

## INTRODUCTION

### INTRODUCTION

This chapter summarizes the rationale, aims and questions of the study; research approach; framework for data analysis; and organization of the report.

#### 1.1 RATIONALE

The public education of English in Korea has developed since its inception in 1883 at *Dongmunhak* (name of a school) (Seog, 2000) in terms of teaching materials and methods. These developments are reflected in the textbooks and in the English teaching curricula, the first of which was made public in 1955 by the Ministry of Education. The current Curriculum took effect in 2000 after six revisions. Despite those nation-level efforts, public English teaching in Korea does not appear to have born much fruit. The common understanding is that only a limited number of university graduates with at least seven years of English education at schools and universities are able to communicate in English. Those people with fair English communicative proficiency are most likely to have had experiences of studying abroad or taking highly costly private tuition.

Korean parents are highly enthusiastic when it comes to their children's English learning. Kim (2006) reports a steady increase in the number of students leaving the country for education. The number reached 20,400 in 2005. 59% of the students

went to English speaking countries such as USA and Canada, so it is presumed that one of their purposes for leaving was to learn English.

The high interest in English education is partly due to the proportion of English in the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT) - as high as 25% of the total score. In addition, a large number of companies are recruiting employees with oral and written fluency in English.

The CSAT was first administered in 1993 as a replacement for the National College Entrance Exam. English has always been one of the subjects with a high proportion in the exam. In the CSAT, English reading comprehension questions started to be included, as well as listening comprehension questions. The new CSAT excluded grammar and vocabulary questions, which had been tested in the previous national exam. The 2004 CSAT English test included 17 listening comprehension questions and 32 reading comprehension questions. Compared to 1993, the number of listening comprehension questions doubled while the reading comprehension questions remained the same. This increase reflects the nation's increased interest in English communicative proficiency, which was also stated at the 7<sup>th</sup> National Curriculum Reformation, which took effect in February of 2000. The Ministry of Education of Korea (1997) issued a policy on the Foreign Language Education Curriculum. The policy puts emphasis on the development of communicative proficiency in English teaching and it resulted in changes in English teaching methodology and textbooks as well.

As a learner of English in Korea, I found that teachers from overseas, such as the USA and Australia, were more accepting of my comments or suggestions during English lessons. I found myself feeling much more comfortable voicing my opinions and making comments with these accepting teachers. As a student of Korean teachers, I was so concerned whether a comment was correct or wrong, or whether I was making a fool of myself in front of the peers. This concern held me back from giving my opinions, even though I generally considered myself a very active participant in lessons during my school years.

In the late 1960s language classroom researchers found the results of comparative research into teaching methods inconclusive (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). Classroom research 'simply tries to investigate what actually happens inside the classroom' (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 2). Allwright & Bailey (p. 18) argue that language learning 'happens, when it happens, as a result of the reactions among the elements that go into the crucible (classroom) - the teachers and the learners.' Classroom discourse is considered as the central means through which learning takes place (Hicks, 1996), because it constrains or empowers students' participation (Johnson, 1995).

Since the early classroom research with a focus on the structure and functions of the interactions, this research area has broadened by researchers from various backgrounds and with various perspectives and methodologies (Zuengler & Mori, 2002). In the research field of classroom discourse, the IRF interaction pattern

(1975) attracted major attention. While some scholars support the interaction structure for teaching (Newman, Griffin, & Cole, 1989), it has been challenged by a number of scholars (Barns, 1976; Edwards & Westgate, 1987; Gutierrez, 1993; Lemke, 1990). Classroom discourse studies recently have paid increasing attention to the socio-cultural aspects of classroom communication (Brooks, 1990; Green & Weade, 1985; Guan Eng, 2003; Kamberelis, 2001; Willett, 1995; Willett, Solsken, & Wilson-Keenan, 1998).

Classroom research in Korea has been limited (Lim, 2003) and mostly experimental in nature (Cho, 1998). Cho argues that limited success in Korea's educational reform is partly attributable to the limited understanding of the "venue for education (classroom)" (p.74). Secondly, according to Cho (1998), there is hardly any classroom research done by teachers in the country. Teachers appear to be uncomfortable with the idea of having an observer in their classes, however teachers would benefit greatly from reflections on their own teaching practices and others. In addition, Lim (2003) argues that in many cases there is a mismatch between Korean teachers' perceptions of their classrooms and the findings from classroom transcription-data analysis. Thirdly, classroom research has only dealt with the turn-taking patterns generally without consideration of the content of subjects, so research into content subjects is needed. Lastly, the current Curriculum may be problematic because it was supposedly designed with little understanding of the nature of classroom discourse. Furthermore, only a few

studies have been conducted on the implementation process of the current Curriculum (Lim, 2003).

## **1.2 AIMS OF THE STUDY**

A major purpose of the study is to explore the nature of classroom discourse in a secondary school in Korea with a focus on the teacher-to-whole class interaction. English classroom discourse study is necessary for the improvement of its teaching. This study is an effort to investigate English classroom discourse in terms of social practices, lesson activities, and participation framework.

A second purpose for this study is to investigate the national English Curriculum for Grade 8 that is currently in effect and the textbook that has been devised to meet the requirements prescribed in the Curriculum Statement. General understanding about the current English Curriculum is that oral communicative proficiency is emphasized more than reading or writing proficiency. This research evaluates the Curriculum and examines its underlying theoretical assumptions about language learning and teaching. The textbook will also be studied in the light of the Curriculum statement and the underpinning theory of language learning and teaching.

A third purpose for this study is to propose the use of authentic texts at a Korean secondary school, as a suggestion for an alternative to traditional use of made-up texts. Authentic texts were used in intervention lessons, and the discourse in these lessons was compared with the traditional lessons.

### 1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONSTS

Research questions are:

1. What is the assumed theory of language and language learning in the Curriculum and in the textbook?
2. What is the nature of the English class discourse in terms of interaction framework and social practices? What is the enacted curriculum like?
3. Is the use of authentic texts appropriate for teaching English to grade 8 students and does the discourse change when they are used?

The first question was formulated in order to evaluate the national policy for teaching English in Korea. The first question concerns what the current national English Curriculum states and assumes about language and language learning and how the Curriculum is enacted in lessons, and how it is realized in the textbook.

The second research question came from my personal experience as an English learner as a second language. I knew there were differences in the student-teacher interaction with Korean teachers and with foreign teachers. The second question relates to what actually happens in a grade 8 English class in Korea in terms of interaction framework, social practices as a community, and the enacted curriculum.

My third question relates to the teaching method. I want to know whether the use of authentic texts is appropriate for the students in grade 8, and how the classroom discourse changes when authentic texts are used in comparison to that in traditional lessons taught with texts from the government-approved textbook.

#### **1.4 RESEARCH METHOD**

The method for this research is qualitative (Hammersley, 1994) in that the research is not an attempt to explore causal relations between learning activities and their outcomes but it attempts to make sense of teaching practices, and to provide description of it in a social and cultural context (Wiersma, 1995) in order to inform English teaching in Korea.

The research data includes the nation's English Curriculum, the textbook, audio/video recordings and transcripts of English classes, work sheets of the teacher and students, the researcher's field notes and interviews with the research participants.

#### **1.5 FRAMEWORK FOR DATA ANALYSIS**

The analysis in this study has been informed by social semiotics (Halliday, 1978; Lemke, 1990), systemic functional grammar (Halliday, 1985), pedagogic discourse (Christie, 2002), and community of practice theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Firstly, the English Curriculum and textbook and lesson discourse has been analysed to investigate the opportunities the students have to use the target language to make meaning and to expand discursive resources in the classroom community.

Secondly, systemic functional grammar has been adopted to analyse the meanings made in terms of processes and modality.

## **1.6 ORGANIZATION OF THE REPORT**

The next chapter describes the research methodology and the research procedure. Chapter three and four review related literature. Chapter five contains an analysis of the national Curriculum and the textbook. Chapter six provides an analysis of the lesson activities. Chapter seven portrays the classroom discourses as social actions. Chapter eight discusses the findings of the study. Chapter nine concludes the study.



## METHODOLOGY

### INTRODUCTION

This chapter gives an overview of the research methodology and the research context.

### 2.1 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study has used a qualitative method of research because the data is from actual English lessons. The main aim of this study is to explore what is happening in English lessons in Korea in order to inform the teaching of English in Korea. This study 'investigate[s] what actually happens inside the classroom' (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 2). While classroom discourse studies have recently paid increasing attention to the socio-cultural aspects of classroom communication (Brooks, 1990; Green & Weade, 1985; Guan Eng, 2003; Kamberelis, 2001; Willett, 1995; Willett, Solsken, & Wilson-Keenan, 1998), classroom research in Korea has been limited (Lim, 2003) and mostly experimental in nature (Cho, 1998).

Qualitative research studies 'things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomenon in terms of the meanings people bring to them' (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 3). Instead of struggling to provide causal relations between learning activities and their outcomes this research is aimed at understanding the interactional behaviours in classrooms. Hall (1995, p. 305) states

that 'identifying the practices through which language learning communities are formed in classrooms, and following the developmental paths down which the varied uses of their resources lead will make clear the consequential roles that the learning communities, and more specifically, the communicative practices formed in our classrooms play in the construction of the very foundations of our learners' L2 development.' This study focuses on the social practices of a particular classroom rather than following learners' L2 development pathways.

This study is based on the assumption that the meaning of words are not fixed but are considered to be socially constructed and negotiated. The interpretive and qualitative study understands knowledge as 'the social and linguistic construction of a perspectival reality where knowledge is validated through practice' (Kvale, 2002, p. 300). Kvale (ibid.) also contends that 'knowledge is a linguistic and social construction of reality. There is a focus on interpretation and negotiation of the meaning of the lived world' (p. 306).

The research methods used in this study were; observation, note-taking, interviews, audiovisual recordings, and a short survey. Observation enables the researcher to '[learn] about behaviors and the meanings attached to those behaviors.' (Marshall, 1989, p. 79). Because the data is comprised of interactions in English lessons, recordings are helpful for review after the observed event is over. A short survey took place in order to 'learn about the distribution of ... characteristics ... attitudes or beliefs.' (Marshall, 1989, p. 83).

Intruders are hard to be unnoticed by the observed people, but minimization of intrusiveness was sought after in this study. The researcher sat at the back of the classroom and audio recorders were placed in inconspicuous positions. I also tried to 'develop [a role] that facilitate[s] receptivity of environments and participants, and offer rewards or benefits of some sort to motivate participants' cooperation' (Marshall, C., 1989, p. 13) by offering help to the teacher and the students.

## **2.2 RESEARCH PROCEDURE**

My interest in doing research at the middle school was expressed to the school's principal and the deputy principal through the teacher, and both of them readily allowed me to work with the teacher, including recording the teacher's lessons. There was no need for official written approval for getting access to and recording English lessons.

About two months after gaining approval, I visited the school and met with the principal and the deputy principal, and observed some lessons of the teacher in order to get used to the school environment. After that visit, I worked with the teacher on-line to plan lessons for about three and a half weeks. The textbook chapter to be taught during observation was chosen by the teacher. The title of the chapter was '*Which do you like better?*', which is Lesson 2 in Middle School English (Lee et al., 2003). The teacher also sent me her preliminary lesson plans. In order to help with her lesson planning, I decided to analyse the reading comprehension text of the chapter using Systemic Functional Grammar in terms of genre, field, tenor and mode. However, I encountered a serious problem in the text analysis

because the text was not authentic and was thus not analysable. The text was artificial and did not fall into any kind of genre. I decided to observe the lessons designed by the teacher to cover the *'Which do you like better?'* chapter, and for lessons covering the following chapter titled *'Are you interested in experiments?'* I decided to intervene in their design and implementation, and to write texts myself or adopt and adapt texts written by someone else to use in these lessons.

After consulting with my supervisor and colleagues, I decided to incorporate some basic science experiments during these lessons because 'experiment' appears in the title and in some texts in the chapter. The first five traditional lessons I recorded with an audio recorder, voice recorder and video recorder, and observed the lessons from the back of the classroom. However, for the twelve intervention lessons I worked closely with the teacher to plan lessons and sometimes assisted her during their implementation.

### **2.2.1 The students and the teacher**

The school was a middle school (Grade 7 - Grade 9) with some 850 students and was located in an average socio-economic area in Dae-jeon, one of the five biggest cities in Korea. The school was a co-ed school but the classes were divided by gender. There were four male classes and four female classes. The students in this study were 34 females from a class in Grade 8. None of the students had studied overseas. In Korea, the first school semester commences around the 2<sup>nd</sup> of March and finishes around the 20<sup>th</sup> of July and the second semester runs from around the

20<sup>th</sup> of August to the 31<sup>st</sup> of December. Semester dates vary slightly from school to school.

A total of 17 lessons were observed and recorded during the period from the 31<sup>st</sup> of March to the 18<sup>th</sup> of May in 2004. Five lessons were traditional lessons and twelve were intervention lessons. The Grade 8 students had three English lessons weekly with a Korean English teacher and one extra lesson with a native English teacher from the USA every fortnight.

The classroom was on level two of a four-level building which accommodated school classrooms and offices. In the timber-floored classroom, the 34 desks were set in six lines and five or six columns, all facing the front. At the front of the classroom was a black board almost covering the front wall, and on the front-left corner stood a wide TV monitor on a stand. The TV was connected to the teacher's laptop computer and the ADSL internet network. All the students wore school uniforms. Each class had a monitor or representative student, and sometimes there was an additional monitor for each subject. The class I worked with had a 'captain' for the English lessons as well as the general class monitor. The monitor's job includes delivering teachers' messages, monitoring classmates' behaviour, and leading the official greetings at the beginning and the end of a lesson. When the teacher entered the class for a lesson, the captain stood up while the rest of the class remained seated, and called out "*attention*" and "*bow*" and the class obeyed.

When the captain commanded “*bow*”, the class students bowed and said “*Hi*” or “*Bye*” in English.

The students took regular vocabulary quizzes, the score of which would be counted in their semester reports which determine the high school students will be able to attend. English proficiency was determined by listening tests, written tests and behaviour as well as task performance during lessons. The listening test is broadcast twice a year on the radio and administered simultaneously across the nation for the Grade 8 and upper students. The written test examines students’ vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension mostly on the basis of the textbook. To test students’ performance during lessons, the students were tested on vocabulary.

The teacher was female and it was the third year in her teaching career. She completed a four-year Bachelor degree for secondary English teaching at a tertiary institution and passed a highly competitive National Teachers Recruiting Exam in Korea. The national exam tests the applicants’ speaking skills as well as other education-related subjects. She was able to communicate in English well with me and with the native English teacher from the USA at the school. The teacher initially had refused to work with me but accepted upon the second request <sup>1</sup>. She said that she was shy about her teaching being recorded, but later she changed her

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<sup>1</sup> The teacher was a close relative of the researcher’s , so she felt comfortable about participating in this research.

mind because she thought it would be a good chance to improve her teaching practice.

### **2.2.2 English teachers in Korea**

The current low success in English learning at public schools is partly due to the low-level English proficiency and teaching skills of the teachers. Only a small percent of the English teachers in Korea are found to be competent in English (Arirang, 2001; Kim, 1999). English teachers are under greater pressure at school because of the rapidly increasing societal and governmental expectations for better English competency and teaching skills.

### **2.2.3 The English Curriculum for Grade 8**

The English curriculum is part of the *Foreign Language Education Curriculum of the 7<sup>th</sup> National Curriculum* (1997), which was introduced by the Korean Ministry of Education in 1997. The curriculum is divided into sections, including English, English I, English II, English Reading, English Conversation, and English Writing. The English course applies to primary (Grade 3 to 6) and junior-secondary (Grade 7 to 10) education as a compulsory course, while the rest of the courses are elective courses at senior-secondary education.

The Curriculum for English Education statement includes Overview, Objectives, Teaching Contents, Teaching Methods and Evaluation. The Curriculum mandates integration of core learning tasks and advanced or supplementary learning tasks. The core learning is for every student, while advanced or supplementary learning

is for high-achieving learners and under-achieving learners respectively. The Overview emphasizes that even though English education is aimed at students' developing communication skills in English, it also needs to help them develop positive values and the spirit of being independent citizens. Students also need to understand and accept other countries' cultures and cultivate a global view, cooperation and manners as global citizens.

The National Curriculum of English will be analysed in Chapter 5 and discussed in relation to its realization in lessons in Chapter 8.

### **2.3 DATA FOR THE RESEARCH**

The data for this research were audio and video recordings of English lessons and their transcripts, informal interviews, observational field notes, a short questionnaire, and artefacts - the English textbook, teacher's handouts, the national curriculum statement.

Firstly, I observed lessons of a class I wanted to study in order to get a better understanding of what was happening in the class. Observation allowed 'here-and-now experience in depth' (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 273). The focus of my observation was more general than particular. However, I took notes about students' participation and engagement in tasks and interaction with the teacher.

Secondly, I audio and video recorded the lessons and transcribed the recordings in order to investigate the discourse in depth.



Thirdly, I analysed the documents relevant to the lessons such as the national curriculum for English education and the textbook. They are '*rich* (italic in its original) source of information, contextually relevant and grounded in the contexts they represent' (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 277).

Fourthly, I conducted informal interviews with the teacher and the students before or after lessons when I had queries. In addition, I conducted a short questionnaire to find out about the students' views on English learning and their opinions about the intervention lessons.

#### **2.4 VALIDITY OF THE RESEARCH**

Qualitative research is based on the assumption that knowledge is socially constructed and 'a matter ... of communication between persons' (Kvale, 2002, 306). If knowledge is so, 'it is impossible to fix a single standard for deciding the good and right purposes, forms, and practices of ethnography' (Bochner, 2002, p. 260). However, this does not 'mean that anything goes in qualitative research' (Brizuela, Stewart, Carrillo, & Berger, 2000, p. xvi) or 'all judgments are [not] equally valid' (Smith & Deemer, 2000, p. 884).

In order to increase the validity or trustworthiness of this study, firstly, the quality of craftsmanship (Kvale, 2002) was attended to by continuous 'checking, questioning, and theoretically interpreting the findings' (p. 309). I checked for

representativeness, looked for negative evidence, and got feedback from informants.

Secondly, I endeavoured to provide a thick description, which 'creates verisimilitude; that is, truthlike statements that produce for readers the feeling that they have experienced, or could experience, the events being described. Thick descriptions are valid experiential statements, if by valid, or validity, is meant the ability to produce accounts that are sound, adequate, and able to be confirmed and substantiated' (Denzin, 1989, p. 83-4).

## **SUMMARY**

In this chapter, the research method, the research participants and research site were introduced, as well as the English Curriculum for Grade 8 that was in effect in Korea during the data collection.

## LITERATURE REVIEW (1):

### Social theory of language and language learning

#### INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews literature on the theory of language as a meaning-making resource (Halliday, 1978; Lemke, 1990), on sociocultural perspectives of language (Heath, 1983; Ochs, 1988; Ochs & Schieffelin, 1984; Rogoff, 1990; Wertsch, 1991), on a social view of language (Mickan, 2004, 2006), on a sociocognitive theory of learning (Vygosky, 1987), on the community of practice theory (Wenger, 1998), and on classroom discourse studies (Christie, 2001; Nystrand, 1997b).

#### 3.1 ENGLISH TEACHING METHODS IN KOREA

English teaching in Korea have traditionally relied on Grammar Translation method (Brown, 2000; Prator & Celce-Murcia, 1979) and Audio-lingual method (Rivers, 1964). Firstly, as the name implies, the Grammar Translation Method teaches grammar rules and involves translation between L1 and L2. In the Korean context, the method has been widely practiced by teachers (Kim, 1999; Park & Son, 2000), after the 6<sup>th</sup> National Curriculum (Education, 1998). The 7<sup>th</sup> National Curriculum (Education, 1997) stated it should be avoided. In Grammar-Translation Method English teachers lecture on grammar rules and translate L2 text in L1, mostly believing that grammar knowledge will help students develop L2 communicative competence (Park & Son, 2000). Students are instructed to

memorize grammar rules and vocabulary lists and to translate reading texts accurately. Students attend to learning of grammar and vocabulary because they are tested on these in exams. This method does not have advocates, but it is still widely practiced in language teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 1986) including in Korean schools. One of the reasons is that this method does not require high speaking competency (Kim, 1999) and a large portion of English teachers are considered to have low English speaking proficiency.

Secondly, English teaching in Korea has used the Audio-lingual method, which involves sentence pattern repetitions and imitations (Kim, 1999). Model dialogues are provided and students are required to listen to them from the teacher or the recorder and repeat after them. This teaching method is based on structural linguistics (Sapir, 1949; Saussure, 1916) and the theory of learning as behaviour building. Structuralists look at language as '*form and structure in a context-free closed system* (in his italic)' (Bell, 1981, p. 99) and Behaviourists claim that learning occurs through the processes of stimulus - response - reinforcement (Skinner, 1957). Thus, English lessons provided a large number of repetitions of sentences that have been carefully composed for the purpose of teaching English structure.

The two methods are problematic when viewed from social-cultural perspectives of language and language learning. The perspectives will be discussed in the rest of this chapter.

### 3.2 LANGUAGE AS MEANING-MAKING RESOURCE

According to Halliday (1978), 'a social reality (or a 'culture') is itself an edifice of meanings - a semiotic construct' (p. 2). Language is one of the most distinctive semiotics because 'it also serves as an encoding system for many (though not all) of the others' (Halliday, 1978, p. 2). Social semiotics studies meaning-making processes, "semiosis", rather than the system of relations among signs (Lemke, 2005; Walkerdine, 1982). This social perspective of semiotics contrasts with that of formal semiotics, which only looks at the systematic features of language in making sense of meaning (Lemke, 1990). Lemke (2005) states that 'semiotics examines semiotic practices, specific to a culture and community, for the making of various kinds of texts and meanings in various situational contexts and contexts of culturally meaningful activity' (p.3). Therefore researchers from a social semiotic perspective are interested in how the life of a community is constructed through the use of signs (Lemke, 1990). According to Lemke (1990), social semiotics are concerned with 'everything people do that is socially meaningful in a community: talking, writing, drawing pictures and diagrams, gesturing, dancing, dressing, sculpting, building - in effect, everything' (p. 186). Because every community has their own meaning-making practices, we all construe and interpret signs in ways that are socially recognisable (Gee, 1990; Lemke, 1990). Meaning-making resources include words, pictures, diagrams, sounds, special symbols, and actions (Lemke, 1992). When people interact with each other, they integrate these semiotic resources to make meanings instead of using just one. Therefore what is said, written, or drawn can be interpreted in more than one way (Lemke, 1998). Kress (2000) states that different sign modes are used more

dominantly than others in different disciplines at school. For example, in the art class 'gesture is used for demonstration ... speech is used as the mode of commentary, and as the mode of ratification. Drawing is the mode of production for the textual semiotic object' but in the drama class 'acting with one's whole (social and physical) body in spatial relations to other social and physical bodies' (Kress, 2000, p. 406). In language teaching at school, however, language may be the only focus with little recognition of other semiotic systems, whereas in other domains more than one semiotic system is used for making meaning (Short, 1992). For example, school performance tests in Korea measure students' memory of grammar, vocabulary, and translation of written texts.

### **3.3 WHAT DOES MEANING MEAN?**

Social semiotics views meaning as an active process generated through social interaction, even as a 'social relation' (Walkerdine, 1982). Social semiotics is related to the process of meanings being made as well as the product of meanings made (Chapman, 1993). Language, when viewed from the social semiotic perspective, is a resource for making meaning (Halliday, 1978). Language has evolved to perform functions for humans and it is reflected in grammatical organization (Christie, 2002). Halliday (1978) interprets the meaning of language in functional terms:

Language is being regarded as the encoding of 'behaviour potential' into a 'meaning potential'; that is, as a means of expressing what the human organism 'can do', in interaction with other human organisms, by turning it into what he (sic) 'can mean'. What he can mean (the semantic system) is, in

turn, encoded into what he 'can say' (the lexicogrammatical system, or grammar and vocabulary) (p. 21).

According to Halliday, language serves three metafunctions; 'to talk about what is happening, what will happen, and what has happened (Ideational metafunction), to interact and/or to express a point of view (Interpersonal metafunction), to turn the output of the previous two functions into a coherent whole (Textual metafunction)' (Butt, Fahey, Feez, Spinks, & Yallop, 2000, p. 5).

The meaning of a sign, for example, a text, or 'any instance of language that is operational' (Halliday, 1975, p. 123), does 'not exist as objects or concrete facts' (Chapman, 1993, p. 35). Meaning, as Rommetveit (1983) argues, is decided on 'what at the moment of utterance is taken for granted by both conversation partners' (p. 18). In Volosinov's terms (1973, p. 102), 'meaning does not reside in the word or in the soul of the speaker or in the soul of the listener. Meaning is the effect of interaction between speaker and listener.' Therefore, meaning is socially made or co-constructed, so communication requires the participants' ceaseless work to interpret a text (Firth & Wagner, 1997).

Socially made meaning is possible because 'the participants share about [sic] the choices that are available in each successive move' (Haneda, 2004, p. 183). The choices are limited by the context of the interaction. Liddicoat (1997, p. 313) argues that 'actual instances of language cannot be extracted from the linguistic and non-linguistic context in which they occur. Sentences and utterances come to be seen not as isolated, self-contained artefacts of language, but rather as linguistic and

social actions within a specific context and designed with that context in mind.’ In other words, the three meta functions of language are construed and interpreted by participants with consideration of the context of the situation and culture (Butt et al., 2000) and in Lemke’s terms (1990) ‘every action is made meaningful by placing it in some larger context’ (p. 187). The theory of understanding an utterance by placing it in context dates back to Malinowski (1923), who states that an utterance ‘becomes intelligible when it is placed within its *context of situation*’ (p. 306).

The notion of context, however, is often treated as ‘a general background which functions to set the scene so that the real drama can unfold’ (Gilbert, 1992, p. 39), but it is a very complicated concept. Developing Malinowski’s concept of *context of situation* and Firth’s *context of culture*, Systemic Functional (SF) theorists argue that ‘any text is a condition of the context of situation which it both realizes, and of which it is a part’ (Christie, 2002, p. 20). The context, therefore, is not a fixed setting, but it is continuously reshaped by the text jointly constructed by the conversants (Duranti & Goodwin, 1992; Gutierrez, 1993). Gee & Green (1998) used the term *reflexivity* to refer to ‘the way in which language always takes on a specific meaning from the actual context in which it is used, while, simultaneously, helping to construct what we take that context to mean and be in the first place’ (p. 127). Similarly, Heap (1980) defines context as,

‘a gloss for a larger collection of things, like rules – who the speaker and hearers are; who they take each other to be; how much they know about each other; how much they know that the others know about them; their reasons for interacting,



for doing whatever they are now doing together; their beliefs and assumptions about what the others believe and assume about the intent of what they are doing together' (p. 283).

Therefore, context includes the relationship of the interactants and the constructions of what people do in interactions (F. Erickson & Schultz, 1981) as well as the physical background. The physical features of the context includes the physical artefacts as well as interactants' contextualization cues (Gumperz, 1982) such as 'pitch, stress, intonation, pause, juncture, proxemics (distance between speakers, spatial organization of speakers), eye gaze, and kinesics (gesture, body movement, and physical activity)' (Gee & Green, 1998, p. 122). Erickson (1996) includes timing as a contextualization cue. Sometimes, students fail to get teacher's attention because of the wrong timing in making an utterance in relation to the teacher's nonverbal prosody such as gaze and hand movements.

When interpreting or construing a text, people do it also by drawing on her/his prior knowledge, experiences, and texts (Ruddle & Unrau, 1994). Bloom & Egan-Robertson (1993) consider the meaning of a text in relation to other texts. They claim that 'the meaning of an utterance or other language act derives not from the content of its words, but rather from its interplay with what went before and what will come later' (p. 309). As Lemke (1992) states 'every text, the discourse of every occasion, makes its social meanings against the background of other texts, and the discourses of other occasions' (p. 257).

Apart from the contextualization cues and intertextual relations, interaction is mediated by the sociohistorical elements of the interactants such as 'gender, social class, race, religion, and geographical region, ... other social and professional groups ... to which we and our interactants belong' (Hall, 1995, p. 215). Thus linguistic and paralinguistic choices differ among people according to their social backgrounds. When children learn a language, they are "socialized' into [the] value systems and behaviour patterns of the culture through the use of language at the same time as [they are] learning it' (Halliday, 1978, p. 23). In Hall's(1995) terms, the way we interact with others is 'mediated by our perceptions and evaluations of these groups (such as gender, social class, race, religion, and geographical region, ... other social and professional groups) to which we and other interactants belong' (p. 215). Christie (2002, p. 7) claims that 'language is never neutral, for it is necessarily involved in the realization of values and ideologies; just as it serves to realize such values and ideologies, it also serves to silence others.' However, the language provided in English textbooks, particularly in Korea, is constructed neutral with little awareness of the social aspects of language. Students who studied with this kind of language will not be prepared for social discursive practices where the social elements play important roles.

These social elements are not significant to psycholinguistics and formal semioticians. It is the lexical items and the grammatical structure that have been the main concern of the psycholinguistics and formal semioticians without acknowledgment of the significance of the paralinguistic features and the social

nature of communication. In language lessons influenced by psycholinguistics, word meanings and language use have been considered as 'the constructed system of elements removed from their practices and community of users' (Hall, 1995, p. 209). A word or a phrase is considered as having one absolute meaning, which cannot be changed or modified. Lesson activities in the traditional lesson, therefore, are dominated with grammar explanation and memorizing the spellings and meanings of L2 words and phrases. The texts are designed and created for the achievement of the lesson goals mostly at the elementary level.

### **3.4 LANGUAGE LEARNING AS LEARNING HOW TO MEAN AND HOW TO PARTICIPATE**

A social semiotician sees language learning as 'learning how to mean in that (target) language - learning the resources for making meaning in context' (Matthiessen, 2005, n. p.). The resources are multimodal: 'visual, auditory, tactile, kinaesthetic, gustatory, or olfactory - represented in various public forms such as paintings, music, dance, poetry, and film' (Pataray-Ching & Kavanaugh-Anderson, 1999, n. p.). Learners, from this perspective, are 'expanding their resources for meaning, their meaning potential, rather than making a transition from errors in rules to the correct form of rules' (Mohan, 2001, p. 4). Chappelle (i.e.1998, p.2) views language acquisition as 'learning how to express meanings acquiring the functions one can perform with human language.' In addition, a child learns language 'in order to achieve something - to understand the environment, to feel close to family members, to obtain desired goods, and so on' (Painter, 1989p. 62).

As for language learning, a child's language develops through interaction, or 'an ongoing exchange of meanings with significant others' Halliday (1978, p. 1) and in the interaction, the child uses the language to make it do something for him or her (Halliday, 1975). The need for language learners to use the target language for learning is stated by Beckett, Gonzalez, & Schwartz (2004, p. 164), who theorize that L2 learning is 'essentially the learning of the language, learning about the language, and learning through the use of the language'. However, L2 teaching has had a focus very often in learning *about* the language, at least in the Korean secondary school context.

Ochs and Schieffelin (Ochs, 1988; Ochs & Schieffelin, 1984) have theorized about the social nature of learning in their language socialization (LS) studies. Ochs & Schieffelin (1984) compared language socialization in three societies - the Anglo-American white middle class, the Kaluli, and the Samoan. From this study, they concluded that the ways the children participate in social events are different and that these ways affect the form, the function and content of the children's language. According to LS studies, children learn language through social interaction and they develop social competence through communicative practices 'since language practices, both on the level of the particular communicative event and general communicative practices, are culturally structured and organized' (Leung, 2001, p. 3). These social views of language contrast with psychological views of language learning, which focus on the mind of a language learner.

Swain and Lapkin (1998) describe how language is learned in dialogue, drawing on Donato's study (1994), LaPierre's study (1994) and their own study on two Grade 8 French immersion students. The transcript of the students' dialogue doing a task revealed examples of L2 learning through talking about language. If all learning only happens socially, in interaction or dialogue, mental processes used to solve a problem, including linguistic one, are manifested in dialogue (Swain & Lapkin, 1998). Their theory presupposes that 'learning does not happen outside performance; it occurs *in performance*' (Swain & Lapkin, 1998, p. 321). Therefore, research on students' performances is essential for a good understanding of their language development. However, research on the performances of L2 learners in the Korean context is limited.

Lave & Wenger (1991), drawing on a social view of learning, theorize the process of learning from a participation perspective. They claim that learning takes place when the learners move from *legitimate peripheral participation* to full participation in the community. Watson-Gegeo (2004, p. 341) elaborated the term of *legitimate participation* to be 'the incorporation of learners into the activities of communities of practice, beginning as a legitimated (recognized) participant on the edges (periphery) of the activity, and moving through a series of increasingly expert roles as learners' skills develop'. Participation becomes 'both the goal as well as the means of learning' (Kong & Pearson, 2003, p. 88). Drawing on Lave & Wenger, Toohey (1998) states that 'learning is a process whereby newcomers to a community participate in attenuated ways with old-timers in the performance of

community practices' (p. 63). Etienne Wenger (1998) defines a community of practice along three dimensions (p. 2):

- What it is about – its joint enterprise as understood and continually renegotiated by its members
- How it functions – mutual engagement that bind members together into a social entity
- What capability it has produced – the shared repertoire of communal resources (routines, sensibilities, artefacts, vocabulary, styles, etc.) that members have developed over time.

A class is a community of practice viewed from the three criteria above. First, the members operate under the joint enterprise of education in an educational institution, either as an educator or educatees. A particular class in the educational institution is organized for the teaching and learning of a specific subject, theme, and topic. Secondly, a class functions following rules that have been established officially or unofficially. These rules are continually renegotiated in the practices of the community. Thirdly, a class develops shared understanding of things such as routines, vocabulary, or artefacts.

Smith (2003) argues that people belong to more than one community of practice. When people join a new community, they will slowly appropriate the language, skills, and perspectives of the community in order to jointly participate in the community's social activities (Willett, 1995). According to Lave & Wenger (1991) 'learners inevitably participate in communities of practitioners and ... the mastery of knowledge and skill requires newcomers to move toward full participation in the socio-cultural practices of a community' (cited in Smith, 2003, p. 29). Young

and Miller (2004) studied a student's change in participation in the *revision talk*, which is the talk between a learner and a teacher on the learner's writing for revision. The study showed that the participation framework changed both linguistically and para-linguistically as in gestures and body movements. The amount of talk by the learner increased as time passed and the learner started to begin writing the revision without the instructor's prompts. Young and Miller (2004) found that the learner, 4 weeks after the initial meeting with the instructor for revision of the learner's writing, was performing many of the eight acts that constitute revision talk.

The theory of the community of practice does not prioritise linguistic aspects and marginalize the non-linguistic aspects, as some social linguists do, but brings the practice or activity to the focus of analysis (Bucholtz, 1999). In communities of practice 'the boundaries are determined not externally by linguists, but internally through ethnographically specific social meanings of language use... ethnographic methods therefore become crucial to the investigation of communities of practice' (Bucholtz, 1999, p. 214).

Studies of language learning have been reviewed as learning how to mean and how to participate in practices of community. Now, research on learning language in classroom contexts will be reviewed.

### 3.5 LANGUAGE TEACHING IN A SCHOOL CONTEXT

A language class provides a community of practice, thus opportunities to learn language practices. For example, learners will learn how a socially more powerful person talks to a less powerful one, through observation of their teacher's talk to themselves. The teacher would directly show how people with lower social power, the students in the classroom community, are supposed to talk to a person in a socially higher position, the teacher. Interaction among people with the same social power would be developed through peer interaction. Thus a classroom provides 'sufficient authentic potential for communication' (Breen, 1985 cited in Guariento & Morley (2001)).

Because learning is intrinsically social, a class, a social and cultural community, provides opportunities for learning. Through participation in classroom activities, students will be involved in 'culturally organized activities in which cultural tools play a role, a [learner] may 'appropriate' the meaning and use of the culturally devised tool, resulting in cognitive change' (Jarvis & Robinson, 1997). Mican (2004) stresses that classroom talk around activities is rich and various, and the classroom provides authentic contexts for authentic target language interaction and thus for target language development. In language lessons, participants are engaged in ordinary classroom life and its communicative practices as well as interactions around the intended curriculum. These practices are considered as such 'powerful forces of group socialization and learning' because 'they have within them the fundamental temporal, spatial, and social units that underlie the social system of a group and are the point at which the social and the individual



come together and mutually shape each other' (Hall, 1993, p. 149). Since communicative practices at a class provide opportunities for learning, the study of these practices provides insight into the nature and potentials for language development in an English class.

Traditional language teaching in Korea was influenced by structural linguistics which focuses on teaching grammar and translation. This teaching practice is underpinned by the assumption that language learning is an individual matter and students, and when they have acquired knowledge of language structure, students will subsequently be able to use the knowledge in discursive practices (Lemke, 1994). Lemke, however, in the same article, argues that students cannot speak the language through learning its structure. This argument is consistent with Gee's (1990) statement that 'a person can know the *grammar* of a language and still not know how to *use* that language' (p. 139). Therefore learners should be engaged in the discursive practices with the target language from the early stages of learning, as people learn their first language (Hall, 1995).

The classroom is a community where members establish and follow rules of behaviour (Green, 1983a, 1983b). Just as community actions occur and recur following certain rules and conventions (Lemke, 1990) or routines (Willett, 1995), so too does the classroom community. Hall & Walsh (2002, p. 187) claim that participants in such classrooms 'construct a body of knowledge' and 'create mutual understandings of their roles and relationships, and the norms and

expectations of their involvement as members in their classrooms. ... [T]hrough interactions with their teachers, students are socialized into particular understandings of what counts as the official curriculum and of themselves as learners of that subject matter'. Class routine practices and interactions, then, are closely linked to students' learning.

Rules of participation are implicitly signalled by participants' practices more than an explicit list of rules on the board (Green & Weade, 1985, p.16). According to Green & Weade (1985), 'rules exist as a set of expectations for what to do and how to be that are signalled, resignalled, and reinforced over time as part of the everyday interactions between teachers and students' (p. 16). They also argue that it is when some behaviours are ritualised that a classroom culture is established. Green and Weade (1985) contend that 'lessons are constructed through the verbal and nonverbal interactions between teachers and students' (p.20) and the interaction often relies on such cues as 'pitch, stress, intonation, pauses, body language, proxemic distance, rhythm, and flow of the activity' (p.20). Students who do not have an understanding of the rules, for example the timing of answering teacher's questions (F. Erickson, 1996), and do not answer quickly enough can be considered as having no idea of the questions by the teacher.

Students learn language through socialization, or participation in the school community's joint and language-mediated practices, events and activities. A beginning second language learner, viewed from the community of practice

perspective, is seen as 'a new comer beginning to participate in the practices of a particular community' (Toohey, 1996, p. 553). In the foreign language classroom, particularly for beginners, the class community operates primarily around the semiotic system of the learners' first language and the minimum use of the target language. Therefore, the pedagogic goal of language teaching is to lead the learners to formulate the shared semiotic system of the new language with the teacher in the classroom so that they can participate in the communities where the language is used for social practices. Due to the limited shared linguistic resources among class members at the beginner level, effective use of other semiotic resources, such as diagrams and pictures will be necessary.

Schieffelin & Ochs (1986, p. 167-168) argue that knowing a community's language entails 'acquiring knowledge of its functions, social distribution, and interpretations in and across socially defined situations.' Therefore, to obtain membership of a community, new comers need to be able to 'function in the discourse acceptable for the community' (Beckett et al., 2004, p. 164). Learning in a community also entails 'picking up the jargon, behaviour, and norms of a new social group as well as adopting the group's belief systems' (Iddings, 2005, p. 166). Therefore, knowing a language entails knowing how to participate in the social as well as discursive practices with the use of the language, and knowing the social and discursive practices that differ among communities in the nature and patterns. This is relevant to the impact of home discursive practices on school performances

because of the different communicative/discursive practices at home and at school (Cook-Gumperz & Gumperz, 1982; Johnson, 1995).

The language class, particularly EFL classroom community, is different from professional practitioners' community, in that there is usually one expert (the teacher) and a number of novices or new comers (the students). However, Haneda (1997) states that students apprentice each other among themselves, as well as the teacher apprentices the students, into the community of practice of a class. In regards to participation in the language classroom, Asian students are claimed to be passive and reticent in classroom, but Motteram (2006) points out a possible relevance of reticence to the choice of task, power, choice of topic, and lack of understanding. Their passive and reticent participation is partly attributable to the socio-cultural influence and students' low confidence, proficiency, or motivation (Huang, 2005).

Kong & Pearson (2003) identify five essential ways in their study on how a teacher promoted students' participation. First, students as well as the teacher felt safe about sharing their previous experience and knowledge. Second, students were provided with opportunities to interact among themselves about the texts, thus jointly created meaning. Third, students were challenged to think critically and reflectively about the texts. Fourth, the teacher employed a variety of teaching modes: telling, modelling, coaching, scaffolding, facilitating, and participating. Fifth, the teacher held high expectations for students' achievement. Furthermore,

according to Toohey et al. (2000), student participation in a classroom was maximized when there was release of authority by the teacher thus a more balanced relationship between the teacher and students and among students, because students' participation is influenced by relations with the teacher.

Gibbons (2003) shows how a teacher can direct students to the appropriate discourse of a science subject. Students' current knowledge and English was accommodated to pedagogic knowledge and language by the teacher's 'recasting, signalling to the students how they can self-reformulate, indicating where a reformulation is needed but handing this task over to the learner, and modelling alternative ways of recontextualising personal knowledge' (2003, p. 267). Teaching that way, the teacher is considered as the holder of knowledge and is held responsible for the learning of students.

However, Rogoff (1994) and Toohey et al (Toohey et al., 2000) suggest that students, not only the teacher, need to play roles as knowledge holders. Rogoff (1994, cited in Toohey et al., 2000) suggests that a community of learners is the one where 'both mature and less mature members of the community share responsibility for structuring and directing community activities, taking on roles that are both asymmetrical and variable from one situation to another' (n. p.). According to Darlton (1989), as quoted by Tharp & Gallimore (1989, p. 51), teaching should be a 'warm, interpersonal, and collaborative activity.' Wells and Chang-Wells (1992) states that the collaborative mode of interaction where the

teacher and the students have equal status as community members, has unique features. Firstly, roles of experts are distributed among members rather than being assigned only to the teacher. Secondly, the teacher's contribution follows attentive listening to the students' topics and purposes just as in the parent-child talks on topics of mutual interest.

Goldenberg (1992/1993) argues that 'richly textured opportunities for students' conceptual and linguistic development' (p. 317) are created through Instructional Conversations. The elements of the Instructional Conversations (Goldenberg, 1992/1993, p. 319) are: Thematic focus; Activation and use of background and relevant schemata; Direct teaching; Promotion of more complex language and expression; Elicitation of bases for statements or positions; Fewer "known-answer" questions; Responsivity to student contributions; Connected discourse; A challenging, but nonthreatening atmosphere; and General participation, including self-selected turns. Donato (2000), drawing on Sanford (1996) and Todhunter's (1996) reports, states that instructional conversations do occur in the elementary language class but it do not take place consistently throughout a lesson. The instructional conversation occurs more outside the planned lesson in the management talk and extension activities. Wells and Chang-Wells (1992) also suggest that the systematic construction of knowledge as the major goal of education 'will be best achieved when it is recognized that knowledge has to be constructed by individual students through the progressive extending and

modifying of their existing knowledge that occurs when they attempt to make sense of new information and experience (p. 99).'

It is important to note, however, that the nature of community of practice is not static but keeps reshaping through participants' practice. There are *micropolitics of social interaction*, which are the ways in which 'people not only construct shared understandings in the process of interaction, they also evaluate and contest those understandings as they struggle to further their individual agendas' (Willett, 1995, p. 475). Furthermore, new community members and language learners do not blindly appropriate the language and culture of a new community (Willett, 1995), but they translate others' words, co-opt some while rejecting others, 'as [they] come to understand, engage in, and attempt to bring together and cohere the infinitely varied moments of our daily lives' (Hall, 1995, p. 219). The dynamics of social relation among members of a class community, then, become an essential element for a good understanding of class practices.

Slimani (1992) points out the significance of joint construction of the classroom discourse. Students, as they are socialized into the secondary socialization, do not just accept what is taught by the teacher they undergo transformation of and/or resistance to socialization into a classroom or school (Cole & Zuengler, 2003). This implies that there could be cultural mismatch between the students and the language teacher who is influenced by and socialized into the target language culture.

In regards to language teaching methods, Gee (1996) contends that language cannot be 'mastered by overt instruction, but by enculturation (apprenticeship) into social practices through scaffolded and supported interaction with people who have already mastered the Discourse' (p. 139). However, Hall (1993, p. 150) argues that learners should be provided with opportunities to analyse texts, or performances, 'so that they can analyse the kinds of linguistic resources that are needed and the ways in which they are used by native speakers to perform competently'. Because 'a great deal of discourse is more or less routinized' (Halliday, 1978, p. 4), explicit learning of the routines would be beneficial to the learner's process of becoming a social member of the language classroom. This analysis of texts, or language in use, is vastly different from that of the traditional grammar learning, which has been dominated by the artificially created sentences or texts. Walkerdine (1982) also argues for active investigation of language for language learning. Mican (2004, p. 194) claims that 'from interactions with others' spoken and written utterances, learners borrow and take over the discourse resources for taking part in material and mental actions themselves.' Language teaching, then, needs an appropriate inclusion of overt instruction of language in use, or texts.

As to the language of instruction in lessons, the Ministry of Education of Korea (1997) recommends the use of English as instructional language in the Seventh National Curriculum for Middle schools (Grades 7-10). This is based on the



generally known assumption that the use of L1 in learning L2 impedes language learning, and is a sign of language deficiency (Liebscher & Dailey-O'cain, 2005), so the ideal language classroom excludes the use of L1 (Cook, 2001). However, in the past decade, the use of L1 has been discussed in relation to issues of 'language acquisition, identity, and the acceptance of the bilingual rather than the monolingual speaker as the norm' (Liebscher & Dailey-O'cain, 2005, p. 234). Cook (2001) and Liebscher & Dailey-O'cain (2005) argue that when the goal of language teaching is to develop bilingualism, the use of L1 in the language classroom is not problematic. They also found that not only the teacher but also the learners code-switch to L1 in order to contextualize their meaning, therefore the L1 is used as a resource for meaning-making and the switch-code patterns are similar to those in non-classroom data.

Learners' code-switching has been studied in terms of discourse functions and strategies in other studies (Auer, 1998; Grosjean, 1982; Gumperz, 1982; Myers-Scotton, 1993; Nogami, 2006) as well as of linguistic aspects (Poplack, 1980). While linguistically oriented research into code-switching strives to find grammatical rules governing the code-switching practices, the sociolinguistic approach to the practice seeks to find social meaning of the switches. Cook (2001) summarized the argued reasons for avoiding the L1 in the classroom when the teacher and students share L1. Firstly, it is argued that the L2 learning should not involve any other language, because children learn L1 without any other language. The second reason is that L2 is developed in the learner's mind separately from the L1. The

third reason comes from the argument for the need to provide learners with as much L2 experience as possible. Cook (ibid.) agrees that learners need maximum exposure to the target language, but she argues that this does not necessitate the avoidance of L1. Cook also states that L2 learning cannot be compared with the L1 learning, because L2 learners are likely to be more mature cognitively and socially and they already know how to mean with a language. According to her, deliberate L1 avoidance makes classroom interaction rather unnatural, and the L1 can sometimes be more efficient to explain meanings and grammar, to instruct tasks, to discipline and gain contacts with individual students (i. e. when a student has a coughing fit), and to run tests. Lin (1999a) stated that students' resentment toward English learning was high when the teacher used L2 exclusively. Lin's (1999a) study described an English reading lesson with students with very limited English from low socio-economic backgrounds. The teacher in the lesson did not use L2, English, exclusively, but used the L1 strategically for the students to gain confidence in L2 learning.

The pedagogic goal of English instruction is to teach students to be able to speak the target language and participate in social practices using that language. Literature shows that the goal is achieved when learners have opportunities to use the language to achieve their social purposes, or to make meaning. However, for the very beginners in learning a new language, the sole use of L2 is not always beneficial because they do not have enough resources for expressing meaning. They may use other semiotic resources, such as diagram or body language, but

when time is constrained as in institutional lessons, relying on them is not very efficient. To what degree the L1 should be allowed is yet to be researched.

So far, research on classroom language teaching has been discussed. In the next section, research on classroom discourse will be reviewed.

### **3.6 CLASSROOM DISCOURSE STUDIES**

Research on English classrooms in terms of the interaction patterns of English as a first language (Nystrand, 1997a), as a second language (Lin, 1999a, 1999b), and as a foreign language (Console, 2000; Cullen, 2002; Duff, 2000; Hall, 1997) has showed the dominance of IRF structure of exchange of utterances. Nunan (1987) and Dinsmore (1985) argued that the IRF (Initiate – Response – Feedback) pattern should be abandoned from as a feature of the traditional instruction because it is not genuine (Seedhouse, 1996). However, the interaction structure is inevitable in educational discourse and there is frequent use of the IRF structure in parent-child interaction and the structure is prevalent in institutional discourse (Seedhouse, 1996).

Cullen (2002, p. 118) argues that the IRF exchange structure is dominant because it is ‘a powerful pedagogic device for transmitting and constructing knowledge.’ The IRF’s major function is to maintain the teacher’s power and authority in classrooms (Toohey et al., 2000). Even when the Initiation turn is made by a student in the form of question, the teacher still has the tool of counter-question to put the student in the Response turn (Markee, 2004). A difference in the structure

between parent-child interaction and classroom interaction is that the very normal or almost obligatory feedback move in classrooms (Cullen, 2002) is only 'optional and unpredicted' (Francis & Hunston, 1992, p. 136) in interactions outside lessons. Given the prevalent existence of the IRF structure, the issue is to make best use of the structure for effective teaching. The significance of the feedback move for learning has been argued in a number of studies (Anton, 1999; Cullen, 2002; Edwards & Mercer, 1987; Jarvis & Robinson, 1997; Nassaji & Wells, 2000). Nassaji and Wells (2000) also argued that students' contributions increased, depending on the teacher's follow-up moves. The evaluative feedback move in the language classroom often focuses on 'the form of the learner's response: whether, for example, the lexical item or grammatical structure provided by the learner was acceptable or not' (Cullen, 2002, p. 119). Cullen (*ibid.*) argues that the discorsal feedback focuses on the content not on the form of the students' responses and that the teacher has to develop the skills to make the right choice of feedback for effective teaching. Cullen (*ibid.*) identified five types of 'discorsal' feedback: Reformulation, Elaboration, Comment, Repetition, and Responsiveness.

In language instruction the teaching of the linguistic form is essential, because meaning is expressed through linguistic as well as paralinguistic resources. Students' contributions to lesson discourse increase when the teacher gives discorsal feedback. Talking about text meets the two needs. Through talking about texts with the teacher's discorsal feedback, students will have opportunities to learn how linguistic resources realize meaning in context.

O'Connor and Michaels (1996) demonstrate how teachers can socialize and scaffold students into intellectual practices such as the explicating of reasoning and the providing of evidence through the scaffolding tool of *revoicing*, 'a particular kind of reuttering (oral or written) of a student's contribution - by another participant in the discussion' (p. 71). An example of revoicing is as follows.

Student: Well, I think that Smith's work is really not relevant here  
because she only looked at adults.

Teacher: So you agree with Tom then, you're suggesting that Smith is  
irrelevant to language acquisition of young children?

Student: Yeah. (O'Connor & Michaels, 1996, p. 71)

Revoicing may be effective in language lessons because through it the teacher can provide appropriate use of language for students' inappropriate use in a specific discourse.

Nystrand (1997a) claims that teachers maintain control of lessons through repetition or recitations, often realized in the IRF structure, and the students, engaged in them often lose enthusiasm for learning and 'their work is often superficial, mindless, and quickly forgotten' (p. 3). Learners learn better through voicing their understandings and thereby elaborating their 'interpretive framework' (Nystrand, 1997b) rather than reciting others' thoughts, which is more common in knowledge transmission classes. Learning occurs when learners voice both their perspective and others' perspectives (Hanson, Boogaard, & Herrlitz, 2003). According to Hanson, Boogaard, & Herrlitz (2003) a space for different perspectives will be created in the classroom when the teacher takes all answers

seriously and encourages students to answer in relation to their personal experiences.

Learners can be involved in longer sequences of dialogue with the teacher when the teacher asks about the content of the students' utterances (Haneda, 2004). According to Haneda (ibid.) when the topic is the language form, the exchange is more monologic, but the talk about language form can become dialogic by giving students opportunities to identify and solve errors in their language use (Koshik, 2002). Talking about language students used to express their meaning is a making-meaning practice. This practice enables students to make sense of the relation of language use to meaning in context.

Even though the IRF interaction pattern maybe dominant in some lessons, some studies have found classroom discourse to be heterogenous in 'speech genres, speech styles, social languages, and cultural practices' (Kamberelis, 2001, p. 86). Through this heterogeneity, Kamberelis (2001) and Willet et al. (1998) claim it can create dynamic interactions, facilitate students' learning, and more demographic forms of pedagogy. Kamberelis (2001) illustrated the cases of *hybrid discourse practice* in the classroom in which teacher's personal story or students' pop culture knowledge and discourse are woven into the more formal and authoritative schooling. Hybrid discourse provides 'scaffolds for learning because they amplify and contextualize the meanings of the materials and tasks at hand' (ibid, p. 120)

and helps students understand the new knowledge by linking it to their current knowledge.

The classroom discourse has also been studied by use of systemic functional grammar (Christie, 2002; Schleppegrell, 2001; Schleppegrell, Achugar, & Oteiza, 2004). The systemic functional grammar is a good tool for investigation of classroom discourse in terms of the functions of language. This study is an attempt to examine lesson discourse in Korean context using the tool.

This literature review has explored social perspectives of language and language learning, particularly in school settings. The social nature of language and language learning has been adopted in designing the national policy for language education in Australia. For example, the genre-based approach has been implemented. Korea has made great efforts to improve English education to produce people with fluent speaking skills. Studies of English teaching in Korea in general and particularly from social perspectives are rare. There is a need for research influenced by social theory.

## **SUMMARY**

In this chapter, I have reviewed the social nature of language and language learning of L1 and L2 from the social semiotics and socio linguistics perspective; language teaching at a school context; and the studies of classroom pedagogic discourse. Language is learned socially from experience with discursive practices with help from the experienced person or people.

## LITERATURE REVIEW (2)

### Text-based language teaching and content-based language teaching

#### INTRODUCTION

This chapter will review literature related to the concept of literacy and text-based language teaching, as well as the literature on the benefits and challenges of content based language teaching.

#### 4.1 LITERACY AND TEXT-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING

The assumption that spoken language is more basic than written language appears to be accepted by some language teachers (Cook, 2001). The little attention paid to the role of literacy in classroom language learning has a long history in applied linguistics. In the US, linguistics originated in the documentation of indigenous languages that did not have writing systems (Harklau 2002); linguists were strongly influenced by Saussure and believed that 'texts serve only to represent and encode spoken language, rather than being a parallel or alternate form of representing' (Harklau, 2002, p. 332). Harklau (ibid.) also claims that even sociolinguists (Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972) tend to foreground spoken face-to-face interaction as the primary mode of interaction. Moreover, comprehensive studies of second language acquisition (Ellis, 1990; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991) do not deal with literacy in any depth, and the studies on



classroom second language acquisition in the US has taken face-to-face interaction and spoken discourse as the focal unit of analysis (Harklau, 2002).

Harklau (2002), however, asserts that second language learners pay more attention to written texts and the students preferred to work with them than to speak. In fact, Harklau (ibid.) argues that there are only limited chances for the students to have spoken interaction in the classroom but they are more engaged in classroom discourse through the written mode. Literacy-related activities take up more than a half of the classroom activities, for example in the US (Harklau, 2002). She also stresses the prevalence of written materials in classrooms and the most likely possession of literacy of at least one language by the second language students in high schools.

Language teaching needs to consider the social practices around spoken and written language. The advent of new technology and the internet makes it difficult to distinguish between spoken and written language completely. The two modes of language are often closely linked and influence each other. Gee (1990b, p. 43) argues that 'literacy practices are almost always fully integrated with, interwoven into, constitute part of, the very texture of wider practices that involve talk, interaction'. Barton (2001, p. 100) argues that 'nearly all everyday activities in the contemporary world are mediated by literacy.' Texts are integrated into our daily communication, as our world is a 'textually mediated social world' (Barton, 2001). Home conversation, for example, often includes talking about bills, books,

newspaper articles, and e-mail. Literacy is an essential element for economic transactions and for work (Luke, 1993). Literacy studies, according to Barton (2001), is the concept that integrates texts into the notion of interaction. Literacy events in the literacy studies include the one which includes talk about a text or around a text, or the one which does not contain talk at all. Language teaching could be limited to only the written language or only the spoken language (Barton, 2001).

Originally limited to the written language, the notion of text has evolved to include 'the oral and visual texts of the social actions of members' (Floriani, 1994, p. 245). In Lemke's (1990) terms, it includes 'everything people do that is socially meaningful in a community: talking, writing, drawing pictures and diagrams, gesturing, dancing, dressing, sculpting, building - in effect, everything' (p. 186).

Traditionally, literacy has been studied and taught from the view that it is 'an autonomous, asocial, cognitive skill with little or nothing to do with human relationship' (Gee, 1990b, p. 49). The traditional theory of literacy claim[s] that literacy (or schooling, for that matter) has cognitive effects apart from the context in which it exists and the uses to which it is put in a given culture' (Gee, 1990b, p. 59). This traditional psychology-based view interprets literacy as the ability to read and write, therefore its focus is on individuals acquiring reading and writing skills (Street, 2003).

According to social theory of literacy, however, a literate person 'possesses a range of skills that enable them to participate fully in all aspects of modern society, from the workforce to the family to the academic community' (Kasper, 2000, p. 105). Wade and Moje (2001) summarizes literacy skills as 'comprehending what is read, reflecting on and evaluating what is learned through oral and written texts, becoming aesthetically engaged in reading and writing processes, and knowing how to find and use knowledge in new situations to achieve personal and social goals' (p. 105). The definition of literacy, then, goes beyond the knowledge of how to read and write. Luke (1993, p. 10) states that learning literacy 'not only involves learning how to make sense with the lexicogrammatical patterns of textual language but also entails learning a schema for what literacy is, how to use it, when, where and to what possible ends'.

Halliday (1996) summarizes a number of abilities of what it is to be literate: the ability to engage with language in written form, the ability to operate with a writing system of one kind, the ability to use the lexico-grammatical patterns of a written text, the construction of an 'objectified' world through the grammar of the written language, the ability to use the current technology of writing to participate in social processes, the ability to verbalize semiotic systems and to find out what meaning is lost or imposed in the verbalization, the ability to construct relationship between text and context, and the mastery of the written genres and the awareness of ideological force.

Since literacy is socially learned, and is influenced by social value and power, a human is thus socialized into literacy (Gee, 1990b). Olson (1994) claims that 'in writing and writing texts one participates in a 'textual community' a group of readers (and writers and auditors) who share a way of reading and interpreting a body of texts' (p. 273). Literacy is 'always rooted in a particular world-view and in a desire for that view of literacy to dominate and to marginalize others' (Street, 2003, p. 78). Street (2003) defines literacy practices as 'the broader cultural conception of particular ways of thinking about and doing reading and writing in cultural contexts' (p. 79).

Thus, the social view of literacy does not perceive literacy competence as 'absolute levels of skill' but as 'relational concepts defined by the social and communicative practices with which individuals engage in the various domains of their life world' (Hamilton, 2002, p. 8). In other words, social practices around literacy differ among communities and they are rule-governed (Hamilton, 2002). Hall (2002) considers knowledge of literacy as 'a matter of being able to participate in a community of literacy practitioners and being able to use the tools, technologies and semiotic systems characteristic of that particular community.' A child is socialized into language, or what is known as the primary discourse (Gee, 1990a, p. 151), through interaction with family and intimate community members. He or she is socialized into the ways 'a community uses print to take meaning from the environment and how they use knowledge gained from print' (Gee, 1990b, p. 64). When the child enters school, he or she is socialized into 'mainstream ways of

using language in speech and print, mainstream ways of taking meaning, and of making sense of experience' (Gee, 1990b, p. 67).

Literacy 'must be understood in relation to specific, diverse sociocultural practices, that is to what people do with literacy within their circumstances of life' (Moll & Dworin, 1996, p. 221). Therefore, a literacy study must deal with "the actual 'morphology' of different kinds of literate practice; their analysis requires the investigator to take into account the structural, political, and ideological features of the society in question" (Cole & Nichopoulou, 1992, p. 2).

Wells (1990, p. 372-373) considers literacy in terms of functions. He states literacy has five functions: performative, functional, informational, re-creational and epistemic. The performative mode relates to the relationship between meaning and the physical representation. The functional mode refers to our engagement with written texts 'as an adjunct or means to the achievement of some other purpose' (p. 372). Thirdly, we are engaged with literacy to find information, and fourthly for pleasure. Lastly, when composing or interpreting texts, we are engaged in the epistemic mode through which both the writer and the reader try to understand the meaning of the texts. Wells (1990) argues that at school, students are predominantly engaged with texts in the first three modes (the performative, the functional, and the informative) and very rarely in the last two modes (the recreational and the epistemic.)

Furthermore, as for the texts in the traditional knowledge transmission classrooms, the knowledge of the textbook is considered official. According to Wade & Moje (2001), students' oral texts in transmission classes are in the form of recitation, which is in the pattern of initiation, response, and feedback. Students' writing is limited to the purpose of reviewing and being tested on the subject content. Therefore the role of texts in the transmission classrooms is 'to serve repositories, transmitters, and guardians of information and knowledge' (p. 5).

Wade & Moje (2001) summarized weakness of the knowledge transmission approach to teaching with texts in four points.

First, students do little reading of any kind of informational text and consequently do not gain access to or practice in the variety of textual strategies or practices necessary to comprehend, interpret, or critique text. Second, knowledge acquired through the transmission approach does not transfer readily to new situations and often is not remembered after the test. Third, performance on recognition and recall tests may suffer when learners go beyond surface-level processing and relate the knowledge being taught to their prior knowledge and experience. Fourth, other types of learning deemed essential to success in the world, such as the ability to think critically and to collaborate with others in solving problems, are ignored (p. 5).

My own experience with texts in primary and secondary through to tertiary education, has mostly involved interpreting sentences, paragraphs, and sometimes whole texts. Usually teachers did the interpreting and the students just listened.

The use of authentic texts has been advocated (Chavez, 1998; Peacock, 1997) since it has been shown that authentic texts increase students' motivation to learn.

Using authentic texts for beginner students is also advocated by Nystrand (1997b), Mican (2003; 2004), and Wells (1990). Mican (2004, p. 196) argues for the use of authentic texts; 'language in texts is observable in action, performing social functions... Texts demonstrate the language system in action and provide opportunities for learners to participate in authentic language practices.' The use of authentic texts has also been promoted, though very limited, in studies in Korea (e. g. Bae, 1998).

L2 learners often engage with texts with focus on linguistic forms and often these activities require elementary skills such as word recognition (Kong & Pearson, 2003). However, Kong & Pearson (2003) argue that students with limited English are able to 'elicit other people's ideas, to provide uptake, and to challenge each other' (p. 111) when they are provided with 'the very affordances that are often reserved for the most talented of first-language readers and, correspondingly, withheld from the lives of second language readers' (p. 115).

Unlike authentic texts, controlled texts are created without knowledge of the nature of spoken language, and with an assumption of language as word and sentence rather than as text (Gerot, 2000). Gerot (ibid.) points out that controlled language, often in Reader series, lacks the textual features of conjunction and natural use of topical themes. Interpersonal or lexical meanings are very weak in controlled texts. Sentences are treated as isolated, self-contained artefacts of language. However, because texts are made in contexts, contextual features are

embedded in the texts, so the features are inferable from the texts. Butt, Fahey, Feez, Spinks & Yallop (2000, p. 185) indicates that 'We learn language in contexts and we can compare texts to our previous language experiences'. When learning with controlled texts, learners are left to figure out 'the myriad practice-based configurations and meanings of face-to-face interaction outside of the formal learning situation' (Hall, 1993).

Nystrand (1997a) notes that the use of authentic texts does not guarantee learning, but rather it is how to work with them that is more important. Literacy can not be learned without 'models provided by other people who read and assist in learning to read, or without a literate society in which there is material and reason to read and a system to organize written communication' (Rogoff, 1990, p. 26).

Therefore children or language learners have to be involved in practicing literacy in social contexts, such as talking about texts and analysing and composing texts, so that they can 'develop both implicit and explicit, tacit and active knowledge of how written language works and its possibilities for access to and the representation of culturally significant ideas, concepts and beliefs' (Luke, 1993, p.8). Bloom (1994) argues that the social interactions between teacher and students around a text have great effects on students learning to read. In his study of an urban middle-class classroom, he found that students were able to manipulate parts of a text that had appeared in the talks with their teacher.



As a way to facilitate reading, Krashen (1995) suggests encouraging free voluntary reading (FVR) to students along with textbook reading. FVR is 'an excellent source of comprehensible input in English, an excellent source of knowledge... the best way to develop literacy... and the best way of insuring continued development of the primary knowledge' (p197). Reading for choice and pleasure is also found to be beneficial to language learning (Day & Bamford, 2002; Kim, 2006; Krashen, 1993).

Linguistic analysis of a text is a good meaning-making activity according to Mickan (2004). The linguistic analysis using systemic functional grammar has been advocated in studies because, 'it focuses (students) on the lexical, grammatical, and discursive choices that make these texts dense and abstract' (Schleppegrell, Achugar, & Oteiza, 2004, p. 87).

Literacy is learned and taught through children's 'participation in *joint* [italic in original] literacy events in which the significance of the literate behaviour is *made overt through talk*' (Wells, 1990, p. 381). Lemke (1989) argues that comprehension of a text is achieved through paraphrasing and restating of the text and translating its meanings into our daily, familiar spoken language. Talking about texts is advocated as a way of learning and teaching languages in numerous studies (Dickinson & Tabors, 1991; Freppon, 1991; Kong & Pearson, 2003; Lemke, 1989; Morrow, 1992; Mungthaisong, 2003; Snow, Tabors, Nicholson, & Kurland, 1995). In one study, there were more voices from the students when they were engaged

in talking about texts and the students' texts became thinking devices (Dysthe, 1996).

Students need to experience reading and composing of different genre/register texts used in social literacy practices with the teacher's assistance and later independently. The teaching/learning cycle (Feez, 1998, p. 28) that has been applied by the Australian genre-based approach includes

1. Building the context
2. Modelling and deconstructing the text
3. Joint construction of the text
4. Independent construction of the *text*
5. Linking related texts.

This cycle has been used successfully with adult English learners and thus could be applied to English teaching in Korea.

One important aspect of and resource for discursive practices around texts is intertextuality (Lemke, 1992). Intertextuality was first used by Julia Kristeva in her books 'The Bounded Text' and 'Word, dialogue, and novel', which were first published in 1969 (Diane, 1998). Kristeva used the term in her introduction of Bahtin's theory of dialogism in language and literature (Graham, 2005). According to Kristeva (1980) every text is 'from the outset under the jurisdiction of other discourses which impose a universe on it' (cited in Culler, 1981, p. 105). The notion of intertextuality extends beyond implicit or explicit references to other texts but also occurs 'at many levels (e.g. words, the organizational structure of texts, register levels, genre types, content, and the situational contexts in which texts

occur), and in many ways (e.g., mixing registers, genres, content, and social situations)' (Bloom & Egan-Robertson, 1993p. 306). Lemke claims that 'every text, the discourse of every occasion, makes its social meanings against the background of other texts, and the discourses of other occasions' (1992, p. 257). This perspective views learning as making connections across the texts in our lives.

Drawing on Halliday's three language metafunctions (ideational, interpersonal, and textual), Lemke (1992) identifies three intertextuality principles: thematic, orientational, and organizational. Roache-Jameson (2005, p. 53) categorized intertextuality into the three domains of textual, contextual and personal. The textual domain relates to connections of characters, plot and text structure, the contextual domain concerns situational context, and the personal domain is to do with personal milieu.

Studies on intertextuality investigated the intertextual references to the pop culture in social discourses as well as in classroom literacy events and professional settings (Dyson, 1997, cited in Duff, 2004). A community of learners will be developed through building up shared classroom texts because they can become the basis for future intertextual connections (Roache-Jameson, 2005). Similarly, Olyer & Barry (1996) argues that 'remembered texts became shared texts thus building intertextuality among a community of readers' (p. 328). Texts that students experience outside of school may be more powerful and valid for students (Wade & Moje, 2001). Roache-Jameson argues that cooperation as well as

learning increases in classrooms when there are 'intertextual incidents concerned with each student's personal milieu' (p. 59). In a community of learners, different perspectives and questions become resources for 'learning beyond the means of any single member' (Short, 1992, p. 322). Teacher can promote intertextuality by sharing anecdotes with students because 'anecdote relating is an important part of everyday life' (Roache-Jameson, 2003) and it is part of learning. In the Korean context, there has been very limited study of intertextuality (see Kim, 2000).

#### **4.2 CONTENT-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING**

In educational settings language is often taught as an independent subject, which is the case in Korea. The separation of language as subject can lead to the teaching of mainly linguistical features. A social view of language integrates language with content, subject and knowledge.

Language is often taught as an independent subject at educational settings including in the Korean context. Separation of the subject may lead to mainly teaching linguistic features. A social view of language integrates language with content, subjects, and knowledge.

Language teachers often limit language to 'a medium of learning and do not acknowledge that content is being communicated in the language lessons (Beckett, Gonzalez, & Schwartz, 2004, p. 164). However, language is 'actual content and a resource that allows ESL students to participate in new academic contexts and their associated genres' (Beckett et al., 2004, p. 163). Furthermore, Beckett et al

(2004, p. 163) claims that 'today's complex society expects its students to be equipped with the ability to meet the social and linguistic needs of various contexts for full participation ... [which requires] ... discipline specific knowledge'. Therefore, an important educational aim 'is to support language as a medium of learning to enable students to be academically successful' (Mohan, 1990, p. 114). However, the knowledge that is taught in the traditional school is basically linguistics: grammar and translation in isolation from other disciplines.

Christie (2002) argues that:

'Schools are sites for initiation and induction into ways of knowing, ways of valuing, ways of reasoning. A fundamental responsibility of the teaching relationship is that the young are *taught* (in her italic), so that they may enter with some confidence into the world beyond school, possessed of at least some sense of the major bodies of knowledge that shape their societies and the wider global community of which they are a part' (p. 178).

In pedagogic discourse 'esoteric' (Bernstein, 1990) discipline specific knowledge is 'projected' by commonsense, 'mundane' knowledge. The commonsense knowledge is the knowledge 'that appertains to the visible material world, that is functional for the routine living of daily life, that is non-specialized, shared by all members of the culture/community and realized through everyday forms of talk' (Painter, 1998, p. 68).

Content-based language teaching (CBLT hereafter) (Mohan, 1986) is the teaching method that integrates content teaching with language teaching. This concept of teaching has been defined in different terms by different scholars (CARLA, 2005).

CARLA (Centre for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition) (2005) summarized definitions of CBLT as follows:

- CBLT is ... the integration of particular content with language teaching aims... the concurrent teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989, p. 2)
- CBLT approaches ...view the target language largely as the vehicle through which subject matter content is learned rather than as the immediate object of study (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 5)
- CBLT is aimed at the development of use-oriented and foreign language skills' and is 'distinguished by the concurrent learning of a specific content and related language use skills (Wesche, 1993)
- CBLT is ... an approach to language instruction that integrates the presentation of topics or tasks from subject matter classes (e.g., math, social studies) within the context of teaching a second or foreign language (Crandall & Tucker, 1990, p. 187)

CBLT 'develops linguistic competence and functional literacy by exposing ESL learners to interdisciplinary input that consists of both "everyday" communicative and academic language and that contains a wide range of vocabulary, forms, registers, and pragmatic functions' (Kasper, 2000, p. 106). Kasper (1997) shows improvements of ESL students' linguistic and academic skills through content-based English teaching. Advanced ESL students learn 'literacy and discipline

appropriate language' better through 'authentic subject matter content' (Beckett et al., 2004, p. 164). Numerous other studies (Arnall, 1992; Curtain & Martinez, 1989; Harklau, 2002, p. 338; Heining-Boynton, 1992; Kaiser, 1996; Met, 1991; Reeves, 1989) support the CBLT. In addition, Stoller (2004) argues that CBLT has been successful at all levels of education at primary, secondary, and tertiary levels

There has been some research on CBLT in Korea. Lee and Choi (2001) claim that students who learn English using content from mathematics show more interest in learning thus participating more actively in classroom activities. Cha (2002) proposes students' immersion in the target language at an early age. Park (2003) also found positive results from studies on primary school students' interest, participation, and goal achievement by combining science and basic English.

Even though the content-based language teaching has attracted increased interest (Stoller, 2004), professional training is yet to be developed (Beckett et al., 2004).

Stoller (2004) lists the challenges CBLT faces.

- The identification and development of appropriate content
- The selection and sequencing of language items dictated by content sources rather than a predetermined language syllabus
- The alignment of content with structures and functions that emerge from the subject matter
- The choice of appropriate materials and the decision to use (or not to use) textbooks

- Faculty development that assists language instructors in handling unfamiliar subject matter and content-area instructors in handling language issues (p. 267)

Planning and analysis of the curriculum and the assessment of students' performance is also another challenge for the CBLT (Mohan & Huang, 2002).

## **SUMMARY**

In this chapter I have reviewed literature on literacy practices, text-based teaching and content-based teaching. Studies on these matters are rare in language teaching research in Korea. Therefore this study examines English teaching in Korea and investigates the potential for text-based teaching in a Korean Middle school.



## ANALYSIS OF THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM AND THE TEXTBOOK

### INTRODUCTION

This section analyses the Current National Curriculum for English education in Korea used in semester one of grade 8 (level 8-a). The focus of this analysis is on the theory of language and language teaching assumed by the Curriculum viewed from a social aspect of language and language learning (Halliday, 1975).

### 5.1 ANALYSIS OF THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM FOR ENGLISH EDUCATION

#### 5.1.1 CLT and Functional-notional approaches to language teaching:

Korean education follows the national Curriculum designed by the government, and the current 7<sup>th</sup> Curriculum has been effective since 1997. The Curriculum for English education includes an Overview, Objectives, Teaching Contents, Teaching Methods and Evaluation.

The Overview (p. 26-27) states the Aim of the Curriculum, a summary of suggested Teaching Methods, and a suggestion for Management of Teaching Levels. The Curriculum is aimed at educating students

- 1) to comprehend and produce modern everyday English, consequently understand the global community and foreign cultures, and

- 2) to develop linguistic foundation to contribute to the enhancement of the nation's culture and strength (Education, 1997, p. 26).

The Objectives (p.27) are:

- 1) to obtain interest and confidence in English and to develop basic communication skills;
- 2) to communicate naturally in English on everyday life and general topics;  
and
- 3) to understand and make use of the various countries' values and culture.

The first Aim and the second and third Objectives of the Curriculum reflect the government's aspiration to produce a population with English communication skills, which is in contrast to the focus on grammar learning and reading comprehension in the previous curricula.

The Curriculum in the Overview stipulates the teaching methods at secondary-school that they be devised in order

- 1) to maintain students' interest in English, which should have been gained from primary-school,
- 2) to develop their basic communication skills in English, and
- 3) to maximize learning experiences and activities that can improve both fluency and accuracy.

The Curriculum Statement suggests the teaching methods be designed in consideration of the language development process. Although the Curriculum

does not explicate the concept of 'communication' or 'modern everyday English', it appears to be based on a communicative language teaching (CLT) and a functional-notional approach (Wilkins, 1976) to language teaching. The Curriculum sets its overall goal of teaching communication skills through communication activities organized around functions and notions and example sentences provided in the Curriculum.

The focus on communication as a goal of language teaching is consistent with the approach of CLT. CLT asserts that language is learned through participation in communication, mostly spoken, activities (Mickan, 2004a). Even with its influential challenge to the traditionally grammar-focused language teaching (ibid.), its narrow interpretation of communication has been challenged (i.e. Danesi, 1994; Mickan, 2004a, 2006). CLT considers linguistic items divorced from their use in social context (Mickan, 2004a, 2006). However, language is among many, even though vital, resources of making meaning (Halliday, 1978) in social practices (Mickan, 2006). The social practice pedagogy (Mickan, 2006, p. 15) sets as goal 'membership of communities with shared practices ... [therefore] ... the Curriculum is structured through the identification and analysis of communities' social practices and the semiotic resources for the conduct of those social practices'.

The Curriculum provides a list of language functions and language sentence examples to be used for communication activities. Therefore, the assumed theory of language learning is that a mastery of the functions and sentences leads to

language learning. This functional-notional theory of language teaching (Wilkins, 1976), has been criticised, because a function of an utterance depends on the speaker (Basturkmen, 2001) and a function can be achieved not only in linguistic mode but in other semiotic modes as well (Mickan, 2004b). Furthermore, the Curriculum does not explicate its meaning of *everyday English*, which is set as goal for the students to be able to communicate in. The range of language we use everyday is vast in its registers and genres, so the goal seems to be too broad to achieve.

### **5.1.2 Language skills separated in achievement goals**

The Curriculum contradicts itself by asserting the integrative teaching of four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Yet the Achievement Goals treat them separately. The Goals stipulated in the Curriculum (p. 34-35) are listed as follows:

#### **Achievement Goals in Year 8 - a**

##### **1. Listening**

- 1) To figure out speakers' attitudes and emotions from conversations on familiar contents of general topics
- 2) To grasp the subject and point of spoken language on familiar contents of general topics
- 3) To understand the circumstances of spoken language on familiar contents of general topics
- 4) To understand the cause and effect of events in spoken language on familiar contents of general topics

##### **- Advanced Learning -**

- 5) To use right listening strategy to understand spoken language on familiar contents of general topics
- 6) To find groundings for causes and results of events in spoken language on familiar contents of general topics

##### **2. Speaking**

- 1) To ask and answer about contents of spoken language with familiar contents of general topics
- 2) To recite the order of major events after listening to a short story

- 3) To tell short stories of familiar contents with right intonation, rhythm, and accent.
  - 4) To tell their experience relevant to stories after hearing on familiar contents of general topics
  - 5) To ask and answer to questions about simple procedures and instructions
- Advanced Learning -**
- 6) To briefly introduce favourite things and people
  - 7) To tell one's resolutions and plans in retrospection of one's everyday life

### **3. Reading**

- 1) To comprehend a short writing containing pictures or diagrams on general topics
- 2) To understand procedure, instructions, and points of a procedure text
- 3) To understand the subject and point in a writing of familiar contents on general topics
- 4) To order jumbled-up sentences and find the topic sentence.

#### **-Advanced Learning-**

- 5) To read a short text and predict the following story.
- 6) To compare and contrast elements in a text with familiar contents of a general topic.

### **4. Writing**

- 1) To keep personal journal in easy sentences
- 2) To introduce oneself and one's family in a simple paragraph
- 3) To complete sentences with given words
- 4) To rewrite short stories by changing characters and tense

#### **-Advanced Learning-**

- 5) To formulate questions about a short dialogue to get the given answers
- 6) To write a summary based on pictures illustrating a story

The Achievement Goals are divided. The four language skills are not integrated within these goals. The goals suggest that they be separated in teaching practice.

The goals in listening skills of level 8-a are to do with comprehension of speakers' emotions as well as the topic, context, and causes and effects of events in spoken language. Figuring out of those features may be an important skill in having a conversation. The activities require making-meaning on the listener's side, even though making-meaning in a conversation requires working on the speaker's side as well. Meaning is negotiated socially by conversation participants (Firth & Wagner, 1997; Rommetveit, 1983; Volosinov, 1973). Goals of teaching listening need to be determined by social purposes for listening.

Speaking skills for level 8-a are to do with formulating questions and answering questions after hearing a story; retelling events after hearing a story; story telling; and answering and asking about procedures and instructions of a task. Unlike listening, speaking goals are in part integrated into listening and reading. Talking about a story, retelling events, talking about procedures and instructions are integrated into social practices. This is advancement from rote learning of dialogues, which were dominant when I went to school. However, the skills are not considered in the context of social practices, which operate around dynamic mixture and correlation of multi-modal semiotic systems.

Achievement goals for reading in level 8-a relate to understanding of short texts containing pictures and diagrams and instructional texts, ordering jumbled up sentences and finding a topic sentence. This level's achievement goals in reading are organized around a few reading skills, which are needed in reading texts in social practices. For example, pictures and diagrams appear often mixed with linguistic texts, so understanding of them is an important element of being literate. However, the skills are not considered in combination with the other language skills. Our world is a 'textually mediated social world' (Barton, 2001). Reading texts is often mixed with other language skills i.e. talking about a bill or a newspaper article.

The goals for writing include text-level work such as keeping journals and introducing oneself and family in writing, in addition to sentence-level work such

as completing sentences with given words. This is improvement from traditionally-dominant sentence translation. However, these goals are also separated from the other skills. Furthermore, the Curriculum does not take account of reading and analysing example texts or joint writing with teacher's assistance or scaffolding, before independent writing. For learners to compose texts independently due practice and support as well as experience with example texts is necessary.

### **5.1.3 Teaching methods**

The Curriculum presents teaching methods in two sections. One relates to Advanced and Supplementary Teaching in 13 points that applies to English teaching in all grades, and the other relates to teaching methods in secondary education. The methods are specified in 17 points for secondary English education (p. 40-41), which is organized around levels. The Curriculum mandates that secondary education is conducted by levels from 7 to 10 for grades 7 to 10, and each level is subdivided into *a* and *b* for each semester. Students in the same grade will be taught of the same level lessons. However, according to the students' performances, they will either do extra advanced learning or supplementary learning.

#### **A. Methods for Advanced and Supplementary Teaching**

- 1) Design and teach interesting lessons through chants and songs.
- 2) Realize activity-based lessons through plays and games.
- 3) Realize 'open' education that considers students' level in activities which should include both individual and cooperative work.
- 4) Apply a variety of teaching methods to achieve lessons' objectives and contents.

- 5) Design lessons for supplementary and advanced learning.
- 6) Design teaching materials for supplementary and advanced learning, and realize student-centred lessons through activities that are individual, in pairs, by groups, or by lines.
- 7) Design supplementary learning through individual or small group activities and advanced learning through individual learning.
- 8) Design supplementary learning to be appropriate for the students' level for them to gain confidence and participate actively in lesson activities.
- 9) Provide rich opportunities for students to feel interest and sense of achievement through extensive use of audio/visual materials and multimedia.
- 10) Start teaching speaking and writing with focus on expressing meaning, and steadily increase focus on fluency.
- 11) At the early stage of teaching speaking, avoid immediate correction unless considered necessary for communication.
- 12) Introduce cultures where English is used in right moments for students to acquire culture naturally.
- 13) Instruct students to become aware of the linguistic differences between Korean and English.

### **B. Methods for Teaching by Levels (in the secondary education only)**

- 1) Instruct each level that connects from the previous level.
- 2) Design tasks and activities suitable for the students' cognition level.
- 3) Realize an 'open education' classroom atmosphere so as to implement supplementary and advanced learning in the same level.
- 4) Design lessons student-centred and let students actively participate in lesson activities. Teacher plays the role of co-operator with students.
- 5) Cultivate communication skills through various teacher-student and student-student activities.
- 6) Guide students to use various communication strategies for effective communication activities.
- 7) Prepare different activities and tasks suitable to the levels of students.
- 8) Plan supplementary lessons lest there are repeaters.
- 9) Fully understand the performance standards set for sublevels (a's and b's) of each level to plan various tasks and activities suitable for the stage.
- 10) Ensure the performance objectives are achieved and repeat the contents



studied at the previous level for the students to internalize them to produce natural language.

- 11) Advanced learning should be individual learning, student-led learning, and cooperative learning, and supplementary learning should be designed to remedy failing elements.
- 12) Use audio-visual materials extensively to develop listening comprehension and to produce natural language.
- 13) As to teaching speaking, avoid rote learning but adopt meaningful and communication-focused activities that can increase fluency and accuracy for the students to apply the activities in real context.
- 14) As to reading, instruct 'immediate comprehending in reading' and fast reading.
- 15) As to writing, instead of sentence-level translation, instruct students to write their ideas and opinions in paragraphs about topics.
- 16) Assist students to obtain decision making skills and a sound view of values through culture studies.
- 17) English is recommended to be used as instruction language.

The Section A deals with teaching methods largely in three aspects: creation of interest, adoption of various activities, employment of supplementary and advanced learning, teaching speaking and writing, and teaching culture and the linguistic differences between L1 and L2. The Curriculum suggests the use of songs, chants, games, and audio/visual materials for the students to be interested in English learning (points 1, 2, and 9). Furthermore, this section also recommends employment of activities for supplementary and advanced learning according to the level of the students in the same year level (5, 6, 7, and 8). For the successful implementation of supplementary/advanced learning, an open education climate is required (3). The A section contains two points specific to teaching speaking and writing (10 and 11). Immediate correction should be avoided (11) and the focus

should be on expressing meaning (10). Teaching of cultures (12) and linguistic differences between L1 and L2 (13) is included in the list.

In the section **B** the Curriculum makes suggestions on teaching methods for levels from 7-10 in terms of the students' cognition level (2), creating of the atmosphere that can allow implementation of advanced and supplementary learning (3), student centeredness (4), varying interaction types between the whole class and between students (5), teaching of communication strategies (6), choosing tasks appropriate to the students' level (7), ensuring the achievement of the level's goals by all of the students (8 and 9), providing extra texts for achieving students and supplementary tasks for low achieving students (11), teaching methods for teaching listening, speaking, reading and writing (12, 13, 14, and 15), integrating of the nation's overall objective of Education (17), and using of L2 as instruction language (18).

Unlike the traditional teacher-centred lessons, the current Curriculum demands them to be student-centred and to incorporate peer interaction as well as the traditionally dominant whole class interaction. Consistent with the Curriculum objectives and aims, the methods include teaching communication skills and strategies in the **B** Section at points 5 and 6.

Among the four language skills, listening is supposed to be taught by extensive use of audio-visual materials for students to produce natural language (point B -

12). Broad use of audio/visual materials is also recommended in **A** Section (point 9). Audio-visual materials are common resources in schools. However, simple use of them may not necessarily lead to listening comprehension of language in use and production of natural language. The Curriculum does not specify the activities for teaching listening. Activities need to help learners to be apprenticed into social practices in listening to and using English.

As to teaching speaking methods, the Curriculum recommends an avoidance of immediate correction (**A** - 11) and rote learning, and instead focus on meaningful communication-based activities for the learners to apply the practiced language in 'real' context (**B** - 13). Here, the Curriculum assumes that classroom communication is not real but virtual. However, the classroom is a real social community (Green, 1983a, 1983b; Mickan, 2004a), where students spend significant amounts of time. This community needs to be made the most of to learn to participate in a community that speaks the target language.

The teaching method for reading, as stated in the Curriculum, must focus on 'immediate understanding in reading' instead of translating and on fast reading (**B** - 14). This contrasts the traditional sentence-by-sentence textbook text translation, which was a common practice when I went to school. This change is a positive change, because the traditional translation method often led to dominant vocabulary memorizing and grammar learning. However, topical coherence or authenticity of chosen texts is not mentioned in the Curriculum. Learners learn

better with cohesive texts (Stoller, 2002). In addition, social practices around written texts such as reading for pleasure and knowledge building are not considered at this level. Experiencing of pleasure and obtaining knowledge through reading in L2 is important and necessary. Furthermore, teaching fast reading is recommended. However, reading in social practices is not limited to fast reading, but it would be one of the immense types of reading for achievement of a social purpose. The speed depends on the purpose of reading or on the social practice engaged in at the time. Learners also need to learn with authentic texts they might come across in social practices. This way they can be apprenticed into socially used texts.

The Curriculum, in section **B** at point 15, recommends instruction of students to express their ideas and opinions in paragraphs about topics instead of sentence translation, which was dominant in traditional English lessons. However, writing activities in social practices are not considered in the Curriculum. Writing is an activity consisting of social practices, which occur around multimodal semiotic resources. Furthermore, teaching methods for writing are not specified. Before independent writing, students need preliminary work. One suggestion is Feez's (1998) teaching/learning cycle. The context is built, students model and deconstruct the text, and jointly construct the text, before they start writing in independence.

The Curriculum advises task-based teaching, which has contributed to 'language pedagogy the insight that language is enmeshed in human activity, rather than being a discrete and separate object of analysis' (Mickan, 2004b, p. 181). However, according to Mickan (ibid.), the syntactic knowledge is viewed as a focal point in language development; selection of appropriate language as input for tasks is difficult; and negotiation of meaning is interpreted in linguistic terms (p. 182).

As to the language of instruction, the Curriculum demands the use of L2, supposedly based on the conception that the use of L2 by the teacher will lend itself to language learning. However, this needs to be reviewed in terms of the reality of English teacher's English competence.

The National Curriculum finishes with a section on Assessment. The Assessment section includes assessment of speaking skills.

#### **A. Assessment of Advanced and Supplementary Learning**

- 1) Assessment in primary school does not assess products but it is a stimulant for the students to attend to learning.
- 2) Arrange assessment that reduces psychological burden in students and avoid marking by numbers.
- 3) Describe students' enthusiasm, behaviour, and communication skills at communication activities such as games and role plays.
- 4) Put focus on speaking and assess students' speaking skills and their task performance through observation.
- 5) Prepare the atmosphere for the natural implementation of advanced and supplementary learning.

## **B. Assessment by Levels (from level 7 to 10)**

- 1) To conduct a balanced assessment of the four language skills.
- 2) To increase validity, credibility and reliability.
- 3) To adequately test on discrete or multiple points according to objectives.
- 4) To focus on integrative tests to assess communication skills.
- 5) To examine students' performances and supplement under-achieved elements to minimize failing students.

The A-4) and B-4) specify assessing speaking skills unlike the other skills which were not dealt with in detail. Assessment of speaking skills requires time and reliable assessors. The school I observed did not assess students' speaking skills. The Curriculum may need to be reviewed in consideration of the assessment reality at schools and readiness of schools and teachers for assessing speaking skills.

## **SUMMARY**

The National Curriculum for English Education in Korea with its focus on communication is a positive development. It postulates lessons be interesting to students and adopt meaningful and communication-focused activities. As to teaching writing, sentence translation should be avoided and expressing one's own ideas is recommended. However, the Curriculum is based on the assumption that language is learned through studying sample sentences organized around language functions. Language is not considered in its use in social practices.

## **5.2 TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS**

This section discusses the English textbook for Grade 8 used by the school entitled *Middle School English 2* (Lee et al., 2003) published by the *Jihaksa Company*. My focus is on the texts and the activities in Chapter 2 of the textbook, as this was one of the chapters taught during my observation.

### **5.2.1 Texts and language learning**

Use of written materials and literacy-related activities are in education (Harklau, 2002) and in the social world (Barton, 2001). Language is learned through the use of language (Beckett, Gonzalez, & Schwartz, 2004, p. 164) in communicative (Leung, 2001, p. 3) or discursive practices (Young & Miller, 2004, p. 519). It is 'texts [that] demonstrate the language system in action and provide opportunities for learners to participate in authentic language practices' (Mickan, 2004, p. 196). Therefore, the kind of texts used and activities that occur in class closely relate to opportunities for the learning of language. The following is an analysis of the textbook from those perspectives.

### **5.2.2 The textbook**

The teacher used the textbook entitled *Middle School English 2* (Lee et al., 2003) chosen by the school's organizing committee because it is one of the textbooks approved by the national government. The teacher used it as her main teaching resource for several reasons. Firstly, she too busy with administrative work to design their own teaching materials. Secondly, the teacher taught only one class of the eight classes of Grade 8, and another teacher taught the rest of the classes. The

other teacher had decided to give written tests for the whole year, and the two teachers agreed that the tests would be based mainly on the textbook for fair assessment. This practice appeared to be common at the school. Lastly, students paid for the textbook, thus the teacher felt obliged to make best use of it.

The purpose of the textbook, as illustrated in the Foreword, is firstly to complement and integrate the four language skills on the basis of the listening and speaking skills acquired at primary school. Secondly, it is to help nurture fluent and accurate communication skills. Lastly, it is to make learning English more interesting through a variety of games and activities (Lee et al., 2003).

The textbook has 12 chapters accompanied by a CD. Each chapter has separate sections for practicing listening, talking, reading and writing separately or in combination. Each chapter starts with a title page with the chapter title, a picture, a guessing question, objectives, and a list of communicative functions and their example sentences.

Learning objectives and functions are written in Korean and the rest in English. Each chapter focuses on four to five communication functions, which have been taken from the national curriculum for secondary English education.



The following is the cover page of chapter 2.

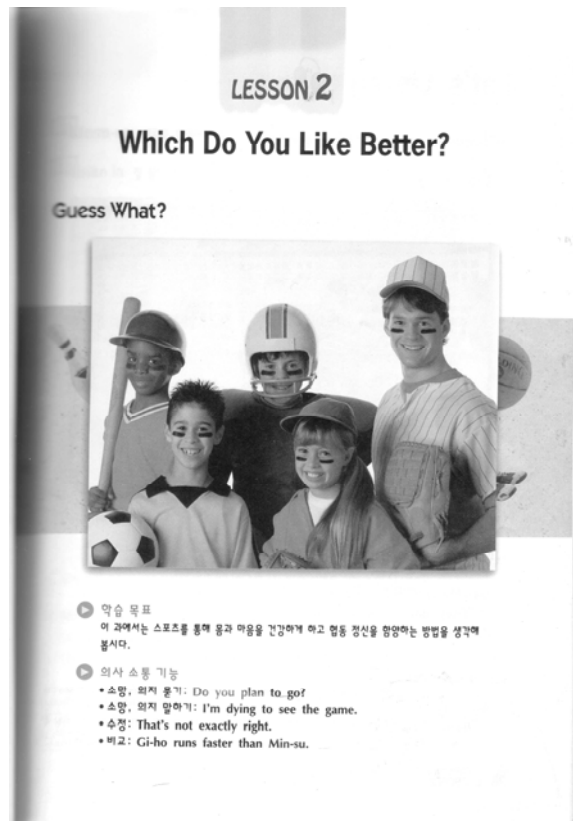


Figure 1 (Textbook page 27)

Each chapter is divided into the sections *Let's Listen*, *Listening Activities*, *Sounds*, *Let's talk*, *Talking Activities*, *Functions*, *Interactions*, *Let's Read*, *Reading Activities*, *Let's Write*, *Writing Activities*, *Interactions*, *Challenges*, and *Project*. *Let's Listen* starts with a *Warm-up* in which students listen to two short dialogues, and answer questions written in Korean. Then there is a *Listen in* activity of a longer dialogue between two people alongside a picture. After the listening activity, students are meant to answer a couple of questions written in Korean. This is followed by another page of *Warm-up* and *Listen in* activities.

The *Listening Activities* require students to listen to short dialogues and answer pictorial based questions. This is followed by *Sounds*, to practice pronunciation of

consonants or vowels and sentence intonation. *Let's Talk* requires students to listen to, complete, arrange and act out conversations. In *Talking Activities*, students listen to a model dialogue then have a conversation in pairs about some pictures. The next *Functions* section summarizes the expressions for the five communicative functions. Students are then asked to have conversations in pairs using given expressions or dialog in the *Interactions* section.

The *Let's Read* section begins with a couple of questions in Korean as a pre-reading activity, which are related to a body of text. The text has illustrations and each page has notes with a pronunciation guide of words from the text, as well as phonological graphics in brackets and the meanings of some words explained. The reading text is followed by the *Reading Activities* part, which asks reading comprehension questions. The questions include numbering pictures according to the story, determining whether given statements are true or false, or matching words with opposite meanings. The *Let's Write* section requires writing single sentences with a grammar focus by modelling given sentences that sometimes refer to pictures. The *Writing Activities* require students to refer to model writings and fill in gaps or write a short paragraph. The *Interactions* section following that includes gap-filling activities, talking in pairs about the given pictures or model dialogue, or doing a questionnaire.

The *Challenges* section involves creating small talk around some given information, filling gaps, playing games, listening comprehension questions, or doing a

questionnaire activity. Lastly, the *Project* activities range from filling in gaps, doing a questionnaire, writing a report, and drawing a graph based on the questionnaire results.

### 5.2.3 Analysis of Chapter 2

As this was one of the chapters covered in the classes I observed, I am choosing to focusing my detailed analysis on this particular chapter. I will focus on whether and how the objectivity of the chapter is realized in the tasks and activities and on whether the texts and activities provide opportunities for learners to make meaning in context and to learn about texts in use.

The title of the chapter is *'Which do you like better?'* The cover page (Figure 1) has the title of the chapter, a picture and the chapter's objectives. Under the title is a picture of five non-Asian looking smiling children, dressed in various sports uniforms including baseball, American football, and soccer. The picture and the title do not closely relate to each other. This depiction of American sports reflects the dominance of American English and culture as the target language and culture to study in Korea. In the lesson, the title was read aloud by the whole class and the teacher asked what the people were doing in the picture, whether students liked sports, and what sports the students knew.

Below the picture is the chapter objective written in Korean: *'to strengthen our body and soul and to enhance cooperation through sports'*. There are four communicative functions listed below the objective: *'to ask about wishes and plans'*; *'to answer to*

them'; 'to make corrections' and 'to make comparisons'. The example sentences for each of the functions are 'Do you plan to go'; 'I'm dying to see the game'; 'That's not exactly right' and 'Gi-ho runs faster than Min-su.' In the actual lesson, the chapter objective and communicative functions were not discussed.

The stated objective of the chapter is a moral one. This is presumably an effort to meet the national curriculum requirement to help students acquire sound values (Education, 1997, p.27). However, the chapter content does not deal with this objective, as will become apparent in the following discussion.

### **Listening Activities**

For the *Let's Listen* activity on the following two pages (Figure 2), a picture is provided on each page featuring an Asian-looking girl and a non-Asian looking boy having a conversation in casual clothes at a school. Both pages have *Warm-up* and *Listen in* activities. The transcripts for the listening activities at the page 28 are as follows:

#### **Warm-up**

1. A: Which do you like better, soccer or baseball?  
B: I like soccer better.
2. A: Do you plan to go?  
B: Yes. I'm dying to see the game.

#### **Listen-in**

1. Mi-na: Which do you like better, soccer or baseball?
2. Mike: I like soccer better. How about you?
3. Mi-na: Me, too.
4. Mike: I heard that there's a soccer game between Min-su's class and Chang-ho's. Do
5.           you plan to go?
6. Mi-na: Yes, I'm dying to see the game.
7. Mike: So am I.

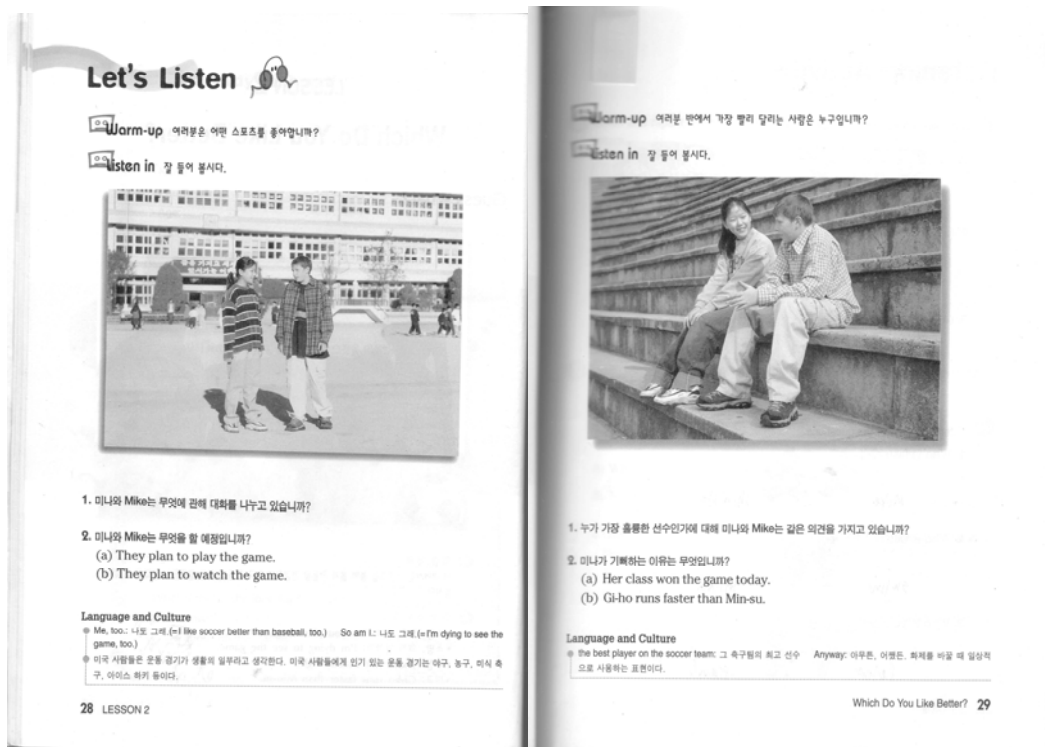


Figure 2 (Textbook pages 28-29)

The two dialogues for the *Warm-up* consist of two turns and the sentences from this are also used in the dialogue for the *Listen-in* activity. In the *Warm-up* activity a question is asked: 'Which do you like better?' which is written in Korean.

One problem with this type of dialogue lies in the absence of the beginning and end, which play an essential role in maintaining relationship. Another problem exists in the absurdness of the dialogue. The people are meant to be teenagers. However, their dialogue sounds so serious and unnatural. For example, Mina (line 1 of the *Listen-in*) asks to Mike 'Which do you like better, soccer or baseball?' It would be more natural for Mike to answer then ask why she asked the question. In addition, students in Korea are too busy after school for extra-curricula activities. It is not part of Korean students' culture to play and watch a soccer game between classes or after school. Furthermore, the picture on the same page does not provide much relevant information on the topic of the talk because it is a mere

illustration of two people appearing to talk to each other. The topic of the talk is in fact sports, but the picture does not provide many contextual clues relevant to the topic. In the same way, the dialogue does not provide clues as to the context of the talk or the conversants.

Below is the transcript for the activities on page 29.

**Warm-up**

1. A: I think Min-su is the best player.  
B: That's not exactly right. Gi-ho is better than Min-su.
2. A: Gi-ho runs faster than Min-su.  
B: But Min-su kicks farther than Gi-ho.

**Listen in**

1. Mi-na: Who is the best player on the soccer team?
2. Mike: I think Min-su is the best.
3. Mi-na: That's not exactly right. Gi-ho is better than Min-su.
4. Mike: Why do you say that?
5. Mi-na: Because he runs faster than Min-su.
6. Mike: But Min-su kicks father than Gi-ho.
7. Mi-na: You're right. Anyway I'm glad we won the game today.

The dialogues on page 29 are of the same length and format as those for the page 28 activities. The two people are talking about two soccer players: Min-su and Gi-ho. However some expressions are too formal for the speakers, i.e. *That's not exactly right*. in line 3. In addition, in line 7 at the *Listen-in* dialogue Mi-na gives up on her argument so easily, which is unlike a teenager.

In the lessons I observed, the teacher used the texts but adopted different activities from the ones in the textbook. She did a *Listening Bingo* game, in which students listened to the dialogues and filled in a grid to make bingos with words from them. The teacher also adopted a gap-filling activity, in which the teacher handed out the written-out dialogues with gaps. The students listened to the dialogues and

filled in the gaps. After this, the teacher explained the meaning of some phrases and sentences and guided a 'noughts and crosses' quiz game, in which students listened in groups to the teacher's statements and answered whether they were right or wrong in reference to the dialogues they heard for the listening bingo and gap filling activities. Although this demonstrates that the teacher does not strictly follow the textbook, these activities are consistent with the nature of the textbook activities in that they require simple word recognition and sentence comprehension without consideration of the context.

The following activities are *Listening Activities* on page 30 (Figure 3). The transcripts for the *Listening Activities* are;

**A.**

1. A: Do you plan to see the movie?  
B: Yes, I do. I'm dying to see it.
2. A: Do you plan to play soccer this afternoon?  
B: No, I don't. I have to study.
3. A: Do you plan to play baseball tomorrow?  
B: Yes. I'm dying to play.

**B.**

1. A: Mike is faster than Min-ho.  
B: That's not exactly right. Min-ho is faster.
2. A: Su-jin is taller than Mi-na.  
B: You're right. Su-jin is the taller of the two.
3. A: Peter is younger than Paul.  
B: That's not true. Paul is younger than Peter.

The dialogues for both sections A and B consist of two turns and they are written in the same format. The section A dialogue start with one speaker's question beginning with '*Do you plan to*' and finishes with the other speaker's answer. The task for the student is to figure out what the respondent plans to do and to find the right picture. Therefore the purpose of the task A is to practice recognition of

the negative or positive response to questions starting with '*Do you plan to*'. In addition to figuring out the meaning of the dialogue, students need to interpret the illustrations to give correct answers. The task in section B requires students to comprehend two-turn dialogues containing comparatives and give names to the illustrated people to match each dialogue.

These activities encourage students to practice recognizing linguistic features rather than practice meaning-making. This type of task reinforces learners' concepts of language learning as focusing on linguistic features. In the actual lesson, the students heard the CD, solved the questions and called out answers as a whole class activity. Instead of following the textbook tasks on these pages, the teacher adopted different, more group-oriented tasks.

The context of the text is not provided. Furthermore the dialogue has been recorded by voice actors, which means that contextualization cues such as pitch and stress are not sufficiently. Therefore, figuring out of the meaning of the text is a problem, because as Lemke (1990, p. 187) states, 'every action is made meaningful by placing it in some larger context'. In addition, the isolation of the listening activities is problematic, because in social life listening is not isolated from discursive practices.



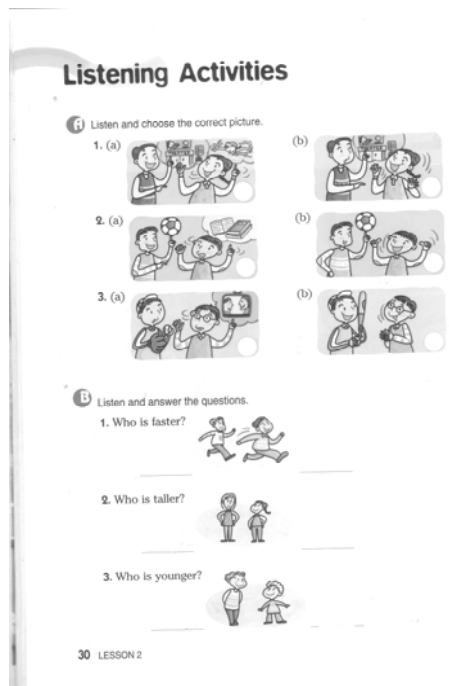


Figure 3 (Textbook page 30)

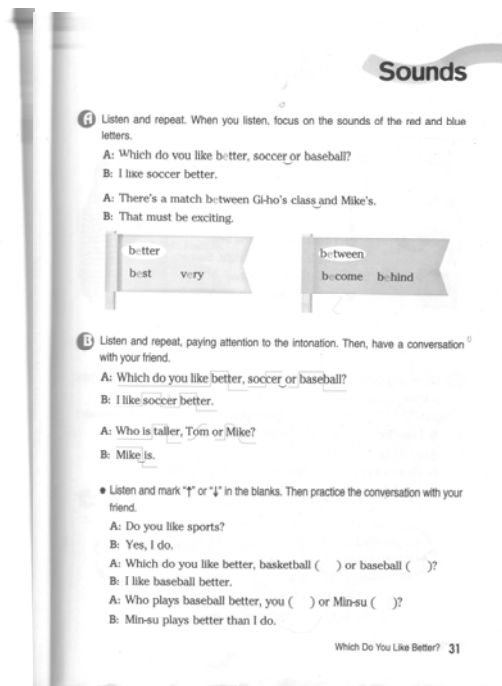


Figure 4 (Textbook page 31)

## Pronunciation

Page 31 is the *Sounds* section (Figure 4). Task A is to *Listen and repeat*. When you listen, focus on the sounds of red and blue letters. The given sentences are as follows:

A: Which do you like better, soccer or baseball.  
B: I like soccer better.

A: There's a match between Gi-ho's class and Mike's.  
B: That must be exciting.

The first Task B is to *Listen and repeat, paying attention to the intonation*. Then have a conversation with your partner. The written dialogues are as follows:

A: Which do you like better, soccer or baseball?  
B: I like soccer better.

A: Who is taller, Tom or Mike?  
B: Mike is.

The second task is to *Listen and mark "↑" or "↓" in the blanks*. Then practice the conversation with your friend. This is to encourage students to listen to the intonation of questions.

A: Do you like sports?  
B: Yes, I do.  
A: Which do you like better, basketball ( ) or baseball ( )?  
B: I like baseball better.  
A: Who plays baseball better, you ( ) or Min-su ( )?  
B: Min-su plays better than I do.

Section A asks students to practice the different sounds of the letter 'e' and section B asks students to choose between two options and practice the intonation of questions. In the actual lesson, students heard the sentences from the CD and repeated them, and the teacher gave explanations for some words. Here, pronunciation and intonation are treated in isolation, but in everyday language intonation of the same utterance can change according to the speaker's meaning and intention. Learners learn through participation in discursive practices. However, these activities do not provide the kinds of practices where learners can use the focal linguistic features of English for social purposes.

### **Talking Activities**

The next page (p. 32), as shown in the Figure 5, is the *Let's talk* section, which contains two tasks. One is to listen to and then correctly order the jumbled-up sentences of the dialogue, and the other is to listen and complete a conversation.

The instructions and the dialogue for the tasks are:

**A.** *Listen to the conversation and write a number in order. Then practice the conversation with your friend.*

A: Who is the best player on our basketball team?  
B: I think Min-ho is the best.  
A: That's not exactly right. Su-man is better than Min-ho.  
B: Do you think so?  
A: Yes, I do. Su-man is much faster than Min-ho.  
B: You're right.

For the first box two sentences are provided in a bubble: *Do you want to go?; Do you plan to go?* Sentences for the second one are: *I'd love to go to the concert.; I'm dying to go to the concert'.*

The dialogues for the above tasks are in exactly the same format as the *Listen in* activities on p. 28 and 29, except for the kind of sports or event and the names of people being compared. The dialogues are already problematic because they are inauthentic, but the tasks are also problematic. The tasks are meant to be talking tasks, but the students just read the dialogue aloud, and it involves very little meaning-making. Thus, the point of this activity does not go much further than to practice recognizing English sentences.

This *Let's Talk* section is followed by *Talking Activities* (p. 33). The task in this section is to have a conversation comparing three mountains, rivers and animals following a model conversation. The model conversation is:

A: Is Mt. Baekdu higher than Mt. Halla?  
B: Yes, it is.  
A: Is Mt. Seorak higher than Mt. Baekdu?  
B: No. That's not exactly right.  
A: Which mountain is the highest in Korea?  
B: Mt. Baekdu.

Like the other texts in the textbook, the provided model dialogue is unnatural, because the all of the answers finish in complete sentences. It a simple question/answer style, that would only appear in quiz games such as *20 questions*. However it does not specify that the dialogue occurs in a game show. By doing this task the students will not engage in making their own meaning about mountains, rivers, and animals, but just mimic an artificial dialogue.

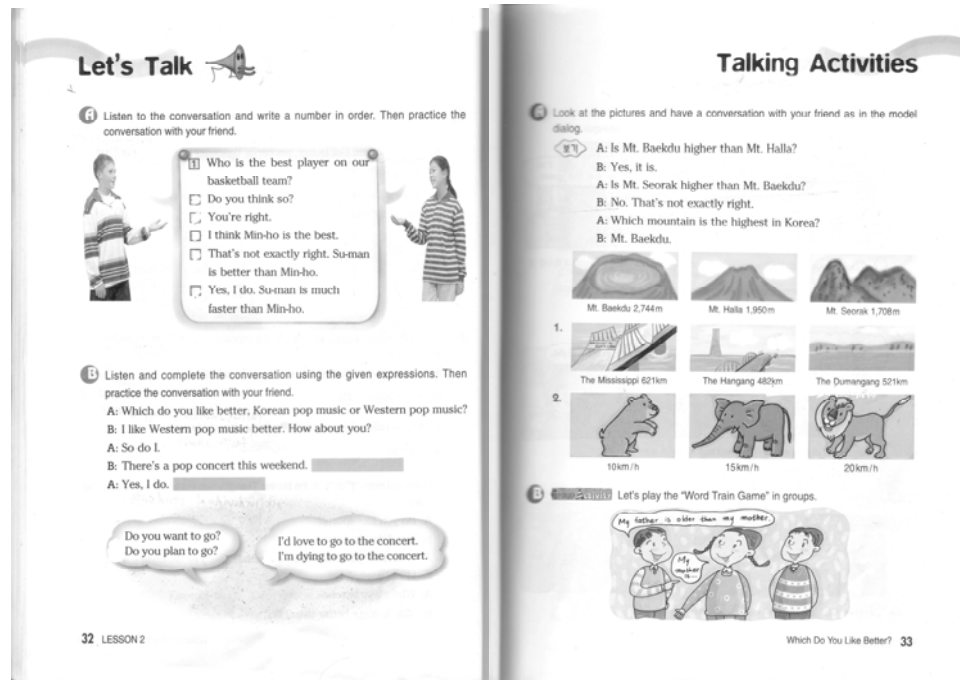


Figure 5 (Textbook pages 32 – 33)

The following activity is a group activity of a game called 'Word Train Game.' One person starts by saying 'My father is older than my mother' and the next person says 'My mother is ...' This is a simple game but more meaningful than the others, because the purpose of this activity is clear; to play a game, even though the hidden purpose is presumed to be to practice the comparative form of English. In the actual lesson this activity was skipped.

The theme of these activities is also not coherent, which could cause confusion in the students. In addition, the tasks for talking are unrealistic, because they bear little resemblance to social discursive practices. The students participate in something that does not occur in our usual relationships.

## Functions

The next page (Figure 6) is the *Functions* section. Under the title of Functions is written 'Let's summarize what we have learned so far.' Then the page has three sections of 'asking of and answering one's wishes and wills', 'correcting', and 'comparing', which are written in Korean, and each section has a dialogue of two turns with the phrases practiced in the chapter.

The dialogues are:

1. A: Do you plan to go?  
B: Of course, I do. I'm dying to see the game.
2. A: I think Gi-ho is the best player.  
B: That's not exactly right.
3. A: Who is taller, Mike or Gi-ho?  
B: I think Mike is taller than Gi-ho.

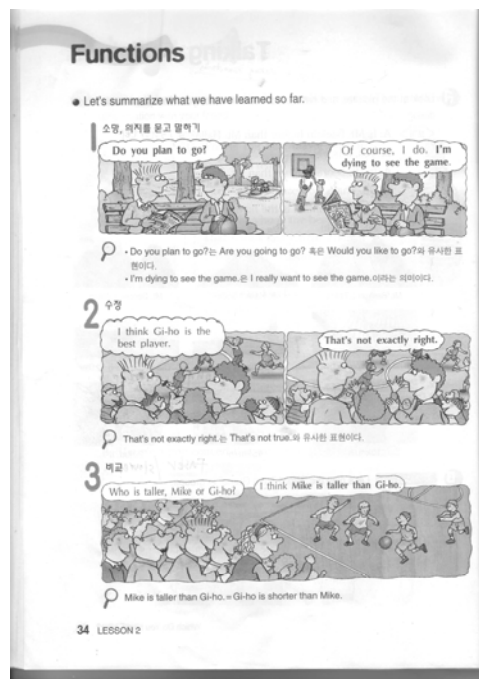


Figure 6 (Textbook page 34)

In the actual lessons, the sentences in the bubbles were read aloud and repeated, and the teacher provided expressions with similar meanings to the sentences.

This part of the chapter confirms the theory underpinning the textbook, which puts linguistic features, in this case some phrases, in the centre of language instruction. Language is treated as objects regardless of the context. Even though the pictures may provide contextual information, it is not sufficient to make sense of the utterances.

### Interactions

The next page (Figure 7) is the *Interactions* in which the students are asked to listen, fill in a table and have a conversation using the given expressions. The table can be summarized as:

<b>Min-su</b>	<b>Peter</b>	<b>Sam</b>
12 years	___ years	13 years
___ kg	70kg	___ kg
160 cm	___ cm	176 cm

The transcript of the recording for this task is:

1. Min-su is 12 years old. He is 53kg. He is 160cm tall.
2. Peter is 15 years old. He is 70kg. He is 184cm tall.
3. Sam is 13 years old. He is 63kg. He is 176cm tall.

The given expressions are:

- Who is older, Min-su or Peter?
- Who is heavier, Peter or Sam?
- Who is taller, Min-su or Sam?

Through the listening and fill-in task in section A, the students are meant to practice hearing numbers and making sentences using comparatives in English.

The next activity in section B is to listen and choose the picture for each

conversation among the five pictures, and have a conversation as in the model dialogue.

The model dialogue is:

A: Do you plan to *see the movie*?  
B: Yes, I do. I'm dying to *see it*. Do you want to go with me?  
A: Sure.

The dialogues the students will hear are:

1. A: Do you plan to go to the rock concert?  
B: Yes, I do. I'm dying to go to the concert. Do you want to go with me?  
A: Sure.
2. A: Do you plan to go to the Korean classical music concert?  
B: Yes, I do. I'm dying to go. Do you want to go with me?  
A: Sure.
3. A: Do you plan to go to the art museum?  
B: Yes, I do. I'm dying to go. Do you want to go with me?  
A: Sure.

The image shows a page from a textbook titled "Interactions". It contains a table with personal information for three people: Min-su, Peter, and Sam. Below the table are three questions for a listening exercise. Further down, there is another listening exercise with a model dialogue and four picture options for a conversation.

	Min-su	Peter	Sam
Age	12 years	13 years	13 years
Weight	60kg	70kg	65kg
Height	160cm	170cm	176cm

Who is older, Min-su or Peter?  
Who is heavier, Peter or Sam?  
Who is taller, Min-su or Sam?

Listen and choose the picture for each conversation. Then have a conversation with your friend as in the model dialog.

A: Do you plan to see the movie?  
B: Yes, I do. I'm dying to see it. Do you want to go with me?  
A: Sure.

Which Do You Like Better? 35

Figure 7 (Textbook page 35)

To listen and choose the right poster, students are required to recognize short phrases such as 'rock concert', 'Korean classical music concert', and 'the art

museum' to match with the pictures. However all the dialogues appear to be in the middle of a conversation, with the beginning and the end missing.

The purpose of task A is more grammatical than interactional, because comparing three people of their age, weight, and height is not a common social practice. Task B is to have a conversation about going to events such as a concert or a play. Discussing going to such events is a common social practice, but the task is problematic in some aspects. Firstly, the model dialogue is an artificial one; hence it is not a good model students should refer to. Secondly, the illustrated posters appear to be authentic but they are out of date. Yet the task requires the students to pretend the events are on at the moment. The students in this task will say things that are not real for them, following the unnatural model of dialogue.

## **Reading**

The following activity is the *Let's Read* section page 36 - 39. Under the title of *Let's Read* are two questions written in Korean. 'Have you ever played a sports game between classes?' What's the most important thing at a group game? The text is as follows;

1. There is a soccer game after school today. It is a match between Gi-ho's class and
2. Mike's. Gi-ho and his team lost the game last month so all the players want to win
3. this time. They will try harder than in the last game. It is about time to play. The
4. players are already on the field except one. "Where is Min-su?" asks Gi-ho. "I don't
5. know," says Chang-su. "But the other team is ready to play." "We have to find him.
6. We can't win this game without him. He's our best player." "Try calling him."
7. "That's a good idea." Gi-ho hurries to the telephone. He calls Min-su and waits.
8. "Hello?" answers Min-su. "Min-su, where are you? What are you doing?" "Where
9. am I? I'm at home, watching TV." What! Watching TV! Min-su, it's time for the



10. game!" "The game? What game? Oh, no! I'm on my way!" "Hurry up!" Everyone  
11. waits for Min-su to arrive. The game begins without him. Gi-ho's team has the ball.  
12. They run faster than the other team. Chang-su kicks the ball as hard as he can, but  
13. the other team gets it. They run fast and a player kicks the ball. It goes higher than  
14. the goalkeeper's head and into the goal. Everyone on that team cheers. The score is  
15. 1:0. "We're behind. Where is Min-su? Cry the players. "Look! Here he comes now!"  
16. Chang-su calls out. The game continues. Everyone roots for Min-su. He gets the ball  
17. and goes faster than anyone else around him. He kicks, and the ball flies farther than  
18. anyone has kicked it, and lands in the goal! Gi-ho's team plays a great game and in  
19. the end wins the game 2:1. After the game, all the players run over to Min-su. One  
20. player says, "Min-su, you are our best player! You scored both of our goals! We need  
21. you to win our games." "Well," says Min-su, "we all have to work together. Just  
22. remember, I scored those thanks to your help today. Teamwork is the most important  
23. thing of all."

The text, at a glance, looks similar to a narrative because of the direct speech. However, the beginning of the text is not an introduction of characters and background, which is normal in a narrative (Figg, 2002). The story of the text has a crisis and resolution, but the story is not entertaining for readers, which is the usual purpose of narratives. This is due to the fact that the text is not written for the social purpose of entertainment but for teaching. The text is unnatural in a number of ways. In line 3, for example, there is transition of time at '*It is about time to play*', but there is no word for time connection. What Min-su says from line 21 - 22 (*Well, we all have to work together. Just remember, I scored those thanks to your help today. Teamwork is the most important thing of all.*) does not sound like a schoolboy who talks to his friends, but a teacher talking to students. The end of the text with direct speech is unnatural as well.

In the actual lessons, the activities the teacher prepared for the reading of the text were: one listen-and-gap-filling activity, one comprehension test activity, and one betting game, which is a kind of comprehension testing activity. The teacher did not translate the reading text sentence by sentence, which was a common activity in the traditional English lessons of my school years. The two reading comprehension activities appeared to be fun and useful, however, in the activities the students appeared to struggle because such a short time was allowed (Observation on 09/04/2004).

The *Reading Activities* section (Figure 8), which comes after the text, contains four tasks. The first task is to give numbers to the four pictures according to the order of the story. The second one is to specify whether the given statements are True or False. They are:

1. The soccer game began without Min-su.
2. Min-su's team lost the game.
3. Min-su's team scored the final goal.
4. Min-su scored two goals.

The two tasks are similar to the common reading activities that require readers to comprehend the text to solve the questions. The third task is to find two verbs with opposite meanings from the opposite lines of verbs, some of which are from the reading text. The last task is to find from the reading text the reason why Min-su says '*Teamwork is the most important thing of all.*'

The artificially conjured text for reading and the reading activities appear to be of little relevance to social practices around text in real life. The text and activities might help students improve their text comprehension skills but they do not cover the other skills required in the use of texts in the society, such as 'reflecting on and

evaluating what is learned through oral and written texts, becoming aesthetically engaged in reading ... and knowing how to find and use knowledge in new situations to achieve personal and social goals' (Wade & Moje, 2001, p. 105).

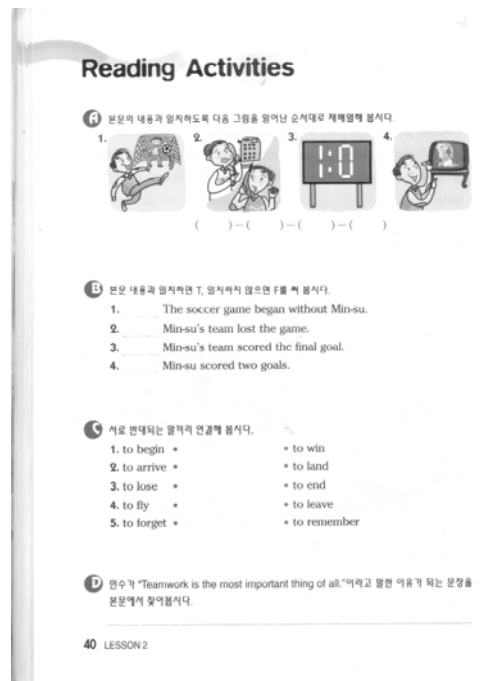


Figure 8 (Textbook page 40)

Paraphrasing and restating of the text and translating its meanings into daily familiar spoken language are the ways to comprehend a text (Lemke, 1995), and talk about texts encourages language learners to create opportunities to connect their current knowledge of texts with their social and personal world (Barton, 2000; Jones, 2000). However, such activities are not included in the textbook.

### Writing Activities

The next section to the reading activities is the *Let's Write* section (p. 41), as shown in Figure 10, which has two parts. Under the section title are four sentences with comparatives and superlatives. Those are:

The yellow car is **bigger than** the black one.

The green jacket is **more expensive than** the blue one.

John is **the tallest** player on the team.

Kitty is **the most wonderful** lady in the world.

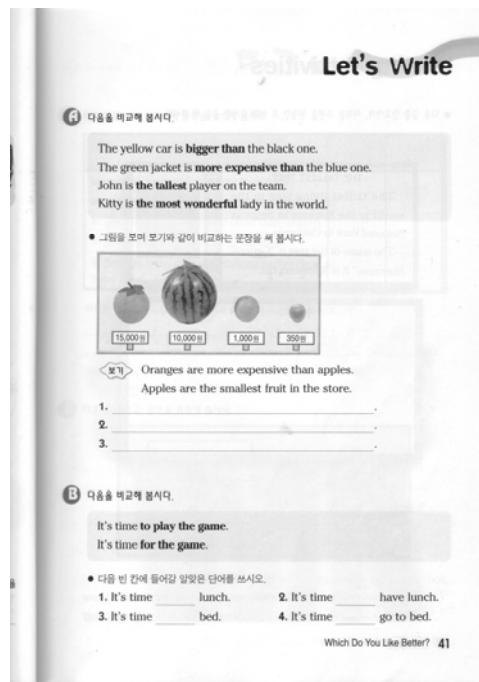


Figure 9 (Textbook page 41)

The first part is to write comparing sentences about the four illustrated pieces of different kinds of fruit with different prices.

The model sentences are:

Oranges are more expensive than apples.

Apples are the smallest fruit in the store.

This practice is for practicing making sentences using comparatives or superlatives. In the actual lesson, the students wrote sentences similar to the models and presented them on the black board. Comparing prices among different fruits and comparing sizes among pieces of the same fruit would occur at a market, but comparing sizes among different fruits is unlikely. Therefore students practice saying something they would probably never say outside class.

B. Listen and complete the conversation using the given expressions. Then practice the conversation with your friend.

A: Which do you like better, Korean pop music or Western pop music?

B: I like Western pop music better. How about you?

A: So do I.

B: There's a pop concert this  weekend.

A: Yes, I  do.

This practice is limited to the sentence level, as they would not fulfil any social function. Students would not be comparing prices for any other purpose than doing the assigned task.

The next part is to compare the structures of *It's time to + verb* and *It's time for + noun*. The two sentences are provided.

It's time **to play the game**.

It's time **for the game**.

The task is to fill in the gaps in the sentences.

1. It's time \_\_\_\_ lunch.

2. It's time \_\_\_\_ have lunch.

3. It's time \_\_\_\_ bed.

4. It's time \_\_\_\_ go to bed.

This section was skipped by the teacher in the lesson. While the task is meant to be a writing task, it merely requires filling gaps with a word (either *to* or *for*). Therefore, this is sentence level practice.

The subsequent activity is the *Writing Activities* on page 42 (Figure 11). The task is to write a paragraph similar to the one given as an example. The example paragraph is as follows:

#### ***The Tallest Tree***

*The tallest living tree in the world is the Sequoia in Sequoia National Park in California. The name of the tree is "General Sherman." It is 83 meters tall.*

This text bears some resemblance to an information text whose purpose is to give information. However, it is not a whole text so it is inauthentic. Because the students are already familiar with information texts from their previous school or outside-school life, they may easily relate to such a text, if authentic. The task is to compose a paragraph similar to the example above. In addition, the social purpose and context of writing is not provided.

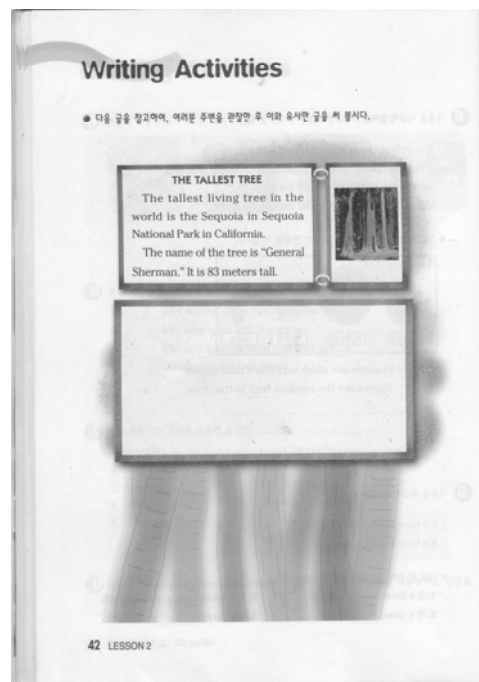


Figure 10 (Textbook page 42)

### Interaction Activities

The following section is the *Interactions* section on page 43 (Figure 12). In this section, the students are asked to fill in the given table and later write their agreement. The table is:

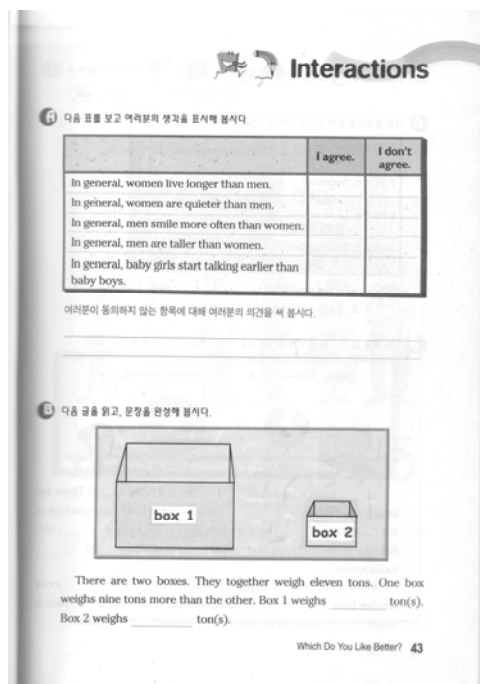
	I agree.	I don't agree.
In general, women live longer than men.		
In general, women are quieter than men.		
In general, men smile more often than women.		

In general, men are taller than women.		
In general, baby girls start talking earlier than baby boys.		

This type of task can be a good opportunity for students to make meaning, however this activity is problematic in some points. First of all, some of the issues raised in the statements are not suitable for the task. For example, the first one ‘*Women live longer than men*’ is a widely known fact based on statistics, and is not an opinion statement. Secondly, students must mark in the boxes to indicate whether they agree or not. However, to make the task more interactive, a debate activity that divides the students into two groups would make the activity more interesting and be more appropriate to the section objective (*Interactions*) as well as reflect a real life setting such as a debating competition. Thirdly, the textbook also asks students to write their opinion about the statements they disagree with, without providing a model text. Argumentative writing has its own generic structure and linguistic features (Mickan & Slater, 2003). Students need this specific knowledge to produce their own, and this was not provided. Lastly, this activity is presented without an explanation of the context. An activity is meaningful when it is put in a context (Lemke, 1990).

The second part is a fill-in-gaps activity. The illustration is a box 1 and a box 2. The sentences about the boxes are:

There are two boxes. They together weigh eleven tons. One box weighs nine tons more than the other. Box 1 weighs \_\_\_\_\_ ton(s). Box 2 weighs \_\_\_\_ ton(s).



**Figure 11 (Textbook page 43)**

Unlike the title of the section – *Interactions* - they do not require many interactions among students but independent work. However, the texts in this task are more natural and authentic than many others in this textbook, and these tasks can make students try to make their own meaning of the sentences while they figure out the question. In addition, the students may relate to this type of text and activity from their experiences in Maths classes. The task is related to two equations in the two variables. Although this particular algebra problem is taught toward the end of the first semester, in chapter 4 out of 5 chapters in the Maths textbook (Kang et al., 2002), the students are unlikely to be aware of that mathematical problem when doing this chapter.

### **Challenges and Project**

The next page (Figure 13) is the *Challenges* section, which is composed of three parts. The first part is to have a conversation about the given table of a daily



routine.

The model dialogue is:

A: What time is it?

B: *It's seven o'clock. It's time to get up.*

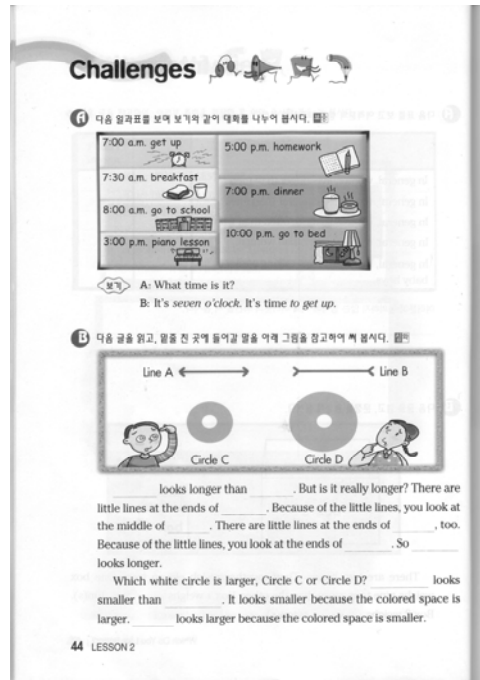


Figure 12 (Textbook page 44)

This type of task requires very limited thinking skills as it just repeats the same structure several times. The model dialogue shows that this task is to practice the phrase of *It's time to ~*. This is a tedious activity as it does not require work beyond the sentence level. The task is also not related to the other tasks in the section.

The next part is a fill-in-gaps activity referring to the illustration. The illustration has two lines and two circles. The given text is:

\_\_\_\_\_ looks longer than \_\_\_\_\_. But is it really longer? There are little lines at the ends of \_\_\_\_\_. Because of the little lines, you look at the ends of \_\_\_\_\_, too. Because of the little lines, you look at the ends of \_\_\_\_\_. So \_\_\_\_\_ looks longer.

Which white circle is larger, Circle C or Circle D? \_\_\_\_\_ looks smaller than \_\_\_\_\_. It looks smaller because the colored space is larger. \_\_\_\_\_ looks larger because the colored space is smaller. (p. 44)

This task will be useful because it requires students to make meaning of the text, even though the task is given without contextual information or thematic association with the other tasks in the chapter. Students have to use the information in the text to solve this problem.

The third task is to play a *Who's Who?* game. By referring to the illustration and the clues written below the illustration, the students are asked to give name to the characters in the illustration of page 45 (Figure 14).

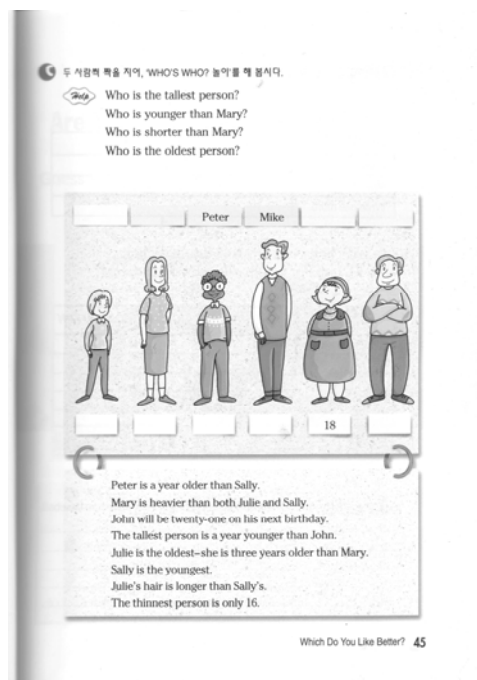


Figure 13 (Textbook page 45)

The given clues are:

- Peter is a year older than Sally.
- Mary is heavier than both Julie and Sally.
- John will be twenty-one on his next birthday.
- The tallest person is a year younger than John.
- Julie is the oldest-she is three years older than Mary.
- Sally is the youngest.
- Julie's hair is longer than Sally's.
- The thinnest person is only 16.

Although the text for the task is not closely linked to the other texts or activities of the chapter in theme, the task itself is a meaningful activity in that the students have to make meaning of the illustrations and the clues written in the target language. However, this task was not conducted in any lesson I observed.

The last task for this chapter at page 46 (Figure 15) is titled, *Project – which do you like better?* The first part is to fill in a table individually as below.

<b>Sports</b>	Soccer is more exciting than baseball.
<b>Food</b>	___ is better than ____.
<b>Music</b>	___ is more interesting than ____.
<b>Write one more</b>	

After filling in the table themselves, students are meant to ask five other students their opinions, and then fill in the given table using the model sentence.

A: Do you think that *soccer* is more exciting than *baseball*?

B: Yes, I do.

NAME	AGREE	DON'T AGREE	DON'T KNOW
	√		

After the table is filled in, the students are required to write a report, which starts as follows:

Most of my friends think that soccer is more exciting than baseball. \_\_\_\_\_

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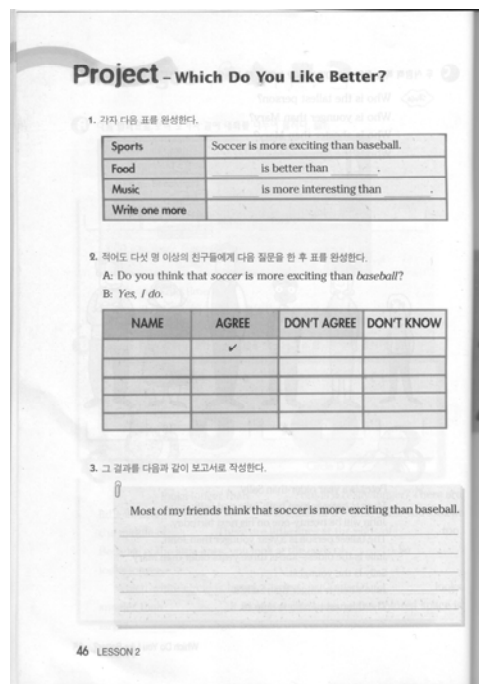


Figure 14 (Textbook page 46)

Even though the first task is an individual work, the table-filling task appears to be interactive, because they need to go around the class to get answers to fill in the table. However, the third task would be too hard for the students, as they have not learned about writing a report in English, in terms of the generic structure and linguistic features of a report. In addition, the tasks are not connected to the other tasks and texts of the chapter. If the tasks were introduced with contextual information and in a thematically coherent manner, they could be practice for participating in social communicative practices, but they lack this.

## SUMMARY

In the first part of the chapter, I analysed the assumed theory of language learning and teaching in the National Curriculum. The Curriculum is based on the

functional approach to language teaching and communicative language teaching. The four skills of language: listening, speaking, reading and writing skills are recommended to be integrated but they are dealt with in separation in the goals and in teaching methods.

In the second part of the chapter, I have analysed the texts and activities adopted for the Lesson 2, *'Which do you like better?'* The analysis has allowed me to pinpoint features of the textbook texts and tasks in terms of four issues. Firstly, most of the texts are artificially written and chosen for the purpose of remembering phrases and practicing the grammar chosen for the chapter. The texts are given without contextual information or thematic coherence among them, even though there are some common dialogues about sports. It is the chosen phrases and grammar features that tie the chapter together. In this chapter, these are *'Do you plan to go?'*, *'I'm dying to see the game'*, *'That's not exactly right'* and *'Gi-ho runs faster than Min-su.'* The grammar focus was forms of comparatives and superlatives.

Secondly, the chapter tasks are organized to recognize and practice these phrases. The listening tasks require low thinking skills such as word recognition. The interaction tasks do not require interaction but the creation of a dialogue following a model, which is unlikely happen in real world, such as comparing the heights of mountains on page 33. The reading task does not resemble our social practices around written texts. The writing activities are limited to sentence level work or working without contextual information or genre-specific linguistic features.

Thirdly, the chapter's objective: *'to strengthen our body and soul and to enhance cooperation through sports'* is not dealt with in any depth. The only time this theme is mentioned is during the reading comprehension question, and throughout all the lessons on this chapter the teacher mentions the theme just once. Lastly, after studying this chapter, the students might remember some emphasized phrases and grammar points. However, they can hardly make use of those linguistic resources for making meaning in interaction both within and outside classroom, because they will not have opportunities to practice making use of them or expand their semiotic resources to express their meanings in communicative practices in the classroom.