

## **A Comparative Study of Argumentation Structure between Native and Non-Native Speakers of English**

**Ann Yunmi Keh (Daebul Univ.)**

### **I. INTRODUCTION**

English as a *lingua franca* has created the need for Korean students to be competent in their ability to effectively interact in English. Considering the increase of English-medium lectures at Korean universities, the significance of active spoken participation has become an essential component for academic success (Murphy, 2005). The rise in English-medium lectures has placed pressure on students in Korea to show high proficiency in English (Eun-Ju Kim, 2002). To participate in such academic discourse, students need not only to possess linguistic knowledge but also to the accepted sociocultural rules and conversational norms (Hymes, 1972). Knowledge of a particular variety of English enables the individual to engage successfully in various areas academic and professional areas, including higher education, international relations, and business (McKay, 2005). A fundamental goal of higher education is for students to develop a critical attitude towards knowledge and enhance their ability to formulate and present well-grounded arguments. Argumentation as a genre has been studied extensively in the field of writing. There have been comparative studies that have shown the different features of writing produced by L2 and native English speakers' texts in terms of how their claims are presented (Ferris, 1994 Kubota, 1998; Wang, 2000). Studies on Korean students regarding the genre of argumentation have also been covered through Contrastive Rhetoric (CR) studies between L1 and L2 texts (Choi, 1988b; Kim, 2005; Wang, 2000). These studies found many differences in the rhetorical structure of the argumentative text. Generally, there have not been any studies that compare L1 and L2 spoken argumentation for Korean students learning English as their L2. The significance of communicating and participating within the classroom, however, is on the rise due to an increase of English medium lectures mentioned earlier. The genre of spoken argumentation is an important pragmatic skill key to academic success as well as other aspects of life in which valid

opinions or claims are made during spoken interaction. The aim of this research is to identify the pattern and content of the genre-specific argument strategies employed by non-native and native speakers of English when engaged in argumentation.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### 1. Theoretical background on spoken interaction

Spoken interaction requires not only the individual ability to talk but also encompasses the shared social activity of talking (Luoma, 2004, p.20). The interlocutors construct the process together and contribute to the resulting outcome of the interaction. Therefore, meaning is developed mutually by both the speaker and listener during spoken interaction through a system of turn-taking. The meaning is thus determined by the context and not pre-determined in advance. As a result, conversational styles differ among various people and societies.

Spoken argumentation is a genre that encompasses the significant theoretical components that make up spoken interaction. This genre requires competency beyond grammatical and linguistic competence. The interlocutors are faced with maneuvering through various challenges such as turn-taking, sociolinguistic and discourse competence. Such factors require the interlocutors to be aware of the social norms of the particular discourse community, as well as the distinct features that characterize argumentation. The overview of the underlying theoretical components making up spoken interaction reveals the challenges that L2 students face when interacting in English. Spoken argumentation has specific rhetorical features that need to be taught and recognized by the interlocutors in order for the interaction to proceed. The genre has characteristics that can ultimately motivate students beyond their extrinsic motivation to cultivate their intrinsic motivation. According to Brown (2001), learners have to deal with their intrinsic motivation when language is the medium used to convey information of interest and relevance to the learner. When the content is perceived to be relevant beyond basic non-language goals, feelings of competence and self-determination can result in an increase of intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1975). Topics for argumentation are frequently based on prevalent issues that impact our society today. Frequently, such topics result in strong opinions from individuals who engage in argumentation. The ability to freely express opinions and claims while interacting in L2 is academically challenging. However, this also highlights the need for more focused instruction enhancing not only Korean EFL students' linguistic ability but also their knowledge and awareness of the genre of argumentation.

### 3. Components of Argumentation

Argument is a term with different meanings in various contexts. When used as a type of interaction as in "A and B were arguing about their schedule conflict with C," the term is focusing on what is taking place between the interlocutors rather than on the content of what is being said. For this study, the term argument will focus on the content of what is said. Therefore, argument in this sense is reflective in Warnick and Inch's 1989 definition of "a set of statements in which a claim is made, support is offered for it, and there is an attempt to influence someone" (p. 6). Arguments constitute one form of communication and are thus a genre that is recognizable by its rhetorical characteristics.

The main components characterizing an argument are claims and supports. Claims are expressed as an opinion or a statement that the arguer wants the opposing interlocutor to accept. The second feature of arguments is the statements, which support the claims. The evidence for the claims varies in how they are formed. Regardless of how they are stated, they always function as the base in which the argument begins. The final characteristic of arguments is that they are attempts on the part of the interlocutors to attempt in influencing the opposing interlocutor. The focus needs to be placed on the term 'attempts,' since there is the possibility of not succeeding. It is up to the opposing interlocutor whether or not to accept the expressed opinion of the interlocutor.

## III. METHODOLOGY

### 1. Research Questions

- (1) What differences characterize the argumentation for NS and NNS at the macro-level in terms of content and structure?
  - a. How do NS and NNS construct their arguments when stating claims, justification, and counter arguments?
- (2) How does the micro-level analysis of NS and NNS argumentation differ in terms of sub-structures, language use, and manner of speech?
  - a. What types of argument strategies are used by the NS and NNS dyads during argumentation?
- (3) How do NS and NNS perceive argumentative discussions?

- a. To what extent does the students' willingness to participate' (WTC) play a role when engaged in L2 interaction?
- b. What types of argument strategies do the participants perceive to have used during the argumentation?

## 2. Participants

A total of 20 NNS and NS participants participated in this study. The NNS participants for the study consisted of 10 Korean graduate students majoring in English education. Their ages ranged from 23 to 28 years of age. The participants were grouped into dyads resulting in 5 NS dyads and 5 NNS dyads.

## 3. Design of Study

The pre-questionnaire obtained the participants' views of the pros and cons of internet censorship. The second step consisted of forming dyads by pairing the participants with opposing views together for both the native speakers and the non-native speakers. The researcher set up times lots for each dyad to audio record the argumentation on internet censorship. The recordings were transcribed by the researcher and reviewed by two English native speakers with a background in teaching debate to Korean secondary students. The transcribed data underwent analysis in terms of the utterance types of discourse skills related to argumentation. After the recording, the participants were individually interviewed on their self-perceived performance on having engaged in argumentation. The interviews were also recorded and transcribed. The post-questionnaire was given after the interviews took place.

## 3. Data Collection Procedures

### 1) Assignment of dyads

Within the NNS and NS groups, the students were assigned to dyads according to the positions that they have identified on the topic of internet censorship on the pre-questionnaire.

### 2) Utterance types for coding

The skills employed for argumentation, the utterance types can be distinguished by their effectiveness in argumentation. In coding the individual utterances, Felton and Kuhn's (2001, 2003) and Felton (2004)'s coding scheme for arguments were adapted for this study. The coding system that was used is shown below in **Table 1**.

**Table 1 Analytic Scheme for Coding Argumentation**

Transactive Questions	
Case-?	A request for the partner to take a position on a particular case or scenario.
Clarify-?	<b>A request for the partner to take a position on a particular case or scenario.</b>
Position-?	A request for the partner to state his or her position on an issue.
Transactive statements:	
Add	An extension or elaboration of the partner's preceding utterance.
Clarify	A clarification of the speaker's own argument in response to the partner's preceding utterance.
Counter-C	A disagreement with the partner's preceding utterance, accompanied by a critique.
Disagree	A simple disagreement without further argument or elaboration.
Interpret	A paraphrase of the partner's preceding utterance with or without further elaboration.
Nontransactive statement:	
Unconnected	An utterance having no apparent connection to the preceding utterances of either partner or speaker.

#### IV. FINDINGS

##### 1. Preliminary results and discussion

For the genre of argumentation, this study found that the rhetorical structure of the genre of argumentation needs to be taught to NNS students learning English as their L2. The basic components that make up arguments such as claims, supports, and counter-claims can be taught alongside the more traditional forms of English pedagogy, such as vocabulary and grammar. First and foremost, students need to become familiarized with the ability to determine an argument from other statements. From the analysis, there were numerous statements made that were unconnected to the preceding utterance or to the arguments being presented. The characteristic features of argument, which include putting forth a claim, offering support for the claim and making an attempt to influence someone, were features that most Korean students were not aware of. Though they knew that their role and viewpoint within the discussion would require them to get their claims accepted, the students did not

seem to know how to go about carrying for the their arguments in a strategic manner. For example, in terms of questioning the opposing interlocutor, the NS group used questioning as a device to further emphasize their claim and even undermine the claims or support stated previously. The NNS group, on the other hand, was unable to advance their claims beyond the basics of stating the particular claim. In order to effectively use their knowledge on the particular topic to produce counter-claims and evidence against the opposing interlocutor, L2 learners need to be aware of both the pro and con of the situation.

In terms of WTC, argumentation is a genre with possibilities in evoking the motivation of L2 learners in communicating in English. There are numerous topics used for teaching debate for both L1 and L2 learners of English. Having learners choose topics upon which they personally have a strong opinion will allow for learners to use their WTC in order to have their claims understood and to undermine the opposing claims as well.

In coding the utterances for the case study, it became evident that van Eemeren et al.'s 2007 characterization of speech acts for a critical discussion was truly an 'ideal' model as they have mentioned themselves in their study. In the process of applying the utterances to the codes for the Korean students, was very difficult. There were frequent instances in which a claim began with one interlocutor and was completed by another when the previous interlocutor experienced difficulty in formulating the proper word or phrase to complete their claim. There were many cases of new claims made with no address to the claims made by the opposing interlocutor. In the process of analyzing the NNS and NS transcriptions from the case study, the coding scheme of Felton and Kuhn (2001) was found to have greater adaptability for both NNS and NS groups' data.

The results of this study provided several key areas to consider in implementing explicit instruction for spoken argumentation. Explicit instruction on the genre of argumentation is need edas more Korean L2 students are faced with having to attend English medium lectures at the university level or beyond. As discussed above, there were several features which negatively influenced the NNS groups during argumentation. These particular features lead to the following pedagogical suggestions in implementing this genre into the Korean EFL context. First and foremost, the characteristics of this genre as expressed through various terms and expressions need to be instructed. There are expressions which can easily be learned for the purposes of indicating claims and supports. For example, students can be taught the difference between weak assertive and strong assertive through the following expressions: *I think that; I assume that; It seems to me that*. These expressions can be shown and compared with the following expressions characterizing strong assertives: *no doubt that; it*

*is unquestionably; it is certain that* (van Eemeren et al., 2007, p. 31).

The study of argumentation as a genre is an area of increasing interest within the fields of speech and communications, especially in secondary schools and universities in the United States. Within this context, argumentation has become a means to promote critical thinking in teaching the ability to reason within all disciplines. The possibility of engaging students to generate and state their views and opinions for argument, as well as to research in search of evidence to analyze and evaluate others' arguments, indicate the potential impact of implementing this genre within the Korean EFL classroom. As shown previously, studies on the genre of argumentation for L2 learners have been scarce. Investigating the argumentation of Korean EFL students through detailed discourse analysis has provided more insight into how students interact when faced with the challenge of resolving differences of opinions. The informational content of the claims and supports of the participants were also closely analyzed through the data. The characteristics of L2 anxiety, motivation and perceived competence provided a deeper understanding on the individual characteristics affecting the participants WTC, a significant factor for FL students interacting in the L2. In terms of WTC, this study found that communication is a challenge for both NS and NNS groups. Argumentation is a genre that requires critical thinking and an awareness of the rhetorical structure of the genre itself. The features that were coded for analysis in this study, as well as the pragmatic aspects of how the features of argumentation are stated by the interlocutor, are areas which should be taught explicitly to L2 learners to ensure success in engaging in this genre.

## V. REFERENCES

- Brown, A. (2009). Argumentation and debate in foreign language instruction: A case for the traditional classroom Facilitating advanced-level language uptake. *The Modern Language Journal*, 93(4), 534-549.
- Choi, Y. H. (1988b). Text structure of Korean speakers' argumentative essays in English. *World Englishes*, 7(2), 129-142.
- Deci, E. (1975). *Intrinsic motivation*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Felton, M. (2004). The development of discourse strategies in adolescent argumentation. *Cognitive Development*, 19, 35-52.
- Felton, M., & Kuhn, D. (2001). The development of argumentative discourse skill. *Discourse Processes*, 32, 135-153.
- Ferris, D. (1998). Students' views of academic aural/oral skills: A comparative needs analysis.

- TESOL Quarterly*, 32(2), 289-318.
- Ferris, D., & Tagg, T. (1996a). Academic listening/speaking tasks for ESL students: Problems, suggestions, and implications. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(2), 297-312.
- Kim, E.-J. (2003). A comparative study of academic oral interaction in English-medium lectures and Korean-medium lectures. *English Teaching*, 58(3), 3-20.
- Kubota, R. (1998a). An investigation of Japanese and English L1 essay organization: Differences and similarities. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 54, 475-507.
- Luoma, S. (2004). *Assessing speaking*. (p. 20). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hymes, D. (1967). *Models of interaction of language and social setting*. *Journal of Social Issues*, 23(2), 8-38.
- McKay, P. (2005). Research into the assessment of school age language learners. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 25, 243-263.
- Murphy, J.M. (2005). *Essentials in teaching academic oral communication*. Boston: Houghton-Mufflin.
- van Eemeren, F. H., Houtlosser, P. Henkemans, F. (2007). *Argumentative indicators: A pragma-dialectical study*. Dordrechts: Springer.
- Wong, J. (2000). Delayed next turn repair initiation in native/non-native speaker English conversation. *Applied Linguistics*, 21(2), 244-67.
- Warnick, B. & Inch, E. S. (1989). *Critical thinking and communication: The use of reason in argument*. New York: Macmillan.

## **The Development of an Efficient Teacher-Rater Training Program for Enhancing Rater Reliability**

**So Young Jang (Honam University)**

### **I. Purpose of This Study**

The primary purposes of this study are to develop an efficient training model at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. This study focused on development of systematic training program for the essay raters. Most of the recent research about rater reliability has focused either on a discrete single aspect by providing a single statistical index, or on one aspect of raters' individual backgrounds, such as raters background information, interaction between rater and task, However, It is not easy to find meaningful implications from these studies for the actual improvement of rater reliability.

It is suggested by many studies that developing a systematic training program through iterative evaluation could be a way to reduce the variability in rating among raters (Choi, 2002; Shin, 2001; Shohamy, Gordon, & Kraemer, 1992; Weigle, 1998). In spite of this suggestion, theoretical frameworks and practical guidance for rater training have had little open discussion, having been handled primarily as an internal practice of individual testing agencies, despite the demand for systematic training programs for enhancing rater reliability.

It seems that standardization would be an effort to see scoring problems as a matter of educational system rather than individual responsibility. This study proposes that a rater training program can be standardized by accomplishing innovative systematic changes that consider the relevant literature, the characteristics of test instrument, the test procedure, and contextual effects such as the concerns of the stake holders (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007).

Three major theories (evaluation theory, training theory, and measurement theory) served for designing the standardized rater training program. First, standardization can be achieved and evaluated by following modified Lynch's program evaluation model (1996; 2003) to formulate a basic framework of standardization, which includes the entire evaluation process from needs analysis to feedback system on the basis of the final product of the evaluation. On the basis of training theory analysis, the most appropriate training materials and methods were created in cooperation with the trainer and staff of a language program. For the development of a systematic training model to fit the rating context, theoretical training models, specific goals, and methods of the training program are defined for a particular training program (Borman, 1977; 1978; 1979 Phillips, 1997; Rothwell & Kazanas, 2004; Waagen, 2006). Finally, measurement theory contributed to evaluating the program's effectiveness and individual raters'

performances. Some issues of rater reliability, measurement, and rating validity were discussed in combination with the effects of the rater training program.

## **II. Methodology**

The data for this study were collected from the ESL Placement Test (EPT) at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (UIUC) from July, 2009 to January, 2010. This study utilized a modified version of Lynch's program evaluation model (1996; 2003) to collect evidence from different sources, including data drawn from the entire evaluation process ranging from needs analysis to a feedback system based on the final product of the evaluation.

Mixed methods were proposed for the data analysis. Diverse perspectives can provide a better measure of training effectiveness, and were achieved by combining the results of both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Quantitative data analysis was proposed for analyzing the surveys, and the rating corpus. Qualitative and document analysis were also essential for analyzing relevant training materials and workshop observation as well as exploring the degree of change in the perceptions of the raters.

## **III. Findings and Implications**

The EPT training program was innovatively reorganized and upgraded. The trainer integrated and updated the training materials to fit the current rating context. The training program focused on enhancing rater consistency and accuracy, as well as rating validity by reducing systematic errors. The training program was designed so that raters could perform evidence-based judgments and solve their rating problems. The workshop lecture provided substantial information, and raters learned how to accurately observe the essay for the appropriate information to match evidence from the rating scale descriptors, and finally how to make a final decision.

The results of this study provide educational implications for language testing. The salient value of this study is the collaboration with stakeholders in a test administration situation. Raters' concerns and challenges were clearly identified, shared, and resolved with the practitioners (the trainer).

## **Reference**

Borman, W. C. (1977). Consistency of rating accuracy and rating errors in the judgment of human performance. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 20, 238-252.

## Extensive Reading and Listening: Why, What and How?

- Borman, W. C. (1978). Exploring upper limits of reliability and validity in job performance ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 63(2), 135-144.
- Borman, W. C. (1979). Format and training effects on rating accuracy and rater errors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 64(4), 410-421.
- Choi, Y. H. (2002). FACETS Analysis of effects of rater training on secondary school English teachers' scoring English writing. *Journal of the Applied Linguistics Association of Korea*. 18(1), 257-292.
- Fulcher, G., & Davidson, F. (2007). *Language Testing and Assessment*. New York, NY: Routledge
- Lynch, B.K. (1996). *Language Program Evaluation*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Lynch, B.K. (2003). *Language Assessment and program evaluation*. Edinburgh, Scotland: Edinburgh University Press.
- Phillips, J. (1997). *Handbook of Training Evaluation and Measurement Methods*. Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing Company.
- Rothwell, W.J., & Kazanas, H. C. (2004). *Mastering the Instructional Design Process*. San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.
- Shin, D. I. (2001). Exploring rating patterns with Rasch measurement techniques: Implications for training. *Foreign Languages Education*, 8(1), 249-272.
- Shohamy, E., Gordon, C., & Kraemer, R. (1992). The effect of raters' background and training on the reliability of direct writing tests. *The Modern Language Journal*, 76 (1), 27-33.
- Waagen, A.K. (2006). *Infoline Guide to Training Evaluation*. Alexandria, VA: ASTD Press.
- Weigle, S. C. (1998). Using FACETS to model rater training effects. *Language Testing*, 15(2), 263-287.

**Keywords: Teacher-rater Training, Designing rater training program**

**Applicable Languages: English, Korean**

**Applicable Level: Tertiary, Teacher Education**

Biodata: The author received her Ph.D. in the Educational Psychology at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Her research and teaching interests are rater reliability, the development of rater training program, the development of test items for speaking and writing tests, and educational measurement.

## **Tertiary English Language Learners' Beliefs on TELL (Technology-Enhanced Language Learning)**

**David E. Shaffer (Chosun University)**

### **I. Introduction**

Korea is wired, boasting some of the fastest internet connections in the world. Today's university students grew up on digital technology while their English instructors may not have. Is there a teacher-learner technology gap? Would university students prefer more technology be incorporated into the English classroom? Would they prefer more digitally based out-of-class projects and assignments? This presentation aims to answer these questions.

For the presentation of second language (L2) materials in the English language teaching (ELT) classroom, technology has broad-ranging applications. As well, it has the potential to greatly impact the motivation of the English language learner (ELL). The use of computers and other types of technology in the classroom gives ELLs a sense of encouragement to develop their language skills (Wang, 2004). The application of technology in the classroom for real, meaningful communicative interaction motivates them to be more involved in the language learning process (Kang, 1999; Stepp-Greany, 2002). Because of the pervasiveness of English on the internet and in other types of communication, Crystal (1997) concludes that technology has a great role to play in the EFL classroom.

The internet offers well-selected activities and interactive learning that not only provide more avenues for learning, but better quality (Schwartz & Phillips, 2003). This has a positive effect on student motivation, increasing the potential for autonomous learning (Ellinger, Sandler, Chayen, Goldfrad, & Yarosky, 2001), as well as increasing teacher satisfaction (Jonassen, 2000; Schwartz & Phillips, 2003). The use of technology in the classroom not only motivates learners but engages them in listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities for the development of those skills (Anderson and Speck, 2001; Case & Truscott, 1999; Harmer, 2007; Leu & Leu, 1997).

Studies report increases in student motivation through the use of electronic books (Leu & Leu, 1999), authentic film (Capple & Curtis, 2000), other authentic materials (Mayora, 2006), authentic video (Arcario, 1993), and even telecollaboration (Belz, 2002) and videoconferencing

## Extensive Reading and Listening: Why, What and How?

(Teeler & Gray, 2000). Baker (2006) suggests that "giving EFL students opportunities to use English through a variety of media enhances academic skills and assists in applying that knowledge to a broader audience" (p. 369).

Through a survey of tertiary-level students of English, the participants are canvassed on their frequency of use of a variety of digital devices (a) in everyday life, (b) in the English classroom, (c) in doing out-of-class projects and assignments, and (d) in autonomous language learning, as well as whether they would like to use technology more or less and the reasons why. Additional, in-depth data is obtained through selected student interviews.

The data on student use of digital technology and their beliefs about the use of digital technology for language learning, as obtained through the questionnaire and interview results, are compared with data obtained on English instructors on their use of technology and their reasons for using as much or as little as they do. The results of the comparison of these two sets of data have implications not only for the individual EFL teacher and their classroom teaching, but also for educational institutions with respect to equipment handling and personnel training, as well as for curriculum planners of teacher training programs in terms of incorporating instruction in technology use into ELT programs.

## II. Method

The participants in this study were 85 EFL students at a large private university in Korea. The participants broke down into 26 males (31%) and 59 female (69%), and their mean age was 22.5 years. All the participants were juniors or seniors majoring in an English language-related major.

The instrument was an online survey whose URL was provided to the prospective participants. The online survey tool employed in making the survey questions was SurveyMonkey. The participants were asked to complete the survey online and submit it as instructed. The survey contained biographical questions about the participant and questions about the participant's use of technology. The technology-related questions included the frequencies with which they used the technology items contained in the list below (Table 1) and the frequencies with which they used technology for out-of-class work. The frequencies from which they could choose were (a) almost daily, (b) 1-3 times a week, (c) 1-3 times a month, (d) less than once a month, (e) almost never, and (f) never. They were also asked how often they used digital devices for autonomous learning and general use.

TABLE I. Educational Technology Items Surveyed

Category and Items	Category and Items
<p><b>Computer: Offline</b>            Digital presentation (e.g., PowerPoint)            Spreadsheets (e.g., Excel)            DVD player            English lesson software            Language game software            Pronunciation software</p> <p><b>Computer: Online</b>            Internet searches            Reading material            Listening material            Writing laboratory (OWL)            Reference material (e.g., Wikipedia)            Podcasts            Email            Text chat</p>	<p><b>Computer: Online (cont.)</b>            Voice chat (e.g., Skype)            Social networks (e.g., Facebook)            Class website</p> <p><b>Digital Devices</b>            Cassette tape player/recorder            CD player            Video recorder (camcorder)            Micro video camera system            Electronic dictionary            Portable media player (mp3)            Smart phone            Digital visual presenter (Elmo)            Tablet PC            Portable multimedia player (PMP)</p>

In addition, they were asked to rate their degree of technology use, their liking for technology, and whether they would wish to use more technology for in-class activities and out-of-class course work.

### III. Results

Of the electronic devices surveyed, the highest number of students have electronic dictionaries (99%), followed by smart phones (79%), portable media players (40%), and tablet PCs (16%). As users of technology, 42% of the participants described themselves as average users and 51% described themselves as above average or very frequent users. Eighty-one percent (81%) reported that they like to use electronic devices.

Responses for in-class and out-of-class use of digital devices was above the 80% level for all devices except electronic dictionaries ("almost every day" = 55% and 67% for in-class and out-of-class, respectively), MP3 players (51% / 46%), and smart phones (71% / 69%). A similar pattern of responses was found for general use and autonomous learning uses of these same devices: electronic dictionary ("almost every day" = 58% for general use and 61% for autonomous learning) and smart phone (87% / 37%; and 45% for "1-3 times per week"). For general use, MP3 players received 34% for both "almost every day" and "almost never/never." Usage was even lower for autonomous learning (8% / 32%).

## Extensive Reading and Listening: Why, What and How?

In-class use of the off-line computer devices listed in Table 1 was over 50% for responses of "less than once a month" and less: PowerPoint (53%), DVD player (71%), Excel (76%), English lesson software (82%), pronunciation software (83%), English language game software (93%). For out-of-class use of computer devices, responses of "less than once a month" and less were not quite as high: PowerPoint (42%), DVD player (74%), Excel (73%), English lesson software (73%), pronunciation software (75%), English language game software (89%). The most common response for PowerPoint use was "1-3 times per month" (35%).

Of the eleven online educational technology items in Table 1, six of them were used in the classroom by the respondents "1-3 times per month" or less: English writing laboratories (84%), reference material (53%), podcasts (82%), text chat (50%), voice chat (69%), and class websites. The respondents selected only four of the items as being used "1-3 times per month" or less out of the classroom: writing laboratories (74%), podcasts (82%), text chat (50%), and class websites (63%). Online items used "1-3 times per week" or more often in class were: Internet search (90%), reading materials (46%), listening materials (47%), email (60%), and social networks (59%). For out-of-class usage, results were similar: Internet search (91%), reading materials (45%), listening materials (43%), reference material (42%), email (66%), and social networks (51%).

The participants were also given two attitudinal statements to respond to with five-point Likert-scale type responses. To the statement "I would like to use more technology in my English classes' classroom activities," 72% agreed or strongly agreed, while most of the remainder (22%) were not sure. Similarly, to the statement "I would like to use more technology in my English classes' class assignments," 77% agreed or strongly agreed, while most of the remainder (17%) were not sure.

## IV. Discussion & Recommendations

The survey indicated that the respondents consider themselves to be frequent users of technology and that they like using digital devices. They would also like to use more technology in class activities and in out-of-class assignments. Almost all of them have electronic dictionaries and four-fifths of them have smart phones, and they use them often. They do not use off-line computer technology very often, but they do use several online items frequently: Internet search engines, English reading materials, listening materials, email, and social networks. These popular devices and Internet items should be targeted for use in

student activities both in the classroom as in homework assignments. Because of the Internet access available with smart phones and many new apps for smart phones becoming available, many smart phone-related activities can be designed for use in and outside the classroom. As Sharma and Barrett suggest, "Used appropriately, [these digital devices] can provide learners with opportunities for further language practice outside the classroom (p. 90)." If smart phone ownership is limited to only about half of the students, pair work activities can be developed. Similarly, more Internet-related activities can be developed and integrated into classroom lessons (with access from a computer or smart phone) and especially into out-of-class assignments. Since learners are open to the use of more technology in language learning and since the technology is available, teachers should take advantage of this situation to integrate more technology-related materials into classroom lessons and outside assignments. Teachers should be careful not to allow their situation to become one of those that Dudeney (2007) observes around the world: "where the computers sit gathering dust and the teachers ignore their existence."

### **V. Concluding Remarks**

We conclude as An (2007) has – that "technology integration in second/foreign language education has mostly brought improvement in language skills and increased student interests in learning activities" (pp. 14-15). This is supported by the findings of the Shaffer (2011) study that technology be incorporated more frequently in out-of-class activities. However, we must be wary of overuse of technology so that it does not become a distraction, more of a hindrance than a help. We also need to be careful not to expect students to effectively use technology that they have not been trained in using

We must heed the warning of Young and Bush (2004): "The power of the pedagogy must drive the technology being implemented, so that instruction, skills, content, or literacy is enhanced in some meaningful way. Otherwise, the technology itself often becomes the content focus rather than the English language arts" (A Pedagogical Framework, para. 2). There is a need to carefully and thoughtfully balance technology with pedagogy. And the results of this study indicate that there is a student need for more technology to be used and a technology availability to meet that need.

## References

- An H. Y. (2007). *Technology integration in the secondary EFL classroom*. Manuscript. Retrieved from [http://hsan615.cafe24.com/portfolio/documents/synthesis\\_hyoseon.pdf](http://hsan615.cafe24.com/portfolio/documents/synthesis_hyoseon.pdf)
- Anderson, R., & Speck, B. (2001). *Using technology in K-8 literacy classrooms*. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Arcario, P. (1993). Criteria for selecting video materials. In S. Stempleski & P. Arcario (Eds.), *Video in second language teaching: Using, selecting, and producing video for the classroom* (pp. 109-122). Alexandria, VA: TESOL Inc.
- Baker, M. (2006). *Use of multimedia to enhance EFL learning in the university classroom*. Retrieved from [http://www.iadis.net/dl/final\\_uploads/200604P145.pdf](http://www.iadis.net/dl/final_uploads/200604P145.pdf)
- Belz, J. A. (2002). Social dimensions of telecollaborative foreign language study. *Language Learning & Technology*, 6(1), 60-81.
- Case, C., & Truscott, D. M. (1999). The lure of bells and whistles: Choosing the best software to support reading instruction. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 15, 361-369.
- Capple, L., & Curtis, A. (2000). Content-based instruction in Hong Kong: Student responses to film. *System*, 28, 419-433.
- Crystal, D. (1997). *English as a global language*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Dudeny, G. (2007). *The Internet and the language classroom*(2nd ed.). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press
- Ellinger, B. S., Sandler, D., Chayen, D., Goldfrad, K., Yarosky, J. (2001). Weaving the web into an EAP reading program. *English Teaching Forum*, 39(2), 22-25.
- Harmer, J. (2007). *The practice of English language teaching*, (4th ed.). New York: Pearson Longman.
- Jonassen, D. H. (2000). *Computers as mindtools for schools: Engaging critical thinking* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Kang, S. (1999). Learning styles: Implications for ESL/EFL instruction. *Exchanges*, 37(4), 6-9.
- Leu, D. J., & Leu, D. D. (1997). *Teaching with the internet: Lessons from the classroom* (3rd ed.). Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon.
- Mayora, C. A. (2006). Integrating multimedia technology in a high school EFL program. *English Teaching Forum*, 44(3), 14-19.

- Schwartz, E., & Phillips, S. (2003). Supporting faculty in the use of technology. In D. Brown (Ed.), *Developing faculty to use technology: Programs and strategies to enhance teaching* (pp. 103-107). Bolton, MA: Anker.
- Shaffer, D. E. (2011). *Technology in language teaching and learning: 2011 KEES international conference proceedings* (pp. 183-191). Seoul, Korea: KEES.
- Sharma, P., & Barrett, B. (2007). *Blended learning: Using technology in and beyond the language classroom*. Oxford, England: Macmillan Education.
- Stepp-Greany, J. (2002). Student perceptions on language learning in a technological environment: Implications for the new millennium. *Language Learning and Technology*, 6(1), 165-180.
- Teeler, D., & Gray, P. (2000). *How to use the internet in English language teaching*. New York: Longman.
- Wang, Y. (2004). English magazines = motivation + improved EFL writing skill. *English Teaching Forum*, 42(1), 24-29.
- Young, C. A., & Bush, J. (2004). Teaching the English language arts with technology: A critical approach and pedagogical framework. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education*, 4(1). Retrieved from <http://www.citejournal.org/vol4/iss1/languagearts/article1.cfm>

### **The Author**

David E. Shaffer (PhD Linguistics) is a longtime educator in Korea. He is a professor at Chosun University, teaching in the graduate and undergraduate programs. Dr. Shaffer is the author of books on English learning as well as Korean language, customs, and poetry. His present academic interests include professional development, TELL, CBI, SLA, loanwords, and cognitive linguistic constructs for effective teaching techniques. Dr. Shaffer is active in numerous Korean ELT associations as a conference presenter and director. Email: [disin@chosun.ac.kr](mailto:disin@chosun.ac.kr)

Keywords: Technology, TELL, digital devices, online, offline, frequency of use

Applicable Languages: English or any second language

Applicable Level: Tertiary education

## 개정토익이 대학생들의 영어 교수학습에 미치는 영향

정행 (호남대학교)

### I. 서론

본 연구의 목표는 개정된 토익(NEW TOEIC)이 영어 교수 학습에 미치는 역류효과(washback effect)를 검토하는 데에 있으며, 나아가 이러한 역류효과가 영어 교수 학습의 질과 의사소통능력 향상에 도움이 되도록 하기 위해서는 어떤 점들이 고려되어야 할 것인가를 제안하고자 한다. 이를 위해 본 연구에서는 개정된 토익 준비를 하고 있는 학생들을 대상으로 설문을 실시하여 개정된 토익이 학생들의 교수 학습방법과 전략에 미치는 영향을 분석하였다.

### II. 연구방법 및 절차

학생들이 활용하는 교수 학습방법 및 전략에 대해 설문을 실시하고 각 문항에 대해 평균, 표준편차를 내서 문항들 간의 정도 차이를 영역별로 검토하였다. 설문지를 통해 수집한 자료들은 설문 문항들이 Likert의 5점 척도(1: 전혀아님, 5: 매우그렇다)를 활용하여 정도를 표시한 것들이므로 SPSS(version 12.0) 통계 프로그램을 활용 기술적인 통계(Descriptive Statistics) 분석을 하였다. 또한 토익친숙도와 영어수준에 따라 집단 간 교수 학습방법 및 전략에 있어서 차이를 보이는 것을 알아보기 위해 각 각 t검정과 분산분석 (ANOVA)을 실시하였다.

### III. 결과분석

표 1. 학생들의 영어 학습방법 및 전략 활용 정도

	학습방법 및 전략	평균	표준 편차
어휘 및 표현	1. 듣고 따라말하기 등 소리로 익힌다	3.44	1.005
	2. 철자를 쓰며 익힌다	3.35	1.140
	4. 구어체표현을 통제로 활용 연습한다	2.78	1.024
문법	3. 문법을 따로 학습한다	4.15	.899
	5. 독해 중 필요하면 문법학습한다	3.71	.926
듣기 전략	6. 질문을 보고 답을 찾으며 듣는다	3.76	1.055
	8. 주제, 상황을 통해 짐작하며 듣는다	3.69	1.070
	13. 듣기 중 문법지식을 활용한다	3.08	1.014
읽기 전략	7. 질문을 보고 답을 찾으면서 읽는다	3.94	1.005
	9. 주제, 상황을 통해 짐작하며 읽는다	3.71	1.067
	12. 다양한 실용문서식에 노출 읽는다	2.51	1.075
	14. 읽기 중 문법지식을 활용한다	3.24	.960
	15. 논리적연결관계 고려 의미 파악한다	3.27	.940
발음	10. 주로 미국식발음을 익힌다	3.89	.912
	11. 다양한 영어권발음에 노출학습한다	2.56	.977

표 2. 토익 친숙도에 따른 그룹 간 학습방법 및 전략 차

학습방법 및 전략	G1 평균	G2 평균	평균차	t값	p값
1.어휘를 소리로말해익힘	3.26	3.80	.54	2.250	.028
2.어휘를 철자쓰며익힘	3.38	3.28	-.10	-.363	.718
3.문법을 따로 학습	4.11	4.24	.13	.598	.552
4.구어표현을 통째로연습	2.70	2.92	.22	.858	.394
5.독해중 필요시문법학습	3.64	3.84	.20	.879	.383
6.질문에 답찾으며 들음	3.70	3.88	.18	.679	.500
7.질문에 답찾으며 읽음	3.81	4.20	.39	1.590	.116
8.상황통해 짐작하며들음	3.62	3.84	.22	.840	.404
9.상황통해 짐작하며읽음	3.62	3.88	.26	.995	.323
10.주로 미국식발음 익힘	3.87	3.92	.05	.210	.835
11.다양한영어권발음익힘	2.38	2.88	.50	2.104	.039
12.다양한서식실용문읽음	2.26	2.81	.55	2.268	.031
13.듣기중문법활용해석함	3.09	3.52	.43	1.758	.083
14.읽기중문법활용해석함	3.04	3.16	.12	.491	.625
15.논리적인결활용해석함	2.89	3.42	.53	2.234	.034

표 3. 토익성적에 따른 그룹 간 학습방법 및 전략 차

학습방법 및 전략	하 평균	중 평균	상 평균	F값	p값
1.어휘를 소리로말해익힘	3.27	3.80	4.00	2.598	.082
2.어휘를 철자쓰며 익힘	3.45	3.34	3.31	.110	.896
3.문법을 따로 학습	4.22	4.10	3.33	1.457	.240
4.구어표현을 통째로연습	2.60	2.76	4.33	4.105	.021
5.독해중 필요시문법학습	3.65	3.67	3.85	.318	.729
6.질문에 답찾으며 들음	3.65	4.15	3.00	2.499	.090
7.질문에 답찾으며 읽음	3.80	4.30	4.00	1.832	.168
8.상황통해 짐작하며들음	3.61	3.85	4.00	.471	.626
9.상황통해 짐작하며읽음	3.61	3.67	3.95	.708	.496
10.주로 미국식발음 익힘	3.92	3.85	3.67	.129	.879
11.다양한영어권발음익힘	2.43	2.67	2.85	1.355	.265
12.다양한서식실용문읽음	2.45	2.60	3.00	.453	.637
13.듣기중문법활용해석함	3.50	3.16	2.67	1.287	.283
14.읽기중문법활용해석함	3.25	3.06	2.33	1.237	.297
15.논리적인결활용해석함	3.12	3.63	3.33	2.076	.133

#### IV. 결론 및 제언

본 연구는 개정된 토익이 대학생들의 영어 교수, 학습에 미치는 역류효과를 분석하였다. 설문에 대한 통계분석 결과 토익이 학생들의 학습방법 및 전략에 미친 영향을 요약하면 다음과 같다. 첫째, 어휘학습 방법에 있어서 학생들은 철자를 쓰며 익히기 (3.35)보다는 듣고 따라 말하며 소리로 익히는 것(3.44)을 선호하게 되었다. 둘째, 듣기학습에서 과거에 주로 단어나 문장구조에 의존해서 의미 해석하는 상향식과정 만을 활용한 것과는 달리 문법 지식활용(3.08) 같은 상향식과정 (bottom-up processing)과 주제나 상황을 통해 전체적인 의미를 이해하고 짐작하기(3.69) 같은 하향식과정 (top-down processing)을 모두 활용하고 있었다. 셋째, 읽기학습에 있어서도 듣기학

습과 마찬가지로 상향식과정과 하향식과정을 모두 활용하고 있었다. 또한 파트 6의 평가유형 추가로 학생들은 글을 읽어가며 아이디어의 논리적 연결 관계를 바탕으로 의미파악(3.27)하는 전략도 활용하였다. 넷째, 발음에 있어서 학생들은 주로 미국식발음(3.89)외에도 다양한 영어권발음에 노출(2.56) 학습하였다.

이어서 토익의 영향을 받은 학생들의 학습방법 및 전략이 학생들의 토익에 대한 친숙도와 토익점수에 따라 달라지는지 검토하였고 그 결과는 다음과 같았다. 토익 친숙도에 따라 나눈 두 그룹 간의 차를 t-검정 한 결과 토익유형에 친숙한 그룹일수록 어휘를 소리로 익히고, 다양한 영어권 발음에 노출 학습하며, 다양한 서식의 실용문을 읽고 연습하고, 아이디어의 논리적 연결 관계를 활용 맥락 내에서 의미해석 한다는 것을 알 수 있었다. 즉 토익유형에 친숙한 그룹일수록 개정된 토익의 평가유형에 일치한 학습방법 및 전략을 더 많이 활용하였다. 또한 토익점수에 따라 나눈 상, 중, 하 세 그룹간의 차를 분산분석(ANOVA)한 결과 상위그룹은 중위그룹( $p$ 값= .16)보다, 중위그룹은 하위그룹( $p$ 값= .23)보다 ‘대화에 자주 사용되는 구어체 표현을 통째로 암기’ 하는 전략을 더 많이 사용한다는 것을 알았다. 즉 토익성적이 좋은 학생일수록 구어체 표현을 통째로 암기하는 전략을 더 많이 활용한다는 사실을 알 수 있었고, 토익성적은 학생들의 나머지 다른 학습방법이나 전략 활용에는 크게 영향을 주지 않는 것으로 분석되었다.

이와 같은 본 연구결과에서 알 수 있듯이 토익은 의사소통능력을 측정하는 측정도구로서 뿐만 아니라 학생과 강사의 교수·학습에 영향을 주고 교수·학습에 변화를 초래하는 역류효과를 준다는 것을 입증했다. 그러나 본 연구가 보여주는 위의 역류효과에도 불구하고 토익이 학생들의 영어 의사소통능력을 향상시키는 보다 큰 바람직한 역류효과를 가져다주도록 하기 위해서는 학생과 강사가 교수 학습의 측면에서 더 큰 변화를 시도해야 한다고 본다. 이를 위해 본 연구가 주는 시사점은 다음과 같다.

첫째, 본 연구 설문결과에서 보면 학생들은 표현학습 보다는 어휘학습에 더 비중을 두고 있지만 토익 듣기 영역에서 대화나 긴 담화에 실생활에서 자주 쓰이는 구어체 표현이 통째로 활용되고 있는 점을 고려한다면 학생들은 표현학습에 보다 큰 관심을 가져야 할 것이다. 더욱이 본 연구결과 토익성적이 좋은 학생일수록 ‘구어체 표현을 통째로 암기하는 전략’을 더 많이 활용함을 보여주고 있어 학생들은 토익에서 좋은 점수를 얻고 듣기능력을 향상시키는 결과를 가져오기 위해서 적절한 구어체 표현학습에 대한 학습전략을 활용해야 할 것이다.

둘째, 개정토익 읽기 영역 파트 7의 실용문 지문 수의 증가로 인해 학생들은 정해진 시간 제약 속에서 더 빨리 더 많은 실용문을 읽고 내용이해에 답하는 속독 능력이 요구된다. 그러나 설문결과 학생들은 현재 ‘다양한 실용문 서식에 노출하며 읽기’에서 낮은 수치를 보이고 있어 실용문 지문 수가 늘어난 개정된 토익에서 높은 점수를 받기 위해서는 다양한 실용문을 많이 접하고 목적에 맞는 다양한 서식을 빨리 읽고 내용을 이해하는 훈련이 필요하다.

## 참고문헌

- Cheng, L. (2005). Changing language teaching through language testing: a washback study. *Studies in Language Testing*, 21. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Educational Testing Service. (2006). The new TOEIC test. *TOEIC Newsletter*, 92, 1-3.
- Hughes, A. (2003). *Testing for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University

- Press.
- Jung, H. (2006). The washback effects of standardized English listening test conducted by municipal or provincial offices of education. *The Linguistic Association of Korea Journal*, 14(3), 177-194.
- Jung, H. (2008). The washback effects of English listening test in Korean CSAT on secondary school English learning and teaching. *The Linguistic Association of Korea Journal*, 16(3), 143-162.
- Wall, D. (2005). The impact of high-stakes examinations on classroom teaching. *Studies in Language Testing*, 22. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

### **Biodata**

*Haeng Jung received her M.A. and Ph.D. in English linguistics from Jeonnam National University in Korea and her second M.A. in TESOL from Southeast Missouri State University in the U.S. She is currently teaching at the Department of English Language and Literature at Honam University in Korea. Her research interests include English testing, curriculum design, teacher training and material development*