand ___	tend to ___ concentrate on ___ biggest selling international meals ___ throughout the week and weekends ___ try out with other foods ___ we can't run every line ___ take poor sellers back out of the store ___ vice versa ___ come up with ___ put his own ranges together ___ expand to the market ___
S5. the way the shelves are laid out	shelf ___ to be laid out ___ reasoning ___ logic ___	any reasoning or any logic behind it ___ keep it a steady kit ___ get it to the front end ___ get tickets up ___

	complaint ___ kit ___ fridge ___ outstanding ___ promotions ___ to last ___ bottom ___ to take away	top three shelves ___ bottom two ___ taking over part of the bread shelf ___ cut back on ___ seasonal elimination ___ less popular ___ open up on the Christmas food ___ cut back on our catalogue
S6. the express tills	express till ___ cash back ___ back tills ___ take-away tills ___ lunchtime ___ queue ___ rush ___ layout ___	come up with this idea ___ at the front ___ across the back ___ 5 items or fewer ___ get in the queue ___ straight back out ___ business lunchtime rush ___ our old layout ___ going back quite a few years from now ___
S7. the cash back facility	the debit card ___ purchase ___ limit ___ come about ___ due to ___ ask for	get cash back ___ the limit on cash back ___ a popular service ___ they can do both together ___ due to customers' asking for it ___
S8. how to make Christmas puddings	pudding ___ plum ___ raisin ___ sultana ___ crumb ___ suet ___ cattle ___ ingredient ___ bowl ___ steam ___ flavour ___ seep out ___ moist	used to be made from plums ___ for some reasons ___ hard fat from sheep and cattle ___ it's got brandy, and candied fruit peel ___ mix all the ingredients together ___ put it in a little pudding bowl ___ at the end ___
S9. an anecdote	anecdote ___ recently ___ to spot ___ gather around ___ checkout ___ to be stunned ___ autograph ___	to end on a light note ___ had a hat on ___ trying to hide himself ___ someone spotted him ___ the lady on the checkout ___ put everybody's shopping through for one customer ___ sort out ___

e) write down whatever you think is an useful expression but not in your worksheet when you hear them.

f) Below are some comprehension questions about the video contents. Have a careful look at them and try to answer them after you finish your viewing.

QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
S1. what are the characteristics of the shopping for Monday to Wednesday and what are the reasons?	
S2. describe the different types of food for dieters and vegetarians in M & S.	
S3. how does M & S deal with customers' questions about the nutrition contents?	
S4. What is M & S's principle in dealing in international foods?	
S5. how does M & S lay out shelves?	
S6. specially for whom is the express till is useful?	
S8. describe how to make Christmas pudding roughly.	
S9. describe the anecdote again the M & S food manager told.	

g) go back and forth the video as many times as you want and fill in the blank of the script.

S1. _____ Saturday, you've got the _____ food, eat take-aways, eat _____ food for familys, but people who are _____, maybe people who are _____ or _____ just have a...eat to _____ to socialise basiclly.

S2. we've got a _____, 95% _____ which we've got about 25 products so that is quite a big _____ of 95 % _____.

S3. a customer came in and _____ me how many _____ was in a product and we didn't _____ on the actual _____, we, than get into the Head Office...

S3. Do you have independent source that _____ nutritional and _____ ?

S4. did you _____ other foods, and basiclly they didn't work, so you _____ them?

S4. basiclly we have so _____ numbered _____ at Newcastle store. We can't _____ every _____. We have to _____ all the _____ back out of the store.

S5. we have a lot of _____ about moving things. We try to _____ it a _____ kit which indian stays in the _____ when we move products around, although we have an _____ value _____, which basiclly _____ 4 weeks.

S6. we have 5 _____ at the front. We've got _____ across the back, which sould be... The ones _____, 5 items or fewer. The ones _____ are just basket, basket only.

S7. anyone using a card, the debit card can _____.

S8. _____, Christmas pudding used to be _____ plums, which is many _____ ago. But _____, _____, they don't use plums and just make it with raisins and sultanas.

S8. you make it about a month ago. So all the _____ from the fruit _____, and it becomes _____, because, otherwise, it'll be very _____.

S9. he was, basically he had a _____, trying to hide himself, and someone _____. Everyone _____ around and the lady on the _____ was so _____.

3. Post-viewing

- Here is the whole script of the video you just watched. Underline the expressions you couldn't catch.
- write down the vocabulary and expressions you newly learned from the video.
- write a short essay about 'the differences and similarities between English and Korean supermarkets' or 'the trend in food in Korea'.

Student Life

1. Pre-viewing

- brainstorm about the video contents. This is about two first year English university students. Think about the possible differences and similarities between Korean university students and English.
- brainstorm about 'university life' and 'lecture' and write down some vocabulary which could be used in the video.

2. While-viewing

- watch the whole video without stopping if you want.
- watch the first sequence as many times as you want without looking at the worksheet provided.
- watch the same sequence again. This time you can do some work about the sequence you are watching. The following are the key vocabulary and expressions you are going to hear in the video. Tick the vocabulary and expressions when you hear them and double tick if you do not know the meaning of the vocabulary or the expressions.
- work on the other sequences in the same way.

SEQUENCE NO.	VOCABULARY	EXPRESSIONS
S1. what do you think of university life?	from morning till night _____ combined studies ____ on time ____	you get more freedom and you can buy things cheaper ____ see what real student life is like ____ is getting ready for... ____ to get to class on time ____
S2. nine o'clock! First class is math...	constructively ____ take notes ____ play pool ____ skip classes ____ revise ____ tutorial	he seldom misses classes ____ we are supposed to take notes ____ you just write it down ____ you can normally revise ____ if you miss the lectures you can normally just photocopy someone else's notes ____
S3. twelve o'clock, time for math tutorial.	postgraduate ____ lecturer ____ tutorial sheets ____ reconstituted ____ spine ____ stottie	you do the sheets, tutorial sheets ____ what would a typical lunch be? ____ we go to union for lunch normally to have a stottie ____
S4. it's two o'clock. While they have theoretical lectures in the morning...	theoretical ____ mechanical labs ____ snooker ____ entrance ____ pub ____	while they have theoretical lectures in the morning, in the afternoon they've got something practical... ____ to play some pool or to drink a beer ____ today is no exception ____ they sometimes play snooker ____ no wonder Nick has won the game ____ it's difficult to miss the bar near the entrance to the 'Student Union'
S5. Interview: how do you describe your social life?	social life ____ club-oriented ____ investigate ____ haunt	is it kind of pub-oriented? ____ to investigate as many pubs as you can ____ it's nice to be there occasionally ____ how you finance yourselves? ____

	finance ___ government ___ tuition fee ___ grant ___ income ___ divorced ___ consist of	government pays our tuition fees ___ how much would they be ___ depending on how much money... ___ I get a full grant ___ if I'm feeling like it, going on to a nightclub ___ it's a cheap way to have a good night out ___
S6. six o'clock and they go back to the accommodation.	the halls ___ food hall ___ squash court ___ laundry ___ review ___	we're both at the halls ___ you just get all your food cooked for you ___ it's a good way to get introduced to .. ___ so that students can kill time if they want to at night ___ time to review what you've done in today's classes ___ spend the night watching TV ___
S7. Interview: are there any remarks...?	definitely ___	any remarks you wanna make about...? ___ try it--keep going with it or drop it ___ your school days are the best days of your life ___ it's a full life and a busy one being a student ___

e) write down whatever you think is an useful expression but not in your worksheet when you hear them.

f) Below are some comprehension questions about the video contents. Have a careful look at them and try to answer them after you finish your viewing.

QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
S1. who are these two people we are going to see?	
S2. why does Chris often skip classes?	
S3. what is a tutorial?	
S4. what do they usually do in the afternoon?	
S5. how do they finance themselves?	
S6. describe the place they are living and what they usually do in the evening.	
S7. what do they think about the university days?	

g) go back and forth the video as many times as you want and fill in the blank of the script.

S1. some say it's _____ because you've _____ to do, you get _____ and you get _____.

S2. while Chris is _____, Nick _____ instead. I asked _____ he often _____ like this.

S3. Well, you could do. In the _____ we did. Um, but then you'd have, say, five _____ in there or five _____ students _____ you. You do the sheets, tutorial sheets and if you have any questions you ask _____.

S4. This place is _____ about eleven o'clock in the morning _____ at _____. Students can get _____ here _____ at any other _____ in the city.

S5. You can _____ as well, _____ how much money, how much _____ your _____ have, but my mum and dad are divorced so I get _____, which is good.

S6. it's about nine o'clock and it's _____ to _____ the clothes that they've left _____ of their rooms for _____. They say that some students _____ to read while they are waiting _____.

S7. So many _____ here to do things you couldn't _____. Everything going on is just _____ to pick up something _____ and _____.

3. Post-viewing

- Here is the whole script of the video you just watched. Underline the expressions you couldn't catch.
- write down the vocabulary and expressions you newly learned from the video.
- write a short essay about 'the kind of life you led as a university student' or 'your impression of English university students'.

English Teenagers

1. Pre-viewing

- brainstorm about the video contents. Think about the possible differences and similarities between Korean teenagers and English.
- brainstorm about 'teenagers and 'teenagers' attitude towards things' and write down some vocabulary which could be used in the video.

2. While-viewing

- watch the whole video without stopping if you want.
- watch the first sequence as many times as you want without looking at the worksheet provided.
- watch the same sequence again. This time you can do some work about the sequence you are watching. The following are the key vocabulary and expressions you are going to hear in the video. Tick the vocabulary and expressions when you hear them and double tick if you do not know the meaning of the vocabulary or the expressions.
- work on the other sequences in the same way.

SEQUENCE NO.	VOCABULARY	EXPRESSIONS
S1. (voice-over) What is it like to grow up in England?	grow up ___ spare ___ spend ___ generation ___	what sort of things do English teenagers like to do...? ___ in their spare time ___ spend their money on ___
S2. Self-introductions: I'm Francine...	A-levels ___ at the moment ___ speech therapy ___ marine biology ___ currently ___ afterward ___ GCSEs ___ exams ___	doing my A-levels ___ doing my exams ___ doing my GCSEs ___ some exams to see how I'm doing at school ___
S3. (voice-over) I like computer programming...	cinema ___ hobbies ___	go to the cinema with my friends or out at night ___ some of them are really into their hobbies ___
S4. Interview: I play the bass guitar	bass guitar ___ band ___	we usually go to practise in a special practice room ___

	drummer ___ practise ___ practice room ___ hire ___ garage ___ turn out ___ indie music ___ grunge ___ heavy metal	we can hire it ___ we used to practise in my friend's garage ___ I've been playing it for 6 years ___ I really wanted to play the violin, but it just turned out that I played the cello ___ you can't use it as a background noise ___ people banging their heads around ___ River Phonix, he's really nice looking, Bon Jovi, I like the music
S5. (voice-over) what do the teenagers really think about their parents?	approve ___ pretend to ___ relaxed ___ growing up	get on my nerves ___ parents don't go out, just stay in all the time ___ get a more relaxed attitude to life ___
S6. (voice-over) what do the teenagers and their parents really think about each other?	nag ___ disagreement ___ fall out ___ indoors ___ irritating ___ unhealthy ___ unfair ___ embarrassing ___ look for ___ approve of ___ rebel ___ boundary	the thing is that he cares about the things which I ... ___ come out for a nice walk or a nice cycle-ride ___ sit indoors ___ go out with him ___ I don't particularly care ___ if she stops me from doing things ___ I will either rebel or I won't understand ___ they move freely within the boundary ___ we argue and fight and fall out ___ they keep coming back ___
S7. (ending) Polly's father: It's a very difficult situation for...	adjust to ___ support ___ independent ___ refreshing ___ uncooperative	to adjust to their roles ___ at the same time ___ the pain in the neck ___

e) write down whatever you think is an useful expression but not in your worksheet when you hear them.

f) Below are some comprehension questions about the video contents. Have a careful look at them and try to answer them after you finish your viewing.

QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
S2. Jot down the names of the teenagers and what they do currently.	
S4. Describe Nick's band.	
S4. Why doesn't Polly listen to music much?	
S5. Write down what the teenagers spoke about their parents.	
S6. What do Francine and her mother say about each other?	
S7. What are Polly's father's and Susan's father's opinion	

about teenagers?

g) go back and forth the video as many times as you want and fill in the blank of the script.

S4. I play the bass guitar in a _____. Just _____. We've got a _____, _____, and there's me _____ the bass guitar, and a _____. We've been _____ for 18 months now.

S4. It's lots of _____ guitar music, electric guitar music. People _____ their heads around... That's Bon Jovi. It's like _____ group... This is River Phoenix, who I _____ but he _____.

S5. Parents don't _____, just stay in _____, watch TV and _____. We've got a _____ to life, I think.

S5. My dad _____ that, when he answers the phone, he's Vicky's _____. If I'm not _____, he's Vicky's _____.

S6. So if you _____ them to _____ a nice walk or a nice cycle-ride, they'll say no, I'll just _____, thank you, I'll _____. You think it's very irritating and _____.

S6. I imagine that something that teenagers _____: they don't _____ want the boyfriend that their mothers will _____, they want boyfriends their _____ will _____.

S6. She leaves a lot of it _____ me to let _____ my own mistakes, which I think is a lot _____ for me. If she _____ me _____ doing things, I think I will ...

S6. I tried to _____ them when they are little and give them _____. I think they _____ within the boundary.

S7. They want _____. They want _____. They need money _____. At the same time, they don't want to be _____. They want to _____ they're _____.

3. Post-viewing

- Here is the whole script of the video you just watched. Underline the expressions you couldn't catch.
- write down the vocabulary and expressions you newly learned from the video.
- write a short essay about 'the kind of teenager you used to be' or 'the relationship between teenagers and their parents'.

Appendix 10-2. Video Workbook for Classroom Teaching

Chinese Festivals

1. New Year

1. Pre-viewing

a) give the students 5 minutes to brainstorm any vocabulary they associate with the topic of 'the Chinese (lunar) New Year'. Write all their suggestions on the board or OHP.

b) pre-teach essential vocabulary from the commentary.

festival		family reunion		to set off	
celebration		envelope		to light	
theme		relative		to re-open	
renewal		fortune		to spread around	
climax		merchant		to attract	
firecracker		attention		customary	
bottle rocket		to signify		traditionally	
		to feast		officially	

c) let the students work in pairs. Ask them to think about what they do on Chinese New Year's day and to write them down in English.

2. While-viewing

a) play the whole text and ask students to tick beside the vocabulary in the above box when they hear it.

b) play the first part of the text again and ask the students to fill in the gaps.

<p>The Chinese New Year is our _____, our _____. Traditionally called _____, it, like spring, _____ to us a _____ every year -- _____ with the old, _____ with the new. Since the _____ is one of _____, we all buy new _____ which we wear on the first day of the new year. The _____ of the _____ is, of course, New Year's _____, when we first _____ and later _____ and _____ to _____ the new year.</p>
--

c) below are the comprehension questions. Let the students work in pairs and report the answers back to the whole group.

1.	what do Chinese people do on the New Year's Day?
2.	why is it a family reunion?
3.	when does a man's wife return to his parents' home with him?
4.	how many days off from work do Chinese people get?
5.	why do businessmen light firecrackers when they re-open?

d) put the students in groups and ask them to discuss in English the differences and similarities in the ways people celebrate the lunar new year's day between Korea and China (Taiwan).

3. Post-viewing

a) ask students to write down the vocabulary and expressions they newly learned from the video.

c) ask students to write a short essay about 'the Korean lunar new year' or 'the similarities and differences between Korean and Chinese festivals'

2. The Ghost Festival

1. Pre-viewing

a) ask the students to brainstorm in pairs any vocabulary they associate with the topic of the 'ghost'.

Write all their suggestions on the board or OHP.

b) pre-teach essential vocabulary and the proper nouns from the commentary.

gates		spirit		pork	
hell		awful		float	
		cow			

2. While-viewing

a) play the whole text and ask students to tick beside the vocabulary in the above box when they hear it.

b) below are the comprehension questions. Let the students work in pairs and report the answers back to the whole group.

1.	when is the Ghost Festival?
2.	do Chinese people look very superstitious?
3.	what are ghosts like?
4.	what happened every seventh month of the lunar calendar a long time ago?
5.	why do people burn paper money and float paper boats?
6.	why do people prepare a lot of food for the ghosts?

c) put the students in pairs and ask them to reconstruct any ghost story they know in English and report back to the whole class afterwards.

3. Post-viewing

- ask students to write down the vocabulary and expressions they newly learned from the video.
- ask the students to read the reading material provided and try to answer the questions.
- ask students to write a short essay about 'any ghost story they know about' or 'superstition'.

Good Will Learning

1. What makes a good teacher? & What makes a bad teacher?

1. Pre-viewing

- give the students 5 minutes to brainstorm any vocabulary they associate with the topic of 'a teacher'. Write all their suggestions on the board or OHP.
- pre-teach essential vocabulary from the interviews.

to grasp		in a relaxed way		organised	
to rivet		to take account of		overwork	
to motivate		to take charge of		to make mistake	
autonomy		plenty of		pace	

c) let the students work in pairs. Ask them to think about what makes a good or bad teacher and to write them down in English. The students can compare their own thoughts with the people's opinion in video later on.

2. While-viewing

- play the whole text and ask students to tick beside the vocabulary in the above box when they hear it.
- play the first part of the video. Ask the students to jot down the gist of what the interviewees say about the good teacher and compare them with their own partners

Interviewees No.	Interviewee's comments
1. a guy with funny hairstyle	
2. Scott	
3. Bob	
4. Tina	
5. a Scottish guy	

c) play the second part of the video. Ask the students to fill in the gaps in pairs.

(1) A bad teacher is when they're not really _____, when they're not, themselves don't _____ what they're _____ to you, or they explain, or they _____ it _____.

(2) A bad teacher is the one who _____ what he _____ on the board.

(3) A bad teacher is someone who doesn't _____ students the _____ to _____, to learn _____ different _____.

(4) _____ can be a bad teacher. Even good teachers are _____ bad teachers. I guess, err, if you don't really, err, I guess if you are _____ and _____ and you've maybe worked a _____

_____, then maybe you are a good teacher at sort of at _____ in the morning, but by 9:30 at night you're _____ a very good teacher.

d) put the students in a group of three or four and ask them to discuss the following:

the good teachers they've had/ the bad teachers they've had
the characteristics of good or bad teachers

3. Post-viewing

- ask the students to write down the vocabulary and expressions they newly learned from the video.
- ask the students to read the reading material provided and try to answer the questions

2. What makes a good student? & what makes a bad student?

1. Pre-viewing

- give the students some time to brainstorm any vocabulary they associate with the topic of 'a good or bad student'. Write all their suggestions on the board or OHP.
- pre-teach essential vocabulary from the interviews.

competitive		available		motivation	
to consider		definitely		self-discipline	
source		to prepare for		systematic	
to manage to		lecture		to spend	
circumstance		beforehand		pub	
to make use of		to lack		attentive	

- let the students work in pairs. Ask them to think about what makes a good or bad student and to write them down in English. The students can compare their own thoughts with the people's opinion in video.

2. While-viewing

- play the whole text and ask the students to tick beside the vocabulary in the above box when they hear it.
- the information gap activity: Give out a sheet of paper to each student which contains five features each for a good student or a bad student. However, all papers have some blanks in them which students have to fill in with the help of another student. Ask the students to find somebody who has information they do not have and complete the form together. Everybody needs to contribute the information they have got and get some information they have not got in return.

A Good Student
1. a good () player
2. a competitive one
3. a good student could be someone who doesn't just consider the class as the only place where they can learn and the teacher as the only source they can learn from
4. good student is someone who () () () whatever circumstances he or she is () and () () make use of, the () use of whatever () are () available
5. trying your best that () a () student

A Good Student
1. a good team player
2. a () one
3. a good student could be someone who doesn't just () the class as the () () where they can learn and the () as the only () they can learn ()
4. good student is someone who manages to learn whatever circumstances he or she is in and manages to make sue of, the best use of whatever sources are available
5. trying your () () makes a good student

A Good Student
1. a good () ()
2. a competitive one
3. a good student could be () who doesn't just consider the () as the only () they can () and the teacher as the only source they can learn from
4. good student is someone who () () ()

A Good Student
1. a good team player
2. a () ()
3. a good student could be someone who doesn't just consider the class as the () place where they can learn and the () as the () () they can () ()
4. good student is someone who manages to

) whatever () he or she is in and manages to make sue of, the best use of whatever sources are available

5. trying your best that () a () student

learn whatever circumstances he or she is () and ()() make use of, the () use of whatever () are ()()

5. trying your ()() makes a good student

A Bad Student

1. 1. don't ()for their lectures ()

2. after the lectures, they don't go back home and look at what they've learnt unless there is an exam coming

3. someone who lacks motivation and () and so does not () a systematic approach ()()

4. one who spends all his life in the pub, doesn't do any work, () in the class, ()() in the class

5. someone who is in class, who is not attentive because they are not interested in learning. They are not motivated perhaps they had ()() in the past

A Bad Student

1. don't prepare for their lectures beforehand

2. after the(), they don't go back home and look at what they've learnt unless there is an ()()

3. someone who ()() and self-discipline and so does not have a ()() to work

4. one who () all his life ()() (), doesn't do ()(), talks in the (), play games in the ()

5. someone who is in class, who is not () because they are not interested in (). They are not () perhaps they had some bad experience ()()

A Bad Student

1. 1. don't ()for their lectures ()

2. after the lectures, they don't () ()() and () at what they've learnt () there is an exam coming

3. someone who lacks () and () and so does not () a systematic () to ()

4. one who () all his life in the pub, doesn't do any work, () in the class, ()() in the class

5. someone who is in class, who is not attentive because they are not ()() learning. They are not motivated ()() ()some () () in the past

A Bad Student

1. don't prepare for ()() beforehand

2. after the(), they don't go back home and look at what they've learnt unless there is an ()()

3. someone who () motivation and self-discipline and so does not have a () approach to work

4. one who spends all his life ()() (), doesn't do any work, talks in the (), play games in the ()

5. someone who is in class, who is not () because they are not interested in (). They are not () perhaps they had some bad experience ()()

- c) play the whole video as many times as the students want so that the students having a list of a good student's features can also take notes of what makes a bad student and vice versa.
- d) ask the students to add up in pairs some more features in the list of a good/bad student's characteristics.

3. Post-viewing

- a) ask the students to write down the vocabulary and expressions they newly learned from the video.
- b) ask the students to read the reading material provided and try to answer the questions.
- c) ask the students to write a short essay about 'the best teacher you've ever had' or 'the worst teacher you've ever had'.

Lonely Saturday

1. From the First beginning scene before the interview

1. Pre-viewing

- a) give the students some time to brainstorm any vocabulary they associate with the topic of the 'lonely Saturday' or the 'cinema'. Write all their suggestions on the board or OHP.
- b) pre-teach essential vocabulary from the monologue.

dreary		pub		ex-girlfriend	
--------	--	-----	--	---------------	--

on holiday		reality		exit	
telly		book shop		to wonder	
be sick of		relaxed		candidate	

c) let the students work in pairs. Ask them to think about what to do on a lonely Saturday and to write them down in English.

2. While-viewing

a) play the whole text and ask students to tick beside the vocabulary in the above box when they hear it.

b) ask the students to fill in the gaps in pairs

_____ a dreary Saturday afternoon! My _____ has left me _____. Hugh!
It's always _____. Funny, isn't it? My friends are all _____. My favourite _____
_____ is playing at the _____ of the _____. I am _____ reading books, _____ to
_____, _____ telly...

I know a place, not _____ here A place, always _____ and _____. A place _____ can makes
us _____ and _____. A place of moving images _____, a world bigger than
anywhere else, _____ than books, _____ TV...

c) put the students in a group of three or four and ask them to discuss the following:

your own or your friends' experience of being dumped by girlfriend/boyfriend
the sort of film you like and why
what is the film you've recently seen

3. Post-viewing

a) ask the students to write down the vocabulary and expressions they newly learned from the video.

b) vocabulary extension: put the students in a group of three or four and ask them to come up with some adjectives for the feelings which describe the main character's state of mind in the video. Ask the whole class to make a grid of adjectives and make sure every group contributes. Then give out this vocabulary sheet and ask them to tick beside the vocabulary whose meaning they know.

cross		detached		depressed	
indignant		indifferent		disappointed	
furious		serene		down	
grumpy		unruffled		feeling low	
wild		unemotional		gloomy	
upset		relaxed		heart broken	
resentful		composed		miserable	
irritated		dejected			

c) ask the students to read the reading material provided and try to answer the questions

2. Nice talking in an empty auditorium! I wonder what's the room up there?

1. Pre-viewing

a) ask the students to brainstorm in pairs any vocabulary they associate with the topic of 'the things you can see at a cinema'. Write all their suggestions on the board or OHP.

b) pre-teach essential vocabulary from the monologue.

auditorium		excitement		character	
to look like		expectation		personal	
factory		to light		touch	
totally		to stream out		cinema	
atmosphere		particle		cinema complex	
fantasy		dust		multiplex	
to gossip		to hang		customer	
to giggle		in the air		on one's way	
in a row		old-fashioned		traditional	

2. While-viewing

- a) play the whole text and ask the students to tick beside the vocabulary in the above box when they hear it.
- b) Role play: tell the students to imagine that they have a prospective sponsor who is thinking about investing money into a cinema and hasn't decided on which type of cinema she is going to invest in. Divide the students into three big groups according to their preference to the type of cinema: old-fashioned or multiplex. And the last group of students would be the prospective sponsors. Ask them to figure out some advantages of the cinema they like and some disadvantages of the cinema they don't like. The sponsor group should prepare for the language of negotiation. When they have finished, put all the students in a group of three having one from each group. They are again asked to discuss and decide which cinema the sponsor is going to invest in and why.

3. Post-viewing

- a) ask the students to write down the vocabulary and expressions they newly learned from the video.
- b) put the students in a group of three and ask them to come up with the adjectives they often use when they describe a film and report back to the whole class. The whole class is going to make a grid of those adjectives, putting them into three categories; terrible, OK, terrific. Ask them to compare their own with this.

astonishing		fantastic		passable	
extraordinary		not too bad		superb	
awful		not so good		splendid	
reasonable		forgettable		adequate	
sensational		frightful		fabulous	
boring		lousy		appalling	
impressive		mediocre		exceptional	
great		unsettling		marvellous	
second-rate		nothing to talk about		horrible	
tremendous		excellent		highly praised	
		standard			

- c) ask the students to read the reading material provided and try to answer the questions.
- d) ask the students to write a short essay about 'the best film you've seen'.

The National Lottery

1. Interview part II: Interview of Anna M. Bradley

1. Pre-viewing

- a) ask the students to brainstorm in pairs any vocabulary they associate with the topic of 'the lottery'. Write all their suggestions on the board or OHP.
- b) pre-teach essential vocabulary from the interview.

lottery		charity		be tempted to	
to play the lottery		be pleased		yacht	
gambling		prize		to blow	
chance		lottery ticket		in one go	
to win		a few		odds	
opinion		jackpot		to choose	
government		excessive		Ping-Pong ball	
to set up		to share out		to train	
to tax		be limited to		to select	
income		to hit the jackpot			

2. While-viewing

- a) play the whole text and ask students to tick beside the vocabulary in the above box when they hear it.
- b) ask the students answer the comprehension questions in pairs.

1. what's her opinion about the government getting the money from the lottery?	
2. where does she say the money goes?	
3. what does she think about the jackpot ?	
4. what does she say she would do if she hit the	

jackpot?	
5. how does she choose the numbers?	

c) interview game: in this interview game, every student should be an interviewee as well as an interviewer. All the students should interview as many students as they can and at the same time answer the questions other students ask.

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS
1. have you played the lottery? How many times?
2. have you ever won? If so, how many times and how much? Do you know anybody who won the lottery? If so, tell the story.
3. what's your opinion about the lottery?
4. what would you do if you hit the jackpot?

d) put the students in a group of three and ask them to decide whether it is fair to divide the profit from the lottery the way it is now. And ask the groups to decide how many percents of the money should go where for what reasons.

Where does the money go?	Where should the money go?
1. prize money: 50%	1.
2. retailer commission: 5%	2.
3. operating costs and profit: 5%	3.
4. treasury duty: 12%	4.
5. good causes: 28%	5.

3. Post-viewing

a) ask the students to read the following and discuss what their opinions are about this stance. They can work in groups.

There have been strong feelings expressed by the bishops against the National Lottery, both before it was begun and now, increasingly, in the way in which it is being operated. The media hype surrounding it, the expectations, the almost near spiritualizing of suggesting that god is pointing down and saying it could be coming to you is something that I find deeply distressing and many other people do as well.

b) ask the students to write down the vocabulary and expressions they newly learned from the video.

c) ask the students to write a short essay about 'their own opinion about the lottery'.

Lord Hollytree and His Mysterious Bump

1. From the beginning scene to 'I wonder what could have caused such a blow'

1. Pre-viewing

a) ask the students to brainstorm in pairs any vocabulary they associate with the topic of 'the detective story'. Write all their suggestions on the board or OHP.

b) pre-teach essential vocabulary from the commentary.

to investigate		murder		staircase	
respected		to discover		obvious	
local		murder weapon		be caused by	
aristocrat		wealthy		blow	
suicide		to push open		to fall	
accident		at the foot		to bang	

2. While-viewing

a) play the whole text and ask students to tick beside the vocabulary in the above box when they hear it.

b) there is a jumbled text of the commentary having some blanks in it. Ask the students in pairs to fill in the blanks and put them in right order.

1. It was a _____ in June. I have been _____ to Hollytree Hall to _____ the death of a respected local aristocrat, Lord Hollytree.

2. Since there was no-one around, I _____ the _____ door and there, at the _____ of the _____, I saw the _____.

3. I wonder _____ could _____ such a blow. Did he _____ fail and _____ his head?

4. It was obvious that the _____ had been _____ by a _____ to the _____ and that Lord Hollytree had been _____ for no longer than one and a _____ hours.

5. if it was murder, I had to discover _____ killed him, _____ he had been killed and _____ had been used.

6. I approached the body to _____ I could find out _____ he had been _____.

7. I arrived at the Hall at five o'clock. I did not _____ know _____ it was _____, an accident or _____.

8. I only knew that he was a _____ man and that _____ people might have _____ him _____ his money.

3. Post-viewing

- a) ask the students to write down the vocabulary and expressions they newly learned from the video.
- b) ask the students to read the reading material provided and try to answer the questions

2. From 'Well, I don't quite know what to make of all this. I've found a lot of clues...' to the end

1. Pre-viewing

- a) ask the students to brainstorm in pairs any vocabulary related 'the things you can find in a big house'. Write all their suggestions on the board or OHP.
- b) pre-teach essential vocabulary from the commentary.

to make of		to solve		bicycle lock	
clue		mystery		on the steps	
clearer		to look like		to lead to	
look around		murder case		cellar	
to look in		to look down		wrench	
homely		waste-paper basket		trowel	
old-fashioned		object		brush	
aga		walking-stick		paperweight	
screwed-up		saucepan		stuffed in	
on the floor		a pool of water		out of place	
suspicious		in the hallway		obviously	
spice bottle		golf clubs		detective	
reflect upon		tray			
nearer to		wheelbrace			

2. While-viewing

- a) play the whole text and ask the students to tick beside the vocabulary in the above box when they hear it.
- b) ask the students to fill in the blanks in pairs.

while I was in the toilet I _____ my findings. I still didn't know _____ I was _____ to solving the mystery but it _____ a _____. I looked down and noticed a _____ in the waste-paper _____. Was this _____ another _____? Hollytree Hall had been _____ which _____ something to do with the Lord's death. I had found a _____, a saucepan and a _____ in the hallway. In the _____ room I had found a set of _____, a silver _____ and some _____. And why was _____ a _____ in the _____ and a bicycle lock on the _____ leading to the _____? In Lady Hollytree's room, the _____ and the _____ looked like possible _____. The brush below her bedroom _____ and the _____ stuffed in the apron pocket in the _____ also looked _____. And now this bottle in the toilet. What could it mean? There was _____ more detective work _____.

c) Role Play: put the students in a group of four. Tell the students to take one character each: the detective, the lady Hollytree, the gardener, and the cook. Ask the detective to investigate Lord Hollytree's death by questioning the other two. Give out the information sheet to each character.

the detective: you arrived at Hollytree Hall at 5 o'clock. You have a long list of possible murder weapons. You know that Lord Hollytree died not longer than one and a half hours ago and that his death was caused by a blow to the head. You heard from one of the maids that Lady Hollytree and her husband Lord Hollytree didn't get on well that Lord Hollytree complained a lot about the gardener and the cook. You should ask the three suspects about all the items you found in the whole house.

Lady Hollytree: you should insist that you left home two hours ago. You should make up about where you went, what you did. You have no witnesses to prove your story. You should explain whatever the detective ask. You should say that you are only responsible for those golf clubs in the living room. You and your husband didn't get on very well and everybody knows that. You think your husband was stingy.

Paul, the gardener: you should insist that you had been working all afternoon in the green house so that nobody could see you. You should insist that you don't know anything about the wrench and the trowel found in the Lady Hollytree's room. Just say that you lost them the day before. You know that Lord Hollytree complained about your gardening skills and your lack of experience.

Jessis, the cook: you didn't like Lord Hollytree very much because he had never praised your cooking. You overheard that Lord Hollytree mentioned he was thinking about hiring another cook. You should insist that you stayed in the kitchen all morning and that you took an afternoon off due to your back pain. You should insist that you didn't leave the small room behind the kitchen all afternoon where you lay down. You didn't meet anybody this afternoon so you don't have any witnesses. The apron found in the kitchen is yours and you remember that you took the drinks on the silver tray up to Lady Hollytree's bedroom around noon today.

3. Post-viewing

- a) ask the students to write down the vocabulary and expressions they newly learned from the video.
- b) ask the students to read the reading material provided and try to answer the questions.

Perfect Partners: From the beginning to a girl saying 'big really, Tall. Dark...Can talk sort of openly'

1. Pre-viewing

- a) give the students 5 minutes to brainstorm any vocabulary they associate with the topic of 'your ideal type. Write all their suggestions on the board. or OHP.
- b) pre-teach essential vocabulary from the video.

ideal		well-dressed		foreigner	
physical		personality		to go out with	
handsome		big-headed		attractive	
good-looking		sexy		smiling	
patient		tan		at the moment	
humble		healthy		dark	
hag		muscle		sort of	
could be		to fit		openly	
buddy		to look for			
manners		to turn on			

2. While-viewing

- a) play the whole text and ask students to tick beside the vocabulary in the above box when they hear it.
- b) play the first part of the video. Ask the students to jot down the gist of what the interviewees say about the good teacher and compare them with their own partners

Interviewees No.	Interviewee's comments
1 (a guy).	
2 (one of two girls).	

3 (the other girl).	
4. (a guy).	
5. (a girl)	
6. (a boy)	

c) play the second part of the video. Ask the students to fill in the gaps in pairs.

the main thing I _____ very _____ is a tan. Because it looks _____. And _____. Big _____.

Something you, like you wouldn't expect. I don't really _____ people wearing not _____ They don't really _____ me _____. I like _____ really. I've _____ a Polish girl...

I like to meet a _____ person if they are happy _____, which _____ to be rather difficult to _____ for me _____.

Big really. Tall. _____. Eh...can talk sort of _____.

d) Interview Game: ask the students to interview as many as they can and to write them down. The interview questions are the following.

- | |
|--|
| 1. how do you describe your ideal type? |
| 2. have you met anybody close to your ideal type in real life or in a film? |
| 3. if you have a boyfriend/girlfriend at the moment, is your boyfriend/girlfriend your ideal type? |
| 4. describe the features you don't look for in a man/woman and why. |

e) if the students have interviewed enough number of other students, put them in a big circle. Ask the students to choose one interview result each and to report back to the whole class. Make sure that each student report on different interview result.

3. Post-viewing

- ask the students to write down the vocabulary and expressions they newly learned from the video.
- ask the students to read the reading material provided and try to answer the questions
- ask the students to write a short essay about 'your ideal type' or 'the most romantic film you've ever seen'.

Sari's Christmas in Newcastle

1. Sari's flat (answering the phone) Scene + 2. The Christmas party

1. Pre-viewing

a) ask the students to brainstorm in pairs any vocabulary they associate with the topic of 'Christmas'.

Write all their suggestions on the board or OHP.

b) pre-teach essential vocabulary from the video.

message		scarf		to pull	
suppose		on one's way		to try	
to make sure		to take		to drop	
to invite		Christmas cracker		to come true	
perfume		fortune			

2. While-viewing

a) play the whole text and ask the students to tick beside the vocabulary in the above box when they hear it.

b) ask the students to jot down in pairs the gist of the telephone conversation between Andy and Sari.

Andy:

Sari:

c) ask the students to answer in pairs the comprehension questions about what happened at Andy's Christmas party.

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS

1. why is Eleni not with Sari?

2. what is a Christmas cracker?

3. what happens when Sari and Andy pull their own Christmas crackers?

4. how is Andy's response to the fortune paper?

d) How to make a Christmas cracker: ask the students to read the following and put the jumbled text in the right order below.

Here in England we place Christmas crackers on the Christmas tree. And we also have a cracker each on the table for Christmas dinner.

They are usually made of crepe paper wrapped around a cardboard roll. Inside the roll is normally a paper hat shaped like a crown, a joke (which is usually awful), and a little gift. There is also a cardboard snap, two pieces joined together with gunpowder (I think) which causes the cracker to 'bang' when pulled between two people.

1. Insert snapper and favours (e.g. paper party hats, candies, riddles, jokes, etc.) into the roll. The ends of the snapper should extend beyond the ends of the cracker.

2. To make fringe, take an 8" × 5" piece of crepe paper and fold in half lengthwise. Cut 1" deep slashes apart along unfolded edges. Repeat with second piece of 8" × 5" crepe paper.

3. Tie each end of cracker with string.

4. Centre the toilet tissue roll lengthwise along the 10" side of the 8" × 10" piece of crepe paper. Wrap the crepe paper around the roll, securing it with 1 or 2 pieces of transparent tape.

5. Take about 12" of decorative string (gold, silver, etc.) and place along inside fold of fringe. Gather and tie around end of cracker, over first tie, repeat with other end, using second fringe. Ends of fringes may be curled gently.

d) Group Survey: put the students in a group of three. Give a different note (about Christmas celebrations in several countries) to each member of the group. All members of the group should read their own papers and explain it to the other members so that they could complete the whole diagram.

France: in France, Christmas is always called 'Noel'. Everyone has a Christmas tree, sometimes decorated in the old way with red ribbons and real white wax candles. Fir trees in the garden are often decorated too, with lights on all night. Father Christmas is called Pere Noel. The Christmas meal is an important family gathering with good meat and the best wine.

United States: the USA is so multi-cultural that you will find many different ways of celebrating Christmas. A friend writes about Christmas meals, 'Our family (Eastern European origin) favour turkey with trimmings. My grandparents and their relatives preferred keibasi (Polish sausage), cabbage dishes, and soups. My husband's Italian family insisted on lasagne!'

Russia: in the days of the Soviet Union, Christmas was not celebrated very much. New Year was the important time—when 'Father Frost' brought presents to children. With the fall of Communism, Christmas can be openly celebrated -either on December 25th or more often on January 7th. This unusual date is because the Russian Orthodox church uses the old 'Julian' calendar for religious celebration days.

Finland: Finnish people believe that Father Christmas (Santa Claus) lives in the north part of Finland, north of the Arctic Circle. Everyone cleans their houses ready for the three holy days of Christmas—

Christmas eve, Christmas Day, and Boxing Day. Christmas eve is very special, when people eat rice porridge and plum fruit juice in the morning. At mid-day, the 'peace of Christmas' is broadcast on radio and TV from the Finnish city of Turku by its mayor. In the evening, they have a traditional Christmas dinner. The meal includes 'casseroles' containing macaroni, rutabaga, carrot and potato, with cooked ham or turkey. Many families will visit cemeteries and graveyards to place a candle onto the burial graves of family members. Cemeteries are very beautiful at Christmas-time. Children receive their presents on Christmas eve, usually with a family member dressing as Father Christmas.

3. Post-viewing

- a) ask the students to write down the vocabulary and expressions they newly learned from the video.
- b) ask the students to write a short essay including their own opinions about the criticism below.

In the west today, the real meaning of Christmas is often forgotten. It has become a non-religious holiday! More children believe in Father Christmas than in Jesus. Christmas Day is a time for eating and drinking too much and watching television.

Shopping in the Supermarket: How to make Christmas puddings

1. Pre-viewing

- a) ask the students to brainstorm in pairs any vocabulary (mainly verbs) they associate with the topic of 'cooking'. Write all their suggestions on the board or OHP.
- b) pre-teach essential vocabulary from the video.

traditionally		sultana		fruit peel	
pudding		bread crumb		ingredient	
used to		suet		bowl	
plum		hard fat		steam	
century		sheep		flavour	
nowadays		cattle		to seep out	
for some reasons		brandy		moist	
raisin		candied		otherwise	

2. While-viewing

- a) play the whole text and ask students to tick beside the vocabulary in the above box when they hear it.
- b) ask the students to think about the verbs they can use in describing recipes and write them down in pairs. They should report back to the whole class.

boil/ microwave/ chop/ cut/ mince/ scramble/ stir/ fry/ stirfry/ stew/ simmer/ bake/

- c) play the video again. Ask the students to fill in the blanks in the first box and to put the jumbled texts in the correct order in pairs.

Traditionally, Christmas pudding used to be _____ plums, which was many centuries ago. But _____, for some reasons, they don't _____ and just _____ raisins and sultanas, and I think they _____ bread _____ and suet, which is fat, I suppose, _____ from sheep and cattle. And it's got _____ and candied _____.

1. you don't cut them, and you put it in a little pudding bowl.

2. So all the flavours from the fruit seep out, and it becomes moist, because, otherwise, it'll be very dry.

3. And, yeah, you just steam it, like ordinary pudding.

4. And just mix all the ingredients together.

5. And at the end, as you say, you steam it.

6. It's like a steamed pudding, but you don't make it the day before Christmas, you make it about a month ago.

- d) Group Survey: ask the students to think about the recipe of any dish they can cook. Then they should go around the class and get as many recipes as they can from other people.

3. Post-viewing

- a) ask the students to write down the vocabulary and expressions they newly learned from the video.
- b) ask the students to read the reading material provided and try to answer the questions.

Student Life:

1. From the beginning to the tutorial scene

1. Pre-viewing

- a) ask the students to brainstorm in pairs any vocabulary they associate with the topic of 'university student life'. Write all their suggestions on the board or OHP.
- b) pre-teach essential vocabulary from the video.

freedom		to miss		to play pool	
essay		to get to class		to skip class	
from morning till night		on time		normally	
combined studies		lecture		revise	
mechanical		constructively		tutorial	
engineering		to take notes		postgraduate	
to get ready for		to write down		lecturer	

2. While-viewing

- a) play the whole text and ask students to tick beside the vocabulary in the above box when they hear it.
- b) ask the students to answer in pairs the comprehension questions.

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
1. what are Chris and Nick studying?	
2. why does Nick skip classes often?	
3. what is a tutorial?	

- c) ask the students to discuss the following in a group of four.

DISCUSSION TOPICS
1. describe your daily and weekend routine to your group.
2. what kinds of activity do university students do in Korea? List up the activities.
3. were(are) you like Nick or Chris as a student?

3. Post-viewing

- a) ask the students to write down the vocabulary and expressions they newly learned from the video.

2. Three Interviews about social life, money, and their typical evenings

1. Pre-viewing

- a) as the students to brainstorm in pairs any vocabulary they associate with the topic of 'university students' social life'. Write all their suggestions on the board or OHP.
- b) pre-teach essential vocabulary from the interviews.

to describe		to tend to		tuition fee	
social life		haunt		grant	
pub-oriented		to get away from		depending on	
club-oriented		occasionally		income	
slightly		quiet		divorced	
pub		to finance		full grant	
investigate		government		consist of	

2. While-viewing

- a) play the whole text and ask the students to tick beside the vocabulary in the above box when they hear it.
- b) ask the students to fill in the gaps in pairs.

How do you describe your social life, is it kind of _____ or _____?

Do they _____ become student _____, or do you try to get away _____ that?

Three thousand pounds a _____ which is _____ by the _____./ You can get a _____ as well, _____ how much money, how much _____ your _____ have, but my mum and dad are _____ so I get a _____, which is _____.

We do _____ the _____ as well as it's _____ cheap. It's a cheap way to have a good _____ because it's only £2.50 or something, _____.

c) Interview Game: ask the students to interview as many students as they can and they should also answer the questions other students ask.

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS
1. how do you describe your social life?
2. how do(did) you finance yourself in university?
3. what do you think the similarities and differences are between Korean and English university students?

3. Post-viewing

- ask the students to write down the vocabulary and expressions they newly learned from the video.
- ask the students to read the reading material provided and try to answer the questions.
- ask the students to write a short essay about 'my university days'.

English Teenagers

- What do the teenagers really think about their parents? +
- What do the teenagers and their parents really think about each other?

1. Pre-viewing

- ask the students to brainstorm in pairs any vocabulary they associate with the topic of 'what do the teenagers and their parents really think about each other?'. Write all their suggestions on the board or OHP.
- pre-teach essential vocabulary from the video.

nerve		to fight		to disapprove of	
to get on one's nerve		disagreement		up to	
to approve		to worry about		to stop ...from	
drinking		to care about		either...or...	
to pretend to		to come out for		to rebel	
to go out		to sit indoors		to guide	
to stay in		irritating		boundary	
to go to work		unhealthy		freely	
relaxed		to go out with		to argue	
attitude to		unfair		to fall out	
secretary		embarrassing		to keep ---ing	
growing up		to care		to come back	
to nag		to look for			

2. While-viewing

- play the whole text and ask students to tick beside the vocabulary in the above box when they hear it.
- play the first part of the video (6 teenagers). Ask the students to jot down the gist of what the interviewees say about their parents.

Interviewees	My parents are...
1. the first teenager	
2. the second	
3. the third	
4. the fourth	
5. the fifth	
6. the sixth	

- play the second part of the video. Ask the students to fill in the gaps in pairs.

Teenagers don't want to do _____ you _____ them _____. So if you _____ them to _____ a nice walk or a _____, they'll say ____, I'll just _____, thank you. I'll watch television. You think it's _____ and _____.

I imagine that _____ that teenagers look for... They don't _____ want the boyfriends that their _____ will _____, they want boyfriends their parents will _____.

I tried to _____ them when they are _____ and give them _____. I think they _____ the boundaries.

d) Role play 1: put the students in pairs and discuss the following. One person in the pair should be the parent and the other one the teenager.

The teenager wants to buy a pair of clumpy boots which cost 70,000 won. However, she/he can't afford them.

The teenager's mum is worried about her daughter's sliming diet. She thinks that her daughter doesn't eat properly.

The teenager wants to go out with her new boyfriend. Her parents insist that they meet him first.

The teenager wants to busk in the city centre and his/her parents disagree with him/her.

e) Role Play 2: put the students into three big groups. One group of students would be the fathers, another would be the mothers, and the third the teenagers. Ask each group to list down the fictitious things they don't like about the other two groups, i.e., if they are in the teenagers group, they should list down what they don't like about their parents. Then, put the students in a group of three from each former group. So every group has a father, a mother, and a teenager. They are having a family meeting and discuss the issues brought up from the former groups.

3. Post-viewing

a) ask the students to write down the vocabulary and expressions they newly learned from the video.

b) put the students in pairs. Give the different reading materials (about English educational system) out to each, and ask them to explain what they read to their pair in their own words. Finally, together they should draw a short chart of the English educational system.

The English educational system is broken down into two parts, the compulsory education system and the further education system. The compulsory education system is for children between the ages of five and sixteen.

They start their compulsory education system at infant school. Here they spend their time between the ages of five and seven, just being introduced to school life. They do a number of activities to keep themselves entertained.

After infant school at the age of seven, children go to primary school sometimes referred to as junior school. Here they learn simple skills, reading and writing, mathematics.

Following primary school students go to secondary school sometimes called comprehensive school. Here they learn subjects such as history, geography, physics, sociology, English literature, mathematics. During their final year at 16, they will take examinations in these subjects which will qualify them for GCSE certificates, General Certificates of Secondary Education.

After compulsory education students can either go to work or if they intend to go to university go to sixth-form college. Sixth-form stands for the sixth year. Secondary school is broken into five years and sixth-form is the sixth year. Here they spend two years learning A-level subjects, Advanced level subjects. College students normally do three or four A-levels. The students use the results of the A-levels to apply to go to university.

Instead of sixth-form college, there are technical colleges. People who want to learn more practical skills or are too old to go to sixth-form college can apply for A-level or technical certificates. These technical certificates show that the people have a greater understanding of subjects such as hairdressing or electronics, manufacture. Often people who are at work will go to technical colleges on a part-time basis so as to learn, or improve their skills for work. At the end of technical college education there is an opportunity to go to university.

Appendix 11. Transcripts of Classroom Observations

Case 1:

Classroom Observation 1

Subject: English Conversation II

Time and Date: 3.00-3.50 pm on October 10th 2000

Lesson No.: lesson 10 of the semester

Lesson Level: elementary or pre-intermediate

Students: 46 1st year students on Tourism Management Course

Materials: *New Interchange Intro.*

<T takes the register>

지난 시간에 했던 것부터 합시다. What did we do last time? What did we do last time? Remember? Close your book. Close your book. Don't touch your book.

Is your first language English? (S: No.) What's your first language? (S: Korean). What's your first language? My first language is Korean or it's Korea? Are your parents from Japan? (S: no.) No? No? No, they are not. 끝까지 가야지. Is your sister Korean? (S: Yes.) What's her first language? 한국말 안 써요? 가려요 자기 얼굴을.

Unit 4.

여러분이 보다시피 위에 대해서 공부하는 겁니까? flowers. 원예에 대해서 배우는 거죠. 그리고 4과 차례지 4과. 지난번에 숙제로 해오라고 했던 부분을 검사하자고 그랬으니 같이 해봅시다. Number 10, 보세요. page number 19.

Conversation with WH questions. 자 숙제 다 해왔죠?

복남이랑 복남이 옆친구 같이 합니다. A, B.

Number 1 please. (students read what they have done)

Number 2 (students read together)

여러분 답과 같아요?

What's Kyoto like? 이렇게 질문하는데, I don't know Kyoto 하면 안 되겠죠.

자 number 4.

좀 있다가 우리가 할 activity 는 다른 친구 얼굴을 묘사할거예요, 그러니까 쳐다보고 있다가 엉뚱한 소리하면 안되죠. 일단 무슨 단어가 어떤 식으로 써야할지 잘 봐야죠.

<T gives some time to the students>

자 같이 봅시다.

남자 봅시다 거기, clothes for work 일할 때 입는 옷.

머리부터 발끝까지 쪽 내려갑니다. First word! (S: shirt) OK, and then (S: tie) and then (S: belt) Belt 짧게. And then (S: jacket), Jacket, and then (S: pants) pants, and (S: shoes) shoes, ok, (S: coat) coat, good. (S: shoot) shoot는 총쏘는 겁니다, suit (S: suit)

옆으로 가세요, 여자 봅시다, 여자. What's the first word? (S: skirt) Then? (S: blouse) then? (S: shirt) and then (S: heels) Heels. 뒤가 올라가는 거죠. High heels. 그 밑으로 내려가 보세요. 첫 번째. (S: raincoat) 언제 입어요? (S: 비올 때) 그럼 눈올 때는? (S: 입어요. snow) 그럼 올 겨울엔 snowcoat를 입나? 그 다음은 (S: dress) dress는 위아래가 붙어있는 옷을 다 dress 라고 불러요. 여러분들, Cinderella 가 입는 dress는 무슨 dress예요? (S: wedding dress?) Fancy dress! 여러분 아트박스 같은데 가면 fancy 라고 써있죠? 장식 달려있고 이런 케익은 fancy cake 이라고 하고, 아무 장식 없는 것은 plain cake 이라고 하죠.

그 다음에 갑니다. 자 저쪽 그룹이 불러줍니다. 머리끝부터 발끝까지.

(S: hat) 소리가 너무 작다. Did you hear that? (S: hat) hat! 계속.

(S: sweater) sweater! And then, (S: gloves) gloves! And then? (S: jeans) jeans! And then (S: boots) boots! 그리고 남자쪽 봅시다. 머리 쪽에 (S: cap) cap! cap하고 hat하고 뭐가 다르죠? 그렇죠. 테두리가 있거나 없거나, 그 다음에 (S: t-shirt) t-shirt! And then (S: shorts) shorts! And then (S: socks) Socks, and then (S: sneakers) Sneakers and then? (S: pajamas) Pajamas! And then (S: swimsuit) Swimsuit! 이거 다른 말로는 Bathingsuit 이라고도 하죠.

거기 보면 공통적으로 s 가 들어가 있는 단어는 어떤 단어에 들어가 있죠? (S: ..) 한쪽만으로는 절대 못 신고 다니는 것들이 있죠, 양말이나 신발 한 짝 못 신고 다니죠. 근데 그렇게 신고 다니는 사람도 있긴 있어요, 보긴 봤어요, 좀 제정신이 아니라 문제지. 예전에 종로에 가면 아줌마 하나 있었어요. 별명이 미스 베네통.

그 밑으로 내려가서 B pairwork. Fill in the chart with word from part A. Add more word to each chart and then complete answer with your partner 여러분 그룹이 각각 사람수대로 합니다. 새로운 단어 첫 번째는 뭐라고 써어있습니까? Clothes for warm weather. 따뜻한 날씨에는 뭘 입을 수 있을까요? Aha, write down the words for clothes.

여기 없는 거 찾아 쓰는 거예요, 책에 있는 것 말고.

<T gives the students some time (8 minutes) to do the activity and meanwhile she moves around the classroom to help the groups of students.>

자 이쪽으로 모이세요, 자기 그룹에서 하나씩 발표하고 다른 그룹이 어떻게 했나 봐야죠. 첫 번째 그룹부터 공개합니다. I. weather. What do you want to wear? What do you want to wear?

hot pants? hot shoes? hot 들어가면 되겠네?

(S: sunglasses) 이게 제목이 clothes입니다. clothes가 옷이죠. sunglasses가 옷에 속한다고는 처음 봤죠.

(S: T-shirt) <correcting the pronunciation> T-shirt 소매가 없는.

(S: mini-shirt) mini-shirt, ok.

(S: sun-cap) sun-cap

(S:) tank-top 이렇게 얘기해.
 (S: parasol) parasol 은 옷이라 보기 어렵죠.
 (S: sandals) sandals
 (S:) 이쪽 그룹, 크게 말해봐. 안 들려. Please speak up. What?
 (S: short pants) Shorts 라고 말해야지. pants 대신에 short 아니고, shorts 반바지라고 해야지.
 그 다음. clothes for cold winter weather. If it's very cold, what do you want to wear? 거꾸로 해보자, That group is first! It's very cold outside...
 (S: hood shirt) hood shirt
 (S: muffler) muffler
 (S: underwear) 그죠, 추운데 내복 안 입을 수 없죠.
 What? (S: parka) parka.
 (S: skirt) skirt
 (S: stocking) stocking입니까 stockings니까? 분명 다르죠. stockings니다.
 (S: 가죽 잠바) leather jacket.

남은 것은 No. 2. colors, 예전에 처음에 내가 여러분 만했을 때, 어떤 한국 학생이 외국인한테 불평하더라고요. 빨강, 노랑, 파랑만 있는 게 아니라 발그스름한 색, 파르스름, 주홍, 주황, 뭐 야릇한 색깔도 많잖아요. 선홍색, 진홍색 이런 말 있죠. 근데 니네는 왜 빨강만 있니 그러더라고요. 근데 진짜 그래요? 여러분이 몰라서 그러는거죠? 지금 여러분이 입고있는 옷색깔이 약간씩 다르지만 아주 미묘하게 다르죠. 안 그래요? 똑같아요? 그런 것처럼 색깔을 많이 알면 알수록 어휘가 풍부해집니다. 여러분 파랑색 뭐라 그래요? blue. 조금 진한 파랑색, dark blue. 조금 연한 것은? light blue. 그렇게 하면 되요.

자 이 친구가 dark yellow 래요. 우리 나라말로 뭐라 그래요. 겨자색? mustard라고 하지. 황갈색, light brown. 거기 색깔이 여러 가지 나오는데, 우리는 같이 한번 읽어볼 거예요. 자기가 색깔이 눈에 익으면 벌떡 일어납니다. 먼저 한번 쪽 단어 읽어보고, 그 색깔이 자기에게 있으면 벌떡 일어납니다. 왼쪽부터 오른쪽으로 읽겠습니다.

첫 번째, What color is that?
 (S: white) white, what color is next?
 (S: light gray) light gray, and then what color is next?
 (S: gray) gray, and then second one, please!
 (S: dark green) dark green, what color is next?
 (S: beige) beige Then, what comes next?
 (S: light brown) light brown, right, ok. Then, what color is that?
 (S: brown) then? (S: dark brown) Then, what comes? (S: black) 자 다음으로 넘어가세요. 죽 한바퀴 돕니다.
 (S: red) what color is next?
 (S: pink) then, what color is next?
 (S: orange) Orange. Then, what color is next?
 (S: yellow) then, what color is next?
 (S: light green) what color is next?
 (S: green) what color is next?
 (S: dark green) what color is next?
 (S: light blue) what color is next?
 (S: blue) Then?
 (S: dark blue) what color is?
 (S: purple) purple, good. Think about your colors you have. Whenever we call out your color, you have to stand up. 이쪽 색깔만 할겁니다. 이쪽은 안하고.
 From red, one, two, three, red! 벌떡 일어나야지. 저게 벌떡 이야. sit down. 물건도 괜찮아요.
 Next, go. One, two, three, red. All right. What comes next? Pink. One, two, three.
 누구 아무도 없어요? OK. Orange, please! One, two, three. Yellow, ready? One, two, three! And then, next! Light green!
 One, two, three. And then green, one, two, three! 아무도 없어요, green? OK, dark green, one, two, three. Then, light blue, one, two, three. Blue, please, one, two, three. Dark blue, one, two, three. Purple, one, two, three.
 이거 있다가 여러분들이 다른 사람을 describe 할 때, 쓸거니까 잘 알아놔야 되요. 넘어갑니다. Conversation no. 3. 누가 할까 이번에는, 저쪽 끝에. your group is Pat, and this group is Julie. Julie, start. Go.

<Two groups of students read the conversation together>

Julie: are our clothes dry?
 Pat: Yes, they are.
 Julie: where are my favourite socks?
 Pat: what color are they?
 J: They are white.
 P: are these your socks?
 J: they are blue and white.
 P: no, they are purple knee-high socks.
 J: Wait, they are my socks. They are ruined.
 P: yeah. The problem is this T-shirt. It's dark blue. Whose is it?
 J: Actually, it's my T-shirt. I'm sorry.
 P: It's ok. It's not important.

<After students finish reading, the teacher reads aloud followed by the whole students once again.>

이런 일 흔히 있겠죠? 세탁기가 우리 나라 거랑은 다르게 생겼죠. 유럽 지역 세탁기는 절수형, 잘 비벼지는 이런 세탁기를 써요. Mr. Bean 에 보면 왜 나오잖아요. 예전에 내 친구가 3가지 색깔 옷하고, 신발을 같이 넣고 돌렸는데 brand 명이 날라갔대요. 마찰력이 심해서.
 자, 한번 더 읽습니다. 저쪽 맨 끝에 Pat 그리고 이쪽 그룹이 Julie 시작.

<Two groups of students read the dialogue once again. And after they finish reading, the teacher explains the contents in Korean.>

다음 시간 숙제는 색깔을 표현하는 단어를 잘 알아오는 겁니다 그래서 옆사람을 묘사할 수 있도록, 알겠죠. 그럼 오늘은 여기까지.

Thank you. See you later.

Case 1: Classroom Observation 2

Subject: English Conversation I

Time and Date: 3.00-3.50 pm on March 15th in 2001

Lesson No.: lesson 4 of the semester

Lesson Level: elementary or pre-intermediate

Students: 45 1st year students on Tourism Management Course

Materials: *New Interchange Intro.*

OK. Last time we finished at no.7 and no.8. Page no. 12. Page no. 12. As I told you last time, we are going to learn about prepositions, so page no.12, no.9. Prepositions. 여기 보면 항상 전치사 다음에는 'the'를 붙여야 되는 게 보입니까? 보여요? under the, on the, in the, next to the, behind the, in front of the, 다 보이죠? 왜 the를 붙여야 되죠? 그냥 'a'를 붙일 수도 있어요? 아니에요? 왜 안되죠? 니네 둘 이는 뭐야, 왜 그렇게 나란히 앉아있어 갑자기? 어, 책 안 갖고 와서, 착한 학생이죠.

왜 'a'를 붙이면 안되고 'the'를 붙여야 하나면, 세상에는 많은 게 있잖아, 근데, 내가 이 그림에 있는 것처럼, Peter, where are my car keys? where are my keys? 했는데, 개네 들은 어디에 있어요 할 때, 그 briefcase 앞에 있어요 하면, 세상에 수백 개, 수천 개의 briefcase 중에서 그거 앞에 있다라는 걸 말하기 때문에, 'the'를 붙여주는 거예요. in front of the 하지, 'in front of a' is incorrect. 알겠습니까? 왜 그런지 생각을 좀 하고 넘어 가야죠.

OK. 그러면, no. 9 볼까요. Where are the keys? Where are the keys? The part 1, the keys are in the briefcase.(S: the keys are in the briefcase) Next one, where are the keys?, where are the keys? (S: in front of the ...) in front of, not in--front--of. in front of (S: in front of) in front of the briefcase. (S: in front of the briefcase). OK, next one! Where are the keys? (S: the keys are behind the briefcase). Yes, that's right. Behind the briefcase.

The next one, where are the keys? (S: the keys are on the briefcase) Right. The keys are on the briefcase. Good.

Next. Where are the keys? (S: the keys are next to the briefcase). The keys are next to the briefcase.

Next, Where are the keys? (S: the keys are under the briefcase). The keys are under the briefcase.

Now, look at this. What's this? (S: boardmarker) It's a boardmarker. Good. Where are the boardmarker? Where are the marker? (S: ----) 틀려도 괜찮으니깐 입을 크게 크게 벌여서 하라고 그랬죠. 다시 해요. Where is the boardmarker? (S: on the cassette player) It's on the cassette player. Good. Where is the boardmarker? (S: the boardmarker is ...) 여러 가지 표현이 있을 수 있겠죠. In front of the book on the table. 혹은 옆에 있다고 치고, next to the book해도 되고.

OK. Right.

Where is the boardmarker? (S: the boardmarker is ...) in the pocket. Behind the예요? No. In the pocket. Good.

OK. 여러분 중에서 pen 이나 뭐 지우개나 아무거나 좋으니깐 하나씩 손에 들어보세요. put, put 하면 어디다 둔다는 뜻이죠. Put it on the cassette player. 자 들었죠. Now, please put your thing in your hand. In your hand. Please put your thing in your hand. OK. Now, put your thing on your head. OK. now, please put your thing under the book. Under the book. Not on the, under the book. Under your book. Instead of 'under the book', I said 'under your book'. Under your book, OK.

Now, please put your thing behind you. Put your thing behind you. Yes, that's right. Behind. Behind. 뒤로 가야돼죠.

Now, please put your thing in front of you. 아무데나 자기 앞에 있으면 되죠. In front of.

One more. One more. Please put your thing in your back. In your back! OK. 아무도 틀린 것 없으니깐 쓰지 말고 그냥 갑니다.

B번 보죠. B. 쓰지 말아요, B번 봐요. Complete these sentences and check your answers. Then write down anything, OK.

Answer to me, no. 1. There are two examples. No.1, the books are...Where are the books? The books are...(S: in the bookbag) The books are in the bookbag. Good.

No. 2, the CD player is...(S: next to the television)...next to the television. Or you can say, where's the TV? The TV is next to the CD player. Good.

No. 3, where is the map? The map is (S: under the...) under the newspaper. Good.

No. 4, where is the chair? (S: the chair is behind--) The chair is behind the desk. Good.

Where is the book? (S: The book is on the bag) On the bag. On the handbag. Or on the purse, whatever you want.

No. 6, where is the phone? (S: the phone is ...) The phone is in front of the address book, or where is the address book? (S: the address book is..) The address book is behind the cellphone. Good. OK. Right.

Now, you can write the answer. Pick up your pencil and write the answer.

내가 칠판에 저걸 쓴 이유는 여러분이 방금 전에 한말을 영어로 옮겼습니다, 그냥.

지우개 좀 줘! Could you pass me the eraser? OK, here you are. Or Sure, here it is. And then you can say, thank you. And the other one says, you're welcome. 거기까지.

사소한 일이라도 영어로 이 수업시간 안에서만은 해볼 수 있잖아요, 그죠? 지우개 좀 줘, 그러지말고. 난 귀가 좋아서 별걸 다 듣습니다.

자 Crete로 날아가 볼까. Listening! OK. Kate is looking for something in the house. Where are they? Now, why don't you listen to the tape and check your answers? So, first, we have to think about what they are, what they are. The first one, what? What are they? The first one, her earrings. The second one is her watch. Not watch, wa-atch.(pronunciation) And then, what's the third one? (S: sunglasses) Sunglasses. Good. And the last one is address book. Now, you have to listen to four things and check out where they are. OK, the location please. Ready?

<Tape listening>

Listening. Kate is looking for some things in her house. Where are they? Listen and match each thing to its location.

Kate: Where are my earrings?

Joe: Aren't they on the table?

K: No. Uh, here they are. In my purse. No, where's my watch? It's no in my purse. Where?
J: There it is. In front of the television.
K: Oh, of course. Thanks, Joe. Let's see, my sunglasses. Where are they? Next to my watch? No.
J: Aren't they behind your purse?
K: No, they aren't. Oh, they are on the chair. Now, I just need one more thing. My address book. It's probably on the table.
J: No, it's not. It's under the table.

T: OK. Good enough. Now, tell me your answers.

No. 1, where are her earrings? Where are her earrings? (S: they are--) They are in her purse. Good.

No. 2, where is her watch? Where is her watch? (S: it's in front of...) It's in front of the television. Good.

And where are her sunglasses? (S: they are on the chair) They are on the chair. Good.

Last one was her address book. (S: it's..) It's on the table. OK. Perfect.

Now, look at the picture, this picture. It's the same thing, so you can do it.

No. 11, where are my things? Now you have to find out where the things are. The first one, Joe is looking for these things. Ask and answer questions. Pager, briefcase, keys, wallet, glasses, umbrella, cellphone, notebook. How many things? How many things? Eight. Totally eight things, right? So, you have to find out where the eight things are. Like A and B. A says, where is his pager? and B has to say, it's in front of the television. OK.

Now, I'm going to be A. You are B. I'm going to be A and you're going to be B. All right. The first one! Answer to me. Where are his glasses? Where are his glasses? (S: they are..) They're in the briefcase. Good. They're in the briefcase, right. OK.

Where is his umbrella? Where is his umbrella? (S: it's behind...) It's behind the chair. Good. It's behind the chair, right.

Where is his cellphone? Where is his cellphone? (S: it's ...) OK. It's under the table, and next to the notebook. Good. It's under the table and next to the notebook. All right.

Where is the notebook, then? (S: its...) It's under the table next to the cellphone. Good. It's under the table and next to the cellphone. Right.

Where are the keys? Where are the keys? (S: they are...) Good. They are in front of the CD player. They're in front of the CD player. Good.

Where is his wallet? Where is his wallet? (S: it's ...) Right. It's under the chair. It's not 'a chair'. It's an 'armchair'. It's not just chair. That's not just a chair. That's an armchair. OK. Answer to me again. Where is his wallet? (S: it's under the armchair) It's under the armchair, good.

All right, now. Where's his briefcase? (S: it's ...) It's on the table. Good.

Where's his pager? (S: it's ...) It's in front of the TV. OK.

Where's his watch? (S: it's...) It's...good. It's in front of the TV and next to the pager. All right.

Where are the magazines? Where are the magazines? Small book. Small booklet. Where are the magazines? (S: they are...) They are next to the stand, no. They are next to the lamp. They are next to the lamp. Good. They are next to the lamp. Right.

Where are the cushions, then? Where are the cushions? (S: they are...) They are on the soofa or sofa? (pronunciation) Not soofa, sofa. Or you can say, couch, right. They are on the couch, or they're on the sofa. Got it?

One more, one more. Where are the sunglasses? Where are the sunglasses? (S: they are...) They are on the armchair. Perfect.

Good. Good enough. Right. OK.

Close you book and ready!

Now, I'm going to hand out this small paper and there are one, two, three, four, five, six, in each handout there are six missing things. So you have to find out where they are. But in your picture, there aren't. They aren't in your picture, but your friend got a different picture, and there are your things, and also vice versa. Your friend got, your friend got this picture, but she lost these three items, but these things are in your picture, ok? Got it? Did you understand me? Yes. So, you have to use only, you have to speak only English. Don't say Korean at all, OK? No Korean. No Korean. I'm gonna give you these handouts.

<The teacher gives some time to work to the students>

OK, excuse me. Excuse me. Did you find out? Did you find out where they are? Right! Draw pictures here, ok! Now, draw!

Stop! Now, I'm going to ask you two pictures, two items for each picture, OK? Please answer to me if you got the right picture, OK? Could you be quiet?

Look! This is very messy house, right? 'messy' means 'untidy', right? You can say that at the top of the paper. You live in a very untidy house, 'untidy house' means 'they are very dirty and very unclean, un-neat'. So you can say, untidy or messy, messy room.

This is very messy. And this is a living room, as you know, ok? Now, I'm gonna ask you. All right, first, where is the pen?

Where's the pen? (S: the pen is...) The pen is on the TV. Good. OK. Where is the teapot? Where is the teapot? (S: the teapot is...) The teapot is in front of the fireplace. the fireplace. The teapot is in front of the fireplace, not just fire, ok?

And where are the socks? Where are the socks? (S: the socks are...) The socks are on the chair. Right. Good. OK.

Where are the gloves? Where are the gloves? (S: the gloves are...) The gloves are on the armchair. On the armchair.

Right, one more. Where is the comb? where is the comb? Not com-b. Where is the comb? (S: the comb is...) The comb is on the armchair.

Then, where he yarn? Where is the , the knitting, the knitting. Where is the yarn? (S: the yarn is..) The yarn is on the sofa. Good.

The yarn is on the sofa. Got it.

And then what? I think they're enough. OK, last time. Where are the slippers? Where are the slippers? (S: the slippers are...) The slippers are on the, or in front of the? (S: in front of the) In front of the sofa. Good enough.

OK. That's enough.

Now, I'm going to give you homework. Your homework is...Your first homework is what? Workbook. Workbook Unit 2. Unit 2.

One more. One more homework is page number is IC-2. IC-2, this picture. IC-2. Page number is IC-2. Ah-ha, yes.

OK. what you need to do is find the differences, right. IC-2, Find the differences. As you can see, two pictures are different, right?

So you have to find out what the differences are. I'm gonna read it. In picture 1, the sunglasses on the television, right? Look at the picture. Right? Yes. But in picture 2, in picture 2, they are behind the television. Is that right? (S: yeah.) So, you have to find out

the differences between the two pictures, picture 1 and picture 2 are different. So like these you have to write sentences. Write sentences about 1 item, 2 items, 3 items like this. Totally 5 items. Find out 5 items. So, one, in picture 1, something is bula-bula-

bula..., but in picture 2, that is bula-bula-bula... That's one sentence. The two sentences are one, OK? Right? This is only one, so at least you have to make five more. This is an example, so you don't need to write. Find out five more differences, ok?
 Any questions? No questions?
 OK. Close your book. Right!
 Good job! I'll see you next week.

Case 2:

Classroom Observation 1

Subject: English Conversation IV

Time and Date: 11:00 - 11: 50 am on September 29th in 2000

Lesson No.: lesson 9 of the semester

Lesson Level: pre-intermediate

Students: 46 2nd year students on Tourism Course

Materials: New Interchange

T: 오늘의 내용은 뭐냐하면 travel agency 에 관한 내용입니다. Does anybody know the difference between travel agencies and travel agents?

What does a travel agent mean? A travel agent mean a person who is working at the travel agency. 사람을 말할 때는 travel agent 그리고 여행사 전체를 말할 때는 travel agency 라고 하죠. 우리 지난 시간에 그 내용을 잠깐 했었는데, 그 둘의 차이는 알아야 합니다.

situation 여러분들이 함께 읽어보면서 갑니다.

<T leads and the students read aloud in unison after the teacher. T leads the students once again>

I changed my mind. Let's take the group on the nature tour. But I thought you wanted to go on the palace tour

<T explains the content of the situational dialogue they just read in Korean>

'Let's take'. Instead of 'take', let's put 'go' Let's go 한 다음에 Please make your own sentences to put 'go' or other verbs such as 'take' 아니 'take' 하면 안되겠구나. play, study, read 이런 것들 하면 되겠구나. 'Let's take', instead of take, you can put any verbs. 일반동사 집어 놓으면 되죠. 동사 어떤 verb 들이 있죠? 여러분이 아는 거. 우리 처음에 얘기해 봤었던 거 'go', 'study', 'play', 'eat', 'sleep' 다 동사죠. 자 한사람씩 해보자. 동사 넣어서 'Let's'로 문장 만들기.

(S 1 : Let's play piano) Let's play the piano.

(S2: Let's get together) Um-hum, let's get together

(S3: Let's go picnic) Let's go on picnic.

(S4: Let's go out) Let's go out. OK.

(S5: Let's play)

T: Ok, from now on, 지금부터 여러분은 Don't use the same verb' which your friend already mentioned. 여기 나온 거 'play' 있었고 'go' 있었고 다 있었죠. 지금부터 갑니다.

(S5: Let's make cookie)

(S6: Let's watching TV) Let's watching TV? Is that correct? let's 다음에는 동사원형이 나와야 되죠. Let's watch TV, ok?

(S7: Let's run with me) She said 'let's run with me'. let's는 let us 죠. 그런데 let's run with me? I don't know if it makes sense. Anyway, 문장 자체는 괜찮습니다.

(S8: Let's learn English) learn하고 run하고 어떻게 되죠? Let's learn English.

(S9: Let's ...) 아니 뭐 피자 먹자 어떻게 하죠? 그렇게 간단한 거를.

(S9: Let's go...) One of your friends already mentioned about verb 'go'. Try other verb.

(S10: Let's buy some pencil) Let's buy some pencils. OK.

(S11: Let's read the book)

(S12: Let's 청소하자...) 청소하자 어떻게 하죠? 애들아 방 좀 청소하자 어떻게 하죠? Let's clean the room. Let's clean our room.

다 여러분들이 할 수 있는 겁니다. 자 순서를 바꿉니다. 저기 맨 뒤에 있는 친구!

(S13: ...) Tomorrow we will have a picnic. For example, listen very carefully. Tomorrow we will go on a picnic.우리 소풍갈 겁니다. Peter will ask me to bring some lunch bag. 그럴 때, 우리 뭐라고 그러죠? 애들아 가져오자. 어떻게 하죠. Let's bring our lunch bags. 그냥 이렇게 편하게 할 수 있죠. 왜 이렇게 하나면 let's 다음에 반드시 동사원형을 써서 합니다.

I changed my mind. Let's take the group on the nature tour. 다시 봅시다. 그러면 여러분들은 그 대답으로 뭐라고 하면 되죠? 아 나는 다른 걸 생각했었는데. 자 나는 생각했었습니다. 'I thought' 그죠. 니가 원했다고 'you wanted' 'to go on...' 'I thought you wanted to go on the house tour' 자 지금 그렇게 말했죠. 내 생각에는 궁궐 관광을 가는 게 훨씬 좋을 거라고 생각했는데. 갈 거라고 생각했는데. 그래 그러나 The nature tour sounds more interesting. 음 괜찮네. 보통 sounds interesting 이란 말 많이 하죠. 여기도 마찬가지로 sounds interesting 했는데 more라는 comparative, 비교급을 집어넣을 수 있죠.

Does anybody know how to make a comparative sentence? 자 비교급 문장 어떻게 만듭니까? 자 one word, 보통 comparative 경우는 adjective 를 많이 comparative 로 만들죠. What is an adjective? adjective 가 뭐죠? 형용사. 형용사가 뭐죠? 형용사나 adjective는 일종의 modify 하죠. 뭘 modify하죠? noun 이나 pronoun을 수식하죠. 그래서 형용사는 보통 여러분들이 아는 게 'good' 정도, 또 어떤 것들이 있어요? 'beautiful' 같은 거, 'boring' 같은 것들이 있죠.

20페이지 보세요. comparative sentence 만들 때예요. Short adjectives have --er when you try to make a comparative sentence. 'cheap' 'big' 이런 거 다 어떻게 만들죠? --er을 붙이면 되죠. 그렇지만 'big'같은 경우는 'g'를 하나 더 붙이는 게 나오는데 그건 좀 있다가 합시다.

'cheap' 'cheaper' 하는 것처럼 나오는 게, 'two or more syllables' 이런 거 긴 경우 more 를 쓰죠. we can put 'more' in front of adjectives. 예를 들면, '공동구역 JSA가 쉬리보다 훨씬 재미있었다' 어떻게 하면 될까요? 자 이럴 때, 'JSA is more

interesting than 쉬리'. 이렇게 해서 어떤 거의 비교급을 만들든 간에 항상 형용사, 형용사로 비교급을 만든다는 것 잊지 맙시다.

자 여기서 'The nature sounds more interesting'이죠. 'That's true. 그랬죠. But it's also more difficult' 자 여러분 배운 것 'interesting' 'difficult' 'exciting' 'challenging' 다 되는 것들이죠. 자 봅시다. 다같이 집어넣어서 해봅시다. 'But the nature tour sounds more interesting'. But the nature tour sounds more exciting' But the nature tour sounds more challenging'. From now on, I'm going to ask you 내가 여러분에게 묻겠습니다. 뭐라고 묻냐면, 영어 재미없죠? 'English is not interesting' 'I'm not interested in English' But 나는 영어는 관심이 없고 재미가 없습니다, 그렇지만 여러분들은 더 재미있을 겁니다. 자 뭐가 다른 거보다 more interesting 을 집어넣을 수 있겠죠. 여기처럼. 자 문장을 한번 만들어보도록 합시다. 자 아까 안한 사람부터. Go!

T: I'm not interested in English, but I'm more interested... 자 comparative 문장은 보통, comparative는 두개 있을 때 비교하는 거예요. 세 개 있을 때는 비교급을 쓰지 않습니다. 예를 들어 pencil case 가 두개가 있어요. pencil case 가 두개가 있는데 Which one is prettier? 자 어떤 것이 더 예쁘니까? 얘기해 보세요. left one or right one? (S: right one) Right one. 자 그럼 얘기해 봅시다. Look at the pencil case. 이 파란 필통이 검은 필통보다는 예쁩니다. 어떻게 하죠? (Students try to make the sentence...) T: This blue pencil case is prettier than that black pencil case. 자 이렇게 할 수 있죠.

비교급으로. 자 여기 이 친구가 earring을 했는데, 훨씬 더 예쁘다고 하자, 내거랑 비교해서. 두개 중에 비교하자, 하나는 silver 이고 gold 라고 해봐요. silver 가 gold 보다 싸요 비싸요? (Students: 싸요.) T: Silver earrings are cheaper than gold earrings. 어떤 사람들은 more 를 집어넣었는데, 아니죠. cheaper 라고 해야죠. 단음절의 경우는 그대로 --er 만 집어넣죠. 여러분들이 아는 3음절, 2음절 이상 'interesting', 'beautiful', 'wonderful' 다 앞에다가 more 를 붙여줘야죠. 자 다시 한번 Silver earrings are cheaper than gold earrings. 이번에는 반대로 금귀걸이가 은귀걸이보다 비싸다. (Students: Gold earrings are more expensive than silver earrings.) T: 자 expensive 3음절입니다. more expensive 죠. Gold earrings are more expensive than silver earrings. 자 (학생 하나를 지적하며) 일어나서 다시 한번 해보자. (S: Gold earrings are more expensive than silver earrings)

earrings 는 복수로 해야되죠. 자 이걸 sharp pencil 이라고 하고 이걸 pen 이라고 합시다. 이게 저거보다는 더 중요한 겁니다. 어떻게 하죠? (학생들...)

자 중요하다 하면 'important' 죠. 자 어떻게 할까요? 'more important than'하면 되겠죠. 지금부터 여러분들이 쓰지 마세요. 머리 속에서 Think about three sentences. 세 문장을 생각해 놓으세요. 뭘 생각하냐면 Try to make up comparative sentences. comparative sentences를 생각하세요, 머리 속으로. 쓰지 마세요, 쓰면 보고 읽어야되죠. Don't even try to write down your ideas.

자 한번 봅시다. 아 몸무게가 뭐죠? 'weight' 죠. 그 다음에 무거운 'heavy'. 그러면 'heavier' 할 수도 있죠. 저 친구보다 내가 더 몸무게가 가벼워. 그건 싫어요? 그런 것들. 아니면 어제보다 오늘 날씨가 훨씬 덥다 라든가 이런 것들을 여러분들이 쓸 수가 있죠. 자 생각해서 딱 2분 줄게요. Two minutes later I'll ask you 여러분에게 시간을 주겠습니다. 생각하세요.

T: Are you done? 끝났습니까? Not yet?

Don't even try to remember that. 그거 기억하려고 하지 마시고 그냥 편안하게 어떤 문장을 내가 만들까만 생각하면 좋겠죠.

T: Hmm. Are you ready? 준비되었습니까? 마음의 준비. (학생 하나를 지적하며) 민경!

(S1: My hair is longer...) My hair is longer than hers. Longer than hers 라는 말을 쓰면 좋겠죠. 자 그 다음. What else?

(S2: The train is longer than the banana) 자 기차는 바나나보다 길다. OK.

(S3: Chinese is more difficult than Japanese) OK, Chinese is more difficult than Japanese. What else? 자 여러분들이 잘 알죠. 예를 들어, 은희는 나보다 커요. 나는 은희보다 작습니다, 어떻게 하죠? Eun-Hee is taller than me or I am shorter than Eun-Hee. 이렇게 여러분이 아는 비교급의 방법을 다양하게 활용할 수 있는 거죠.

자 같이 봅시다. But it's also more difficult. 자 여기 difficult 앞에서 more 가 나온 거죠. 자 It is also more expensive. It is also more tiring. 다 괜찮죠. 자 다같이 한번 해봅시다. But the nature tour sounds more interesting. (Students follow and read) But the nature sounds more exciting (Students follow the suit) The nature tour sounds more challenging (S follow). Um, that's true, but it's also more difficult (S) But it's also more expensive (S) But it's also more tiring. (S) 그러면 I know. (S) The palace tour is easier (S) The palace tour is easier (S), but let's just do something different for a change. Let's do 하자라는 얘기죠. something different 무언가 다른걸 좀 하자. 변화 있게. 아 왜 이렇게 재미가 없지, I am so bored. 난 너무 재미없어 지루하다, 이럴 때, 옆에 있는 친구가 얘기할 수 있죠, Let's do something different. For a change 변화를 주자, 변화 있게 뭔가 좀 하자. 다같이, Let's do something different for a change (S).

자 처음부터 해보면 I know the palace tour is cheaper (S). I know the palace tour is easier (S). I know the palace tour is less tiring (S). But let's do something different for a change (S). OK. (S). But how about the island cruise instead? (S)

Cruise (S) Cruise (S) Does anybody know about cruise? 자 여러분들이 ferry 하고 cruise 들어봤죠. ferry 같은 경우는 작은 배죠, 강을 왔다갔다하는 거고, 생각할 때 규모나 사이즈가 다르죠 cruise하고는. For example, Titanic is a sort of cruise. 일종의 cruise의 하나죠. Inside Titanic, 엄청나죠, 모든 것들이 다 그 안에 있죠, 수영장도 있고. Everything is in it.

자 다같이! Island Cruise? (S) That sounds good. (S) I think so. (S) And it's more romantic than the nature tour. (S). 자 여러분들이 좋아하는 단어 나왔네요. romantic. romantic 이 뭐죠? 달콤한 이라는 뜻으로 많이 얘기하죠. 자 이것도 형용사기 때문에 more romantic than 으로 나왔죠. 비교급으로 할 때는 앞에 --er이나 more 를 집어넣고 뒤에 than 이 나오는 것 알고 있었죠. 정리가 됐을 겁니다. 다같이 같이 한번 해봅시다.

I know the palace is easier. (S) But let's just do something different for a change. (S). OK, but how about the island cruise instead?

(S) Island Cruise? (S). That sounds good. (S) I think so. (S) And it's more romantic than the nature tour. (S).

자 이제 여러분이 여러분 친구들과 함께, practice 를 하는데, 그냥 외우려고 하지 마세요. Understand that situation. 이 상황을 이해하려고 해보세요. 상황을 이해하고 상대방이 말하는 걸 들으면서 대답을 한번 해보세요. 자 두 명씩 연습해보세요. (3분)

자 그러면 배로 하는 여행이 자연관광보다 훨씬 낭만적입니다. 시작! (S: the cruise tour is more romantic than the nature tour) 자 그러면, 자연 관광이 궁전 여행보다 훨씬 쌉니다. (S: the nature tour is cheaper than the palace tour.) The nature tour is cheaper than the palace tour. OK, reverse. 어떻게 되죠? (S: the palace tour is more expensive than the nature tour)

자 그러면 궁전 관광이 자연관광보다 훨씬 재미없습니다. (S: the palace is ...) 우리는 재미있다, 더 좋지만 했었죠, less than 이라는 것 들어봤습니까? 그게 다음시간까지 연결되는 겁니다. 여러분 보세요. 여러분이 알고 있는 good 에 대한 것, 자 good의 비교급은 뭘니까? better. 그리고 최상급은 best. 자 그리고 bad는 뭐가 되죠? worse, worst. 자 그러면 자연 관광이 궁전 관광보다 덜 재미있습니다 어떻게 하죠? (S: the nature tour...) 자 여러분들이 지금 잘되는 것만 잘 되고 안되는 게 많죠?

동등비교라고 들어봤어요 동등비교. 그는 나만큼이나 키가 크다 어떻게 하죠? (S: He is...) T: I'll give you some homework. Please look at your grammar book or your reference about comparative sentences. 자 비교급에 관한 것 여러분들이 찾아보세요 And study 공부하세요. Then next class I'll ask you how to make a comparative sentence. And also I'll ask you the other questions such as I already mentioned 내가 이미 얘기한 것들 물어볼거예요. Without study, 그러니까 여러분들 공부 안하고 오면 절대로 할 수 없어요. 그냥 배우면 그걸로 끝나고 그 다음으로 넘어가고 그러면 안됩니다. Please try to study. And then hand out what you have learned from your grammar book. 자 여러분들이 무엇을 배웠는지 숙제를 내세요, 그리고 나서 내가 여러분에게 질문하겠습니다. 똑같은 것들. 오늘같이. 더 좋은 것, 더 나쁜 것. 좋았던 거는 아는데, 더 나빴던 것을 모르는 것은 말이 안되죠. 한번 시켜보겠습니다. 자 숙제는 문법책을 보고, 아니면 다른 여러분들이 이해하기 좋은 책을 보고 비교급에 대해 한번 읽어보고, 우리가 지금 배운 것 말고, 내가 아까 물어봤었던 동등비교 라든가, 그 밖의 훨씬 나쁘다 등에 대해 조금만 문장 바꾸면 여러분들이 말뚱하거든요. 그러니까 공부하세요, 공부해서 머리 속에 정리해서 쓰세요. you don't need to write down the whole story, 모든 걸 다 적을 필요는 없죠, but 여러분들이 key points 를 write down 해야죠. And then just hand out to me. 여러분이 나에게 내고 나면 내고 난 다음에 I'll ask you, OK?

<T takes the register>

Case 2: Classroom Observation 2

Subject: English Conversation III
Time and Date: 11.00-11.50 on March 16 in 2001
Lesson No.: lesson 4 of the semester
Lesson Level: pre-intermediate
Students: 45 2nd year students on Tourism Course
Materials: New Interchange

Last time we studied page 10, 'Be the judge'. Last time we discussed about how we rate the transportation service in our city. Everybody just rank our, which...at...like uh.. train system at --then you guys already answered the reason, so maybe we can just review some of them, so why don't you all look at page 10, Cross activity. It's playing your rating to your flat. For example, we gave taxi service rating of 4, then you guys have to explain why. So, we think the city needs more taxi and cheaper fares, and also taxi drivers should be more polite. Maybe we can say that. But last time we didn't look at these ones, maybe this time we can try these ones again.

But I think, before we start this, listen again IC3. Page IC3! On the back side of the book, you can see IC3. "Letters to the Editor" OK.

OK. Hee-jeong, could you read this one first? IC3, Letters to the Editor, "Making the city better". This one, the backside of the book, IC3. Interchange II.

OK, can you read it first? Dear Editor...

<while the student reads the part, the teacher keeps saying, uh-uh, uh-umm.>

OK. Look at the group work. Jett Fine wanted to solve the transportation problems in Oakville. Maybe you can find out several problems. Could you find out what kind of problems you can see from this letter? Just underline what was the problem. Please underline at this moment. I'll give three minutes to find the problems and after that we will discuss it.

자, 답이 한 서너 가지 있다고 한다면 그걸 다 체크하세요. 먼저 밑줄 긋고, 내가 물으면, what was the problem? 하면 여러분이 대답을 해주시기 바랍니다.

Did you find out everything that we need? 다 찾았습니까?

OK. Then, Soo-mee. 하나 얘기해볼까요? (S: 아무 거나요?) 예. (S: subway is crowded and dangerous) Subway is just crowded and dangerous.

OK, 김기호! (S: taxies are expensive) Taxies are expensive. OK. Anything you can find more? 한지현! (S: taxi drivers are rude.) Taxi drivers are rude. OK. 김미진! (S: --) Mee-jean, can you speak up? (S: buses are so old and slow.) OK, buses are so old and slow.

What else? 이미선! Can you find more? (S: noisy and very dirty) OK, noisy and very dirty.

Is that all you think? 전부라고 생각합니까? Or, more we can find. OK, 권순영! 순영, what do you think? (S:) OK, 금희 what do you think? (S: most of them have only one person in them.) What does that mean? 'Most of them have only one person in

them.' 무슨 말이죠? 대부분의 차안에 사람이 한사람만 타고 있다는 소리죠. 그걸 이렇게 썼어요. 'Most of them have only one person in them.' 여기서의 'them' 이라는 게 바로 차들을 말하는 거죠. 대부분의 차들은 한사람만 각자 차안에 가지고 있다는 소리니까, 한사람이 각자 자기 차만 가지고 나왔으니까, 도로가 막힌다는 소리죠.

OK, any more we can find? (S:--) what is that? What did you say? (S: ---) 그러면, 앞에 'take a long time'. 'take a long time to...' 가는데, 목적지를 우리가 영어로 뭐라고 그러죠? (S: destination) ...take a long time to destination 목적지까지 가는데 오래 걸린다, 이렇게 해서 괜찮습니다, 잘했습니다. 자 이것들이 다 뭐냐면 problem 예요, editor letter에 나온 problem 이예요. We have to solve this problem. In this we have to fill out. What kind of solutions we have in this situation? 이런 상황에서 우리가 어떤 종류의 해결책을 토론할 수 있을지.

crowded and dangerous subways. Any solutions? Any idea? Subways. Subways are crowded and dangerous. Any idea? 너무 사람이 많으니까 노선을 늘이는 것도 괜찮은 방법이죠, 자 노선을 늘인다, 어떻게 하면 좋을까요? (S: ---) 자 extend 라는 말 배웠죠, 그럼 노선을 늘인다, 어떻게 하면 좋을까요? (S: ---) OK, we can extend more subway routes. 더 많은 노선을 확장할 수 있으면 되는 거죠. dangerous에 대해서는 어떻게 할까요? 안전주의. 맞아요? 아니면 dangerous 하면 누구를 갖다놓으면 될까요, 안전요원, 뭐죠? 안전? Security guard라는 말 쓰죠. security guard. security guard가 있으면 괜찮아요. 또, 어떤 게 있을까요. We have to let us know that, that is dangerous. educate 되어 되겠죠. 교육시키는 것. 자 어떻게 할까요? 교육을 시키는 것. educate, 누구를요? (S: passengers) 뭐하러요? (S: 안전하게 탈수 있게) 안전하게 탈수 있게 passengers를 educate하는 게 important 하다.

subways are crowded and dangerous 한 것에 대해서 we can extend route 해서 할 수 있거나, 아니면 educate passengers 그죠, also we can put each 어디에다, each subway station에다가 security guard를 갖다놓으면 좋겠죠? We can put security guard on each station.

taxi, taxies are expensive. Do you have any idea how we can solve this problem? 비싸요, 안타면 되죠 뭐, 그렇지만 그거 말고. 택시가 너무 비싸요, 어떻게 하면 좋을까요? we will have no idea? (S: --) 여기서 나왔죠 그죠? 가격을 낮춰야 된다, fare가 좀 cheaper해야 된다는 말 아마 나왔죠. 가격을 낮추는 것, 봅시다, 그거 말고는 다른 방법이 없나요, 가격을 어떻게 낮추는지는 애매하죠. 택시가 expensive한 것을 해결할 수 있는 방법, 가격을 낮추는 방법, 어떻게 하죠? (S: ---) Cut down a little bit fare 그래서, fare should be cut down. should be 수동이 되야죠. fare should be cut down a little bit. 조금이라도 좀 내려야 되죠.

taxi drivers are rude. Do you have any solutions to this problem? (S: 해고해요) 해고해야 한다는 have to fire 해고해야 된다. drivers should be fired, 해야되죠. fired가 되면 해고당하는 거예요, 그렇지만 우리가 해고하는 거면, we have to fire him 하면 되겠죠. We have to fire them. 너무 잔인하다, 난 그렇게 하고 싶지 않아요, rude 하면 다시 교육을 시켜서 친절교육을 시켜서 다시 하면 되지 않을까?

자 다시 한번 봅시다. 여기서도 educate 하면 되죠, train 하면 되죠. We have to train them, the drivers. 어떻게? to be nice. We have to train them the driver to be nice.

OK. Bus, old and slow. 이거 어떻게 하면 좋을까요? 정인숙! 자 bus가 old and slow해요 어떻게 하죠? (S: --) 오래됐으니까, new one을 가지면 되죠. Get new one. Have new one. 그죠? 새로운 것 가지면 되겠죠. 아니면 slow한 거는 고치면 될 거예요. 고쳐봅시다, 어떻게 고치죠? repair란 말 알아요? repair (S: 예). We can repair old and slow buses. old 하고 slow하다는 것은 뭔가 terrible한 게 있을 수도 있다는 말이죠, 그러면 검사하는 걸 뭐라고 그러죠. inspection 다같이, (S:) inspection, (S:) inspection (S:)

car inspection, 들어보셨어요, 여러분? car, 차를 일년에 한번 검사하고 뭐 이렇게 딱지 같은 것 붙여주는 것, car inspection 이라고 해요. 일년에 한번씩인가 차 검사하죠, 어디 가서 따로 해요, 일년인가 이년인가에 한번씩. 미국에서는 일년에 한번씩이고, 캐나다에서는 검사를 했으면 스티커 붙여줘요, 그게 없으면 문제가 되죠. 왜냐하면 그 차가 안전한지 아닌지 문제가 없는지, 혹시 우리가 알고 있는 배기량 같은 것 있죠, 그런걸 다 체크합니다. car inspection. We have to, we have to, we have to do car inspection. car 안전을 확인하는 거죠.

noisy and dirty. noise도 마찬가지로, inspection을 받거나 repair를 하면 될 거예요. dirty 는 어떻게 하죠? We have to clean up. We have to clean up. OK.

Next one. Two many cars on the road. two many cars on the road. 어떻게 하죠? 흥선희, two many cars on the road. 차가 너무 많아요, 어떻게 하죠? (S:) 우리가 그러면 대중교통을 이용하면 되죠. 어떻게 하면 좋을까요? (S:---) public transportation. 그렇죠. (S: use public transportation) Use public transportation. 아주 잘했어요. 대중교통수단 이용하면 더 좋겠죠. 또 어떤 게 있을까요? 그담에, 어떤 사람들은 차를 전부 갖고 다니니까 세금을 올립니다, 그러더라구요. car tax 를 올린다, 올리는 걸 뭐라고 그래요? (S: rise) Increase 하면 증가하는 거예요, rise는 뭐예요, rise는 스스로 일어나는 거예요, 그 다음에 raise는? 타인을 위해서 올려주는 거예요. if we raise, 우리가 올려주는 거죠, if we raise, 세금 tax, if we raise car tax, maybe somebody will not buy car any more. 너무 비싸죠, 그죠? raise too much tax, 그러면 사람들이 세금을 안내고 싶어서 차를 안 살수도 있겠죠.

그 다음은 여기에 나와있을 거예요. take a long time, take a long time. 버스가 너무너무 시간이 많이 걸려요, 어떻게 하면 좋을까요? 시간이 많이 걸린다 어떻게 하면 좋을까요? 흥선경, 선경이. 어떻게 하면 좋을까? Any idea? Any idea you can tell us?

(S: ---) it takes a long time. It takes a long time to get somewhere by bus. 좋습니다.

자 오늘은 여기까지. 내일 나머지 마저 갑니다. 출석좀 불러볼까
<Teacher takes the register>
이제 오늘의 퀴즈. 여기 한 장씩 갖고 다 끝낸 사람은 내고 가도 좋습니다.

Case 3:
Classroom Observation 1
Subject: English Conversation
Time and Date: 12:00-12:50 pm September 19th 2000
Lesson No.: lesson 12 of the two-month 40-session course

Lesson Level: Elementary

Students: 8 students from various backgrounds in gender, occupation, previous education, students' age range is mainly from 19 to 30

Materials used: Textbook and handouts

Textbook: Gateways I

<T takes the register.>

Let's review what we studied yesterday. Pamela, can you remember that, what we studied yesterday? (Pamela says things and the teacher repeats her) When are you free, and where shall we meet, and how about..., and... I'll skip the class. OK. Yesterday we practiced making an appointment, right? So we learned some expressions. (a late comer comes in) Come in, Martin.

OK. When are you available, when are you free, or when is convenient for you to meet? 그런 것들 했잖아요, 그죠? If you want to make a suggestion, you can start saying 'how about'. 그죠? How about 으로 시작할 수 있다고 배웠어요, right?

Anyway, today we will practice asking where things are. I mean we will practice telling locations. location 하면 뭐예요? 물건들이 어디에 있는지 그것에 대해 연습할 거예요, OK?

Where is my table? OK, where is my pen? Where is my pen? 어디 있어요? It's on the cassette player, right?

Where is the clock in the classroom? OK, on the wall. It's on the wall. And where's my pen? Where's my pen? 어디 있어요? OK, speak up! (S: it's on the book) OK, it's on the book. Where is my book? (S: It's...) It's on the desk...between the cassette player and the milk, ok. Then, where is whiteboard? Where's whiteboard? 어디 있어요? It's on the wall, and 나를 중심으로 볼 때 어디 있어요? 뒤에 있잖아요. 그때 어떻게 얘기해요. (S: behind...) OK, it's behind you. And where is my marker? It's under the desk. And where is my pen? OK, it's on the floor. 그러면서 어디 있어요, 책상 앞에 있잖아요 그럼 어떻게 되요? In front of the desk 해야 되요. OK? For example, where is Pamela? Where is Pamela? I don't know who is Pamela. Where is Pamela? Pamela 어딴어요, 누구 옆에? 누구 옆에 있어요 Martin 옆에 있어요. 그럼 어떻게 해요? She is next to Martin. 그 다음에 나랑 비교해서 어때요? 마주보고 있죠. 그럼 어떤 거예요. 칠판에 다 쓰여져 있어요. 마주보는 거 어떤 거예요. 그렇죠. 크게 얘길 해야지. OK, she is across from Hanna 그럼 되요. 'across from' 쓰면 되요, right?. Soon-nam, can you follow me? 머리가 아파? 하하하.

OK, think about, now we are in the department store, OK. I am looking for TVs, computers, cameras, whatever. I have to ask somebody because I don't know where things are. OK, in that case, what can I say? 크게! OK! Where are computers? Where are TVs? Where are, OK? 또 어떻게도 할 수 있어요. OK. Can you tell me, or, are these things in this floor?

OK, repeat after me. Where are the things? Can you tell me where the TVs are? (S) Are the TVs on this floor? (S) OK.

Now, please open your book, page 15. (50을 잘못 발음했다). 자 50 페이지 보세요. 자 50 페이지 보면, there is number one, listening.

We can see a floor plan. This is a floor plan. floor plan 있죠. There are some blanks. Actually, you have to listen to conversation and fill in, using these items. 어떤 item 넣어야 되요? cameras, TVs, computers를 적어야 되요. 이것들이 어디 있는지를 알아야 되니까. 아시겠죠. 자 들어보세요.

Tape: Listen to the conversation and write the names of the items in the correct box. Hear these words, cameras, games, TVs, VCRs, and computers.

Man: Excuse me, where're the cameras?

Sales assistant: The cameras? They are next to the women's room. Right over there.

M: Oh, yea. Thanks a lot.

S: You're welcome.

W: Can you tell me where the games are?

Sales assistant: Sure. They are between the elevator and the escalators.

W: Between the elevator and the escalators, Right.

W: Excuse me, are the TVs on this floor?

S: Yes, ma'am. They are over there between the men's room and the women's room.

W: Thanks. Oh, and the VCRs?

S: The VCRs are between the TVs and the escalators.

W: Between the TVs and the escalators?

S: That's right.

W: Thank you.

M: Where're the computers?

S: The computers? Let me see. I think they're across from the games next to the water fountain.

M: Across from the games, next to the water fountain.

S: Right.

M: Thanks.

T: OK, do you want to listen again? No? (S: no...) OK. Now you can ask some questions and check the answers with your partner. 자 묻고 서로 대답 체크해 보세요. 아시겠죠?

(T puts the students in pairs) 물어보는 것은 세 가지 방법 중에 아무거나 물어봐도 되요. 알겠죠? For example, where are the cameras? or Can you tell me where the cameras are? or Are the cameras on this floor? 자, 시작해보세요. 자 이렇게 둘이, 그리고, 저기 둘, 둘, 둘, 해보세요.

<Students work in pairs for about 3 minutes>

T: 시작할까요? where are the cameras? (S: they are...) Yes, they're next to the women's room. 그럼, where are the games? games 어디 있어요? (S: they are...) Ok, they're between the elevator and the escalators. Next, where are the TVs? (S: they are...) Yes, they're between the men's room and the women's room. 그러면, 비디오는 어디 있어요? Where is the VCR? 비디오는 VCR이라고 하죠. Where is the VCRs? (S: they are...) Yes, they're between the TVs and the escalators. 마지막으로, 컴퓨터 어디 있어요? Where are the computers? (S: they are...) Yes, they're across from the games, games 맞은편입니다 그리고 water fountain 옆에, next to the water fountain. 다됐죠? OK.

T: Now, let's listen to the tape, Conversation 1.

Tape: practice the conversation

Salesperson: Can I help you?

Customer: Uh, yes. Where is the water fountain?

S: It's over there, across from the jeans.

C: Across from the jeans?

S: Right.

C: Thanks.

S: You're welcome.

T: Let's listen again.

Tape:

T: OK. Repeat after me.

Can I help you? (S)

Uh, yes. Where is the water fountain? (S)

It's over there, across from the jeans. (S)

Across from the jeans? (S)

Right. (S)

Thanks. (S)

You're welcome. (S)

T: Salesperson 이 묻습니다. Can I help you? 도와드릴까요? 네, water fountain, 개수대가 어디죠?, Over there, 저쪽입니다, across from the jeans 청바지 맞은편입니다. Across from the jeans, 청바지 맞은편이라고요?, 네 그렇습니다, 고마워요. 월요. 통상적인 대화죠.

Now, let's practise it with your partner. I'll divide you into a pair. Practise the conversation with your partner. 한 사람은 salesperson 역할하고 다른 한 사람은 고객 역할하면 됩니다. Tape 에서처럼 묻고 대답하면 되요. 거기 51 페이지 그림에 다른 물건들 보입니다. Ask about other things in the picture, 다른 것들도 물어보세요.

<T gives the students about 5 minutes to work>

T: 자 됐어요? OK. Let's do some more. One of you in your pair is Student A and one of you is Students B. 왼쪽에 앉은 사람이 student A 예요, 그리고 오른쪽에 앉은 사람이 student B예요. 자, student A, go to page 121, and student B, you go to page 122. Student A 는 121 페이지보고, Student B는 122 페이지 보세요.

Student A, look at the floor plan no.1 on page 121. Look at where things are and answer student B's questions, using next to, across from, between. Student B, you should ask questions to student A where things are. OK? 먼저, 단어 연습할까요? 청바지 뭐죠? jeans예요. 운동화는? sneakers. 정장, 양복은 뭐죠? suit. suits죠. 셔츠는 shirt죠. 화장실은? restroom 이예요.

Student B가 먼저 물어보고, Student A가 대답하는 거예요. Student B, you should fill in the blanks in the picture, OK? 그림에 빈칸 채워야 돼요, student B. 자 시작해요.

<T gives some time to the students>

T: 됐어요? Student B, what are next to the escalators, escalators 옆에 있는 게 뭐예요? (S) Yes, the shirts are next to the escalators. 그럼, what are between the shoes and the wallets, 신발하고 지갑 사이에 있는 건? (S). The suits are between the shoes and the wallets, 그렇죠, 양복이 그 사이에 있죠. OK. Where are the restrooms, 화장실은요? Where are the men's room and where are the women's room? (S) Men's room is between the wallets and the women's, 남자 화장실은 지갑하고 여자 화장실 가운데 있죠. And the women's room is next to the men's. Where are the sneakers, 운동화는? (S) Yes, they're across from the ties, 넥타이 맞은편에, 그리고, T-shirt 옆에, next to the T-shirts. OK?

Now, let's go to no.2. This time, student A should ask questions where things are and student B answer the questions. Students A, you should fill in the blanks in the picture, OK? 알겠죠? 아까랑 똑같아요. 이번에는 student A가 질문하는 겁니다. Student B가 대답하구요, student A는 대답 잘 듣고, 빈칸 채우세요. 알죠?

단어 연습할까요? 지갑 뭐죠, 여자들 지갑? (S) Yes, purse. 스커트는 skirt, 스웨터는 sweater, 그리고 재킷은 jacket. 쉽죠? 자, 하세요.

<T gives some time to the students>

T: 됐어요? Student A, where are the restrooms? (S) where is the men's room? (S) Yes, it's next to the elevator. Then, where is women's room? (S) Yes, it's next to the men's room, 남자 화장실 옆에 있죠, 그리고 개수대 맞은편, next to the water fountain, OK? Where are the skirts? (S) Yes, they're between the dresses and the blouses. 그럼, where are the sweaters? (S) Yes, they're between the escalators and the blouses. Where are the purses, 여자 지갑 어디 있어요? (S) They're across from the escalators. 마지막으로, where are the shoes? (S) They're between the suits and the escalators, 정장하고 에스컬레이터 사이에 있죠. 다 이렇게 했어요?

T: Good. 잘했어요. 자 오늘 우리 where things are 공부했습니다. next to, --옆에, across from, --맞은편에, 그리고 between --사이에 옆죠. 그리고 --뒤에는? behind고, --앞에는 in front of, --위에는 on, 그리고 --안에는 in이었죠, 잊지 마세요. 자 내일 이런 표현 조금 더 연습하겠습니다.
OK, I'll see you tomorrow. Bye.

Case 3: Classroom Observation 2

Subject: English Conversation

Time and Date: 1:00-1:50 pm February 20th 2001

Lesson No.: lesson 13 of the two-month 40-session course

Lesson Level: Elementary

Students: 15 students from various backgrounds in gender, occupation, previous education, students' age range is mainly from 19 to 30

Materials used: Textbook and handouts

Textbook: *Gateways I*

OK. Hello. So, hi, how are you today?

S: very bad.

T: Oh, what's wrong with you? Why are you bad?

S: always bad.

T: No, you are not always bad. You always said, happy, always good. OK, anyway, can you tell me what you studied yesterday? What do you usually have for breakfast, for lunch, for dinner? Actually we practiced asking and answering about the questions 'what do you usually have for breakfast or dinner, OK?

Then, I'll ask you one question. What do people usually have for breakfast in Thailand?... They usually have (waits for s's participation)(S: rice soup) rice soup? tea? shrimps? eggs? and sausages. OK. And, (pointing to a student) do you usually have breakfast? Do you usually have breakfast? (S: yeah.) Yeah! Yes, so what did you have breakfast? (S: I usually have rice and rice soup and Kim-chi). So you usually have rice and Kim-chi for breakfast.

OK. Anyway, do you like a snack? You like a snack? (S: yeah) Aha. Tell me what do you usually have for a snack? (T repeats herself once again) (S: I usually have Choco-thinthin). Oh, yea, you usually have Choco-thinthin for a snack. And? (Students take turns saying what they usually have for a snack) OK. Potato-chip and...?

Tell me! Don't you like a snack? (S: I don't like a snack.) OK, and? What do you usually have for a snack? (S: ddok-bok-gee?) Yea, ddok-bok-gee! What about you? (S: I don't like a snack.) OK. So, how often do you eat Choco-thin-thin? (S: I believe every day) Oh, every day! You! (S: once a month) Oh, once a month. Once a month is sometimes. OK? (S: 일주일에 두 번) 일주일에 두 번? Twice a week. Often.이게 자주라고 해야되나 그럼? OK. And sometimes. What about you? How often do you have a snack? (S: never) Yea, you never have a snack. How often do you have a snack? (S: ...) What? (S: 거의 먹지 않는다). Anyway, you eat a snack twice a year, three times a year? 일년에 두세 번은 먹어요? OK, then you can say 'rarely', or 'seldom'. 그럼 뭐예요? Three times a year or twice a year. 일년에 한 두 번 세 번은 하는 거예요, 안하는 거예요? 거의 안하는 거예요. Then you can say 'rarely' or 'seldom'. OK? And. Seldom. I seldom eat a snack. OK?

Now close your book, please! Let's listen to the conversation and then tell me what he or she has for a snack.. And tell me what he or she ...no, how often does he or she has a snack? Do you understand? OK, what does he/she usually have for a snack and how often does he/she have a snack? Let's listen.

Tape: 1. Practice the conversation.

Man: Gee. I am still hungry!

Woman: I have some peanuts here.

M: But I never eat nuts.

W: No? What do you usually have for a snack?

M: Well, I sometimes have an apple or I sometimes have potatochips.

T: Listen again. (She plays the tape once again)

T: OK. So tell me what does he usually have for a snack? (S: apples...potatochips...)

Apples and potatochips. So how often does he have apples or potatoes? (S: sometimes.) Sometimes. And how often does he have nuts? (S: never) Never. OK. And what does she have for a snack? (S: peanuts) Peanuts! OK. How often does she have peanuts? (S: silence) We don't know. 모르지요, 안 나왔잖아요. So, look. (a late comer comes in) Hi, John. So, today we will practice asking some questions, using 'how often', then we have to answer the questions using these adverbs. 자 뭐예요. always. always 가 뭐예요? 알죠? Always means 100%, ok? Never! Never means 0%, then 'rarely' and 'seldom', between 20 % and 10 %. What about sometimes? 50%. And often? Maybe 60 or 70%. And usually? 80 to 90 %.

So, look! How often do you eat Kim-chi? Who? Amy! Try to make a full sentence. (S: I always eat Kim-chi.) OK, you always eat Kim-chi. And Emily, how often do you drink so-ju? (S: sometimes) Try to answer to me with a full sentence. (S: I sometimes drink so-ju). OK. Then, what about Daniel? How often do you play pool? What does 'play pool' mean? (S: swimming!) No, it's not swimming. Look, what does 'play pool' mean? Did you see the video tape last month? "The Students' Life" 안 봤나? 안 봤었어요? 'play pool' 은 뭐야, 당구 치다. 당구하는 것, 그걸 play pool 그래요. OK? So how often do you play pool? (S: I often play pool) Yea, I often play pool. So, how often do you play pool? (S: I never play pool) You never play pool. Then, John, how often do you say sorry? (S: Sorry?) Umm. How often do you say I'm sorry? I'm sorry. I'm sorry for being late. (S: I sometimes say sorry.) OK. I sometimes say sorry.

Now, look! OK, look at this paper I handed out. OK, please repeat after me. How often do you go shopping?(S) How often do you have arguments with your parents?(S) How often do you lose your temper? (S) How often do you go out on weekends? (S) How often do you get stressed from school or work? (S) How often do you say thank-you?(S) How often do you get together with

friends? (S) How often do you make someone laugh? (S) How often do you go to bookstores? (S) How often do you feel gloomy?
(S) How often do you skip classes? (S) How often do you have a blind date? (S)

OK, look at number 2. What does 'have argument with' means? Have argument with.
대화하다? 논쟁하다? 그렇죠. 말다툼하다.

And 'lose your temper', number 3. What does 'lose your temper' mean? What? Eddy? Yeah, get angry. OK.

Then 'go out on weekends'. What does that mean? 주말에 뭐요? (S: 나가는 거요!) Then I think you know no.5, 6, 7, 8, 9. Look
at no. 10. What does 'feel gloomy' mean? It means 'depressed'. For example, some people, not all of them, ok?, some people feel
depressed because of rain, ok?

And 'skip classes'. 'skip classes' What does that mean? 땡땡이, ok. you miss classes, you don't attend classes. You go somewhere
instead of attending class.

Then, 'have a blind date'. What does 'a blind date' mean? (S: 선) Yeah, blind date means, for example, John doesn't have a
girlfriend, then Anna doesn't have a boyfriend. They don't know each other, but I know both of them, ok? So I introduce each other
to make them become a boyfriend and girlfriend. Yeah, it's 소개팅 or 선. Please call it blind date. So, please read all of these
questions, and you can just mark based on your answers. 뭐예요? 자기 거에 대한 대답을 먼저 체크하세요. No. 1 은 뭐예요.
No. 1 is always. 그죠? No. 2 is often. No. 3, sometimes, No. 4, seldom, No. 5 never.
You can check your answers in the chart.

<T gives the students some time to do the activity>

(S: book rental shop이 뭐예요?) 책 대여점이라고 하면 되요. (S: get together가 뭐예요?)

T: what does 'get together' mean? 'Get together with your friends' means meet your friends. Meet.

T: Then I want to divide this group into two groups. 두 그룹으로 나누면, OK. number 1 is here. Number 2 is there. (S: 자리
옮겨요?) Umm. One is here. Two is here.

OK, now you can ask all of these questions to the members in your group. For example, I am a member of this group. Then I can
ask no. 1 question to Anna. For example, Anna, how often do you go shopping? And she might answer 'sometimes', then I can just
mark 'sometimes'. You can write down her initial or name or whatever just you can check. And then, after that, Anna should ask
this question the person next to her. 누구한테 물어봐요? 바로 옆에 있는 사람한테 물어봐야 되요. 어떻게? How often do
you go shopping? 그러면 the rest of the students, the rest of the members listen to them, and just check the answers, all of the
persons. 그러면 다 체크를 해야 되요. 그래야 나중에 질문을 만들 수 있기 때문에. 알겠죠?

And then, when you answer, when you answer the questions, try to make with a full sentence. 단지 'sometime' 하지 말고 어떻게
해요? I sometimes go shopping. 그런 식으로 full sentence 로 말하세요. 그래야지 you can practice. OK. Go ahead!

<T gives the students 8-9 minutes to work on the activity>

T: then, you have to make questions to ask that team, this means, ok, I am a member of this group, ok, can I have some information
about this group, then I can say to you, 'who always go shopping in my group'. 무슨 말인지 알겠어요? Who always go shopping
in my group? 누가 항상 shopping 할까요 우리 그룹에서? you just guess, then you can just choose one of them. 그 중의 한 명
고르겠죠? 그러면, For example, you choose Anna. 근데 Anna가 맞아요, 그럼 Anna say, 'Yes, you're right. I always go
shopping.' 이렇게 대답하면 되요. If the answer is wrong, 근데 만약에 틀리죠, 그러면, Anna 아무 말도 할 수 없어요. 답을
가지고 있는 사람만 말할 수 있어요. 만약에 Amy 라면 Amy가 대신 얘길 해야 되요. 'Sorry' 하면서, 'Sorry, I always go
shopping' 하면 되요. 항상 always 할 필요는 없는 거예요. 어떻게 만들 수 있어요 또? (S: never?) Who never goes shopping
in my group? or Who often goes shopping? Who seldom goes shopping? 이렇게 만들어서 묻고 대답하면 되요.

Who first! OK, sit next to Danny! OK, you first, Charlie! You can choose any number. And then you just make a question and
then give a question to that team. (S: Who never has blind date in that group?) No, in my group! 다시. (S: who never has blind
date in my group?) who? Often? 답없어? 답 있는 거로 해야지. 다시. (S: who seldom has blind date in my group?) Who
seldom has a blind date in my group? (S: Anna!) Anna! 다 똑같아요? You can choose only one person. Yeah, you have to
choose only one person. (S: Anna!) Anna! (S: I seldom have a blind date.) OK, good. And you, Tim! (S: Who always say thank-
you in my group?) 누굴까? who? Daniel? Choose only one person. Daniel or Karen? Who? (S: Daniel!) Daniel! 아니면,
Sorry! (S: sorry!) 그럼 빨리 답 맞는 사람이! (S: I always say thank-you.) Umm, I always say thank-you. OK, then, your team!
(S: lie!) Lie! you are liar! You don't trust her. 못 믿네. OK, and...

Whose turn? Oh, not you. You did. (S: who never feel gloomy?) Ah, who never feels gloomy? (S: John!) Do you think so? Do
you agree with him, John? (S: Sorry!). Sorry! Who? 답, 답 가진 사람이 얘기해야지. (S: I never feel gloomy.)(S: He is liar.)
OK, and your team!

(S: who seldom get stressed from school or work in my group?) Who? Emily?

(S: ...) Do you think so, Eily? (S: Yeah!) 그럼 읽어야지 문장. You have to read the sentence. I... (S: I seldom get stressed from
school or work) Seldom, really? Not always? Not always? (S: no.) Oh, you seldom get stressed from here, from this class. You
seldom get stressed from this class! 아닌가? Good! Next!

(S: Who never go out on weekends?) Who never goes out on weekends? (S: Charlie!) Charlie! (S: I never go out on weekends.)
Ohhhh. You're right! 어떻게 알았어? 그 다음.

(S: in my group...) Your team! (S: who never have an argument with her parents?) Who never has an argument with his or her
parents? 남자인지 여잔지 모르잖아 지금. Who? (S: Soozie!) (Soozie: sorry!) Sorry! (S: John) (John: yes!) Please read it
aloud. (S: I never have an argument with my parents.) I know. You know what. Because he stays away his parents. You stay
away with your parents. You don't live with your parents. 같이 안 살죠? (S: 떨어져 있죠.) That's why. He doesn't have time to
have an argument. Good. Yeah, he doesn't have time to have an argument. OK, he's a good son. And?

(S: who is make some laugh?) Who? Who always, who never? (S: never) Oh, once again. (S: who is often...) Who often... (S: who often make someone laugh?) "make someone laugh". Who often make someone laugh? (S: Charlie!) Charlie! Do you think so? Do you think Charlie often makes someone laugh? (S: Sorry!) Sorry. (S: I often make someone laugh). Yeah, Eddy. Eddy often makes someone laugh.

(S: who is never skip class?) I know it. Who never skips class? (S: Billy) Yeah, Billy! (S: I'm sorry.) Oh. (S1: I never skip class) (S: Boo!) No, you skipped. You skipped class last Saturday. Last Saturday. OK. (S2: 전 이번 달에 한번도 안 빠졌어요) I know. I know you attended the class, the last Saturday class. 한 명씩 다했죠? 돌아가면서. 안했어요? Oh, Annie! (S: who always goes out on weekends?) Who always goes out on weekends? Who? (S: Anna!) Anna. (S: I'm sorry!) (S: I always go out on weekends.) OK. 그렇게 하면 되요.

Now place your paper face down. And then try to make a, make one question using 'how often' by yourself. And then after you making a question, you can choose one of the person in the classroom to give a question to someone. 어떻게 해요? First, you have to make a question using 'how often', and then you can choose one of the persons in the classroom, ok, who you will ask the question, too? 질문을 할 사람부터 찾아야되요, 질문 만든 다음에. 자 빨리 만들어 보세요. how often 으로 질문을 여러분이 하나 만들어서 그 다음에 이 질문을 물어볼 사람을 고르는 거예요. 그래서 그 사람한테 물어보면 되요. 조에 상관없어요. In the classroom 에서 다.

<T gives some time for students to prepare the questions>

T: OK, are you ready? OK. Who do want to start first? (S: 질문해요?) Umm... You can choose.
(S: Billy, how often do you change your girlfriend?)(Billy: I seldom changed my girlfriend.)
(S: Joo-won, how often do you drink?)(Joo-won: I seldom drink.)(S: what's your favourite drink?)(J: Beer) What kind of beer? (J: 생 beer). (Laugh) OK. (S: 생맥주가 뭐예요?) 모르겠어요, 저도. I'll check and I'll let you know, ok?
(S: Charlie, how often do you go to nightclub?)(Charlie: I never, never never go)(S: seldom 이지 never는. Get out!)
And, who? (S: how often do you have a boyfriend?)(S: I never have a boyfriend.) In other words, you don't have a boyfriend?
You don't have a boyfriend? 어디 갔어? 없었나? 있었는데. Ok, anyway, I'm sorry. Then!
Hurry, time's over. (S: how often do you play the computer games?)(S: I never play).
(S: how often do you go to the singing room?) singing room이 아닌 것 같아요 Karaoke 가 맞는 것 같아요. 그 다음. (S: I seldom go to the singing room).
(S: how often do you skip breakfast?)(S: I sometimes skip breakfast.)

T: ok, today we just practised asking questions by using 'how often'. 또 대답하는 것 뭐 배웠어요? Always, usually, often, sometimes, rarely, seldom, never. OK. 수고하셨습니다.
See you tomorrow. 내일 봐요.

Case 4:

Classroom Observation 1

Subject: Basic English Grammar for Conversation

Time and Date: 2:00-2:50 pm September 18th 2000

Lesson No.: lesson 11 of the two-month 40-session course

Lesson Level: Elementary elementary

Students: 10 students from various backgrounds in gender, occupation, previous education, students' age range is mainly between 19 and 30

Materials used: Textbook and handouts

Textbook: *Focus on Grammar I*

<T takes the register. When the teacher spots a students who comes to class earlier than his registered time, 6:00pm, she asks why>

T: You are 6 o'clock student, right? Why did you come earlier today?

(S: 중요한 일이 좀 있어서...)

T: English class. It's an English class.

(S: very important thing)

T: you have a very important thing to do. Hmm. Dating?

(to the other students) Seung-kyun is my 6 o'clock student. He is a student and a businessman at the same time.

(S: laugh)

T: Let me check names, first? Sooni, 5 o'clock. Who is 5 o'clock student? (somebody accidently drops the teacher's tape player).

That is my new tape recorder. He broke it. Hee-joon, what did you do last weekend?

(S: Hmm...)

T: Are you working? (S: Yes)

(To the other student) what did you do last weekend? (S:...)

T: Did you stay home? Did you meet your friends? Did you go see a movie?

(S: a movie)

T: a movie? You went to see a movie last weekend. What movie did you see?

(S: no answer) What's the name of the movie? What kind of movie?

(S: no answer) Did you watch Korean movie?

(S: CCM)

T: Did you watch American movie?

(S: CCM. CCM이라고 그런걸 듣죠)

T: You went to see a movie last weekend?

(S: 아, music 인줄 알았어요)

T: you went to see a movie last weekend. What movie did you see?

(S: movie가 아니고 music인데)

T: Aha. You listened to music last weekend, all right. You listen to Christian songs, Gospel? You listened to Christian songs?

(S: yes. Gospel)

T: And, you're 5 o'clock student. Seung-kyun is a 5 o'clock student. I thought he was 6 o'clock student, but he is your time class student. What did you do last weekend?

(S: working)

T: Do you work on the weekends? No break, no holidays?

(S: sometimes)

T: But you work on Sundays, too? (S: silence) Do you work on Sundays too?

(S: yea)

T: He has a little venture business. Computer venture.

7 o'clock, Soo-hyun? (S: yes) What did you do last weekend?

(S: I did some work)

T: Oh, you had homework to do. School assignment? Did you finish your assignment? (S: yeah) So you were very busy doing your homework last weekend? (S: yeah.) You're such a good student. Excellent, hard-working student! Did you do this English class homework? (Laugh) Your school homework only?

Soo-hyun is studying Oriental painting. So you painted?

(S: yeah.) You have some painting work. OK.

And what time? (S: 5 o'clock) 5 o'clock! You're Soo-na. How was your weekend?

(S: I am busy with sister's house because she moved to a new house)

T: Oh, your sister. Older sister or younger sister?

(S: Older sister)

T: your sister is married. (S: yes.) So where did she move to? (S: she, house near new house 가까운 데로 갔는데요.) Her new house is near my house? (S: no,) Aha, her new house is not further, not very far from her old house. So which 'dong' does she in?

(S: She live in (T: lives in) A-hyun dong)

T: A-yeon dong? Where is it? (S: Shin-chon 주변). Ah, is it near Shin-chon?

(S: or near E-dae). Ah, A-hyun dong.

T: Eun-ha, what did you do last weekend? (S: I go to dance) You went dancing? Oh, yeah, you started learning dancing.

Backdancers' dancing. So, what kind of dance did you learn?

(S: shark) Shark? You mean the club, how do I put it, the singers' four member shark? What is the title of the song you danced with? (S: 잘됐어) 잘됐어? Umm... So what kind of dance is it? Is it Latin style? Hiphop? Techno? (S: laugh) All mixed-up style? I want to know how to dance. Maybe next time, if the dance place is very nice, you tell me more about that place. If that dance place is very nice to learn dance, tell me more about it. I want to get more information about that dance club. I want to get more information about that dance school. Where is that dance school? Is it near Dong-a movie theatre?

(S: behind) Oh, it's behind the Dong-a movie theatre? Is there Jazz dance class, too? (S: nods) What's the name of the school?

(S: SM). Yeah, yeah. Some teachers here go there to learn Jazz dance. That is very close to Dong-a movie theatre. Behind Dong-a movie theatre. It's up on the hill.

(Somebody knocks on the door)

T: Come in. You're Kyong-soo. Long time, no see, Kyong-soo. What time? Are you 7 o'clock student? Kyong-soo, why were you absent so many days?

(S: busy.) Why were you busy? You're Park, Kyong-soo. Why were you so busy? What did you do? (S:...)

Your major is (S: industrial design) industrial design, OK. Kyong-soo is a student and she is a 7 o'clock student. Kyong-soo, my class, eh, different time classroom change a little bit, so you must check the notice next to the door.

T: We have a guest today. I am going to tell you more about her. She is Korean, but she is studying in England. Newcastle in England. Newcastle is in the south of Scotland. OK, it's close to Scotland in England. And she is in her PhD programme now, and she came to Korea to do some research, yeah. So she is auditing (청강) to see how I and you guys are doing in the class. That's why she is here. All right! She used to work in Pagoda long time ago, she was a ToEIC teacher long long time ago in Kang-nam. Maybe some know.

T: Anyway, ok. Open your textbook, everyone. We are going to study lesson 2, 45 page 펴보세요. 오늘은 45쪽을 합니다. This week we are studying Monday to Saturday. We are going to study 6 days straight, Monday to Saturday. Do you know that? We have class this Saturday, ok? So, I'm gonna tell you the schedule, lesson plan for this week. Today we are going to finish Unit 2, we will finish Unit 2. And tomorrow and the day after tomorrow, two day, we are having very, very important lesson, 전화영어, telephoning for two days, 내일과 모릅니다 절대 빠지면 안 되요. 내일은 문장 연습 위주로 전화 영어 공부를 합니다. 문장 연습을 좀 하구요, 모레는 리스닝과 함께 같이 공부를, 연습을 많이 합니다. 이를 굉장히 뽀뽀하고 중요합니다. And this Thursday, Friday, Saturday, we are studying Unit 3. 3장을 배우는 데요, 3장 뒤편에 가면, 서수가 나와요. 그래서 서수는 여러 가지가 쓰이지만 날짜는 끝에 숫자를 서수로 읽어주죠. 그래서 날짜에 관계된 listening practice 여러 가지 카피가 나갑니다. 그 외에 별자리, 그 다음에, 우리 감정에 관계된 단어 배웠죠, 형용사 배울 때. 이어서 성격에 관계된 형용사들도 같이 체크해서 날짜, 별자리별로 여러분 성격 테스트를 합니다, 이번 주 토요일까지, OK?

T: So, open the textbook, page 45 again. 자 45쪽입니다. Prepositions of place, 장소의 전치사들, 기본 위치를 나타내는 전치사를 오늘 배워서, 다음주에 방향과 교통편 이어서 공부합니다. 자 밑에 그림 보면서 다같이 읽어봅니다.

Examples. The briefcase is under the desk. Everyone, the briefcase is under the desk. (S) Yeah, look at the picture, it is under the desk. 밑에 있죠, 아래에.

The blackboard is behind the desk. (S) 뒤에 있죠. The dictionary is on the desk. (S) On the desk. The apple is on the desk, too.

(S) It's next to the dictionary. (S) 바로 옆에 있다, 옆에 라는 표현은 next to 까지 같이 붙습니다, listen to 처럼. 근데, to 에 너무 강세주지 마세요, next 에 차라리 강세주세요. next to, (S) next to (S)

The apple is between the dictionary and the ruler. (S) between A and B, A와 B 사이에. And next, the ruler is near the apple and the dictionary. (S) near, 근처에, 가까이. What is the ruler in Korean? (S: 자) 자.

And next, the newspaper is in the wastepaper basket (S) 안에 있죠. 쓰레기통입니다. basket 같이 생겼다고 wastepaper basket. 밖에 가면, 광통 큰 거로 된 쓰레기통은 can 이라고 많이 부르죠. trash can, 쓰레기통. trash can, garbage can, wastepaper basket 다 비슷한말입니다. 자 그래서 넘어가면,

T: Exercise E1. Look at the picture and complete the sentences. 그림을 보고 match 시켜 보세요. Go now. Please match the questions with the answers. (T gives the students 3-4 minutes) If you are finished, move down to the other exercises.

T: Again, very bad drawing. Very bad. No? Good. Thank you. OK. Let's check the answers together. Please tell me the answer to no. 1. Read the whole sentence, no.1 (T reads the sentences with the students in a synchronised voice) The teacher is under the desk. No.2, the briefcase, dictionary and ruler are on the desk. The wastepaper basket is near the desk. The VCR is under the television. television, 앞에 강셉니다. TV 할 때는, 뒤에 강세입니다, TV. What is VCR? What's VCR in the picture? Video, 우리 video 라고 하는 기계인데요. 영어로는 Video 라고만 하지 않고, video cassette recorder 의 준말인 VCR 이라고 읽습니다. 꼭 기억하세요. Everyone, VCR. 그게 비디오예요. 또 많이 실수하는 게 리모콘이라고 하죠. Please pass me the remotecon 이라고 하지 않고, remote control. 에어컨은 air conditioner,

T: And no. 5. The apple is in the wastepaper basket. No.6. the dictionary is on the desk, it's between the ruler and the briefcase. No.7. the blackboard is behind the desk. No.8, the ruler is on the desk, it's next to the dictionary.

T: Exercise E2, Pitt Winston, 이 집의 아빠죠. He is at the eye doctor now. 그림 보면서 밑에 완성합니다. 박스 안의 전치사를 사용하세요.

Number 1, Look at the eye chart in the picture. (T reads the sentences with the students in a synchronised voice) No. 1. The Q is next to the W. No. 2, The W is between the Q and the Z. The O is under the W. No.4, a cockroach is on the eyechart. A cabinet is behind the doctor.

T: Exercise E3. Look at Yoko and Carol's kitchen. Can you see the picture of the kitchen? The bottom. First, you put an R on the refrigerator, 냉장고에 R이라고 우선 적으세요, 근데 이걸 적혀있죠. 냉장고라는 단어 꼭 기억하세요, refrigerator. And put an N on the napkin. napkin을 찾아서 N 이라고 적습니다. Can you find the napkin? Napkin is next to the sink, and next, put an S on the sink. 설거지하는 싱크대에 S 라고 적으세요. And put an ST on the stove. stove 는 우리가 말하는 가스레인지죠. 우리는 가스를 피워서 불을 확 일으켜서 보통 요리를 하지만 보통 미국은 Burners 를 달궈서 요리를 합니다. 그런 기계를 stove 라고 합니다. 보통 밑에는 여기 그림처럼 oven 이 달려있습니다. And put an C on the counter. 싱크대, 요리하는 싱크대에 C입니다. C. All right?

T: Listen to the conversation. Yoko and Carol are very unhappy. because there's a cockroach. 이게 또 나타났어요. 잘 듣고, 1번에서 4번 중에 A와 B 중에 답이 뭔지를 체크합니다. 그 다음에 5번을 완성해주세요. Please listen carefully, it's little fast.

Tape: Exercise E3. Page 47. Listen to the conversation. Yoko and Carol are very unhappy. There's a cockroach in their kitchen. Put a check where the cockroach was, then complete the sentence.

Yoko: Carol, look! Over there, behind you.

Carol: What is it?

Y: It's a cockroach.

C: Where?

Y: On the refrigerator near you.

C: Where?

Y: Now it's on the counter next to the refrigerator. Here's a shoe. Is it dead?

C: No. It's under the napkin on the counter. Now it's between the sink and the stove.

Y: It's dead. Thank goodness. I hate roaches.

C: Me too. Oh, no, what is it? Another cockroach.

T: Listen again, check where the roach was, no.1 to no.4

<T plays the tape once again>

T: OK. Let's check the answers and listen again. No.1, where was the roach, A or B? (S: A) A, on the refrigerator. No. 2? (S: B) A, on the counter. No. 3? (S: B) B, under the napkin. No. 4? (S: B) B, between the sink and the stove. No. 5? (S: B) B, why are they so unhappy at the end? Why? Because there's another cockroach. How did they kill? How did they kill the roach? How?

With a shoe. With a shoe.

Listen again! <T plays the tape once again>

T: Do you understand? Do you like roaches? Of course not. Do you have roaches in your kitchen? Maybe. OK. We are going to practice more. Please check your copy.

T: so let's read together. Everyone, let's read together. 자 다같이. There's a house in the middle of the picture. There are some trees at the bottom on the right of the picture. There's the sun at the top on the left of the picture. Remember this. So, we are going to write down basic prepositions of location, now.

자 지금 기본 전치사 정리합니다, 이거 오늘 꼭 정리해놓고, 다음주 방향 배울 때까지 복습하세요. --앞에, 아까 나왔죠, in front of, 빨리 발음하면, in front of. 맥도날드 앞에서 만나자, Let's meet in front of McDonald. 뒤에는 아까 뒤에는 뭐였죠, behind, 옆에는? to 높이지 마세요, next to, or beside. besides 가 되면 게다가 하는 뜻이 됩니다, 다르죠, s 빼세요. A와 B사이에, between A and B, 건너편에 맞은편에는? across from, Do you know the Tower record building? Yeah. The tower record building is across from the City building here. 그 다음 --의 중앙에 아까 뭐였죠? in the middle of, or in the centre of, in the middle or in the centre of. 나는 한밤중에 깬습니다, 할려면, wake up의 과거는 woke up 이죠, 할려면, I woke up in the middle of the night. In the middle of, 그대로. 위에, at the top, 아리에 밑에는 at the bottom.

And next, 오른쪽에, 왼쪽에, 전치사 on이었죠. on the right, or on the left. 그 다음은 그림을 보세요. 이 사선으로 된 건물을 지금 찾고있습니다. You are looking for this building. And there're two buildings nearby, bank and cafe. 근처에 있죠. 이거는 은행에서 나와서 코너를 돌며 있습니다, 내지는 카페에서 나와서 코너를 돌며 있습니다. 그런 표현 그대로 기억합니다.

around the corner from. 예를 들어 이거는 은행에서 나와서 코너를 돌아 있습니다 하려면 It's around the corner from the bank. 이쪽으로 하면 It's around the corner from the cafe. 이거 발음할 때는 around the 를 붙여보세요. around the corner from. Look at this building again. 이거는 A street과 B street 의 corner에 있죠. 이거 굉장히 유용한 표현인데요, A street 과 B street 의 corner에 있다 하려면, 놓여 있다 하는 on을 써서 해볼까요? on the corner of A street and B street. It's on the corner of A street and B street. A street 과 B street 의 corner에 있으면서 오른쪽에 있다, 하고 싶으면 on the right 을 넣어 주면 되겠죠. 이해되죠? on the corner of.

Let's say this A street is main street 라고 가정을 합니다. 이 건물은 main street 에 있죠. 이 건물은 main street 에 있다 하려면, 가장 기본적으로 street 앞에 전치사는 뭘까요? 꼭 알아두세요. It's on main street. For example, we are on what street? What street are we on? What's the name of this street? Kang-nam Street. Pagoda building is on Kang-nam street. 근데 이쪽 편에서 보면 이쪽 거리에 있다고도 볼 수 있죠, 그러면, it's on B street 그렇게 할 수도 있어요, 그래서 어느 방향에 있느냐에 따라서 다르게 나타낼 수도 있어요.

다음에 근처에 있습니다, 그거는 이 근처에 있어요, it's around here or, it's near here. 아님 간단하게, it's nearby. 응용해볼까요? here 대신에 강남 역을 넣어서, 그거는 강남역 근처에 있습니다. It's around Kang-nam station. 나는 강남역 근처에 살아요. I live around Kang-nam station, I live near Kang-nam station. 근처에 그냥 짧게 하려면, nearby. 그 다음에 바로 앞에, 바로 뒤에, 하는 부사 있죠, 바로, 라는 말이 쓰고 싶으면, 여기다가 right 을 붙으세요, just 라고 하기도 하고요, right 이라는 말 많이 씁니다. 그것은 바로 너 앞에 있어, it's right in front of you. 바로 너 뒤에 있어, it's right behind you. 바로 너 옆에 있어, it's right next to you, all right? So look at me. Where am I now? Where am I? 여러 가지로 표현할 수 있죠. You are in front of the whiteboard, or you're next to the door, or you're 경수 바로 맞은편에 있다, you're across from Kyong-soo. Or, you're in the classroom. 여러 가지로 표현할 있습니다, 꼭 알아두세요, OK?

T: All right. So, you are going to review these prepositions, ok? Every day, until you memorise them all. 다 외울 수 있을 때까지 복습합니다. 지금은 평면적으로 어디에 있다면 하지만 다음주에는 어떻게 가느냐, 월타고 가느냐, --지나서, 이런 거 다 공부해야 되거든요. 그러니까 이거 다 기억해야되요. For example, where is the Pagoda language Institute? Where is it? It's, there're many different answers. 그거는 강남 대로에 있다, 강남역 7번 출구 근처에, 시티 빌딩 안에, say it! It's in the City building on Kang-nam street around, or near Kang-nam station, 출구가 워니까, how do you read 'e, x, i, t'? Exit. Exit no. 7. Again, where is this institute? It's in the Citybuilding on Kang-nam street around Kang-nam station, exit no. 7. Where is Tower record building? It's across from the City building, yeah? It's on the side of New York bakery. Anyway, it's across from the City building on Kang-nam street. 꼭 기억합니다. 오늘 배운 거. 내일은 전화영어 갑니다.

Try to memorise all the prepositions of location, ok? Study hard. See you tomorrow.

Case 4: Classroom Observation 2

Subject: Basic English Grammar for Conversation

Time and Date: 2:00-2:50 pm December 27th 2000

Lesson No.: lesson 18 of the two-month 40-session course

Lesson Level: Elementary elementary

Students: 20 students from various backgrounds in gender, occupation, previous education, students' age range is mainly between 19 and 30

Materials used: Textbook and handouts

Textbook: *Focus on Grammar I*

T: 어저께 뭐 배웠습니까? 어제 우리 어디까지 했죠? Tell me the page number. Page number 100, something like that. Did you finish the Exercise no. 4 on page 190? (S: yes). Good. We finished. We finished page 191 unit 21, right? Now communication practice, we finished Exercise 4, right? OK. Good. Because I was very sleepy yesterday, and I couldn't quite remember what I talked, but I did it all, that's good. OK. And it's Wednesday already, yeah? And the last day for December's programme is this Friday. So how do you feel? We only have one, two, three, four, five days left till the end of this year. How do you feel? Did you have a great year this year?

Did you have a good year? (S: yes.) Yes? Oh, that's good.

How about you? OK. What is your new year's resolution? What is your new year's 계획, plans?

(S: I don't have any driving license, so next year I'm going to get a driving license). Oh, you're gonna get a driving license next year, oh, that's good.

How about you, Jin? What's your plan? You, too? Oh, you guys have the same plan.

(S: yes, and next year I'm going to study more English)

Oh, you're going to study English more, I thought you'll get married. (S: maybe, I hope so.)

Oh, next year I wish I could get a boyfriend. I have no boyfriend.

How about you Ellie? What's your new year's plan? (S: 학교 생활 즐길려구요)

Can you mix it up?, with English and Korean together? (S: I will enjoy university life) Oh, good. You'll enjoy campus life next year, you're gonna be the first year, the first grader, freshman next year. And Ellie, what are you going to study?

(S: German) German. Yeah. I didn't like that.

How about you, Silver? Silver, you're 3 o'clock student, right? What is your new year's resolution, plan? (S: I have no exact plan) Oh, I don't have exact plan, yet. I don't have exact plan, yet. OK, you think about it.

And you two are 8 o'clock students, right? Oh, no, 7 o'clock, oh, 8 o'clock. Kyong-mi, Hee-jeong, what is your plan for year 2001? Getting a new boyfriend? 계획, plan for next year. Looking for a job, preparing for a job. prepare for something 하면 --를 준비하다, 라는 뜻이죠. I am going to prepare for a job, 직업을, 직장을 준비할 거라는 뜻이죠. 준비하다, prepare for something. I am going to prepare for something, ---를 준비하다. I will prepare for a new job. Say it. 말을 해보세요. (S) (S: I will prepare for a new job.) (S: 취업준비할 건데) 글썄 취업준비가 바로 그 말이에요. You're going to prepare for a new job.

You're gonna prepare for getting a new job. Kyong-mi, what about you? Say it again, I will...(S: I will prepare for a new job) ...prepare for a new job. Good.

And, you're lara. (S: yeah.) Lara, are you 2 o'clock student? (S: 10 o'clock) oh, you're 10 o'clock student. Long time, no see. Yeah.

I was very sick last week. I am getting much better now. Last week I was very sick, but I'm getting better now. Yeah. And, you. 2 o'clock, right? You're 2 o'clock student, right? (S: 7).

Oh, you're 7 o'clock student. Ji-eun.

As you know, we are going to study the textbook with fast today because we will finish the textbook tomorrow. So we're going to study unit 22, and 23 a little, and we will finish unit 24 and the whole part 6 tomorrow. Let's open the textbook, page 193. 193, unit 22.

subject, object pronoun, 주격, 목적격 대명사입니다. 주격 대명사I 목적격 대명사 me 알죠, 나를, 나에게 같은 목적격. 그 다음이 direct and indirect objects, 직접 간접 목적격입니다, 그래서 그 밑에 리스닝 다같이 한번 들어볼까요, Check the pronouns, objects.

Tape: unit 22, grammar in context. Page 193. Listen and read the conversation between Carol and Yoko.

Carol: This is a great picture of you. Who are you standing with?

Yoko: Bikia and Maria. Do you know them?

C: I know him. He is the guy from Turkey, but I don't think I know her. Who is Maria?

Y: She's a friend from Brazil. I met her in the library. She wants to learn Japanese. I am teaching her some Japanese, and she is teaching me a little Portuguese.

C: That's great. Where was this picture taken?

Y: In Bikia's apartment.

C: What's he wearing?

Y: It's my Yutaka. My mom sent to me last month.

C: He looks cute in it.

Y: I know. I told him. I lent it to him for International Students' Masquerade party last Saturday, and he won first prize.

C: No kidding! That's cool.

T: please repeat after me, everyone. <She reads the conversation and the students read all together after her>

T: 야 이거 사진 정말 잘나왔다. 너 누구랑 서있는 거니? 그림에.

Bikia 랑 Maria. 너 개네들 아니? 어 이 남자 애는 알아, 애 터키에서 온 애지. 근데, 이 여자 애는 잘 모르겠어, Maria 가 누구니? 브라질에서 온 친구야. 내가 개를 도서관에서 만났지. 개는 일어를 배우고 싶어해, 그래서 일어를 좀 가르쳐주고 있어, 그리고 개는 나에게 포르투갈어를 가르쳐주고 있어. That's great. 이 사진 어디서 찍은 거니, 이 표현 알아듣습니다, 수동태 과거네요, where was this picture taken? 대답할 때는 This picture was taken in--, be taken in, this picture was taken in Bikia's apartment. 그림 보세요, 개가 지금 뭘 입고있는 거니? 유키타를 입고 있어, 우리 엄마가 그걸 나한테 저번 달에 보내주셨지. 그거 입으니까 귀엽다, 나도 알아 그래서 개한테 얘기해줬어. 그 다음에 lend 의 과거 lent 죠 뜻은? what does that mean? 빌려주다, 죠? 내가 그걸 개한테 빌려줬어. 무엇 때문에? 국제학생들의 지난 토요일 가장무도회 때문에 빌려줬는데, 제일 큰상을 탄 거야. Oh, no kidding. That's cool.

OK. Let's turn to next page. Look at the first chart. We have subject pronouns, 나는 하는 주격, 나를 나에게 하는 목적격. 다같이 읽어봅니다.

I am happy. (S) happy (S) He likes me. (S)

You're happy. (S) He likes you (S)

He's happy. (S) She likes him (S)

She's happy. (S) He likes her (S)

It's wonderful (S) He likes it (S)

And the plurals!

We are happy (S) He likes us (S)

그 다음에 you는 너희들이죠. You're happy (S) He likes you (S)

They are happy (S) He likes them (S)

And direct and indirect objects. 자 요거는 직접 목적격과 간접 목적격입니다. 첫 번째 문장을 보면, 주어 나왔죠, 그리고 동사 sent 나왔죠. 그리고 무엇을, 하는 그 문장의 직접 목적어 a gift 입니다. 이걸 대명사로 받으려면, it 이 되죠. 그 다음에, 누구에게, 하는 전치사 to, 그 다음에 누구에게, 하는 간접 목적격, us 가 나왔네요. 이게 첫 번째 패턴이에요. 다같이 읽어봅니다. She sent a gift to us. (S) 아니면 직접 목적격은 it 이라는 대명사로 받아서, She sent it to us. (S)

그 다음에 두 번째 패턴은요, 주격 다음에, 목적격 다음에, 바로 누구에게 하는 간접 목적어가 먼저 나오고, 아무 전치사 없이 직접 목적어가 뒤따라 나왔습니다. Everyone, she sent us a gift. (S) 이 첫 번째와 두 번째 패턴을 꼭 알아두세요. 첫 번째 패턴과 두 번째 패턴이 있는데 우리옛날에 3형식 4형식하고 배웠던 건데요, 직접 목적어 a gift를 it이라는 대명사로 받고 싶으면 첫 번째 패턴에서만 가능합니다. She sent it to us 에서만 가능하지, She sent us it은 가능하지 않다는 겁니다. 설명이 이제 나옵니다.

No.1 note, everyone, 읽어보세요.

<The teacher reads with the students>

A pronoun replaces a noun: a subject pronoun replaces a noun in subject position. 대명사는 명사를 대신합니다. 주어자리에 있는 명사를 대신한 게 주격대명사죠. 예문에 Carol 주어자리에 있는 명사, 이걸 대신해서 뭘니까, she.

No.2. An object pronoun replaces a noun in object position. 목적격 대명사는 목적어 자리에 있는 명사를 대신 받는 거죠. 예문에, Rocky라는 명사를 대신해서 그를 him이라고 대신 쓸 수 있다는 겁니다.

No.3. When you report yourself and another person, the other person comes first. Please check no.3 now, check this number. 여러분과 다른 사람을 꼭 얘기해줄 때는 다른 사람이 먼저 나오고 여러분은 제일 끝에 나옵니다. 예문에, 캐롤과 나는 할 때, Carol and I, 이렇게 I를 끝에 넣어줘요. 그리고 사람을 더 많이 나열할 때도 마찬가지로, Carol, John, Susan, and I, I가 제일 끝에 나옵니다. 이거 주의하세요.

No.4. Some passages have only subject and a verb. 어떤 문장들은 주어와 동사뿐이에요, 예문에 Pit painted, 이러면 주격과 동사뿐이 없는 거죠. 그리고 밑에 보면, some sentences have a subject, a verb and an object. 그리고 어떤 문장은 주어, 동사뿐만이 아니라 목적어까지 올 수 있습니다. 예문에 Yoko's mom sent a Yukata. 이런 경우 주어, 동사, 목적어까지 나와있죠. 그 밑에, some sentences have two objects following the verb. 그 다음 어떤 문장은 동사 뒤에 따라오는 목적어가 두개가 될 수 있어요, 직접, 간접 목적어. 예문에, Yoko's mom sent a Yukata to Yoko. 주어, 동사 나오고 그 다음에 직접목적어, 간접목적어, 이렇게 두개가 나올 수 있다는 애깁니다.

And next one, Direct object answers the question, whom or what. 직접목적격은 whom이나 what으로 묻는 의문문의 답이 될 수 있어요. 예문에, 아까 나온 문장을 의문문으로 물어본 겁니다. Yoko의 엄마는 무엇을 보냈습니까? 어떻게 묻죠? What did Yoko's mom send? 그럼 대답은 직접목적격으로, Yoko's mom sent a Yukata. 이 직접목적격이 whom이나 what 관한 답이 될 수 있다는 거죠.

And the next one, an indirect object answers the question to whom, or to what. 그러면 간접목적격은 to whom 이나 to what 에 대한 질문에 대한 답이 될 수 있다는 겁니다. 그러니까 to 넣어서 누구에게 그녀는 유카타를 보냈습니까, 질문하면, to whom did she send a Yukata? 이렇게 물었을 때, 간접목적격, 누구에게, 하는 게 답이 될 수 있죠. 그래서 답은 She sent a Yukata to Yoko. 이런 간접목적격이 답이 되는 겁니다. 그래서 여러분이 알아야 될 것은 직접목적격, 간접목적격, 아까, 두 가지 패턴 꼭 기억해야 됩니다.

자, no.5 Check this number. Please, underline the verb. 꼭 밑줄 그으세요. 동사들. 읽어볼까요?

<the teacher reads with the students together>

give, hand, lend, pass, read, sell, send, show, write, teach, help, throw, owe, email

Do you all understand the meanings?

hand는 손이 아니라 동사니까 건네주다, 제출하다, 뭐 이런 뜻이 되고, lend 빌려주다, 알죠? 그 다음에 throw 던지다, owe 빚지다, email 이메일 보내다. 이런 동사들은 바로 뒤에 직접목적어 간접목적어 다 나와서 이두가지 패턴으로 쓸 수 있는 동사들입니다. 그래서 주로 이런 동사들 뒤에 이런 형태가 나온단 애긴데, 예문 읽어보면 Yoko's parent, she gave a Yukata to her. And the second pattern, she gave her a Yukata. 이 두가지 형식 꼭 기억해둡니다. 그리고 제일 마지막에 예문만 보세요. She gave it to her, 이렇게 되어 있죠? 직접목적어 Yukata를 it 같은 대명사로 받으려면 첫 번째 형식에만 적용됩니다. She gave it to her 라고만 쓰지, 두 번째 형식에 적용시켜서 She gave her it 이렇게는 쓰지 못한다는 겁니다, 알겠죠? She gave it to her 로 쓰세요.

Let's turn to next page, exercise no.1.

No.1, read each sentence 문장을 직접 읽어보고, 직접 목적격, direct object 위에는 d 라고 적고 간접목적격 indirect object 위에는 i 라고 적으세요. 그리고 주격 대명사는 circle, 동그라미, object pronouns 목적대명사에는 underline, 밑줄 그으세요.

<T gives students some time to do the activity.>

내일 교재 다 마칩니다. 마지막날 미래시제 카피로 배웁니다.

All right, no.1, here the direct object is the book, and what is the indirect object? Me. Is there a subject pronoun? 주격대명사 있나요? 없죠. 생략이 됐어요, 명령문이라서 동사원형부터만 나오네요.

And what is object pronoun? Me. So you underline it.

No.2. Tell me the direct object. Us. Oh, no, no. The direct object is the truth. And indirect object is us. And the subject pronoun is they, then you circle it. And the object pronoun, us.

And no.3, what is direct object? A letter. And indirect object? Me. Is there a subject pronoun? No. Is there object pronoun? Yes, what is it? Me. 이게 목적격 대명사죠.

No.4, what is direct object? Your work. And indirect? Your partner. Subject pronoun? No? Object pronoun? No. 대명사들은 I, me, you, you, he, him 이런 거였죠. 근데 여기는 대명사로 받은 거는 하나도 없습니다.

No.5, what is direct object? The Wall, and indirect object? Them. And subject pronoun? We. Object pronoun? Them.

No.6, direct object? The message. Indirect object? Us. And the subject pronoun? She. And the object pronoun? Us.

Exercises no.2, complete the sentences. 밑에 문장을 완성합니다. 꼭 나열된 목적격을 써서 지금 한번 꼭 완성해보는데, 이 목적격이 어떤 단어를 대신 받았는지 이 줄로 연결해보라는 거예요. 1번을 보며, find the pronouns and circle them. 이때, them 은 뭘 대신했습니까, pronouns 를 대신했죠. 대명사들을 찾고 동그라미 치세요. 그래서 이렇게 줄로 연결시키는 겁니다, 이런 식으로 완성시켜보세요. Complete the sentences, using object pronouns.

<T gives students some time to do the activity.>

Let's read the no.2. Oh, just tell me the answer no.2. Circle it. It replaces the sentence. 줄로 연결해보세요.

No.3. what is the answer? It. It replaces this story.

No.4. Him. Him replaces Al Brown.

No.5. Us. Us means we. 바로 다음 분장의 we를 대신해 준거죠. 우리를 돕지마세요, 우리는 혼자서 하고 싶어요, 그래서 us 고 we 와 연결시키면 됩니다.

No.6. 나는 길을 잃었습니다, 뭐죠? I am lost. Please help me. Me means I.

And No.7, what's the answer? Her. Her means Carol.

No.8, Carol 과 나는 그림을 잘 그립니다. 우리들한테 물어보세요, 라고 해야죠? 이때, us 는 Carol and I

No.9. Them. Them replaces Yoko and Ellie.

No.10. counter 위에 바나나가 두개 있습니다, 그것들을 먹지 마세요. Don't eat them, them means two bananas.

Exercise no.3, complete the conversations. 이번에는 주격과 목적격 대명사를 써서, 완성하세요. 읽어볼까요.

<The teacher reads with the students together>

Yoko, I am wet. Please give me a towel.

여기 있어, Here you are. 여기서 you 는 주격입니다.

No.2. This little boy is on the wrong bus. 애가 버스를 잘못 탔어요. He is lost. 길을 잃었어요. Please help him. And the driver said, 'OK, son. Where are you going?'

No.3. 'Excuse me, we are looking for an express train. Can you help us?' 'The express train stops there. Look, there it is.'

No.4. Paul and Mary bought the same computer that we did. 이 말은 폴과 메리는 우리가 산 것과 같은 컴퓨터를 샀어요. 근데, 지금 그 computer에 문제가 하나있죠, 그래서, they're having trouble with it. the computer 를 it 이라고 받아줘야 됩니다. Please, show...Paul and Mary, 그들에게 좀 보여주세요, 이 computer 가 어떻게 작동되는지를, 그들에게, Paul and Mary 에게 좀 보여주세요, how it works. 그래서 them 이 되죠. No Problem. Do you understand the pronouns? OK.

Exercise no.4. Underline the direct object in sentence. 각 문장의 직접목적격에 밑줄 긋고, 대화를 완성시키는데, it 이나 them 같은 대명사로 직접목적격을 대신해봅니다. 대신할 때는 첫 번째 형식에 적용되지 두 번째 형식에는 적용이 안 됐었죠.

No.1. I give my brother my bicycle. What is a direct object? My bicycle, 이거니까 underline을 우선합니다, 직접목적격에. 그 다음, 너는 그걸 누구에게 주었다고? Whom 을 줄인 who 죠. Who did you give it to? 이때 직접목적격은 it 이죠, my bicycle을 받은 it 이죠, underline it. And what is the answer? I gave it to my brother. the first pattern에만 적용이 됩니다. it 같은 대명사를 대신 받으면.

No.2, everyone, I handed my boss my report. 나는 내 상사에게 내 리포트를 제출했습니다. So what is direct object? (S: my report) My report. Underline my report.

And next, who did you hand it to? What is the direct object? (S: it) it. Underline it. And what is the answer? I handed it, 그것을, to my boss, the first pattern 에만 적용이 됩니다, it 으로 대신했기 때문에. I handed it to my boss.

No.3, everyone. She owes her roommate a lot of money, 그녀는 그녀의 roommate에게 많은 돈을 빚지고 있어요. What is a direct object? (S: a lot of money) A lot of money, so underline it. And next? Who does she owe a lot of money to? 그녀는 누구에게 많은 돈을 빚지고 있습니까? What is direct object? A lot of money, the same one, underline a lot of money. 이게 직접목적격이죠, 그럼 답은 대명사로 받아보세요. She owes it, money 는 아무리 많아도 it 입니다 셀 수 없는 명사기 때문에, to her roommate. the first pattern.

No.4. Please pass Yoko the salt. What is the direct object? (S: the salt) The salt. And then? What do you want me to do with the salt? What is the direct object? The salt. 여기서 해석하면, 내가 이 소금으로 무엇을 하기를 원하시나요, 그걸 요코에게 건네주세요, 라고 해 줘야죠. the salt 를 대명사로 받으면 it 되죠. 그거를 요코에게 건네주세요, 해보세요. Pass it to Yoko. The first pattern 에만 가능합니다.

여러분 숙제 있습니다.요? page 215 총 복습 문제, 답안지는 뒤에 있습니다, 꼭 풀어보세요. So we are going to finish the textbook tomorrow, and the day after tomorrow is the last day. We are having a special lesson with a copy, future tense. 미래시제 배우는데요, 미래시제는 책에 없고 따로 하니깐, 꼭 들어야합니다. 용법은 3가지, 좀 복잡합니다. copy 못 받은 사람은 그날 와서 얘기하세요, 다 copy 체크합니다.

Any questions? All right, let's go then. Please do your homework, I'll see you tomorrow. Don't be late.

Case 5:

Classroom Observation 1

Subject: English Conversation

Time and Date: 1:00-1:50 pm November 27th 2000

Lesson No.: lesson 17 of the two-month 40-session course

Lesson Level: Elementary-intermediate

Students: 8 students from various backgrounds in gender, occupation, previous education, students' age range is mainly between 19 and 30

Materials used: Textbook and handouts

Textbook: *New Interchange Intro*

Hello, everyone, did you have a good weekend last weekend? You want to talk about it? Why don't talk to your partner first? <The teacher groups the students in pairs and the pairs talk about their weekend>

OK. Start. Why did your partner do last weekend? 주말에 뭐했는지.

(S: He went to church) Is that all? Then, what did Ohara do last weekend?

(S: She went to grandfather's house). She went to her grandfather's house, why?

(S: 그거는 모르는데요). Ok, Jerry, what did Han do last weekend?

(S: He did nothing). He did nothing. So did he stay in home? (S: yeah.)

And what did you do at home?

(S: sleep). Slept? You slept all day, Saturday, and Sunday and slept, slept, and slept?

(S: because he is tired) You answered that. Why were you so tired? 왜 그렇게 피곤했는데?

(S: week, uh...평상시에 뭐죠?) Usually.

(S: Usually Pagoda go) Usually Pagoda go, I can't understand that. 평상시에는 파고다학원에 오기 때문에 주말에는 휴가다, 알겠습니다. OK, I got it. Laugh. What did Jerry do?
 (S: He did thing, billiard) Billiards. On Saturday and Sunday? 재밌었어요? Did you have fun?
 (S: 처음에는 재밌는데,) You lost game? 졌구나? (S: 우리) You got bored? (S: yes)
 OK, I see. What did you do last weekend, Sue?
 (S: 선배 집에) 어디 갔어요? (S: 선배) 선배 집에 왜갔어요? (S:애들이랑) 애들이라는 게 you boyfriend? 남자친구랑? (S: 같이 갔어요) 같이 갔어요.
 What did I do? 나는 뭐했을까요?
 (S: Russia study) Yes, I went to Chong-no to take my Russian class. And then I had a date. I met a guy after the Russian class. He's just my friend and I teach him English for free, 공짜로 제가 영어를 좀 가르쳐줍니다. 그래서 from time to time he's buying me dinner and stuff, 그래서 밥을 사고 댕가를 지불하고 있습니다.
 (S: how old is he?) He's six years older than me. 나보다 6살 많아요.
 (S: 그러면 몇 살인데요?) He's 50 years old, 50살이죠 그죠, hahaha.
 (S: 근데, 4주 동안 주말에 한일이 똑같아요) 저요? 그렇죠? I go to the institute every Saturday and on Sunday each week I go to church.
 (S: 그럼 다음달부터는 안 그러겠네요? 이거 시간 비잡아요) 뭐가 비어?
 (S: 이 시간이요) Yeah. 그런데 다른 거 가르쳐요. I teach another class, I am gonna beginning writing class. 초급영작.

You guys, let's go to the book. 책으로 갑시다. Go to page 101. 101 페이지 가세요. We are gonna have a little review, 복습을 조금 하겠습니다. 뭘 할거냐면, invite somebody to do something with you, 뭘 같이 하자고 누군가를 초대하세요, 그러면 그 사람이, the person should refuse, 거절해야합니다. You're gonna go this way around, 이렇게 돌아갈 건데,

I am gonna ask Sue, first.

Do you want to go to the movies with me tonight? (S: yes). 거절해야됩니다. (S: no). That's too cold. 너무 냉정합니다. 상처 안 받게 말하세요. (S: no, I have no time) I'm sorry. (S: I'm sorry. I have not) I don't have any time. (S: I don't have any time) So you are busy. Can we go some other time? 땀 날 갈 수 있어요? (S: yes). 달가워하지 않습니다.
 OK, you ask Han. 아무거나.
 (S: do you want to go to the party Saturday) (S: I am really sorry, but I can't. I have to stay home) OK. Ask. 물어보세요.
 (S: do you want to have a dinner with me tomorrow?) (S: I'm really sorry, but I can't. I have to study) OK.
 (S: Do you want to see movie with me?) See a movie with me. (S: do you want to see a movie with me?) (S: I'm really sorry, but I can't. I have homework) You have to do your homework.
 (S: do you want to go concert?) Do you want to go to a concert? (S: I'm sorry, but I can't. I have to play with my cousin). OK. Good. You ask him.
 (S: do you wanna go dancing with me?) when? (S: tonight) (S: I'm sorry, I can't. I have to promise) I have another plan. (S: I have another plan) 그죠, 잘 기억하고 있네요.
 Let's go to Exercise 8, grammar focus, 우리 거기 8번 내려가죠. 보면은 what do you think it is about? 위에 대한 거죠. 방금 한 것에 대한 거예요. Asking somebody out 나가자고 그러고, accepting invitation or refusing invitation. 받아들이고 거절하고. 일단 들어봅니다. Listen.

Tape:
 Accepting an invitation
 Man: Do you like to see a movie with me tomorrow?
 Woman: Yes, I'd love to.
 Yes, I'd love to see a movie with you tomorrow.
 Refusing an invitation and making an excuse
 Woman: Do you want to have dinner with me on Friday night?
 Man: I'm sorry, but I can't. I have to study.
 Sorry. I need to stay home with my brother.
 Gee. I'd like to. But I want to go to bed early.

T: When do you say, Gee? Gee 는 언제 하는 소리죠? 안 좋을 때, 음, 하는 소리예요. (S: 이게 gee 예요?) 네. 이건 감탄사 같은 거예요. gee, I'd like to. 으, 가고 싶은데. 그 정도예요.
 OK, you guys, this time, repeat after the tape. 따라하세요.

Tape:
 Accepting an invitation, (T: Accepting an invitation 이걸 초대할 받아들이는 거죠)
 Man: Do you like to see a movie with me tomorrow?
 Woman: Yes, I'd love to.
 Yes, I'd love to see a movie with you tomorrow.

T: You can say, 'Yes, I'd love to see a movie with you tomorrow.' 길게 다 말해도 되는데, actually, you don't really have to say the whole thing. 그거다 말할 필요 없죠? 그죠? Yes, I'd love to 정도만 하면 되죠.

Tape:
 Refusing an invitation and making an excuse (T: what does it mean? To refuse something, 거절하는 거죠, 그죠? Say no, 그리고 making an excuse 는 뭐예요? 변명하고 핑계 대는 거죠. 자 따라하세요)
 Woman: Do you want to have dinner with me on Friday night?
 Man: I'm sorry, but I can't. I have to study.
 Sorry. I need to stay home with my brother.
 Gee. I'd like to. But I want to go to bed early.

T: So when you are refusing an invitation, 여러분 거절할 때, 한국말로도 그렇게 하죠, 핑계 대죠, 나 뭐 해야되, 똑같아요. want to 는 아니고 I have to or need to. 그거 기억해두시기 바랍니다.

Let's go to Part A, part A 로 내려가죠. 보면, it says, complete these responses with 'would love to', 'would like to' 'have to' or 'need to'. 그걸 하라고 그랬는데, first you're going to work on your responses 거기 보면 invitations 하고 responses 라고 있죠, Look at the right hand side, 그래서 오른쪽 responses 부터 할거거든요. So what you are supposed to do is you have to fill in the blank in A, B, C, and D. A, B, C, D, 빈칸 채우는 건데 빈칸을 뭘로 채워요? 'would like to' 'would love to', 'have to', or 'need to' 이거 먼저 지금 하세요.

<The teacher gives 2 minutes the students to work on it>

같이 해 보죠. 여러분이 해보세요. Ohara, can you read A? A 번 읽어볼래요?

(S: I'm sorry, I can't. My parents are going to go out. And I have to babysit for my sister). Have to, 그죠? What does it mean to babysit for my sister? babysit, 애기보는 것, 애기봐주는 사람 뭐죠? babysitter.

(S: 근데요, 돌보다, look 뭐 있지 않나요?) look after, take care of, 그런 말 써도 되는데, 보통 부모님 어디 가셨을 때, 애기본다, 그거는 babysit 한다는 말 많이 써요. 그것도 알아두세요. Vic, B!

(S: Sorry, I can't. I need to take the dog to the vet) Yeah, good. You could say 'have to' or 'need to' 둘 중에 아무거나 해도 상관없습니다. 그죠? C!

(S: Gee, I'd like to see the game, but I need to study for the exam) Good. D!

(S: I tried to go to the beach. I need to go to the dentist on Thursday.) dentist 치과, 치과의사 그죠? 다했네.

Let's go to Part B. part B로 내려가죠. Match the invitations with responses in part A, so what you are supposed to do is you have to match the invitations with the responses. 초대랑 반응이랑 짝을 짓는 거죠. 그래서, why don't we read no. 1 together?

1번 같이 읽어봐요. (together) Do you want to go to the baseball game tomorrow night? T: Then, what is the suitable response? 맞는 대답이 뭐예요?

(S: Gee. I'd like to see the game, but I need to study) 똑같이 하시면 되요. So go through no.2 to 4. 2, 3, 4번 보면서, 어떤 대답이 뭐랑 맞는지 연결하세요.

(S: 선생님, have to 하고, need to 랑 똑같은 거예요). 비슷한 거예요. 비슷하게 써도 됩니다.

What can be the correct response for no.1? 1번에 맞는 response는 뭘까요?

(S: c.) hmm. No.2? (S: d) No.4? (S: b) 그죠.

그러면 옆 사람하고 have a little pair practice, pair practice 해보세요. 한사람이 읽고, 그 다음 사람이 답하고, 번갈아 가면서 아시겠죠. You two work together this time, you two work together. (S: do you want to...) And one thing! Don't read. 읽지 마세요. 상대방보고 make an eye contact. 눈 마주치면서.

Last time, we learned about the pronunciation of want to. 우리 want to 어떻게 한다고 그랬죠? (S: wanna) wanna, 그렇게 하세요.

<The teacher gives the students 3 minutes to do the activity>

Let's go to the next page. 다음 페이지로 넘어가죠. exercise 9, Here, you're gonna learn about making excuses, 핑계 대는 거. 지금 책보지 말고, What are your favourite excuses? 여러분이 제일 즐겨대는 핑계는 뭘니까? 친구가 만나자 그럼 뭐라 그래요?

(S: 집에 일이 생겼어) 집에 일이 생겼어.

(S: 졸려) 그럼 친구가 졸려도 나와 그럼 어떨해? (S: 안가야) Laugh. OK. What about you, Johnny?

(S: 우리는 당일 날 얘기 안하거든요. 그럼 핑계 댈 때는, 그날 어떻게될지 모르겠는데) What about you?

(S: 전 핑계 안대요) 그럼? (S: 안가요) 그냥 말 안하고 안가요? Laugh. 그럼 안되지. 그래서 문제없었어요?

(S: 다 그래요) What about you?

(S: 집에 일이 있다고) 다들 그러네. 그러면, don't they ask any more questions? 더 질문 안해요? 무슨 일이냐고?

(S: 그냥 대충 얘기하면 되요, 상황에 따라서) 상황에 따라서, 그럼 다 알아들어요? (S: 아닌 줄 알겠지만) 싫은 줄 알겠죠, 그죠?

OK, let's go to the chart. chart 보세요. 거기 보면 10 개의 excuse 가 있어요. Do you use these excuses? 여러분이 이 10개의 excuse 를 씀니까? Why don't I ask you, Jerry, can you read that 10 sentences for us? 10개 문장 읽어줄래요?

(S: 10개 다요?) Yes.

(S: I have to babysit. I need to study. I have to work late. I want to go to bed early. I want to visit my family. I have to go to class. I have a terrible headache. My back hurt?) hurts (S: I want to stay home and clean. I have other plans)

OK. Thank you. 그래서 거기 10개의 핑계가 있죠. Check often, sometimes, or never, 여러분이 가끔, 또는 때때로, 또는 절대 이런 핑계를 안 대는지 체크해보구요. 3개, choose your 3 favourite excuses from the list. list 에서 여러분이 제일 좋아하는 핑계 3개를, 여기 전혀 없으면 하나 새로 써도 됩니다. You can also write down your favourite excuses if they are not in the list.

<The teacher gives the students 2 minutes>

(S: hurt 가 뭐예요?) 아프다구.

OK. Ohara, what are your 3 favourite excuses? 제일 즐겨 쓰는 3개의 excuse 가 뭐예요?

(S: I need to study. I have to go to class. I have other plans) what about you, Sue?

(S: I have to babysit. I want to visit my family. I have to stay home and clean) OK. babysit someone? 누구를 봐요? (S:

사촌동생) OK. What about you, Jerry?

(S: 세 개요?) 네. (S: I have other plans. I have to meet my girlfriend. I don't like to go there.) I don't like to go there. 가기 싫다,

그렇게 직설적으로 말해요? (S: yeah.) OK. It makes sense. What about you, Han?

(S: I have another plan. I am sleeping) I am sleepy, laugh. (S: 별로 없는데) 별로 없어요? 그냥 그런 줄 알아요? 네. OK.

You got to listen to him. 들어봐야 됩니다.

Ok, you guys, let's go to part B. part B 로 가죠. Write down 3 things you want to do this weekend with the date and time, 월요일밖에 안됐지만, think about what you like to do this weekend. 주말에 하고싶은 게 뭔가 3가지를 쓰는데, You have to write with the day and time. 시간하고 날을 다 써야 됩니다. 거기 예문하나 나와있죠. 같이 읽어봅시다. <together> I want to go to the ball game on Saturday night.

Write down 3 sentences similar to this. 3개를 쓰세요 이거랑 비슷한 거

(S: 주말에 뭐하고 싶은 지요?) 예.

<The teacher gives the students 3 minutes. Meanwhile she walks around the classroom and helps the students>

OK, 우리 c 번으로 가죠, 거기 보면, use your ideas from part B, invite your classmate to go with you 그랬는데, 우리 뭘 할거냐면, I'm gonna do A, 제가 A 할거니까, B 하고 C 해보세요. 거기 B 에 쓴걸 이용해서 Sun, Do you want to go to a ball game with me on Saturday night? (S: I'm sorry, but I can't. umm.) 아무거나 (S: I have to see a movie with my friends) 그럴 때는, I'm going to. (S: I'm going to a movie with my friend)

Then, Han, do you want to go to a ball game with me on Saturday night? (S: I'd love to. What time do you want to go drink?) No, no, do you want to meet... (S: meet 로 해서요?) 일단 지금은 (S: what time do you want to meet?) 그러면 내가, what about around 2 o'clock in the afternoon? 하면 됩니다.

뭘할 거냐면, 지금 적은 3 가지를 하자고 옆사람에게 물어봅니다. 그러면 옆사람은, you have to refuse, 거절하세요, and make a good excuse. 핑계를 잘 대세요. 그 다음에, then, ask the person next to the next person, 그 옆사람의 옆사람에게 물어봅니다, 그 사람은 accept the invitation, 받아들여시고, 그 다음에 몇 시에 만날래? 이렇게 하세요. 아시겠어요? Let's start from you, Sue. Sue 부터 시작하세요.

(S1: do you want to see a movie on Saturday night?) (S2: movie. I'd love to..) 일단 거절하세요, 바로 옆사람은. (S2: I'm really sorry, I can't. I have... I have to stay home)

(S1: do you want to see a movie on Saturday night?) (S3: Sorry.) No, no, 받아들여세요. (S3: I'd love to. What time do you want to meet?) (S1: two o'clock) What about 2 o'clock? (S3: silence) 좋아. (S3: Ok). OK. Cool. Your turn. Ask Jerry.

(S1: do you want to go drink on Saturday night?) Go drinking. (S2: I'm sorry, but I can't.) Make an excuse. (S2: I don't like go drink) I don't want to go drinking. I don't want to drink, ok. Ask him

(S1: do you want to hunt a girl on Saturday night?) Laugh. Do you want to go girl hunting? That's not good.

(S3: I'd love to. What time do you want to meet?) (S1:...) What time do you want to meet? (S1: afternoon) In the afternoon. OK, you go.

(S1: do you want to go to South Mountain tower evening?) Nam-san Tower. When? (S1: this weekend) (S2: no.) Do you have any excuses? (S2: no, I can't. 너무 멀어서) It's too far. (S1: 또 물어봐야 되죠?) 예. (S1: Do you want to go to Nam-san tower this weekend?) (S3: I'd love to. What time do you want to meet?) (S1: How about in the afternoon?) 시간. (S: 시간이요? How about 12 o'clock?) OK. 다음. You're gonna go out with another guy? OK. your turn.

(S1: do you want to go drinking?) When? (S1: on Thursday.) (S2: I'm sorry, I can't. I have to meet Jerry) Laugh. (S1: do you want to go on a trip?) (S3: when?) (S1: on Saturday) (S3: I'd love to. What time do you want to meet?) (S1: 6?)

OK. 아주 재미있습니다. You guys did a good job. 잘했습니다.

Let's go down to Exercise 10. 우리 Exercise 10으로 넘어갑니다. Listening. Here you will listen to 5 people's responses to an invitation. 어떤 초대에 대한 5사람의 반응을 듣게되는데, 거기 밑에 보면 나와있어요. Jennifer and Nicole invite some friends to a party on Saturday. Jennifer and Nicole 이 친구들을 초대했어요, 근데, 그 사람들이 자기들이 어떻게할건지를 they left messages on their answering machine. Nicole and Jennifer 의 자동 응답기에 메시지를 남겼어요, 그래서 what you have to do is figure out who can come and who can't come. 누가 오고 누가 못 오는지를 알아내는 겁니다. 첫 번째 들을 때는 딱껏 들지 마세요. 누가 오고 누가 못 오는지. What are the people's names? 사람들의 이름이 뭐예요? (S: Steve, Anna, David, Sara, Michael).

Tape: Page 102, Exercise 10. Listening.

part A. Jennifer and Nicole invited some friends to a party on Saturday. Listen to the messages on their answering machine. Who can come, who can't come. Check the correct answers.

Beeping: Hello, Jennifer and Nicole. This is Steve. Thanks for the invitation. I'd love to come. So, well, see you Saturday around 8 o'clock.

Beeping: Hello, Jennifer. This is Anna. Thanks for inviting me to your party. I'm going to be a little late. I hope that's ok. Can I bring some food or soda? Call me, 559-2507.

Beeping: Hey, Jennifer and Nicole. This is David. Thanks for the invitation. I'd love to come, but I have to go out to dinner with my parents. It's my mother's 50th birthday, so it's kind of important. Sorry. Talk to you soon.

Beeping: Hi, Nicole. This is Sara. I'm really sorry, but I can't come to your party on Saturday. I am going to go to a concert with my boyfriend, Robert. Sorry I can't change my plan. He bought the ticket already. Again, I'm really sorry. Talk to you soon.

Beeping: Hi Jennifer, this is Michael. Thanks for inviting me to your party on Saturday. I'd love to come. I'm gonna bring some chips and soda. I hope that's ok with you. If not, call me. You have my number.

T: OK. 이해했어요? Who can come? (S: Steve, Anna, Michael) And who can't come? (S: David, Sara) Do you guys know why they can't come? 못 오는 사람들의 이유 알아요?

(S: 예.) OK. Let's listen to Sue. David?

(S: David have to) has to (S: has to dinner with his parents) has to have dinner with his parents. Why?

(S: his mother) Yeah, his mother's birthday. Why can't Sara come?

(S: she is going to a concert) 그럴죠. She is going to a concert. 이해했어요? 한번만 더 들어볼래요? 한번만 다시 들어보세요.

Tape again

T: 이해했어요? 자 몇 가지만 물어보죠. 자 여기 보면, Anna says she's going to be a little late. 그래도 괜찮았으면 좋겠다, I hope... I hope that's ok. 그리고 Michael 도 그런 얘기했어요. he says he's gonna bring chips and soda, chip 같은 거랑 탄산음료 가져갈 건데, 그게 괜찮았으면 좋겠다, 어떻게 됐죠? (S: I hope that's ok). that's ok with you. Very good. 그렇게 말하면서 아니라면, 안 괜찮으면 나한테 전화해, 그랬어요. (S: maybe) --라면, (S: if you don't like it) 그런 긴 문장으로도 할 수 있는데, 그냥, if not 그렇게 말했어요. 한번만 다시 들어보세요.

Beeping: Hi Jennifer, this is Michael. Thanks for inviting me to your party on Saturday. I'd love to come. I'm gonna bring some chips and soda. I hope that's ok with you. If not, call me. You have my number.

T: yeah, if not, call me. if not 이렇게 말했어요. 그죠? We are not gonna do the reading activity, 우리 reading은 건너뛰구요, Go to Interchange 16. Interchange 16 들어가세요. 책 뒤에 보면.

You're gonna be A, you're gonna be B. You are A, and you are B. And you are A. 남의 것 보지 마세요. 월 할거나 하면, 거기 보면, This is your calendar for March. 여러분의 3월 계획표예요. You wanna make an evening date with your partner. 옆 사람하고 만날 시간을 정해야 되거든요. Ask and answer questions to find a date. You guys have different time and different schedule 서로 계획이 다르죠, 그래서 어떻게 하는 거냐? Why don't we read A? A 한번 읽어보세요.

(S: do you wanna go out on March 3rd?) B!

(S: I'd love to, but I can't. I'm going to go iceskating with Mary.) 그래서 How about 딱 날은 언제 하고 그런 식으로 물어보는 거예요. 그래서 Set up a date 날짜를 정하세요, 만날 수 있는 날을. And then, once you set up a date, 날짜를 정한 다음에는 월 할 수 있냐면, go to part B, 바로 part B 로 가세요. 뭐라고 되어있어요? 거기 A 같이 읽어보죠. 시작.

<together> Do you want to play tennis?

T: Oh, huh. B! (S: No, I don't play tennis very well. Do you want to go to a museum? No, I don't like museums) So, 결론을 내리세요, 월 하러 갈 건지, 날짜 정하고, set up a date and decide what you're going to go. 월 할 건지 정하세요. You two, and you two. And you two.

<The teacher gives the students 3 minutes>

OK, stop here. That's good enough. When are you guys gonna meet? 언제 만날 거예요?

(S: March 24th) March 24th? uh-huh. What are you guys gonna go?

(S: movie) You're gonna see a movie? OK. When are you gonna meet?

(S: March 17th) And what are you gonna do? (S: we are going to see a movie). Uh-huh. OK, when are you guys gonna meet?

(S: 누구 만나냐구요?) 언제.

(S: We meet) We are gonna meet (S: we are gonna meet on March 15th) Very good. What are you guys gonna do? (S: go to billiards) Haha, I already knew.

Thank you very much. Thanks for your hard work. See you guys tomorrow.

Case 5: Classroom Observation 2

Subject: English Composition

Time and Date: 5:00-5:50 pm February 16th 2001

Lesson No.: lesson 12 of the two-month 40-session course

Lesson Level: Elementary-intermediate

Students: 8 students from various backgrounds in gender, occupation, previous education, students' age range is mainly between 19 and 30

Materials used: Textbook and handouts

Textbook: Yes English Composition (by Jongmin Ric Lee)

자 같이 할까요?

No.1 부터 시작합니다. 나는 해외에서 내 학업을 계속하고 싶다. 애는 왜 in을 못써요?

abroad 때문에, 하고싶다, 이런 말 어떻게 해요? I want to, or I would like to, 둘 중에 하나면 되겠어요. 계속하다, continue, 학업? 네, my study 해주면 되죠. my study, my studies, whatever 하고. 일단 읽어봅시다. 시작,

I'd like to continue my studies abroad. OK, 나는 일본에서 내 학업을 계속하고 싶다, I'd like to continue my studies in Japan, but abroad 앞에는 그런 거 없다는 것, 그렇죠. abroad 랑 똑같은 말, 예, overseas. Good.

No. 2. 나는 아래층으로 뛰어내려가서 전화기를 집어들었다. 나는 뛰어내려갔다? I ran downstairs. Do you have to say, I ran to downstairs, something like that? No. 그죠. I ran downstairs 면 되는 거예요. 그게 아래층으로입니다. to 나 down 이나 이런 말이 필요 없어요. 그 다음에 전화기를 집어들었다? and I picked up the phone. 그런데, you don't really have to say, 'I'. I 할 필요가 없죠. 해도 상관없어요. 해도 상관없고, 안해도 상관없고. 자 읽겠습니다, 시작. I ran downstairs and picked up the phone. 안하는 게 더 좋죠.

(S: the phone 을 pick up 사이에 넣도 되죠?) I ran downstairs and picked the phone up? I picked the phone up 해도 될 것 같긴 한데, picked up the phone 이 더 자연스럽게 들리는 것 같아요. 그런데, it 일 때는 pick it up 해야지, pick up it 하지는 않죠. 넘어갑니다.

식당과 부엌은 위층에 있습니다. 식당? the dining room and kitchen 하면 되겠죠. The dining room and kitchen are upstairs. 'They're in upstairs' 할 필요 없다는 거죠. 읽겠습니다. The dining room and kitchen are upstairs.

Let's say, 누가 물었어요, where is your brother? 오빠 어디 있니?, 위층에 있어요, He's upstairs. He is in upstairs, no. He is upstairs.

자 no.4 and 5 는요, 말하다, 라는 동사에 대한 거예요. 지난 시간에 우리는 오염에 대해 얘기하겠습니다, 여러분, say, tell, talk, 뭐 쓸 것 같아요? talk about 할 것 같죠. talk about 입니다. 그래서, when you talk about, you usually talk about a particular topic. topic 에 대해서 얘기할 때 talk about 을 쓰지, say 그런 것 쓰지 않는다는 겁니다. 그러면, 다음시간에, in our next class, 얘기하겠습니다, we'll or we're gonna, 맘대로, talk about, 오염, pollution. 읽겠습니다, 시작, In our next class, we're gonna talk about pollution.

넘어갑시다. 우리는 다음 휴일에 어디로 갈지에 대해서 이야기를 나누었다, 그랬습니다. 이때도 동일하게 월 써요? talk about. 위에 대해서 이야기를 나누었다, 할 때는 항상 talk about 을 씁니다. 우리는 얘기했다, (S: we talked about.) We talked about, (S: where) where we are gonna go, or where we would go, 다음 holiday, for 같은 거 넣어줍니다. 읽고 조금 더 설명하겠습니다. We talked about where we would go for our next holiday. 다음 holiday를 위한 니 plan이 뭐니?, what's your plan for your next holiday? 너 이번 주말을 위한 무슨 계획 있니?, do you have any plans for this weekend? 근데 너 이번

주말에 뭐할 거니, 할 때는 뭐라고 하죠?, what are you gonna do on weekend? this 가 붙으면 this weekend 해주겠죠. 때에 따라서 비슷한 게 있는데, for 를 쓸 때가 있습니다.

OK, 넘어갑시다. 우리부모님, 두 분 다 영어를 못하십니다, 여러분 우리부모님 두 분 다 영어를 하십니다, 할려면 어떻게 하죠? Both of my parents speak English. both 를 둘 다 아니다, 할려면 뭐가 와야 되요? neither 가 와야 되요. Both of my parents don't 이렇게 나가면 부분부정이 되어버립니다. neither. neither of my parents, 하고 neither 를 보니까 n 이 벌써 뭘 없어요. 읽고 조금 더 설명하겠습니다. Neither of my parents speak English. 일본말 할 줄 아세요?, 어떻게 하죠? Do you speak Japanese? 그런데, speak in English 라는 말도 분명히 할 때는 있어요. 영어로 해라, 할 때. Let's say, this is a conversation class. 이게 conversation class 예요. Let's say, you are supposed to do some pair work. pair work을 하기로 했는데, 여러분이 막 한국말로 하고있어요, 그래서 제가 가서 영어로 하세요, 'Speak in English'.

그 다음에 no.7 봐요. 나는 내가 어디에 주차했는지를 기억하려고 애썼다, 라는 게 나왔습니다. 나는 --하려고 애썼다, I try, (S: to remember) I try to remember (S: where) Yes, very good, where I parked my car 하면 되겠죠. 하려고 애썼다, 열심히 애썼다, 한다면, 열심히 여기 뭐 넣어야 되요? hard. yeah. My question is this...I tried hardly? 아니죠. try hard, 형용사 부사하고 열심히는 다 hard. 자 읽어봅시다. I try hard to remember where I parked my car. Good. 주차장은 parking lot, 그죠?

no.8. 비가 심하게 오고있어서 우리는 모두 젖었다. 비가 오고 있었다 (S: it rain) 오고있었다니까, it was raining, 심하게, heavily 해도 되고, 이거랑 똑같은 거 쓸 때, hard or hardly? hard, 그렇죠. It was raining hard and 우리모두 젖었다. We all (S: all get wet) 예 근데 과거니까 got wet. 읽어봅시다. It was raining hard and we all got wet. 여러분 이말 어떻게 해요?, my sweater is wet. 근데 비를 맞아서 내 스웨터가 젖어있다, my sweater got wet, 동작을 말할 때는 get을 씁니다, 기억하세요.

OK, no.9. 너무 어두워서 우리는 거의 볼 수가 없었다, 우리 이거 한번 so---that 으로 해보죠. 너무나 --해서 --하다, 어떻게 되요? It was so dark that (S: we couldn't) we couldn't see anything 도 괜찮고, 또는 we could hardly see anything 혹은 그냥 see. 여러분 we hardly could see 하지 않고, we could hardly see 어순이 이래요. 읽어봅시다. It was so dark that we could hardly see. 여기서 묻고 싶은 것은, hardly 하면 뭐예요? 거의 --지 않다.

No.10 도 똑같아요. 우리가 호텔에 도착했을 때, 우리는 우리 눈을 믿을 수가 없었다. 우리가 호텔에 도착했을 때, (S: when we arrive) When we arrive, in or at? at the hotel, 우리는 우리 눈을 믿을 수가 없었다. We could hardly believe our eyes. 읽어보겠습니다. 시작. When we arrived at the hotel, we could hardly believe our eyes. hard 랑 hardly 구분하시고, 그리고 보통 can 이랑 같이 올 때는 could hardly 순서라는 것 기억하세요.

마지막 no.11. 그것은 스페인에 있는 가장 좋은 극장들 중의 하나죠. 어떻게 하죠. (S: it is..) one of the best (S: ...) theatres 하고, 묻고 싶은 게 of or in Spain. in Spain 이죠, 스페인의, 하지만 스페인에 있는 할 때는 in Spain 해야죠. 한번 읽어보겠습니다. It is one of the best theatres in Spain. 우리말로 하다보면, 뭐, 한국의, 일본의, 자꾸만 of 를 쓰고 싶은데 그건 아니라는 거죠. 이걸 어떻게 할까요? 한국에서, 한국의 두 번째로 큰 도시, the second largest city 그 다음에 뭐라고요, 예, in Korea. 최상급을 항상 최고에만 쓰는 것은 아니죠, 두 번째로 제일 큰 예는 second 가 붙죠. 읽어봅시다. The second largest city in Korea. 보통 최상급 올 때, --에서 가장 --한, 할 때, of 가 올 때도 있지만 보통 in 이 와요. 최상급이랑 같이 오는 것은 보통 in 이에요. 여까지 보고,

Let's go to the textbook. 책으로 갑시다. 오늘은 동격. 동격 하면 어떤 게 제일 생각나요? 우리 Valentine's Day에 이런 거 했었어요, 로마 황제 클라우디스는 어쩌구 저쩌구, 그때 어떻게 해줬었어요? Claudius the Roman emperor 했었죠. 어떻게 보면 똑같은 걸 늘어놓은 것 같지만, 사실상 뭐예요? Roman emperor가 이걸 자세하게 해주는 거죠. 동격이라는 건요, 똑같은 말을 늘어놓는 다기 보다, 뒤에 것이 앞의 것을 더 자세하게 해준다고 이해하면 되요. 책에 보세요. 자세히는 설명 안하겠습니다. 이 단원에 나오는 동격은 다 그런 겁니다. 뒤에 나오는 게 앞의 것을 자세하게 해준다는 의미죠.

Go to your book, page 243. 243 페이지, 거기 첫 번째 예문 보시죠. 가격이 올라간다는 루머가 사전 매입을 초래했다. 읽어봅시다, 시작. The rumour that prices are going to rise caused the rush on the shops. rumour가 무슨 rumour인지를 that 이하가 자세히 해주는 거예요. 그게 동격이라는 겁니다. that 이하의 prices are going to rise 그것만으로도 말이 되죠. 그 말, rumour, that doesn't have to be rumour all the time, 항상 rumour 일 필요는 없죠. the fact that, the belief that, the report that, the opinion that, whatever 다올수 있죠. 그런 게 올 수 있구나, 예문 보면서 보구요, 그런 것도 오고 제가 이 반에서 even before 설명했어요? 예. 나는 만나기도 전에 그 여자가 내 부인이 될 거라는 예감이 들었다, 어떻게 하죠? (S: even before I met her) even before I met her, I... had the feeling that... she would be... my wife. 이런 거 했었죠, 그죠? 이겁니다. 한번만 다시 같이 읽어보죠. Even before I met her, I had the feeling that she would be my wife. 이런 거를 뭐라 그래요? 동격의 that 절이라고 그래요. 이게 뭔지를 아는 거보다, 이렇게 쓸 수 있으면 되는 거죠. 여러분, feeling 뿐만 아니라, 인상이 든다, impression 같은 것도 이 자리에 올 수 있고요, 예감이 든다, 책에 다 있습니다, hunch라는 말 있어요. 딴 데는 그리 많이 안 나와요, 이런 말 할 때만 나옵니다. had, got, 같은 걸 주로 쓰고, 그리고 재밌는건 과거에 이런 느낌이 들었다, 할 때는 뭐가 와요? 'the'가 와요. 그런데 지금 내가 그런 느낌이 든다, 할 때는 a feeling 이옵니다, 나중에 책 보시면 더 잘 알게 될 거예요.

자 책으로 가죠. Go to page 245, first. 245페이지로 먼저 가보세요. You're gonna start from no.2. 나는 첫눈에 그가 내 선생일지 모른다는 예감이 들었다 읽어보세요. At first sight, I got the hunch that he might be my teacher. At first sight, I got the hunch, 과거니까 got 'the' hunch, a 가 아닙니다, --일지도 모른다, 조동사가 뭐예요?, may, 근데 거기 과거니까, 'He might'가 되는 거예요. 거기 밑에 조금 보면, --라는 예감이 든다, 하고 현재라면 'I have a hunch'가 되는 거겠죠. 예를 들어, 나는그녀가 내 부인이 될 거라는 예감이 듭니다, Let's read that all together, 시작. Somehow I have a hunch that she will be my wife. 'have a hunch'에 a 보이죠? 내 부인이 될거다, 'my'가 아니라 뭐예요?, 'will'. '--일지도 몰라' may

OK. Go to page 246. 왠지 그가 형사일지도 모른다는 예감이 들었다, 라는 예문 읽어봅시다, 시작. Somehow I got the hunch that he might be a detective. 과거니까 I got the hunch, 그리고 'he might' 신경 쓰면서 실전 해보세요.

<The teacher gives the students 2 minutes or so>

(S: 갑자기는 뭐예요?) 갑자기? Suddenly. all of a sudden. 또 다른 거 all at once 같은 것도 좋겠죠.
 '그가 날 배신할지도 모른다는 예감이 들었다' (S: I got the hunch) I got the hunch...that...그가 날 배신할지도 모른다? (S: he might betray) that he might betray me. --지도 몰라, 니가 'may', 과거니까, 'might' 이렇게 됩니다. 읽겠습니다. Suddenly I got the hunch that he might betray me.(S) 예감은 예감인데, that 이하라는 예감, 이게 동격이라는 것 기억하고.

하나 더해보죠. no.3, 3번입니다. 그가 나를 도와줬을 때, 나는 그가 괜찮은 사람이라는 느낌을 받았습니다.
 읽어보시겠습니다. When Bob helped me, I got the feeling that he was a nice guy.(S). I got 'the' feeling, 과거니까, 그리고, 'He was a nice guy', maybe he is still a nice guy 하지만, I got the feeling이 과거니까, He was a nice guy, 그거 잊지 마세요, 시제일치 하시기 바랍니다.

나는 그가 날 믿지 않는다는 느낌을 받았어요, 읽어봅니다, 시작. I had the feeling that he didn't trust me. 지금도 나를 안 믿을지도 모르지만, I got the feeling, 과거 얘기하는 거니까, 'He didn't trust me' 시제일치하시구요, 그 밑에 나는 그가 그 시험에 합격할 거라는 걸...같이 읽겠습니다. I have a strong feeling that he will pass the test. 여러분, 현재니까, 'I have "a" feeling', 강한 느낌? 'strong feeling', 그리고 그런 느낌이 든다, will, --일지도 몰라, 가 아니라, 그럴 거라는 거죠. 자, 실전 해보세요.

<The teacher gives the students 2 minutes or so>

'남편이 나를 무시한다는 느낌이 들었어요', 과거니까 어떻게 해요? I had (S: the feeling) the feeling that (S: my husband) my husband (S: ignore) 과거로 ignored me, 그래서 이혼했어요, (S: so I divorce) so I divorced him. 또는 그냥 'got divorced'해도 돼요, 둘 중의 하나. 'divorced' 하려면 'him' 써주고. 읽어보겠습니다. I had the feeling that my husband ignored me so I divorced him. 'the'들어가는 것 잊지마시구요, 시제일치하는것 잊지마시구요.

자, 우리 하나 더해볼까요. 이렇게 해서 이혼을 하고 나면, husband가 뭐로 변해요? 우리 전남편을 뭐라 그래요? ex-husband. 전부인? ex-wife. 헤어진 전 여자친구? ex-girlfriend. 전 남자친구? ex-boyfriend. 접두사 중에 어떤 것들은요 hyphen 없이 쓰는 것도 있는데, ex는 보통 hyphen을 넣어서 써요. 그리고 남녀관계에만 쓰지는 않구요, 워 전대통령, 할 때도, ex-president 상관없습니다. 그거 봐두시구요.

하나 더해보죠. 내 생각에는 말이야, 개네가 금방 헤어질 거라는 느낌이 들어, (S: I have a feeling) I have a strong feeling that...they will...break up...soon. 읽어봅니다, 시작. I have a strong feeling that they will break up soon. 하면 되겠죠. 현재니까, 'have' 들어갔구요. 다른 예 하나 들어볼까요. 여러분이 빵 먹다가 여기다 빵 두구 나갔어요, 돌아보니까, 있는 사람은 나 하나 밖에 없는데, 빵이 반으로 줄었죠. 여러분이 저한테 물었죠, You ate my bread? 내가 여러분을 딱 보면서, 증거 있어요? 하고 물었어요, 영어로 하면 어떻게 되죠? (S: do you have any proof? do you have any evidence?) evidence. '있어요?□ 하면 뭘로 시작하면 되요? 'there is' 또는 'have' 동사. 여러분, '책상위에 책이 있어요', there is a book on the desk, 그때 '—가 있다는 there is로 되요, 또 다른거, 오빠가 하나 있어요, I have a brother. '있다'의 의미는 보통, there is, there are나 have 정도로 표현됩니다. 그러면, have로 하면 어떻게 되죠? (S: Do you have any) Do you have any evidence? 일단 여기까지만, 또는 뭐예요? Is there any evidence?, do you have any evidence? 근데 여기다 뭘 붙여서, 내가 니 빵을 먹었다는 증거있어? 하면, that I ate your bread that 이하를 붙여서 evidence가 무슨 evidence인지를 자세하게 해주는 것, 이게 바로 동격입니다. 자 읽어봅니다. Do you have any evidence that I ate your bread? 밑의 것 시작, Is there any evidence that I ate your bread?

내가 니 일기장 봤다는 증거 있어?, Is there any evidence that I read your diary?, your journal, 그게 no.4입니다.
 Julie가 나를 사랑한다는 증거라도 있어, 읽어봅니다. Do you have any evidence that Julie loves me? 또는 Is there any evidence that Julie loves me?
 실전 해보세요.

<The teacher gives the students 1 minutes or so>

여러분, 꺾순 <?? steal. 과거는 stole, 과거분사, stolen. Yes. Is there any evidence that I stole (S: your money) your money, yes. 읽어보겠습니다, 시작, do you have any evidence that I stole your money? Is there로 시작, Is there any evidence that I stole your money?

자 그러면 이제, go back to page 245. 245페이지로 돌아가요.
 1번 보겠습니다. 레슬링선수들이 시합을 짜고 한다는 사실은 최소한 NWA 에서는 사실이 아닙니다. 길어 보이지만 이해하기 쉬울 겁니다. 일단 읽어보면 압니다. 읽겠습니다. The fact that wrestlers play fixed games is not true at least in NWA. 이 문장 전체의 주어가 뭐예요? (S: the fact) the fact that wrestlers play fixed games죠? 이렇게 길면 영어는 보통 어떻게 해요? 뒤로 보내죠. 그게 그 다음 문장입니다, 읽어보겠습니다. It is not true at least in NWA that the wrestlers play fix games 그렇게 하면 되는데, 두 단어 차이가 있어요, 밑의 문장은 'the fact'가 없어요. 자 여러분, 이게 무슨 얘기나 하면요? 긴 that절이 문장 맨 앞에 주어로 나올 때는 뭐가 나오면 좋아요? the fact 같은 것을 달고 나오면 좋아요, 없어도 틀리지 않아요, 있으면 좋다는 거예요. 근데, 얘가 뒤로 가면 나올 일이 없겠죠.
 'Jinny가 날사랑한다는 것은 사실이 아니예요' 읽어봅니다. The fact that Jinny loves me is not true. The fact 없어도 괜찮지만, 있는 게 좋다는 거예요, 근데 그게 길어서 뒤로 보내면 어떻게 되요? It's not true that Jinny loves me. 이때는 the fact that을 쓰지 않죠. OK. 실전 하세요.

<The teacher gives the students 1 minutes or so>

읽어봅니다, 시작, It's an outright lie that Bobby's good at English. 이때, that 절이 앞으로 나가면, 뭘 달고 오면 좋아요? the fact that. 그렇게 읽어봅니다. The fact that Bobby's good at English is an outright lie.(S) Here, what do you think outright lie means?, outright lie, outright이 무슨 뜻일까요? 분명한, 명백한, 새빨간 거짓말이라는 뜻입니다.

넘어가기 전에, go to page 244, 244 page를 잠깐 보겠어요. 방금전에요, 긴 that 절이 앞에 올 때는 the fact가 꼭 있어야되는게 아니라 있으면 좋다는 거예요, 근데, 꼭 있어야 되는 경우가 있다는 거죠? 언제죠?, 전치사 뒤, 라는 거예요. 자 읽어봅니다. They paid a lot of attention to the fact that he was unhappy.(S) pay attention to? --에 주의를 기울이다, 그 뒤에 that이 바로 안 나온다는 거죠, the fact가 나온다는 거예요. 여러분, that 접속사 제일 앞에 전치사 나온 거 많이 봤어요? 별로 못 보죠? 예외적인 게 있다면, in that 하고, except that 정도가 있다는 거예요, 나머지는 보통 여기 the fact가 오던 뭐가 오지 바로 that절이 잘 안 와요. 그게 거기 얘기입니다. in that 우리 한번 했던 것 같아요, 무슨 뜻이죠? ---라는 점에서. 이거 하나 해보죠, 그하고 저는요, 영어를 잘하고 싶어한다는 점에서 같아요, 어떻게 할까요? (S: we are same)

We are the same...in that...we all want to be good at English 하면 되겠죠. in that 에서는 the fact 없이 바로 오죠. except that 은 that 이하라는 점만 빼고는, 이란 거예요. 엄마가 나한테 청바지를 하나 사줬어요. 입어보니까 예쁘데 너무 좁아요. 엄마가 어때니, 할 때, 내가, 너무 타이트하다는 것만 빼고는 괜찮아요, Ma, it's all right except that it's a little tight, 하면 되겠죠. 그럴 때는 that 앞에 바로 except가 올 수 있어요, 아니라면 보통은 전치사 뒤에는 the fact 가 먼저 온다는 말이에요.

책에는는서 예를 더 보시겠습니다. 나는 시간이 너무 늦었다는 사실을 의식하지 못하고 있었다 읽어봅니다, 시작. I wasn't aware of the fact that it was too late.(S). I wasn't aware of, be aware of? 알고있다, 의식하고 있다, 죠. of가 나왔으니까 바로 that 안 나오고 the fact 나와주는 게 좋다는 거예요. 그 밑에도 읽어봐요, 시작! The student was satisfied with the fact that he had been accepted to the college.(S) 'be satisfied with' 나왔으니까 'the fact' 하는 게 좋다는 거예요. 하나만 더 얘기하죠. 애는요, that 절이 오려면 이렇게 오던가, 그냥 be aware that 으로 나가면 되요. 그렇게 생각하면 거기 아까 읽은 'I wasn't aware of the fact that'를 어떻게 고치면 되요? I wasn't aware that it was too late(S) 그래도 상관없어요. 맘대로 하실 수 있습니다.

Go to page 247. 247 페이지로 넘어갑니다. 그녀가 나보다 나이가 많다는 점을 어떻게 생각하세요? 그랬습니다. 한번 읽어봅니다. What do you think of the fact that she is older than me?(S) 어떻게 생각하세요, 라고 물었는데, how가 아니라 what이 와요. 의견을 물을 때, 보통 뭐가 와요? what이 와요, how가 아닙니다. What do you think하고 of가 왔습니다, 이렇게 of를 잘 씁니다. 그리고 of가 왔으니까 그 뒤에 that이 바로 못 오고 또 뭐가 왔습니까?, the fact가 왔다는 거예요. 그리고 옛날에는 꿀he is older than I am' I am 이거 꼭 해야된다, 라고 했을지 모르는데, me라고 해도 상관없어요, 사람들이 그렇게 많이 쓰면 또 그렇게 변하는 겁니다.

거기 밑에 몇 가지 볼게 있어요. how로 시작하기 쉬운데, what을 써야되는 경우, 방금 말했죠, 의견을 물을 때, 그래요. 한번 읽어봅니다. 한국에 대해서 어떻게 생각하세요? What do you think of Korea? (S) Let's say, 여러분 친구가 여러분에게 물었습니다, hey, what's your hobby?, 취미가 뭐니? 여러분이, Well, my hobby is...rock climbing. 그랬더니 이 친구가 듣더니, oh, that's dangerous, 위험한데, 너의 부모님은 rock climbing에 대해서 어떻게 생각하시니? 어떻게 할까요? What do your parents think of rock climbing?(S) 그래서 의견을 물을 때는 뭐라고요? What. What do your parents think of rock climbing? 그리고 인상을 물을 때, '한국에 대한 첫인상은 뭐였어요?' 읽어봅니다. What was your first impression of Korea?(S) 이때도 how가 아니라 what 이라는 거예요. '나에 대한 첫인상은 어땠어요?' 첫인상은 뭐예요? What was your first impression of me? 그죠. What was my first impression,이 아니에요. 인상은 주는 사람 것이 아니라 받는 사람 것이에요. 그래서 your first impression of me,가 되는 거예요. 잊지마 세요.

하나만 더, 영어로 이걸 뭐라고 해요?, 가 뭐예요? what do you call this in English?(S) 이때도 how 하지 말고 what 쓰라는 거죠. 이거 뭐라고 불러요 영어로, 그렇게 이해하면 쉽습니다. 봐두시구요.

'내가 Rick하고 같이 공부하는 것에 대해서 어떻게 생각해?' 읽어봅니다. What do you think of the fact that I study with Rick?(S) 이때도 what do you think of, 그렇죠? 자 실천 해봅니다.

<The teacher gives the students 2 minutes or so>

(S: 단어 물어볼때요, how로 시작할 수도 있죠?) 네, 있죠. (S: how can I speak? how can I say?) how can I say this in English? 그럴 때는. 볼까요. '혼자 산다는 것에 대해서 어떻게 생각하세요?' (S: What do you think of the fact that I) I love alone 입니다. 다시 한번 읽겠습니다. What do you think of the fact that I love alone?(S) alone 이랑 똑같은 말? by myself 하면 되겠죠. '미국인 남자친구 있다는 것에 대해서 어떻게 생각하십니까' 어떻게 하면 되요? What do you think of the fact that I have an American boyfriend? (S) 이래도 되고, or 'what do you think of the fact that my boyfriend is American'이래도 되죠. 한 번 더 읽어보죠. What do you think of the fact that I have an American boyfriend? (S) OK. 됐습니다.

6번까지 오늘 하죠. '짜다는 점만 빼고 그는 괜찮아요' 그랬습니다. 아까, 우리 that 앞에 바로 전치사가 오는 두 가지 경우가 뭐였죠? in that and except that. 이게 except that 경우가 되겠습니다. 읽어봐요. He is all right except that he is too stingy (S). 'He is alright' 괜찮아요, except that, --라는 점 빼고는, in that 하고 비슷해요. '집에서 너무 멀다는 점만 빼고는 그 학교 괜찮아요' 읽어보죠. The school is all right except that it's too far from my house.(S) The school is all right, 이 문장과 it is too far from my house, 그 두개 사이에, except that만 와주면 되는 거예요. 그 밑의 것은 in that 이예요. 우리 할 줄 아는 겁니다. 실천을 해보세요.

<The teacher gives the students 1 minutes or so>

'그 여자는 괜찮아요', She is all right (S: except that...) except that (S: she is too tall) she is too tall. 읽어봅니다, 시작. She is all right except that she is too tall.(S) 제가 국을 끓였어요, 그랬더니, 아빠가 먹어보시더니, 내가 어때요?, 그랬더니, 아빠가, 좀 짜지만 괜찮아, 하셨어요. 뭐라 그래요? It's all right except that it is a little salty.(S)

그럼, 몇 가지 질문만 하겠습니다. 여러분, 언제 우리가 the fact를 꼭 써줘요? 전치사 뒤에, 그리고 문장 앞에 길게 that 절이 올 때, 쓰면 좋다, 그리고 예외적으로 전치사 뒤에 바로 that 절이 오는 두 가지 경우가 in that, except that 이죠. '나하고 내 친구는 일본에 가본 적이 없다는 점에서 똑같다' My friend and I are the same in that we both have never been to Japan.(S) 하면 되겠죠. except that. 엄마가 치마 사줬을 때, 괜찮아요 너무 짧다는 것 빼고는, it's all right except that it's too short. (S) 이 두 경우 빼고는 전치사 뒤에는 the fact 와야죠. 기억하세요. feeling, impression 할 때, 과거는 the가 온다는 것, 그리고 동사는 will 써요, got 이나 had. I got the feeling, I had the feeling. 현재일 때는 a 가 온다는 것. 그리고 --일지도 몰라 라는 조동사는 may, 그리고 --일거다, 라는 조동사는 will. 구분하세요.

여러분 금요일까지 너무 수고 많았고, 주말 잘 보내시고, Have a good weekend. I'll see you guys on Monday.



Appendix 8: SPSS results on CD

8-1. Frequency tables

8-2. Relationships of self-assessment and variables

8-3. Relationships of confidence and variables

8-4. Relationships of the proportion of time and variables

8-5. Relationships of 9 situations and self-assessment/confidence

8-6. Chi-square & binomial tests

8-7. Wilcoxon tests