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**A Study on the Formal and
Functional/Communicative Competence in
English of Korean High School Students**

조선대학교대학원

영어영문학과

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A Study on the Formal and Functional/Communicative Competence in English of Korean High School Students

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate School
of Chosun University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of Doctor of Literature

by

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ABBREVIATIONS

Ave.....	Average
CLT.....	Communicative Language Teaching
EA.....	Error Analysis
EC.....	Error Correction
EFL.....	English as a Foreign Language
ENL.....	English as a Native Language
ESL.....	English as a second Language
esp.....	Especially
<i>et al</i>	and others
etc.	et cetera
HS.....	High School
Max	Maximum
Min	Minimum
MOE.....	Ministry of Education
No.....	Number
Prof.....	Professor
SLA.....	Second Language Learning
S. N.....	Serial Number
S-V.....	Subject - Verb
TBLT	Task-Based Language Teaching
Vols.....	Volumes
<i>viz</i>	Namely

ABSTRACT

A Study on the Formal and Functional-Communicative Competence in English of the Korean High School Students

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This study investigates the implications of communicative language teaching in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) as laid out in the Korean national curriculum for high schools. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is widely accepted as an effective teaching method in English as a second or foreign language ESL/EFL contexts. As in many other Asian countries, English is spoken as a foreign language in Korea. The Korean Ministry of Education has realized the importance of CLT in the curriculum and it was first adopted in the 6th National Curriculum (1992-1997) to develop students' communicative competence (Richards & Rogers, 1986) with native English speaking instructors being assigned to educational environments in 1995 (Ministry of Education, 2005). The current 7th National Curriculum which was designed in 1997 and implemented in 2001 emphasized on the development of the students' spoken English. The content of the curriculum is carefully designed to focus on all types of language functions and cover most of the areas of communication.

As it is a primary research ((James1988), the subjects are the Korean high school students (the first, second and third grade students were mixed). Being based on the new high school curriculum, the prescribed language structures and functions are focused on to get the written responses. The same set of test items was supplied to the subjects for oral pair work where appropriate situations were provided to elicit spoken responses and the

responses were recorded with a help of a micro tape recorder. Errors were calculated and classified to show how many and what types of errors were being made by the participants.

From the study, it is found that the students are more competent in the written responses than the spoken one and in both of the written and spoken responses; they are seemed to be weak in the use of grammatical categories into their sentences accurately. Also, because of the mother-tongue interference, the students are facing the problems for the correct pronunciation, for example: it is found that sometimes they couldn't distinguish the sound /l/ and /r/ while speaking. Although the sample in the study was small but the results obtained could serve as some general principles for the concerned parties: to the classroom teachers as well as to administrators and national curriculum designers.

Chapter 1: Introduction

The term 'world English' might be unfamiliar to many people and many people may assume that English speakers around the world are using standard American or British English. However, if we look at the media such as newspapers and TV and radio- broadcasts in English, we can easily get that people around the world do not speak in the same way. A world English perspective is likely to lead to many pedagogical benefits that impact positively upon English learning and teaching. The population of English speakers is increasing. According to Crystal (2003), estimated number of native English speakers is 320 to 380 million, while the number of second language speakers is 200 to 500 million and the number of foreign language speakers is 500 to 1000 million. The non- natives are already a numerical majority. The move to no longer view English as a foreign or second language but as a global language provides further support for communicative language teaching. If language belongs to the majority of non-native speakers just as much as it does to the minority native speakers, then their experiences, in their specific contexts, should greatly influence its delivery. Therefore, English change is an unavoidable phenomenon and we cannot reject varieties of English, which are localized. Therefore, we have to reexamine language planning for English in EFL contexts. The global distributions of English are often described in terms of three contexts. These are English as a Native Language (ENL), English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL). In ENL territories English is spoken as the first or often as the only language. Here ENL refers to the mother tongue variety of English. In countries like the UK, the USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, English enjoys the status of native language. In ESL territories many people use English for various purposes.

English plays a vital role - official, educational, and other. Here (ESL) English is an institutional language. In EFL situations, however, English may be more or less prestigious, and more or less welcomed in particular places. Many people learn it for occupational purposes and/or for education and recreation.

After the introduction of the communicative approach in the 1970s and 1980s, it has done a lot to expand on the goal of creating "communicative competence" compared to earlier methods that professed the same objective. Communicative approach to language teaching, unlike audio-lingual method, which uses meaningless and mechanical drills, makes drills meaningful and useful. In communicative method, students, while practicing drills need not to think. They do not do anything having their minds shut. In other words, they do not do anything without knowing why they are doing so. In communicative approach of language teaching, using dialogue is one of the most usual ways of presenting language functions to the students.

The theory of communicative competence gave rise to various methods for which the common term communicative method will do. The increased interest in language functions and appropriateness of language use as opposed to teaching of grammatical forms or formal language teaching inspired the development of notional-functional and situational syllabuses. A large number of us implement the communicative approach in our everyday practice, and in parts of the world where this does not yet occur there is pressure to move in this direction. For many it is thus no longer an alternative to, but rather it is a replacement of, its audio-lingual or grammar-translation predecessors. In the mid 1980's Swan's influential article (1985) was probably the first to question many of the assumptions of what was then still a newly emerging approach.

To learn English in anywhere in the world, there is a certain curriculum designed by the governments for the learners at various levels according to the

age of the learners. The terms curriculum and syllabus are often used synonymously as in the school's English curriculum/syllabus. However, in its normal use curriculum has a wider reach, e.g., the widely used term curriculum development refers to the research work in developing many courses of study. The term syllabus development is not so commonly used, if used is more likely to refer to the work within one subject only. The term curriculum development, if used for a single subject, refers to the subject in question to the all classes of an institute. For example, the school's English curriculum refers to parts of the school's curriculum that deal with English language education in all classes of the school.

The curriculum of a given institution can be looked at from a number of different perspectives (Nunan 1991). The first perspective is that of curriculum planning, that is, decision making, in relation to learners' needs and purposes; establishing goals and objectives; selecting and grading contents; organizing appropriate learning arrangements and learner groupings; selecting, adapting, and developing appropriate leaning materials, learning tasks, assessment and evaluation tools.

Alternatively, curriculum can be studied 'in action' as it were. This perspective takes researchers into the classroom itself. Here they can observe the teaching/learning process and study the ways in which the intention of the curriculum planners, which were developed during the planning phase, is translated into action.

Yet another perspective relates to the assessment and evaluation. That is to see what the students had learned and what they failed to learn in relation to what had been planned.

Finally, it is the management of the teaching institution that is looked at. This includes looking at the resources available and how these resources are utilized, how the institution relates to and responds to the wider community, how constraints imposed by the limited resources and decisions of the administrators affect what happens in the classroom, and so on.

All of these perspectives taken together represent the field of curriculum implementation, which is a large and complex one. In planning, implementation, and evaluation of a given curriculum all elements should be integrated, so that decisions made at one level are not in conflict with those made at another. For instance, in courses based on principles of communicative language teaching, it is important that these are reflected not only in curriculum documents or syllabus plan, but also in classroom activities, patterns of classroom interaction, and tests of communicative performance. In implementation phase it should address learning outcomes as set out in the syllabus specification and measure how far teaching and learning are taking place and whether the concerned parties could translate the intention of the planners into action. In evaluation phase it should evaluate the evaluation tools and policy itself. Finally, the planners should take insights from evaluation of each stage of development and make necessary changes. The term 'policy' refers to any broad statement of aims; it may be at the level of the national curriculum (e.g., English is to be taught in Korea as foreign language in secondary schools) a learner puts forward for the classroom. Policy makers respond to the needs of learners and the needs of an entire society as well. They determine the overall aims of curriculum and while doing this, are influenced in varying degrees by special interest groups who are able to bring pressure to bear.

In different educational contexts, different people play the role of policy makers and the policy is stated more or less formally. Even a language learner

who hires a tutor is a policy maker. However, the teacher may influence the student to modify that policy.

National language policies are determined primarily by socio-political pressures, which vary from one culture and socio-political system to others, the primary concern of most governments being to maintain, and if possible extend their power, influence and acceptability. A policy statement in most cases, however, tends to be utopian, as there are no limits on what is desirable. And it is the government who determines the national language policy and the business of curriculum specialists is to state what is attainable and what is not, and the cost of implementation. In fact, there are a large number of constraints on what can be achieved, for example, limited or little opportunity to use the target language outside the classroom, or insufficient number of trained teachers etc.

In Korea, English is taught as one of the main required subjects at secondary schools and many people are eager to learn English for world communication. English is now the most preferred language and the Koreans have both the incentive and the opportunities to acquire English language proficiency. After international athletic events-the Asian Games in 1986 and the Olympic Games in 1988 Koreans at large began to feel an urgent need for English communication. It is also believed that another athletic event in 2002, the World Cup, has increased the awareness of World English in Korea. The dominant role of English language in current international communication has made a considerable impact on English education in Korea. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was first adopted in the 6th National Curriculum (1992-1997) to improve the students' communicative competence. Native English speaking instructors being assigned to educational environments in 1995 (Ministry of Education, 2005).The new national curriculum demanded that English teachers in schools teach English in English, that means the medium of instruction must

be English, not Korean in the classroom. In addition to CLT within a functional and grammatical syllabus, the 7th national curriculum also features the adoption of Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT; Kwon, 2000; MOE, 2005). Since there isn't any research done in the implication of the new communicative curriculum, this study aims to achieve the following objectives:

- i. To find the students' formal and functional competence by analysis of the student errors in responses to oral and written tasks.
- ii. To find the correlation between the students' formal and functional competence by analysis of the student errors in responses to oral and written tasks.

The Task-Based design of language programs has been increasing over the last few decades, in addition to a shift toward learner-centered education. During the 1970s, communicative views of language teaching began to be incorporated into the curriculum design as a part of development of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Nunan, 1988). As the Communicative Approach focuses on the effective communication and fluency of languages, errors in language are tolerated as long as they do not affect the flow of meaning. The present study aims to look at different components of the English Language Curriculum at the high school level in Korea from Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) point of view.

There are different types of researches carried out about the teaching-learning activities in Korea in recent years. Most of them are centered on the teaching methodology, testing, vocabulary and other aspects of language and very few researches done on CLT in the classrooms. For example: CLT Theories and Practices in the EFL Curricula, A case study of Korea: Kyung-eun

yoona, the joint research on the testing in English in Japan, South Korea and Taiwan: Hiroshi Shimatani, Mayayoshi Kinoshita, Hiroki Yamamoto and Terry Laskowski, Voices from a junior High Schools in Korea :Min-Young Son (2005). A few researches are carried out in the field of CLT specially not any research work is carried out in the implication of the recently designed Communicative-Functional curriculum, so this research work is the first and typical one in the CLT field in Korea. Therefore, it may be highly beneficial for the students, teachers, educational planners, curriculum designers and other concerned persons.

Chapter 2 Review of Literature

2.1 Linguistic competence

The term ‘competence’ refers to the speakers’ knowledge of their language, the system of rules that they have mastered so that they are able to produce and understand an indefinite number of sentences and recognize grammatical errors as well as ambiguities. It is an idealized concept of language i.e. language code which is opposite to the notion of performance i.e. encoding or decoding of languages.

According to Chomsky, “Competence is the native speaker’s knowledge of his language, the system of rules he has mastered and his ability to produce and understand a vast number of new sentences. It is the study of the system of rules, competence, is then, an underlying mental system, it underlies actual behavior, linguistic intuition ability to analyze language, detecting ambiguities, ignoring mistakes, understanding new sentences, producing entirely new sentences. It is a set of principles, which a speaker masters; it is a kind of code. It concerns the kind of structures the s/he has succeeded in mastering and internalizing whether or not he utilizes them in practice, without interference from the many of the factors that play a role in actual behavior” (as cited in Lyons, 1970).

Richards *et al* (1985: 52) state, “Competence is a person’s internalized grammar of language. This means a person’s ability to create and understand sentences, including sentences they have never heard before. It also includes a person’s knowledge of what are and what are not sentences of a particular language.”

Competence can be classified into linguistic competence, communicative competence, pragmatic competence and strategic competence. The

communicative competence is the major target of this study, so it is going to be briefly mentioned below.

2.2 Communicative competence

Communicative competence is the aspects of competence that enable human beings to convey and interpret a message and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within a specific context. It refers to native speakers' ability to produce and understand sentences, which are appropriate to the context in which they occur and which speakers need to know in order to communicate effectively in distinct social settings.

Richards *et al* (1985: 49) state, "Communicative competence is the ability not only to apply the grammatical rules of a language in order to form grammatically correct sentences but also to know when and where to use these sentences and to whom. Communicative competence includes:

- a. Knowledge of the grammar and vocabulary of the language.
- b. Knowledge of rules of speaking (e.g. Knowing how to begin and end conversations, knowing what topics may be talked about in different types of speech events, knowing which address forms should be used with different persons one speaks to and in different situations).
- c. Knowing how to use and respond to different types of speech acts, such as request, apologies, thanks and invitations.
- d. Knowing how to use language appropriately. For example, when someone wishes to communicate with others, they must recognize the social setting, their relationship to the other person(s) and the types of language they can be used for a particular occasion. They must also be able to interpret written or spoken sentences within the total context in which they are used. For example, the English statement- 'It's rather cold in here' could be a request, particularly to someone in a lower role relationship, to close a window or a door or to turn on the heating."

Since the introduction of the communicative approach in the 1970s and 1980s, oral participation in English lessons has become more important. Communicative competence is made to be the goal of language teaching. Howatt (1984:279) states,

“There are, in a sense, a ‘strong’ version of communicative approach and a ‘weak’ version. The weak version, which has become more or less standard practice in the last ten years, stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching. In order to avoid the charge that communicative activities are merely side-shows, efforts are made to ensure that they relate to the purposes of the course as specified in the syllabus, hence the importance of proposals to include semantic as well as purely structural, features in a syllabus design. The ‘strong’ version of communicative teaching, on the other hand, advances the claim that language is acquired through communication, so that it is not merely a question of activating an existing but inert knowledge of language, but of stimulating the development of the language system itself. The former could be described as ‘learning to use’ English, the latter entails ‘using English to learn it’”.

If one looks at individual communicative activities and tasks in isolation, out of the context within the framework within which they are placed, it is indeed difficult, if not impossible to distinguish the two. In general, communicative language teaching is the major goal of present teaching-learning activities in the (CLT) classrooms that focuses on the language competence.

2.3 Error Analysis (EA)

2.3.1 Historical perspective

The field of error analysis in SLA (Second Language Acquisition) was established by S. P. Corder (1974) and colleagues. The term "error" is used to

refer to a form of structure that a native speaker deems unacceptable because of its inappropriate use (Klassen, 1991) or the use of a linguistic item in a way in which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning (Richards et al, 1985). Error Analysis (hereafter EA) is the examination of those errors committed by students in both the spoken and written medium. Error Analysis is the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language (Carl.J, 1998).

Corder (1974), who has contributed enormously to EA, writes thus:"The study of error is part of the investigation of the process of language learning. In this respect, it resembles methodologically the study of the acquisition of the mother tongue. It provides us with a picture of the linguistic development of a learner and may give us indications as to the learning process".

Michaelides (1990) points out that teacher should learn not to correct every error especially if students are found to repeat the same mistakes in subsequent pieces of work. Instead of wasting his time, he could concentrate on marking only one particular linguistic item at a time. For example, he could mark only in relation to a particular teaching point or unit. This is a form of selective marking where not every error but only selected ones are marked. Keh (1989) found that effective Error Correction (EC) can be exploited in the process of writing. This is in contrast with the current practice of most teachers who mark the first and only draft of work written by their students during a timed writing class. In the process approach to writing, students are required to write multiple drafts of their work upon receiving feedback after each draft. Over the past 40 years, there has been a shift in pedagogical focus from preventing errors to learning from errors. During the era of audiolingualism in the 1950s and 60s, language learners had to repeat pattern drills and grammatical structures in a mechanistic fashion. By

memorizing the "correct model", it was hoped that error could be avoided because errors were considered signs of failure in the learning process.

In the late 1960s, however, language teaching became more humanistic when studies of cognitive psychology influenced the theory of language acquisition. Language learning was finally acknowledged to be based on active mental involvement and not mere habit formation. Students were then encouraged to learn by communicating in the target language and not by merely repeating grammatical items.

Subsequently, a more positive attitude towards errors has also emerged. In the past, errors were deemed undesirable and unnecessary but now, errors are viewed as a natural and important part of learning because they can yield information about a student's progress in learning a language. This positive attitude towards errors is especially important in the wake of the Communicative Approach to language learning and teaching in the 1990s.

Language teaching is currently focusing on the teaching and learning of the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, not grammar. Since grammar is seen only as a means to an end, some learners tend to de-emphasize its importance and, make many more errors. Thus, rekindling interest in the area of learner errors in the 1990s can be considered as a timely move. Teachers who can analyze and treat errors effectively are better equipped to help their students become more aware of their errors. Ultimately, the use of error analysis and appropriate corrective techniques can aid effective teaching and learning of English Language.

2.3.2 Error analysis and correction

Errors are meaningful. When analyzed, errors reveal which item has been incorrectly learnt by the student. Error analysts distinguish between errors, which are systematic, and mistakes, which are not. They often seek to develop a

typology of errors. Error can be classified according to basic type: omissive, additive, substitutive or related to word order. They can be classified by how apparent they are: overt errors such as "I angry" are obvious even out of context, whereas covert errors are evident only in context. Closely related to this is the classification according to domain, the breadth of context which the analyst must examine, and extent, the breadth of the utterance which must be changed in order to fix the error. Errors may also be classified according to the level of language: phonological errors, vocabulary or lexical errors, syntactic errors, and so on. They may be assessed according to the degree to which they interfere with communication: global errors make an utterance difficult to understand, while local errors do not. In the above example, "I angry" would be a local error, since the meaning is apparent.

2.3.3 Methods of error correction

Errors are meaningful. When analyzed, errors reveal which item the student has incorrectly learned. Errors also shed light on the manner in which students internalize the rules of the target language. EA is the identification, description and explanation of errors either in its spoken or written form. Five stages are involved in EA. First, one has to identify the errors. To do this, one has to differentiate lapses from genuine errors of competence. Second, an initial analysis and description of the errors is based on a grammatical model. Third, the errors are classified according to categories or sub-categories like the following: semantic errors (wrong word, wrong form, poor choice of word, slang or colloquialism), and syntactic errors (tense, preposition, article, spelling, word order, subject-verb agreement). Errors can also be classified as global errors or local errors. The system of classifying errors should be flexible and one should let the error determine the category. Fourthly, an explanation may be

provided as to why the errors have been made. Examples of sources and causes of errors are mother tongue interference, loan words, overgeneralization of rules, inherent difficulties of the target language and medium transfer. Lastly, the errors are evaluated to determine how much they deviate from the target language norm, to what extent they affect communication and which method of correction can be most effectively meted out. In the treatment of errors (especially in the spoken form), there should be a certain tolerance of errors so long as communication is not rendered ineffective. With the treatment of errors in the written form however, accuracy should be a strict criteria to adhere to due to the demands of written examinations. EA can be carried out at many levels. It can be used to examine both the oral and written work of an individual (to discover specific problems) and a group of learners (to reveal common trouble spots). EA can also be employed on one piece of work or over a series of comparable tasks in any language so that the teacher can monitor the student's progress and create a greater awareness of the errors made by the learner.

First, we have to make a clear distinction between what are errors on the one hand, lapse, and slips on the other hand. In the Applied Linguistics field, the term "error" is taken to mean some idiosyncratic or 'un-native like' piece of language produced regularly and systematically by a foreign language learner. Lapses and slips refer to occasional actions which are not systematic and which the learner herself can correct. They are often called mistakes. They are not dealt within Error Analysis since they have little to do with the true state of the learner's knowledge.

Next, we will briefly introduce the general procedure of Error Analysis and examine more closely the step concerned with the explanations. Some learner's strategies will be illustrated before drawing conclusions on the interest of Errors Analysis in second language learning.

Such an insight into language learning problems is useful to the teacher because it provides information on common trouble spots in language learning which can be used in the preparation of effective teaching materials. In addition, by being able to predict errors to a certain extent, teachers can be better equipped to help students minimize or overcome their learning problems. To some extent, all language teachers conduct their own EA as they see and correct their students' work. However, these analyses are often too piece-meal and too heavily based on impressions to be of much use to them. EA can help the teacher identify in a systematic manner the specific and common language problems students have so that he or she can focus more attention on them.

There is no single method of dealing with the errors made by students. Among some of the conventional practices of teachers are to mark every error, provide the correct answer for errors made, mark the first and only draft or work written by students, make general comments, make students re-write the corrected version several times over and view errors as signs of failure. In contrast, recent literature contains several suggestions for correcting written errors effectively in answer to the question of "to red-pen or not to red-pen" (Josephson, 1990). Some of the methods of EC advocated are the use of peer marking/editing, selective marking, code correction, correction based on the process approach to writing, effective and specific comments, a checklist of limited common errors, different colored inks, discussion of errors on tape and direct versus discovery-type of marking.

Underlining errors is a common way of handling errors. However, the students be allowed to work at these errors themselves with the help of their peers. Peer-marking/editing is especially useful in the first draft of the written work. Here, students are given the responsibility to edit each other's work individually or in a group before handing in the final draft to the teacher.

Besides being fun for students to be allowed to correct and learn from errors other than their own, it also reduces the need for too many red markings from the teacher. Here, students must be briefed on how to edit the work of their peers. A mini lesson lasting only five minutes of class time may be presented at the beginning of the class on a regular basis. For example, the teacher could write several erroneous sentences on the board which is to be analysed by the students themselves. This is a way of making more economical use of time where errors can form the basis for teaching.

There should not be too concerned or alarmed if every error in written work is not corrected by the teacher and they also should not mark every error just because it is expected of them or because they believe it is an indication of dedication (Singh, 1991). This is because over-correction can be a very tedious experience for the teacher (resulting in a demoralizing experience for the student).

In keeping with the belief that not every error should be corrected, Klassen (1991) deems that gravity of error should determine which correction is necessary. She suggests that teachers should focus on marking only global errors in the first draft of their student's written work and then local errors in the second draft. Also, instead of providing the correct answer every time a student makes an error, the teacher could provide clues and codes in the form of abbreviations, symbols, arrows, circles, lines and explicit marginal comments. The rationale here is that unless students recognize the type of error they are making, they will continue to make that error. Thus, a list of error codes like the following can be employed by both teachers and more advanced students during peer marking sessions.

2.3.4 Error analysis and its significance

Errors also shed light on the manner in which students internalise the rules of the target language. Such an insight into language learning problems is useful to the teacher because it provides information on common trouble-spots in language learning which can be used in the preparation of effective teaching materials. Also, by being able to predict errors to a certain extent, teachers can be well-equipped to help students minimise or overcome their learning problems.

Language teaching is currently focusing on the teaching and learning of the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, not grammar. Since grammar is seen only as a means to an end, some learners tend to de-emphasize its importance and in the process, make many more errors. Thus, rekindling interest in the area of learner errors in the 1990s can be considered a timely move. Teachers who can analyze and treat errors effectively are better equipped to help their students become more aware of their errors. The present research study is directly concerned the students' errors in different domains of English language. The Error Analysis is useful in second language learning because this will reveal to us - teachers, syllabus designers and textbook writers - the problem areas. We could design remedial exercises and focus more attention on the trouble spots. We ought to discuss with our students how to identify their errors and what the possible causes are. This would bring about a greater understanding of the pedagogical and psychological factors that contribute to linguistic errors. The present research is on the error analysis in written and spoken responses from the Korean High School students. We ought to discuss with our students how to identify their errors and what the possible causes are.

The aim of this study was to show the different kinds of errors made by the students in different language domains like vocabulary, punctuations, and structures, in the use of content/grammatical words etc.so; this would bring about a greater understanding of the pedagogical and psychological factors that contribute to linguistic errors.

2.4 The language forms and functions

Language forms and functions are two fundamental components of language, which are related to each other. Language form refers to the overall grammatical organization of linguistic substance and language function refers to the proper use of language according to the needs of the participants, role, and situations etc. They two (form and function) should go side by side and the students are supposed to have equal proficiency in using both.

Hudson (1984: 16) says, “the primary object of description for linguistics is the structure of language, but many linguists study this in relation to its function, notably, that of conveying meaning and in relation to other psychological and cultural systems”.

The question of language form and function is central in Firthian and Hallidian (Halliday, et al, 1964) tradition that is now known as ‘Systemic Functional Linguistics.’ The tradition shares important links with the work they have done. The central problem to be highlighted in all these accounts is that of the relationship between language form and function. Halliday is the first linguist to give serious consideration to view that language form and function are naturally related. This means that the internal organization of grammar and meaning in language and their deployment in texts should also have a great deal to say about how context itself is organized.

Russian Formalism of the 1920s deals with the literary organization of the text or form. The formalist distinction between the aesthetic and non-aesthetic function of language was taken up and further developed in the 1930s by the members of Prague Linguistic Circle. The work of the Russian Formalists and the Prague School theorists was an attempt to relate language form and function to context; regardless of how this relation is defined (Asher 1994:1284-86).

Since language forms and functions are inseparable entities, a language form may serve several functions and conversely, a given function may be realized through several forms. Language is used to communicate ideas, to express attitudes, feelings and so on. The role that the language plays in the context of society or the individual is referred as function. Richards *et al* (1985:113) state, “In language teaching, language functions are often described as categories of behavior; e.g. requests, apologies, complaints, offers, compliments etc. The functional uses of language cannot be determined simply by studying the grammatical structure of sentences. It considers the individual as a social being and investigates the way in which he or she acquires language and uses it in order to communicate with others in his or her social environment”.

Language survives in a society and gets perfection in the real field of its use. Language form and function are two fundamental dichotomies of language. Language function is any of the kind of thing that can be done in or through the use of language. Thus an utterance may give information or shows that a speaker is angry or try to get someone to do something and so on.

Asher (1994:5125), in the *Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics* states, that “Language function is the role played by language in the social situation how it is used to express attitudes, communicate feeling etc”.

Language function describes how a constituent works and its relationship with other constituents in a larger unit, as a noun or noun phrase in relation to a sentence can work or function as subject, object, complement, modifier, etc. as frequently seen in socio-linguistics. Language is made up of certain forms that consist of language substance. Substance refers to the undifferentiated raw materials out of which language is constructed. It is divided into phonic substance i.e. the sound wave of speech and graphic substance i.e. the symbols used in writing. When we organize substance into recognizable and meaningful patterns, we have a language form. Form is a realization of a combination of units in a language. It is the phonological or grammatical structures of a language. The letters h, u, s, o, e can be rearranged into a recognizable and meaningful pattern 'house' as a word. Here the letters/ sounds h, u, s, o, e have substance and 'house' has substance and form both. "Ferdinand de Saussure and his followers account for the differences in the semantic structure of different languages in terms of a distinction between substance and form. By the form of the vocabulary is meant the abstract structure of relationships, which a particular language imposes, as it were, on the same underlying substance. Just as the same lump of children's clay can be fashioned into objects of different shapes and sizes, so the substance (or medium) within which distinctions and equivalences of meaning are drawn can be organized into a different form in different languages. Language symbols face two ways. In the Saussurean terminology they have an external face, a significant and a semantic face, the *signifie*. This fundamental duality has been called by some linguists 'form' and 'meaning' or 'expression' and 'content'. In language we have both substance and form. All distinct sounds produced by human speech organs and scripts produced by human hands to communicate are substances of human language. The oral substance is called the phonic substance and the visual substance is

known as the graphic substance. It is from these substances we form languages. The organization of language is its form, which is grammar and lexis.

“Substance and form can be analyzed on two planes: content plane and expression plane. On the expression plane, linguistics deals with the form or shape of linguistic elements without necessarily taking their meaning into account.

The form and substance distinction is the distinction between system and actual data, between the theory and the actual utterance (Lyons, 1971:56-59).

In Saussurean concept of ‘substance’ it is the substratum of variation and individuality. It has no existence or actuality, independent form; but it can be logically distinguished from form in the scientific analysis of nature or essence of things.

Richards *et al* (1985:109&125) define form as, “The means by which an element of language is expressed in speech or writing. Forms can be shown by the standard writing system of a language or by phonic or phonemic symbols. Language form can be divided into lexis and grammar. Lexis is the smallest unit in the meaning system of a language that can be distinguished from other similar units. Generally it refers to the words or vocabulary of a language. Similarly, grammar is a description of the structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in a language. It usually takes into account the meanings and functions these sentences have in overall system of the language. It may or may not include the description of the sounds of language”. Thus the language form and substance are two fundamental components without which there is no language in existence.

2.4.1 The relationship of curriculum, syllabus and methodology

Different voices have been heard about the nature of 'the syllabus' and 'the curriculum' and also about 'the methodology'. Language teachers and specialists on the subjects' possess conflicting views on what it is that distinguishes one from the others distinguished a broad approach and a narrow approach to the subject. The narrow approach draws a clear distinction amid the area of these three subjects. Those who adopt a broader view argue that with the advent of communicative language teaching (CLT) this distinction is difficult to sustain.

The diversity of opinions regarding curriculum development, syllabus design and teaching methodology can be found in Brumfit (1984). A thorough survey on different opinions reveals that some language specialists believe that the syllabus (the selection and grading of content) and the methodology should be kept separate; others think otherwise. But selection and grading of contents are not the only tasks in language teaching. One of the crucial tasks in a language programme is to specify, design and grade learning tasks and activities; and when (as we shall see in a later point) we talk of procedural syllabuses, we include these aspects within the reach of syllabus design. Then it becomes difficult for us to sustain the difference between syllabus and methodology, which is concerned with learning tasks and activities. van Ek's Threshold Level English (1975:8-9, quoted in Nunan 1988) gives a detailed account of various syllabus components which need to be considered in developing a language course. He mentions the following as necessary components of a language syllabus:

1. The situations in which the foreign language will be used, including the topics which will be dealt with;
2. The language activities in which the learner will engage;
3. The language functions which the learner will fulfill;

4. What the learner will be able to do with respect to each topic;
5. The general notions which the learner will be able to handle;
6. The specific (topic-related) notions which the learner will be able handle;
7. The language forms which the learner will be able to use;
8. The degree of skill which the learner will be able to perform.

van Ek's view can be said to be the broader view of syllabus design, and these are the basic components of curriculum development. Bell (2003) relates syllabus design i.e., the selection and grading of contents with the other components of curriculum development and says that teachers are in main the consumers of other people's syllabuses. Their role is to implement the plans of applied linguists, government agencies, and so on. Of course, there are some teachers who have a relatively free hand in designing the syllabuses, on which their teaching programmes are based. It is said that curriculum has at least three phases: a planning phase, an implementation phase, and an evaluation phase. Four stages of language curriculum development viz., curriculum planning, ends (learning outcomes) and means (methodology) specification, programme implementation and implementation in the classroom. Evaluation in Johnson's framework is not a stage in itself rather an integral and necessary part of each and all of the stages.

2.4.2 Notional-functional syllabus

As the grammatical syllabuses had been criticized as being inadequate, the notional-functional model of syllabus design became popular in 1970s. In developing notional-functional syllabuses inventories of notion like, object, entity, time, quantity, one and many, part and whole, probability, possibility etc. and functions like, requesting, complaining, apologizing, asking and giving information etc. are listed as contents. In situational syllabuses different social

settings or real life situations constitute the syllabus inventory. In notional-functional syllabuses, the content of a course is organized in terms of notions or concepts like time, duration, percentage, direction and motion, which the learners require to communicate in particular functional contexts. Major communicative functions include evaluation, persuasion, emotional expression and making of social relations.

Notional-functional syllabuses also have been criticized in the same way as grammatical syllabuses have been, since the inventories of notions and functions do not necessarily present the way languages are learned any more than inventories of grammatical points or lexical items.

In fact, dividing language into discrete units of whatever types misrepresents the nature of language learning. Any content-based syllabuses frustrate learners developing creativity and language knowledge that will enable him to use it to communicate (Nunan, 1988: p-37).

Process syllabuses focus on the process of learning itself rather than the end product of this process. Such non-linguistic approaches as procedural, task-based and content-based approaches are adopted in process syllabuses. As a result of this adoption, the distinction between syllabus and methodology becomes blurred.

In a process syllabus, the activities of the students are listed in the course content. There have been attempts, however, to distinguish between procedural and task-based syllabuses. But some like Richards, Platt and Weber (1985) have seen them as synonymous. They described them as follows:

“a syllabus which is organized around tasks, rather than in terms of grammar and vocabulary. For example, the syllabus may suggest a variety of different kinds of tasks which the learners are expected to carry out in the language, such as using the telephone to obtain information; drawing maps according to oral instructions; performing

actions according to commands given in the target language; giving orders and interactions to others, etc. It has been argued that this is a more effective way of learning a language since it provides a purpose for the use and learning of a language rather than simply learning language items for their own sake.”

In fact, procedural and task-based syllabuses share a concern with classroom processes, which promote learning. Nunan suggests that despite some differences in practice, principles underlying the two models are very similar. Both models focus on the role of the learner in the learning process.

Tasks are so designed as to 'creating conditions for coping with meanings in the classroom to the exclusion of any deliberate regulation of the development of grammatical competence or a mere simulation of linguistic behaviour (Prabhu, 1987:1-2). While carrying out any types of tasks, the conscious mind works out some of the meaning-content, a subconscious part of the mind perceives or acquires or recreate as a cognitive structure some of the linguistic structure embodied in those entities, as a step in the development of an internal system of grammatical rules.

It has been argued that process-oriented syllabuses seem to be inadequate or ineffective in situations where there is no or little opportunity to use English. Not only that, students may have problems in identifying their needs and selecting right materials.

2.4.3 Communicative syllabus

The principles of communicative syllabus design lie on the fact that learners learn a language by using it for a purpose. These purposes may be real purposes in everyday life or purposes created in the classroom. In communicative syllabuses needs of the learners in different situations are considered. And appropriate language for these purposes or situations are learned or taught. For

example, one needs to buy some postal stamps. He/she goes to the post office and asks the postmaster for some stamps. For this, he/she needs the language at the setting i.e., at the post office; in other words, he needs the language to perform a communicative function i.e., requesting. In a communicative syllabus thus language functions e.g., requesting etc. or social setting e.g., at a post office etc. can be listed as syllabus inventory. Here one or more grammar items or structures, which can be used for requesting or in this situation, can be listed. Sometimes concepts or notions like place, time, amount or space etc. are also listed in this type of syllabuses. Thus a communicative syllabus may be of any of the following types:

- a. Notional or conceptual syllabus, in which notions like time, place, space or part and whole etc, are listed.
- b. Functional syllabus, in which functions like greeting, requesting, commanding, offering help etc, are listed.
- c. Situational or setting based syllabus, in which situations like at the post office, at a dentist's, at a restaurant etc. are listed.
- d. Topic based syllabus, in which language points are put under different topics or areas like family, health, environment, hobby etc. which are relevant, appealing and interesting.

We have seen that a communicative syllabus can be based on notions, functions, topics or settings. However, it is also possible to combine different focuses in a single syllabus. For example, the notion of time can be taught with the function of asking and giving time, the topic being travel, in a setting of a railway station. It is further possible to make a shift from one syllabus type to another for the same group of students over a period of time. For instance, it may be that the learners who are following a thematic or topic-based syllabus may require some grammatical knowledge. In such cases, they can use a structural syllabus until they have improved their grammatical knowledge. Now they can use a functional syllabus, finally to a task-based or process oriented syllabus.

While making shift from one syllabus type to another, it is always important to address students' need and their reaction. Thus, information by and from the learners is very important. We call this approach an eclectic and collaborative approach. A communicative syllabus is flexible enough to cope with this collaboration.

Topics and themes, language functions and skills, activities, situations or settings, grammar items or structures and vocabulary items can be presented in an eclectic communicative syllabus in the following manner:

However, all the focuses may not always be listed in the inventory. But a syllabus designed for secondary level students must have the eclecticism so that the teacher can shift the focus from time to time as per students' needs and requirement.

2.4.4 Korean national curricula in English

The main purpose of teaching a language is to make the students able to communicate in the real-life situation. Considering this fact, a radical change in structures and contents of the high school English curriculum, this consists of a set of language forms and functions. Language serves certain functions in our daily-life. The present approach of language teaching has laid great emphasis on negotiating the meanings. The new curriculum has been so developed as to provide communicative-functional syllabus for the teaching and learning of English at the Korean high schools. For decades or more English has been taught as a content-based subject like mathematics or science and so on. But it is not a content-based subject; it is a skill-based subject. English is not about any particular subject but it is rather about practicing something-listening, speaking, reading and writing. Therefore, the English language classroom should be an interactive one, where students will practice English with the appropriate

situations. Language is presented within contexts which are appropriate to the society and culture of the country and which embody its moral and spiritual values. The communicative/functional syllabus thus emphasizes on making such an environment that will help the students acquire English through contextual language practice. Since the English curriculum has been changed recently, its main aim is to develop the students' communicative competence. After few years of implementation of this new curriculum, it is pertinent to find out the students' proficiency in this area.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is widely accepted as an effective method in English as second or foreign language ESL/EFL teaching contexts. As in many other Asian countries, English is spoken as a foreign language in Korea. The Korean Ministry of Education has realized the importance of CLT in the curriculum and included it in its 7th English Curriculum which was designed in 1997 and implemented since 2001. In Korea, the national curriculum controls the instructional procedure and the contents of general education in secondary schools: the Ministry of Education first publishes the national curriculum for a certain period of school education and private companies thereupon create textbooks, some of which the Ministry of Education authorizes to be published and the authorized textbooks are then used in the school settings. English education is carried out through this procedure and thus proper decisions on theories, approaches, and contents in the curriculum are critical to effective ELT in Korea. The content of Korean National English Curriculum covers the notional-functional areas and consists of a set of language forms and functions, which are realized linguistically by grammatical structures and appropriate vocabulary to be used in appropriate situations the Ministry of Education published a series of policies regarding English teaching and learning. Choi, et al (1997) and Li (1998) explain that

Early in 1992, the Korean Ministry of Education published the Sixth National Curriculum for Middle Schools (Grade 7-9) and The Sixth National Curriculum for High Schools (Grade 10-12), known among practitioners as the Communicative Curriculums. The 1st through 5th national English curricula for the secondary schools in Korea have been criticized due to their heavy grammar-oriented (Ministry of Education 1992; Bae and Han, 1994). The Korean government realized that the grammatical syllabus doesn't help much to develop learners' communicative competence, and decided that fundamental goal of 6th curriculum would be introduced CLT into the Korean teaching-learning context. The developers of the national English curriculum in Korea first paid significant attention to CLT in the 6th curriculum in history. In order to accomplish this goal, the Ministry of Education (1992) maintains, new kinds of units are applied in the 6th curriculum in organizing the syllabus, namely units with communicative functions such as 'exchanging information,' solving problems, asking favors, expressing feelings,' The terms curriculum and syllabus are often used synonymously as in the school's English curriculum/syllabus. However, in its normal use curriculum has a wider reach, e.g., the widely used term curriculum development refers to the research work in developing many courses of study. The term syllabus development is not so commonly used, if used is more likely to refer to the work within one subject only. The term curriculum development, if used for a single subject, refers to the subject in question to the all classes of an institute. For example, the school's English curriculum refers to parts of the school's curriculum that deal with English language education in all classes of the school.

The Korean high school curriculum contains the notional-functional character of the curriculum. The content of the curriculum is carefully designed to focus on all types of language functions and cover most of the areas of communication.

The results obtained could be of great interest to classroom teachers as well as to administrators and National Curriculum designers.

In the newly changed curriculum, the language functions to teach are represented by exemplary sentences. The exemplary sentences are used for the first time in the sixth curriculum, under the name of *Example Sentences*, as the actual contents to teach. Since utilizing *Example Sentences* instead of grammatical structures was considered to play a positive role in adopting CLT, they continue to be used in the 7th curriculum. The following are a few instances of the sentences in each curriculum (Yoon, 2004).

Example 1: The 6th curriculum

Possibility: *I can do it. He can't swim well.*

a. *I can swim.* / b. *I can not speak Chinese.* / c. *Can you swim well?*

Joy/Anger/Sorrow/Pleasure: *I'm happy.*

a. *we are happy.* / b. *She is angry.*

Example 2: The 7th curriculum

Possibility, Impossibility

Asking and Expressing about Capability

Can you swim?

Will you be able to go to the concert next Saturday?

Sure, I can.

He can swim.

I might be able to go with you.

As mentioned above, the seventh national curriculum presents exemplary sentences in a more detailed way than the sixth national curriculum. For example, the sixth curriculum categories joy, anger, sorrow, and pleasure as one type of notion and presents only a couple of exemplary sentences for the whole category. On the other hand, the seventh curriculum further divides the category into four and presents several exemplary sentences for each sub-category. However, for the sixth curriculum, the Ministry of Education publishes an explication version (Bae and Han 1994) and provides more detailed explanations and descriptions of

each functions and how to relate similar functions or sentences in the practice of teaching.

An analysis of the explication version of the sixth curriculum reveals that the discussions of each *Example Sentence* more often involve the grammar items that the sentence represents than the communicative functions. An instance follows (Bae and Han 1994:82).

Example 3: Expressing physical feeling

He is too tired to walk.

This is sentence that expresses physical feeling, however, it also indicates the necessity to make the students understand the structure of ‘too.....to’ in terms of the linguistic form.

He is so tired that he cannot walk.

Therefore, the teachers are recommended to teach the structure of ‘so.....that’. The following is another example (Bae and Han 1994:95-96).

Example 4: Expressing emotional feeling

It is pity that she got her arm broken.

English is easy to learn.

The example of ‘*it is a pity that.....*’ is an expression showing sorrow and sympathy. Also, in terms of the linguistic form, the passive voice in English needs to be taught compared to the active in Korean.

- a. She got her arm broken. (=Her arm was broken by accident.)
- b. She had her hair cut.

With regard to the second example sentence, ‘*English is easy to learn₂*’ its structure needs to be taught and practiced.

- c. It is easy to learn English. (= English is easy to learn.)
- d. I am glad to meet you.

As for (d), it can not be transformed like (c) because the subject of the sentence is the agent.

The curriculum contents seem to be improved in the seventh curriculum in that the actual contents are in more accord with the goal than in the sixth. The exemplary sentences in the sixth curriculum represent communicative functions to teach only in a superficial way, but those in the seventh determine the functions in a more specific and refined manner. Also, the role of the linguistic forms in language learning is acknowledged to a certain degree in the seventh whereas the sixth curriculum intends to exclude it. However, the seventh curriculum still has some limitations: it does not provide further discussions regarding how sentences represent the communicative functions, how those functions should be taught, or how the functions are accomplished interactively. It is the significant that the sixth curriculum makes an attempt to implement CLT and the seventh improves the contents. The curriculum developers' main arguments summarized above show that the specific approach of two curricula is basically the notional-functional approach, which is the earliest version of CLT. Both curricula design the syllabus based on various 'communicative functions', without grammatical guidelines in the sixth and with supplementary grammar in the seventh curriculum.

2.5 Modern approaches in language teaching

Over the decades, language teachers and those concerned with language teaching have witnessed the emergence and elaboration of multitudes of methods of language teaching, based on different approaches of selection and gradation of language items, aspects or skills. These approaches were, in turn, based on different theories of learning and language learning. The beliefs of the nature of language and the nature of learning or language learning reflect certain theories

of language or linguistics and theories of language behavior or psycholinguistics. Insights from the psycholinguists helped to look in how much unique and alike are the processes of acquisition and learning of the first and second languages. Again, language is used in a society and the beliefs and knowledge about the nature of language and the nature of language learning are influenced by the findings of sociolinguistics. So, approaches to language learning/teaching reflect not only the theories of language or linguistics but also sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics.

With the study of First Language (L1) Acquisition, several theories of Foreign Language Learning (FLL) process have been pronounced, with similar issues being addressed. In fact, comparisons are frequently made with the way children learn their first language, as a means of providing hypotheses to guide foreign language (L2) learning research.

Different theories of language and learning give emphases on different aspects of language and learning respectively. As a result, different approaches come forward. For example, behaviouristic and mentalistic ideas about language learning, which have been evolved respectively from behaviourist and mentalist psychology, gave rise to two extremely opposite approaches to language learning/ teaching. The behaviouristic theories based exclusively on observable behaviour in the description and explanation of learning behaviour, while mentalistic theories based on the structure and mechanisms of the mind for such descriptions and explanations. Behaviouristic ideas about language learning are based mainly on a theory of learning, in which the focus is mainly on the role of behaviour, both verbal and non-verbal. Mentalistic ideas about language learning are mainly based on theoretical linguistic assumptions, in which the focus is on the 'innate capacity' of any child to learn any language.

Behaviouristic and mentalistic ideas about language learning have led researchers to take extreme positions. A recent reaction to these extreme positions is procedural approach to language learning. The procedural approach, while maintaining a mentalistic outlook, exhibits a renewed interest in the structure and function of children's linguistic input. It caused a shift in the discussion of language learning, away from 'innate' versus 'learned' linguistic ability towards the children's 'cognitive capacity' to discover structure in the language used around them and put these discoveries into use. This section will discuss these three approaches to language learning/ teaching and finally look forward for a communicative approach to language learning and teaching.

2.5.1 Communicative approach

Communicative approach to language learning and teaching stems from Dell Hymes' use of the term communicative competence. Since the first coinage of the term competence in Chomsky (1957) there has been debate over how to define the term. So, before going to the detail discussion of communicative methodology, it will be better to recall how the view of communicative competence developed.

Throughout the history of language teaching, the central question of concern was how to define proficiency in a second or foreign language. In traditional approaches to language teaching, the degree of proficiency that a learner achieves is described in terms of his mastery of 'structures' - that is of phonology, morphology, syntax and lexicon of the target language - a certain amount of grammar, and a certain number of words.

Although all the sounds and structures are attempted, a number of sounds and grammatical items etc. are usually specified in advance of a course of study. The specification can vary widely from course to course. Learners may also vary

widely in the degree of mastery of structures they attain. But this kind of knowledge is not adequate for those students who want to learn a language in order to make use of it rather than to know about it. It is a common place of cognizance now that languages are learned so that people can communicate, and communication involves more than (the) structures. While Chomsky's theory includes judgments of grammaticality and acceptability to the native speaker, Hymes' theory includes judgments of possibility, feasibility, appropriateness and actual performance. For him, a sentence may, thus, be grammatical, awkward, tactful and rare or grammatical, easily understood, insulting and frequent and so on. Grammaticality in Hymes' model is only one of the four sectors of communicative competence; in Chomsky's model, grammaticality was competence (Hymes 1971).

Like Hymes, Halliday also criticized Chomsky's view of organization of language as only grammatical rules linking with referential meaning. While Hymes is concerned with Language in use, Halliday is interested in language in its social context, and in the way language functions are realized in speech. For Hymes, 'there are certain rules of use, without which rules of grammar would be useless' (Hymes 1971). For Halliday, 'the study of language in relation to society in which it is used to situation types, i.e., the study of language as 'text' is a theoretical pursuit, no less important and central to linguistics than psycholinguistic investigations relating the structure of language to the structure of human brain. (Halliday1970b:175).

Hymes and Halliday deal differently with Chomsky's competence - performance distinction and with the concept of proficiency in language by adding to it the dimension of social appropriateness or social context. Although there are other influences on language use and proficiency in language use, Hymes' concept of communicative competence have been particularly useful in

applied linguistics and language teaching. It affects deeply the notion of what should be or can be taught and what sort of preparation and responsibility the teacher should have.

Cooper (1968) reinforces Hymes' point that effective communication requires more than linguistic competence. For effective communication, speakers need to know not only how to produce any and all grammatical utterances of a language but also how to use them appropriately, i.e., what to say with whom, when and where. With reference to proficiency testing in a second language, Cooper says that one cannot assume that information gained from testing one will necessarily tell us anything about the other. It is pointed out that the social situation in which the speaker uses the second language may require more than one variety of the language, i.e., he will need to have verbal repertoire which he can select appropriately.

Widdowson distinguishes communicative competence i.e., the rules of use in particular social situations from speaker's grammatical competence, i.e., the rules of grammar and says that both are components of speaker's competence (Widdowson 1971). Widdowson takes into account the cultural diversity and says that to the learners outside the European cultural tradition rules of use need to be carefully taught, which means, among other things, giving sufficient attention to communicative competence as it is given to grammatical competence. There are four components of communicative competence; these are grammatical competence or the mastery of language code, sociolinguistic competence or the appropriateness of utterance with respect both to form and meaning, discourse competence or the mastery of how to combine form and meaning to achieve text, and strategic competence or the mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies. In Bachman and Palmer's theorisation,

communicative competence comprises of grammatical competence, pragmatic competence and sociolinguistic competence.

2.5.2 CLT situation in Korea

For success in communicative language teaching, an appropriate methodology is inevitable. However, what we know about communicative methodology is from the English speaking country of the west. This methodology was developed in the west and does not always fit the needs of Korea. However, it does not require creating any new terminology for this purpose. The term 'communicative' has the potentials to incorporate with it the ideas necessary for bringing about changes to make it appropriate. For making English language education appropriate for the students and educators in the environment of Korea, certain things are to be addressed. That is, students are not considered as vacuum receptacle. They must have acquired the language to some extent. In addition, there are certain levels of expectations from different parties of the society, viz., guardians, parents, government, and job-givers and so on. An appropriate methodology must aim to fulfill their expectations.

The English teaching and learning situation in Korea, the process of assimilation may be considered an unnecessary factor in many English curriculums that are basically considered to be programs designed as English as a Foreign Language, such as the audio –lingual method which is taught in Korean middle schools and the grammar –translation method taught in Korean high schools and universities. The Korean government has placed English learning and teaching high on its agenda to ensure that the country will play an active and important role in world. The curriculum of a given institution can be looked at from a number of different perspectives. The first perspective is that of curriculum planning, that is, decision making, in relation to learners' needs and

purposes; establishing goals and objectives; selecting and grading contents; organizing appropriate learning arrangements and learner groupings; selecting, adapting, and developing appropriate leaning materials, learning tasks, assessment and evaluation tools.

Alternatively, curriculum can be studied 'in action' as it were. This perspective takes researchers into the classroom itself. Here they can observe the teaching/learning process and study the ways in which the intention of the curriculum planners, which were developed during the planning phase, is translated into action.

By replacing grammar with the communicative functions as the units of a lesson, the curriculum intends to develop learners' communicative competence effectively.

Some of The ELT exports criticized the sixth curriculum since the emphasis on fluency in the sixth curriculum has led to a lack of grammatical accuracy in learners' speech and writing. The developers of the seventh curricula have thus decided to include linguistic forms in a supplementary guide to complement the communicative functions (Choi et al 1997). Kwon (2000) defines the seventh curriculum as a grammatical-functional syllabus which provides both communicative functions and grammatical structures. However, the basic philosophy of the seventh English curriculum is not much different from that of the sixth in that communicative competence and fluency are emphasized. Although the major goal of the sixth and seventh curriculum is to implement CLT, they seem to fail to reach the goal because of the inadequate choice of a specific approach. The notional-functional approach, as mentioned earlier has been criticized by CLT advocates because of its use of synthetic type of syllabus in which language is divided into discrete units of the types which misrepresents the nature of language as communication and is not helpful l for developing

communicative competence. The new curricula, which are to guide Korean English teaching from 1995 to 2010, clearly state that CLT should replace the dominant audio-lingual method in the middle schools and the grammar-translation method in the high schools. “Furthermore, Korea’s policy towards communicative language teaching (CLT) and its practical limitations along with the demand for native speaker instructors show the strong evidence EFL/ESL language learning situation and the need for assimilation especially where advanced L2 learners are concerned.

As in many other Asian countries, English is spoken as a foreign language in Korea. The Korean Ministry of Education has realized the importance of CLT in the curriculum and included it in its 7th English Curriculum which was designed in 1997 and implemented since 2001. The content of the curriculum is carefully designed to focus on all types of language functions and cover most of the areas of communication. Any curriculum that aims to meet these ELT needs of the country must address the above social conditions, and take insights from time to time in course of development from all concerned parties - teachers, students, guardians, employers and others. And above all, those who work in the implementation levels, i.e., the teachers, and the textbook writers, and even the students should go through training so that they can cope with changes in the profession.

In 1997s, the government of Korea took initiatives to prepare and modernize the curriculum in order to meet the needs and challenges of the time. Therefore, the necessities to make the curriculum appropriate for the present situation have been felt, and some efforts have been taken to fulfill these needs. English is taught as a compulsory subject at the middle and high schools.

The term 'communicative' has the potentials to incorporate with it the ideas necessary for bring about changes to make it appropriate. In Korea, ELT

situation is compared to many English-speaking countries. Foreign Language, such as the audio-lingual method which is applied in Korean middle schools and the grammar translation method applied in Korean high schools and universities. The Korean government has placed English teaching and learning on its agenda to ensure that Korea will play an active and important role in the world political and economic activities in future.

2.6 Early methods in language teaching

There was always a need to learn a language, and in the long search for the best way of teaching a foreign language, hundreds of different methods have been devised. However, it is only in the recent time that the demand of ELT has become so great that there is a need for educational facilities for large groups of students.

In the old days, however, when there were few students who need to learn a foreign or second language, the most common procedure was to hire a private tutor. Many young Romans in those days were educated bilingually in Latin and Greek from a very early age.

In the Renaissance, it was a common practice to send people who required a second language to a country where that language was used.

In the Middle Ages, in most European countries, Latin, which was still a living language then, was taught in an intensive and direct way, and was medium of instruction of all subjects from the very beginning.

Language teaching in classical times and in Middle Ages, and in Renaissance showed, of course, in its approaches, features which are available in the present days as well. However, it was only in the 19th century, when the demand for ELT increased so dramatically that a real sense of methodology developed. But throughout the history of ELT, changes in methodology never affected the entire

field of ELT and no methods ever gained monopoly. In general, one can only say that in the 18th century and in some parts of the 19th century, the preference was for Grammar Translation Method; Direct Method became the most prevalent one round 1900 and in 1950s and 1960s.

This section gives a very brief account of the major methods, which have been influential in some time. Finally adopts a communicative approach to language learning and teaching and attempts to devise an appropriate methodology, which will reflect the approach.

2.6.1 The grammar translation method (GTM)

The grammar translation method has no obvious theoreticians. It is the perfect reflection of the methods adopted for centuries to teach Greek and Latin in Europe and Sanskrit in India. However, the basic tenets of this method are found in grammar books and courses developed for teaching purposes.

Learning in GTM involves the mastery of grammatical rules and paradigms, memorizing long lists of literary vocabularies related to the texts, which are chosen for their prestigious content rather than the learners' interests or linguistic difficulty. Little emphasis is given on activities of listening and speaking (Crystal, 1987:372). The most popular exercise is translation from L1 into L2 and the vice versa. In exercises, grammatical ordering of word classes is often maintained. The rules of grammar sometimes are taught for their own sake. The exercise-sentences are often extremely artificial. Knowledge and skills taught in this way primarily benefit reading and writing skills, and oral skills are clearly neglected and no or little attention is paid to listening and speaking and pronunciation.

In grammar translation method the only thing used as teaching materials in a language class is a book of grammar, which has been called traditional grammar

by modern linguists. A bilingual dictionary and a book of literature in some cases accompany this book. The bilingual dictionary is used to see only word meanings. A typical lesson in GTM might have the following layout.

2.6.2 The audio-lingual method

Audio-lingual method, also known as aural-oral method, developed on the behaviourist learning principles and structural views of language. This method derives from the intensive training given to the American military personnel during the Second World War, which resulted in a high degree of listening and speaking skills being achieved in relatively very short time. The period between 1958 and 1964 was the golden age of audio-lingual method, which was eventually the result of the development and extensive availability of audio-technology.

In audio-lingualism, emphasis is given on everyday conversation with particular attention being paid to natural pronunciation and language is thought as habit formation. Structural patterns in dialogues about everyday situations are imitated and drilled first in choral speech, and then individually until learner's response become automatic (Crystal, 1987:374). In drill and pattern practice special focus is given on structural contrast between L1 and L2. Little time is spent on grammatical discussion. An L>S>R>W order is followed i.e., language is first heard, then practiced orally and then written form of language is introduced.

2.6.3 Further developments

In the line of development of the direct method, in 1960s and afterwards we find the attachment to audio-lingual method a great use of visual aids of a vast variety in addition to regular course books, workbooks and readers. These include collections of facsimile materials, cue cards, newspapers, magazines,

posters, pictures, cards, cut-outs and many more. These are supplemented by a range of materials using other media such as records, video- and audio-tapes, slides, transparencies, filmstrips, toys, games and puppets. The advent of computer introduces further potential equipment. With all these aids in use, the audio-lingual method has sometimes been called audio-visual method.

Other names used for the variants of the direct method include structuroglobal audio-visual method, which takes into account both the structural aspects of language and the situations of use. The developed version of this method incorporated into it, concepts of sociolinguistic and pragmatic theories. In this respect, this approach has much in common with communicative approach to FLT.

Meanwhile, other voices have also been heard; these include among others, the suggestopedia, the silent way, the community language learning, language from within, delayed oral practice and total physical response.

In teaching language as communication learners 'existing communicative competence and language model are used as input and language use is seen as output. Students practice use of language in pairs, in groups and individually. Maximum opportunity is given for students 'initiation'. Information gap activity is an example of students 'language practice'. Communicative methodology is authentic in the sense that it meets the needs of all concern parities and tasks practiced in the classroom are not merely classroom activities, instead they reflect the use of language in the society.

Chapter 3 Research Design

The purpose of this study was to investigate the implication of the new curriculum focusing on the formal and functional aspects of language that are used through the texts. The analysis is based on description and simple statistical procedure.

3.1 The participants of the study

One hundred and eighty students of the Korean high schools participated in this study. There were eighty- six male students and ninety- four female including two girls' high schools from Gwanju-Jollanamdo area.

There were altogether ten high schools: Kwanju Jung Ang Girls' High School, Science High School, Naju, Hyun-Kyung high School, Muwan, Foreign Language High School, Naju, St. Joseph Girls' High School, Gang-Jin, Gongsan High School, Kumsong High school, Seokang High School, Gwanju, Jeil High School, Gwanju and sunchan High School were selected randomly. The researcher herself visited those schools and then selected 18 students randomly from each school.

3.2 Sources of data

In the process of this study, the research data have been collected from two sources

- i. Primary source: The primary source for collecting the data was the responses made by the students in written as well as spoken forms through a set of questionnaire.

- ii. Secondary source: The curriculum of high school English, textbooks and other related literature were taken for the theoretical background of the functional/ communicative competence.

3.3 Tools for data collection

The researcher herself visited to the ten different high schools with one Korean high school English teacher who volunteered a lot during the data collection period. The questionnaire was administered during the class schedule. The participants were given sufficient instructions before getting the responses. Their English teacher translated the instruction to them into Korean. The students were asked to have the conversation in pairs. Altogether twenty days allotted for both test (two days were taken for each school). In half of the time (before lunch time) the written test was conducted and in the rest half of the time the spoken test was administered.

3.3.1 Test items for finding out formal competence

A set of questionnaire that contained eighteen subjective types of questions, was prepared for testing the students' formal. Altogether eighteen questions were included. After the several revisions, the final version of the questionnaire were translated into Korean. Test items were prepared on the basis of the high school English curriculum. The prescribed language structures and functions were focused, providing the appropriate situations to get the written answers from the students.

3.3.2 Test items of functional/communicative competence

The same set of test items was supplied to the students to find out their communicative/functional competence. The students were asked to have conversations in pairs and the obtained responses were recorded with the help of

a tape recorder. There were altogether eighteen questions prepared to collect the participants' spoken responses, so one question was on the side of each student. For the conversation, the participants themselves chose their speaking partners randomly among their friends who they like to talk to.

3.4 Tabulation of the data

The collected data were analyzed very cautiously taking help with the current English grammar books and the dictionaries and tabulated in order to get the percentage of errors in sentences by using the following formula: to find out the error percentage, first of all, the written answer of the students is checked in detail.

$$\text{Error\%} = \frac{\text{Number of errors made by a student}}{\text{Total number of sentences written by a student}} \times 100$$

Chapter 4 Analysis and interpretation

The analysis and interpretation of the research work is divided into five different sub-topics. They are: (1) analysis of errors by respondents in written form, (2) analysis of errors by respondents in spoken form, (3) comparison of errors in written responses, (4) comparison of errors in spoken responses and (5) analysis of the functional competence.

4.1 Analysis of the errors in written form

Almost all of the respondents were actively involved in the written test. The questions were translated already into Korean. The written form of language has its own norms and values. Considering such things, the researcher has classified the errors committed by the students into different categories. A varieties of responses were gathered which were categorized into five broad categories: errors in structure, errors in punctuation, errors in the use of functional words, errors in lexical items, and errors in spelling, following grammatical rules and standards.

There were a total of 1795 sentences written by the respondents for the analysis. They made 34% of their errors in structure. This means that the respondents were found weak in making sentences with correct structure. They made 30% of their mistakes in punctuation. This means while writing responses, they could not place required punctuation marks in appropriate places. The respondents made 11% of their mistakes in lexical items, meaning that they used inappropriate words in their responses. In functional or grammatical words they made 15% of their errors and in spelling they made and 10% of their mistakes (*Figure 1*). The respondents were seemed to

Table 1. Analysis of errors in written responses

Error Area	No. of errors	Percentage of total errors
Structure	1013	34%
Functional words	443	15%
Lexical items	321	11%
Spelling	299	10%
Punctuation	907	30%

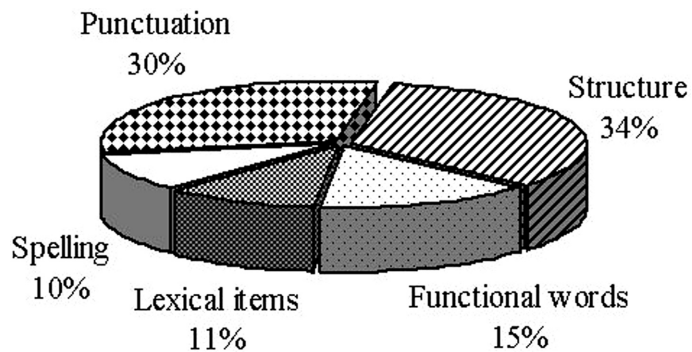


Figure 1. Percentage of total errors in written responses

weakest in structures, punctuations, and lexical items. They provided more satisfactory responses in using lexical items and in spelling. The respondents from city areas were found to be comparatively more competent than those from more rural areas. Also, the respondents from technical high schools are found to be better in their written performance than those from general high schools.

4.1.1 Errors in structure

Included in the category of errors in structure are the errors committed by the respondents in s-v agreement, possessives, tenses, direct questions, and gerund/*to* infinitives and word order. *Table 2* and *Figure 2* show the distribution of errors committed by the respondents in structure by error percentage.

4.1.1.1 Errors in subject-verb agreement

The respondents made fewer errors in subject-verb agreement than they made in punctuation. They made 40% of their errors in the subject-verb agreement category (*Figure 2*). Some examples of respondents' errors in subject verb agreement are as follows.

- (1) *The function start in 7 a.m.
- (2) *I'll going to the Seoul in my holidays.
- (3) *I am come here soon.

In (1) *start* should be *starts*. Likewise, in (2) *I'm* should be used instead of *I'll*. In (3) It is difficult to guess the meaning.

Table 2. Errors in structure

Error area	No. of errors	Percentage of total errors
S-V agreement	405	40%
Tenses	246	24%
Word order	218	22%
Direct questions	94	9%
Gerund/ <i>to</i> infinitives	50	5%

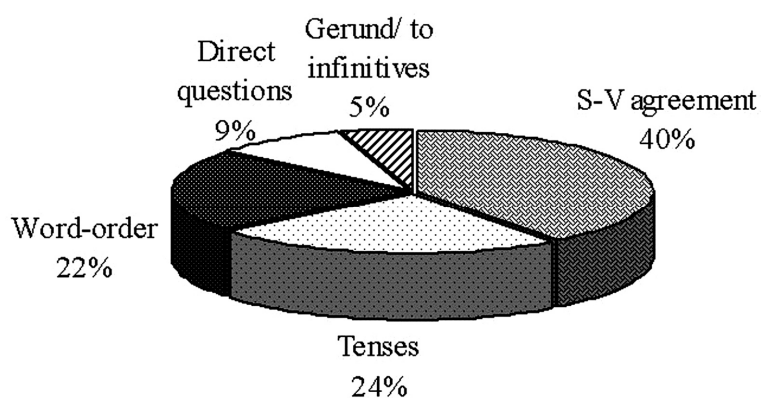


Figure 2. Percentage of total errors in structure

4.1.1.2 Errors in tenses

The respondents made 24% of their errors in tense. The following are some examples of the responses exhibiting inappropriate tense:

- (4) *Yesterday, I see bus-accident
- (5) *Look! That it will certainly rain and dark cloud...
*the sky was dark and moving.

In the above sentences, the tenses are used incorrectly. In (4), the adverb of time, *yesterday* was used with the present tense verb, *see*. In (5), the tense in *will rain* and *was dark* do not agree and the sentences were unclear. This exemplifies the respondents' poor performance in sentence structure.

4.1.1.3 Errors in word order

The respondents made 22% of their errors in word order (*Figure 2*). They supplied sentences using an unacceptable sequence of words, for example:

- (6) *Oh! You got not money.
- (7) *When it is?
- (8) *Why you don't go to trip?

Though, the percentage of errors in word order is lower than for subject subject-verb agreement and tense, they are nevertheless very serious. In (6), "*got not*" is used instead of "*didn't get*". In (7), "*it is*" is used instead of "*is it*". Similarly, in (8), "*you don't*" is incorrectly used as the word order instead of "*don't you*".

4.1.1.4 Errors in direct questions

The respondents made 9% of their errors in direct questions. Some typical erroneous questions written by the respondents are as follows:

- (9) *When are you go?
- (10) *When are you stay there?

In making the question sentences, the respondents made errors in using 'be' verbs instead of do-verbs, eg (9). In the next sentence (10), while the correct

structure is “*when are you staying here*”, the error is serious. Though the respondents express very few question sentences they made very serious errors.

4.1.1.5 Errors in gerund/to-infinitives

The students made 5% of their errors in gerund/ *to* infinitive constructions (*Figure*). Examples include:

(11)*How about go to zoo and look the many animals!

(12)*Thank you but I’m going to home.

The respondents correctly used or attempted gerund or *to*-infinitive constructions in their responses. Counted as errors were responses such as in (11). Likewise, as mentioned in (12) the correct expression is...*thank you but I’m going home. ...*Where there is opposite of the grammatical rule to put *to* before the noun *home*.

4.1.2 Errors in punctuation

Figure 1 shows that the students have made 30% errors in punctuation (Most of the students committed errors in question marks, full stops, commas and hyphen for example,

(13)*Excuse me Sir Can I open the window

(14)*oh.....and, Thank you!

It was found that the respondents made a high percentage of errors in this area. Almost all of the sentences contained punctuation errors. In (13) the respondent has made errors in capitalization, comma and question mark.usase.The correct form of (13) is: *Excuse me sir, can I open the window?* Likewise in (14), the respondents made errors in using capital letters, comma, and full stop. The correct expression is: *Oh...and thank you.*

4.1.3 Errors in the use of grammatical items

In this category, errors in conjunctions, articles, prepositions and pronouns are included. *Table 3* shows the distribution of errors in the use of grammatical items according to their percentage. Compared to the errors the respondents made in structures, they committed less error in this category. They made 36% of their errors in writing conjunctive words. Likewise, 28% of their errors were in using the articles in inappropriate places, 16% of their errors were in using pronouns incorrectly. Lastly, the respondents made 20% of their mistakes in the use of prepositions (*Figure 3*).

4.1.3.1 Errors in conjunctions

The respondents made 36% of their errors in the use of conjunctions. The researcher found that they used the connectives incorrectly, for example:

(15)*You prepared before. But you didn't read now.

(16)*I received your letter yesterday, I am very happy. That you have written.

A conjunction is a word used for joining, and for no other purpose. A conjunction is never connected with an object as a Preposition is. In respondents' errors like (15), here the correct sentence is: *You prepared before but didn't read now*. For (16), the correct answer is: *I received your letter yesterday, and I'm very happy that you have written*.

4.1.3.2 Errors in using articles

The respondents made 28% of their errors in the use of articles. It was found that the respondents either made superfluous use of articles or misplaced them, for example

(17)*Yes, I help a my parents.

(18)*And I've had a plans.

Table 3. Number of errors in the use of grammatical items

Error area	No. of errors	Percentage of total errors
Conjunctions	152	36%
Articles	115	28%
Prepositions	82	20%
Pronouns	68	16%

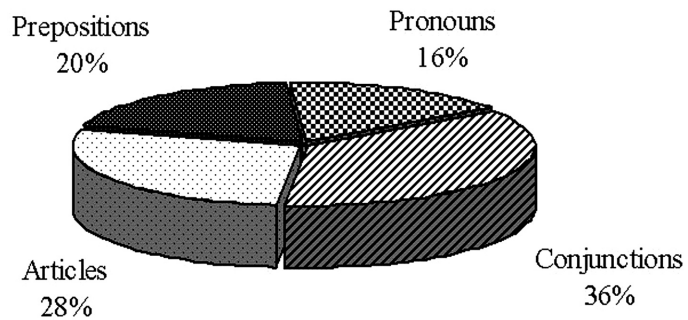


Figure 3. Percentage of errors in the use of grammatical items

The respondents made errors in using articles with possessive pronouns, as in (17). Articles were also often used with plural nouns, as in (18).

4.1.3.3 Errors in prepositions

The respondents wrote erroneous sentences in using prepositions. They made 20% of their errors in this area. For example:

(19)*But you have bring the umbrella with your house.

(20)*The function starts in 7 a.m.

(21)*I get up a six a.m. and wash face etc.

The correct use of prepositions is important in the construction of sentences to convey intended meaning. However respondents made errors such as using “with” in (19) instead of “from”, “in” in (20) instead of “at”, and the article “a” in (21) instead of the preposition “at”.

4.1.3.4 Errors in pronouns

The respondents committed 16% of their errors in the use of pronouns. Pronouns were either omitted or used incorrectly.

(22)*Where are going?

(23)*Thanks for you suggestion.

For example, in response (22) the pronoun “you” is omitted, while in (23), the incorrect form of the pronoun is –“you” is used instead of the possessive form “your.”

4.1.4 Errors in lexical items

In this category, the errors made by the respondents in word choice are included. Respondents made total 321 errors in word choice-which is 11% of their total errors. Respondents often chose words inappropriate for given situation. For example:

Table 4 Errors in lexical items

Error area	no of errors	error percentage %
Lexical items	321	11

(24)*I saw a traffic accident.

(25)*I record English speak, I listen to tape and I fix my pronunciation.

In (24), “*car*” would have been a more specific and colloquial choice than “*traffic*.” In (25), “*speech*” and “*improve*” or “*correct*” would be more appropriate word choices than “*speak*” and “*fix*”, respectively.

4.1.5 Errors in spelling

Incorrect spelling of words is included in this category. It is evident that while respondents are familiar with the meaning of the word they are not as familiar with its correct spelling. The total respondent errors 299, or 10% of them were in spelling.

Table 5 Errors in spelling

Type of Error	No.of Errors	Percentage of Errors
Spelling	299	10

Examples:

<u>Students' writing</u>	<u>Correct spelling</u>
Idia	Idea
tolk	talk
stadyed	studied etc.

Taking the broad categories of errors into account, the use of correct spelling, appropriate words and grammatical correctness were checked. The respondents tried their best to answer the questionnaire. Some of them responded in Korean, which was evaluated as a *spelling* error.

4.2 Analysis of the errors in spoken form

Oral responses were also sought from all the one hundred and eighty participants in spoken tests as well. Unfortunately, four participants did not respond. Later, the researcher categorized the errors spoken responses into eight broad categories that include the major types of errors shown in *Table 6*.

The respondents responded with one thousand two hundred and seventy-one (1271) sentences on the oral test. This means they produce fewer sentences in spoken responses than in written responses, which shows that the students are more productive in written responses than in spoken responses. They made 22% of their errors in pronunciation, 20% in fluency/pauses, 9% in grammatical items, 19% in speaking unclear words, 12% in repetition of words, and 16% in using inappropriate vocabulary. Students made a low percentage of errors in both comprehension and context/situation - about 1% (*Figure 4*).

The error categories selected are those that are most readily detectable in listening to speech. This study shows that the respondents were very weak in pronunciation. They used words in inappropriate places. These were categorized as "unclear words." Likewise, they made a large amount of errors in repetition of words and using inappropriate lexical items. They provided more satisfactory responses in comprehension and understanding of situations.

4.2.1 Errors in pronunciation

The largest percentage of errors committed by the respondents, 22% was in pronunciation (*Figure 4*). Because of their mother tongue interference, the respondents couldn't pronounce some words or sounds correctly as well as appropriately. Sometimes the students were confused in pronouncing those language items. Some of the frequent errors made by the students are mentioned as follows:

Table 6. Analysis of errors in spoken responses

Type of Error	No. of errors	percentage of errors
Pronunciation	1224	22%
Fluency/ pauses	1047	20%
Grammatical items	504	9%
Unclear words	990	19%
Repetition of words	615	12%
Lexical items	836	16%
Comprehension	54	1%
Context/ situation	67	1%

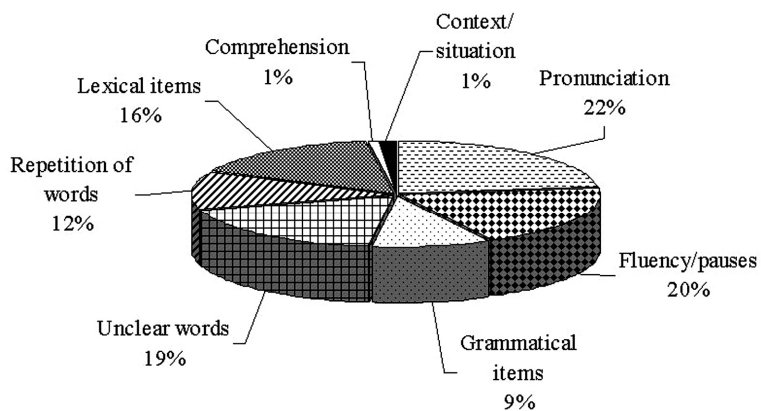


Figure 4. Percentage of errors in spoken responses

<u>Words</u>	<u>Student's pronunciation</u>	<u>Correct pronunciation</u>
terribly	/ terib li /	/ ter əbli /
garden	/ ga: rden /	/ ga:dn /
school	/ isku:l /	/ sku:l /
would	/ wuld /	/ wud /
suggestion	/ s get n /	/ s d est n / etc.

4.2.2 Errors in fluency

The students made errors in fluency (pauses) 20% (*Figure 4*). The researcher found that the large number of the students couldn't communicate fluently. Their pauses were numerous. For example:

(26)*My school is be being the sportsday function.

(27)*Please sit down, will ... 'll ... we will eat dinner .. a ... dinner.

(28)*No cloud, no ... wa ... water rain ... wh ... when sun rises ...n...
no raining, etc. (The dots..... here indicate that the respondent paused or stuttered. In this writing where the dots that means the students have not spoken the word fluently there.)

4.2.3 Unclear utterances

The students also made errors in grammatical usage. They made 19% errors in this area. For example:

(29)*You don't doubt rain because when cloud moving, water rain.

This shows that the respondent's word choice and syntax were poor that the meaning of the utterance is unclear.

4.2.4 Repetition of words

Another type of error, one closely associated with pauses, is repetition of speech, words, or a string of words were repeated, for example;

(30)*Why ... why... Oh ... why you don't like to read?

(31)*Please you are my ... you are my also ... a friend and you have
come to my school ... come to my school program.”

These sentences demonstrated a lack of confidence, a lack of readily accessible producible syntactic structure.

4.2.5 Errors in lexical items

In addition to error in the major categories of pronunciation, fluency, unclear utterances, and repetition of speech, respondents made errors in lexical item usage. For example:

(32)*How about you play swim?

In (32), the respondents used an inappropriate verb with the noun ``swim” rather than the verb ``swim”.

4.2.6 Errors in comprehension

While having the conversation, the respondents were clear about the context but sometimes they didn't follow their partner's sense; that type errors are put under this category. Respondents made 1% of their errors in comprehension of the survey item. For example;

(33)*I've not have an accident on the way to my school.....there
the road is very good.'

One respondent's response in (33) demonstrating that they did not completely understand the survey item.

4.2.7 Errors in context/situation

The students made errors in context/ situation. While speaking to each other, they traced out of the context e.g. in response to the situation: “One of your friends is not going to go on the field trip, convince him/her of the benefit of the trip” The student spoke,

(34)*I am too tired if I go to the trip.

This example makes us clear that the respondent is not sure of the question or couldn't get the sense of it. That's how, 1% of the respondents were not able to understand the context/situation while responding (*Figure 4*).

4.3 Comparison of the errors in written responses

In this study, the responses were further analyzed according to the average, maximum and minimum number of errors. For each item are calculated for comparison. It was observed that a large number of the respondents committed errors in grammatical categories. Significant differences by proficiency level were found in the use of thirteen broad categories while analyzing the errors made by the respondents. The compared analysis of the responses is shown in two tables (*Table 7a* and *Table 7b*). The following are the analyses in detail by school for the thirteen types of errors

Table 7a shows that the maximum errors found at Gwanju Jung Ang Girls' High School is in the *Punctuation*, for which average error is 5.38, and minimum is 2 and the maximum number of errors is 14 as a whole in the school. The respondents performed poorly in tense usage. Their average number of errors was 24 and the minimum was 1. They performed better in direct questions. Only 1 error was found in this type. They wrote an average of 12.26 sentences, with the maximum 18 and minimum is 2. The students are seemed to be not good at using the tenses appropriately that is their average error in this category is 2.2, maximum errors are 4 and the minimum is 1.

The students from Science High School, Naju, made maximum number of errors in *Punctuation*. In *average*, they made 5.77 errors and in maximum 20 and minimum are 2 in this category. They are seemed to be better in using

Table 7a Comparison of the errors in written responses

School	Gwanju Jung Ang Girls' High School (N=18)				Science High School, Naju (N=18)				Hyun-Kyung High School, Muwan (N=18)				Foreign Language High School, Naju (N=18)				St. Joseph Girls' High School, Gang-Jin (N=18)			
	Ave	Max	Min	Total	Ave	Max	Min	Total	Ave	Max	Min	Total	Ave	Max	Min	Total	Ave	Max	Min	Total
Lexical items	2.08	4	1	28	2.23	7	1	29	3.71	10	1	52	2.0	4	1	22	2.23	5	1	29
Direct questions	1.0	1	1	5	1.5	2	1	9	1.5	3	1	9	1.0	1	1	7	1.42	3	1	10
Pronouns	2.0	2	2	4	1.0	1	1	2	4.0	7	1	8	1.28	2	1	9	1.2	2	1	6
Adjectives	1.0	1	1	3	1.0	1	1	1	1.0	1	1	1	1.0	1	1	2	1.0	1	1	3
S-v agreement	2.7	7	1	30	2.68	7	1	43	3.6	7	1	54	1.41	3	1	17	2.18	5	1	35
Prepositions	1.8	3	1	11	1.0	1	1	2	1.12	2	1	9	1.5	3	1	6	1.16	2	1	7
Spellings	2.87	5	1	23	3.45	10	1	38	2.41	7	1	29	1.83	4	1	22	2.6	4	1	26
Word order	2.0	4	1	18	4.0	7	1	24	2.9	8	1	29	1.0	1	1	7	1.63	4	1	18
Tense	2.22	4	1	26	2.11	4	1	19	3.18	6	2	35	1.4	2	1	7	2.42	5	1	17
Gerund/infinitives	1.66	2	1	6	1.0	1	1	2	1.5	2	1	6	1.0	1	1	2	1.0	1	1	2
Articles	1.5	2	1	8	3.0	6	1	12	2.0	4	1	12	1.5	3	1	9	1.0	1	1	2
Conjunctions	1.25	2	1	5	2.55	6	1	23	2.87	10	1	23	1.83	3	1	11	1.0	1	1	4
Punctuations	5.38	14	2	75	5.77	20	2	104	5.41	12	1	92	4.23	10	1	72	4.88	10	1	88
Total errors	13.43	24	0	242	17.11	48	6	308	19.88	41	3	358	11.11	21	4	189	13.44	25	4	242
Total sentences	12.26	18	2	201	11.44	28	3	206	8.88	18	1	160	10.05	15	1	181	10.61	17	5	191

Gerund/Infinitives, Prepositions, Adjectives, and Pronouns. The errors in these all of the categories are only 1. They wrote 11.44 sentences in average and 28 in total maximum and only one sentence as minimum in calculation.

In Hyun-Kum High School, Muwan, it is found that the students in this school made maximum number of errors in the areas of '*punctuations*', the number in this area is 12 as a maximum and minimum is 1. The average sentences written by the students is 8.88, maximum sentences are 18 and minimum are 1. The students are seemed to be better in the other grammatical categories.

Foreign Language High School, Naju, is seemed to be better than other schools in all the categories. The students made fewer errors in every categories. But in calculating the errors; they made maximum number of errors in the '*Punctuation*' like the other schools' students. It is 4.23 numbers in average, 10 in maximum numbers and 1 as the minimum. They wrote 10.05 sentences in average, 15 sentences as maximum and 1 as minimum this is a better situation than the other students.

The students at St. Joseph Girls' High School wrote an average sentences is 10.11, maximum are 17 and minimum number of sentence is 5 like the other schools. The students made 13.44 numbers of errors in average, maximum errors are 25 and the minimum are 4. The students made maximum number of errors in punctuation, which is 10. The students, are seemed more competent in the grammatical categories like articles, prepositions, infinitives and so on in which they made fewer numbers of errors.

Table 7b Comparasion of the errors in written responses

School	Gongsan High School (N=18)				Kumsong High School (N=18)				Seokang High School, Gwanju (N=18)				Jeil High School, Gwanju (N=18)				Sunchan High School, Sunshun (N=18)			
	Ave	Max	Min	Total	Ave	Max	Min	Total	Ave	Max	Min	Total	Ave	Max	Min	Total	Ave	Max	Min	Total
Lexical items	2.0	4	1	32	2.25	5	1	36	2.77	8	1	50	1.8	4	1	27	2.17	5	1	37
Direct questions	1.85	4	1	26	1.66	3	1	15	1.42	3	1	20	1.44	2	1	13	1.68	3	1	27
Pronouns	1.87	3	1	15	1.55	3	1	14	1.36	2	1	15	1.42	3	1	20	1.36	2	1	15
Adjectives	1.44	3	1	13	2.17	7	1	37	1.0	1	1	7	1.0	1	1	6	1.28	2	1	9
S-v agreement	2.06	4	1	31	2.66	7	1	48	3.0	5	1	54	1.84	3	1	24	2.87	7	1	23
Prepositions	2.0	4	1	30	1.5	3	1	18	1.27	2	1	14	1.72	4	1	31	1.5	3	1	18
Spellings	2.0	4	1	32	3.11	9	1	56	2.0	4	1	32	1.93	4	1	29	2.23	4	1	38
Word order	1.7	3	1	29	1.94	4	1	35	1.94	5	1	33	1.87	4	1	30	1.57	3	1	22
Tense	2.17	4	1	37	2.16	5	1	39	1.87	4	1	30	1.43	2	1	23	2.22	4	1	20
Gerund/Infinitives	1.16	2	1	7	1.72	4	1	19	1.25	3	1	15	1.61	3	1	21	1.0	1	1	7
Articles	1.5	3	1	18	2.0	4	1	24	1.46	3	1	22	1.93	4	1	29	2.5	6	1	25
Conjunctions	1.77	4	1	16	2.33	5	1	42	1.69	3	1	22	1.83	4	1	33	1.5	2	1	12
Punctuations	3.88	11	1	66	4.44	8	1	80	3.94	9	1	71	3.94	7	1	71	4.11	9	2	74
Total errors	20	26	13	340	24.6	40	17	442	21.4	29	14	385	19.8	27	11	357	18.2	24	13	327
Total sentences	10.4	18	2	177	10.1	25	1	181	9.44	18	1	170	9.5	14	2	171	8.72	15	3	157

As it is mentioned in the Table 7b the students from Gongsan high School, the maximum errors are found in the same area, *Punctuation*. The average numbers of sentences written by the students 10.41 and average errors are 20, maximum sentences are 18 and minimum are 2. Likewise, the students are seemed well in the grammatical categories. It is found that the students are weak in tense after the *Punctuation*. That is 2.17 as average, 4 as maximum and 1 as the minimum numbers of errors.

From the students responses of Kumsong High School, (*Table 7b*) the total errors in average are 24.55 which are supposed to be bigger in comparing to the others' performance. The maximum number of sentences is 25 and minimum is 1 and maximum errors are 40 and minimum are 17. Like the other students, they made maximum errors in *Punctuation*.

The students of Seokang High School, Gwanju (*Table 7b*) made maximum errors in Punctuations and lexical items which are 9 and 8 respectively. The average sentences is 9.44, maximum numbers of the sentences are 18 and minimum is 1. The total errors in average is 21.38, maximum is 29 which is not a small number and the minimum number of errors is 14. The students made very few errors in the adjective..

The students of Jeil High School, Gwanju (*Table 7b*) wrote 9.5 sentences in average. The maximum number of sentences is 14 and the minimum is 2. In average the students made 19.83 errors, 27 as maximum and 11 errors as minimum. The maximum errors are found in the Punctuation and minimums are in adjectives.

It is seemed that the students of Sunchun High school, sunchun (*Table 7b*) are good at the grammatical categories. They made maximum number of errors in *Punctuation*. Which are the favorite categories for all the students because

each and every school's students made enough mistakes in these categories. The average errors is 18.16, maximum errors 24, minimum is 13. Likewise, in average, the students wrote 8.72 sentences in average and 15 as the maximum number and 3 is the minimum as the other respondents do. In general, it is found that the performance of the respondents was more or less similar to all the schools and students.

4.4 Comparison of the errors in spoken responses

The analysis of the errors in spoken responses are also shown in two tables (*Table 8a* and *8b*) that shows error analysis of the students in different categories in spoken responses.

The average of the errors made by the students from Gwangu Jung Ang Girls' High School (*Table 8a*), in using the correct lexical items is 1.41 and the maximum number of errors in this area is 3 and minimum is 1. Likewise the average in using the grammatical items is 2.64 and the maximum is 5 and minimum is 1. In context, the average number of errors is 1.36, maximum is 2 and minimum number is 1. Like wise the average numbers of errors in Fluency is 1.5, in Repetition of words 2.55, in Pronunciation 2.23, Comprehension 1.18. Maximum errors in context is 2, minimum is 1, in Fluency is 2, Pronunciation is 4 and in comprehension is 2. The minimum number of errors is 1 in every category. In total, the average error is 8.05, average sentences are 9.22 and the maximum errors are 14 and sentences are 14 too but the minimum errors are 3 and the minimum sentences are 2.

Most of the students of the Science High School, Naju, have made maximum number of mistakes in the areas of *grammatical items* (*Table 8a*). The average mistake in that area was 3.41 and maximum is 6 and the minimum number of

Table 8a Comparison of the errors in spoken responses

School	Gwanju Jung Ang Girls' High School (N=18)				Science High School, Naju (N=18)				Hyun-Kyung High School, Muwan (N=18)				Foreign Language High School, Naju (N=18)				St. Joseph Girls' High School, Gang-Jin (N=18)			
	Ave	Max	Min	Total	Ave	Max	Min	Total	Ave	Max	Min	Total	Ave	Max	Min	Total	Ave	Max	Min	Total
Lexical items	1.41	3	1	26	1.77	3	1	14	2.13	5	1	32	1.33	2	1	12	1.41	3	1	17
Parts of speech	2.64	5	1	54	3.41	6	1	81	3.94	12	1	71	2.75	5	1	44	2.64	5	1	45
Context	1.36	2	1	12	1.0	1	1	7	1.42	3	1	10	1.0	1	1	8	1.36	2	1	16
Fluency	1.5	2	1	51	2.25	5	1	112	1.87	4	1	53	1.83	3	1	54	1.5	2	1	51
Repetition of words	2.25	6	1	21	1.91	4	1	91	3.55	9	2	32	3.42	7	1	24	2.25	6	1	18
Pronunciation	2.23	4	1	50	2.29	4	1	61	3.5	7	1	98	2.0	4	1	83	2.23	4	1	79
Comprehension	1.18	2	1	12	1.0	1	1	6	1.0	1	1	9	1.0	1	1	9	1.16	2	1	7
Total errors	8.05	14	3	226	8.77	13	4	353	13.11	22	6	305	8.44	17	4	234	8.05	14	3	232
Total sentences	9.22	14	2	127	9.61	15	4	123	4.94	12	1	133	9.72	15	4	125	9.22	14	2	128

errors is 1. Students are also seemed to be less competent in *fluency* in which the maximum errors are 5. The maximum numbers of errors is 13, average is 8.77 and the minimum is 4 where the total number of sentences in average is 9.61, maximum is number of sentences is 15 and the minimum is 4.

The students from Hyun-kung High School, Muwan, (*Table 8a*), are seemed to be less competent in the areas of the grammatical categories where they made 3.94 errors in average, 12 as a maximum errors and 1 is the minimum. The average errors is 13.11, maximum is 22 and minimum is 6 where the average sentence written by the students is 4.94, maximum sentences are 12 and the minimum is 1. The students are seemed to be less competent in words use, it means they repeated the words frequently while speaking the sentences.

In spoken responses, the students from the Foreign Language High School are found more competent than the rest of the schools as it is being the language school, the students are aware about their language study. The students were able to speak in English in the classroom spontaneously. That's why I believed their language skill specially speaking skill is far better than the students from other general schools. The average errors are 8.44, maximum errors are 17 and the min. is 4. Similarly, the average sentences written are 9.72, maximum sentences are 15 and the minimum are 4.

The table shows that the students from the St. Joseph Girls' High School, Gangjin, wrote the the average sentences 9.22, maximum sentences are 14 and minimum are 2. Similarly, the average errors is 8.05, maximum number of errors are 14 and minimum is 3. The students are seemed to be less competent in the areas of the *repetition of words* and secondly, in the areas of the *grammatical items*. On the other hand the students showed better performance in context,

comprehension and fluency. The maximum errors in these categories is 2 in each and the minimum is 1.

The students from Gongsan High School (*Table 8b*) made the average 8.87 errors, maximum errors are 17 and the minimum are 3. Similarly, in average, they wrote 8.56 sentences in average and maximum sentences are 14 and minimum are 5. In comparison, they made the higher degree of errors in use of the *grammatical items* and the *repetition of words*, the maximum number in these categories are 8 and 5 respectively.

In Kumsong High School, (*Table 8b*) the students wrote 7.05 sentences in average, maximum numbers of sentences are 11 and minimum are 3, with 7.66 average errors and 14 and 3 the maximum and minimum errors respectively. Likewise, the students are seemed to be weaker in grammatical items. In the research, it is found that the students are more competent in the categories like: context, comprehension, pronunciation and fluency. They made maximum errors in these categories: 1 and 3, 3 respectively.

In Seokang High School, Gwanju, (*Table 8b*) the average sentences are 6.66, maximum is 12 and minimum is 2 with average 8.55 mistakes and maximum is 13 and minimum number of errors are 3. The students are seemed to be comparatively more competent in the comprehension and fluency which is 1 and 2 maximum number of errors in these categories respectively.

The students from the Jeil high School, Gwanju are seemed to be weaker in the grammatical items, repetition of words and pronunciation, where they made maximum 7, 7 and 6 errors and minimum is 1 in each category (*Table 8b*). In average, they wrote 5.44 sentences, 14 maximum and 2 minimum numbers of sentences. The students made 8.55 errors in average with 14 maximum and 2 minimum sentences.

Table 8b Comparison of the errors in spoken responses

School	Gongsan High School (N=18)				Kumsong High School (N=18)				Seokang High School, Gwanju (N=18)				Jeil High School, Gwanju (N=18)				Sunchan High School, Sunshun (N=18)			
	Ave	Max	Min	Total	Ave	Max	Min	Total	Ave	Max	Min	Total	Ave	Max	Min	Total	Ave	Max	Min	Total
Lexical items	1.83	4	1	25	2.22	5	1	20	2.2	5	1	33	1.55	3	1	14	1.41	3	1	17
Parts of speech	3.85	8	1	54	3.5	6	2	89	2.41	4	1	82	3.06	7	1	49	3.29	8	1	56
Context	2.0	3	1	8	1.0	1	1	9	1.42	3	1	11	1.0	1	1	8	1.36	2	1	17
Fluency	1.41	2	1	51	1.83	3	1	126	1.4	2	1	58	1.83	3	1	58	1.8	3	1	56
Repetition of words	2.85	5	1	20	2.11	4	1	108	2.77	5	2	34	3.42	7	1	24	2.25	6	1	19
Pronunciation	1.2	2	1	50	1.3	3	1	65	2.3	4	1	113	2.33	6	1	94	3.07	5	1	86
Comprehension	1.4	3	1	7	1.0	1	1	9	1.0	1	1	11	1.0	1	1	9	1.16	2	1	8
Total errors	8.87	17	3	215	7.66	14	3	426	8.55	13	3	342	8.55	14	2	256	9.5	15	5	259
Total sentences	8.58	14	5	128	7.05	11	3	126	6.66	12	2	126	5.44	14	2	131	4.5	11	1	124

In Sunchun High School, Sunchun School, the students are seemed to be more competent in comprehension, context and the fluency and lexical items where they made less number of errors (*Table 8b*). They responded 4.5 sentences in average with 9.5 average errors. They seemed to be weaker in the use of grammatical items and repetition of words in which they made 8 and 6 maximum errors respectively.

4.5 Analysis of the functional competence

Language is used to communicate ideas, to express attitudes, feelings, and the like. The role language plays in the context of society or the individual is referred to as *function*. Richards et al. (1985:113) states: "In language teaching, language functions are often described as categories of behavior; e.g., requests, apologies, complaints, offers, compliments, etc. The functional uses of language cannot be determined simply by studying the grammatical structure of sentences. It considers the individual as a social being and investigates the way in which he or she acquires language and uses it in order to communicate with others in his or her social environment."

The term 'competence' refers to the speakers' knowledge of their language, the system of rules that they have mastered so that they are able to produce and understand an indefinite number of sentences and recognize grammatical errors as well as ambiguities. It is an idealized concept of language, i.e. a language code which is opposite to the notion of performance, i.e., encoding or decoding of languages. Richards et al. (1985:52) state, "Competence is a person's internalized grammar of language. This means a person's ability to create and understand sentences, including sentences they have never heard before. It also includes a person's knowledge of what are and what are not sentences of a particular language."

Although all the sounds and structures are attempted, a number of sounds and grammatical items, etc. are usually specified in advance of a course of study. The specification can vary widely from course to course. Learners may also vary widely in the degree of mastery of structures they attain. However, this kind of knowledge is not adequate for those students who want to learn a language in order to make use of it rather than to know about it. It is now the uncontroversially accepted view that languages are learned so that people can communicate and that communication involves more than structures alone.

As functional competence refers to the user's ability to use language in the context taking the particular role and relationship of the participants into account. The researcher asked the students to have a conversation on the same situations as those given for the written test in pairs by turns and their conversations were recorded with a tape-recorder. At this time, the researcher observed the performance of the students only in relation to whether they had followed the proper functions/structures of language in the given situation or not, ignoring all grammatical errors. The researcher classified the functions of language which were asked to the students into broad categories following Van Ek's (1975) functional categories below:

1. Getting things done.
2. Socializing.
3. Expressing and finding out emotional attitudes.
4. Expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes.
5. Imparting factual information.
6. Expressing moral attitudes.

Only 176 respondents expressed their ideas by responding the questionnaire relating to the functional or communicative language functions. Four respondents didn't respond. They were found to be more competitive in

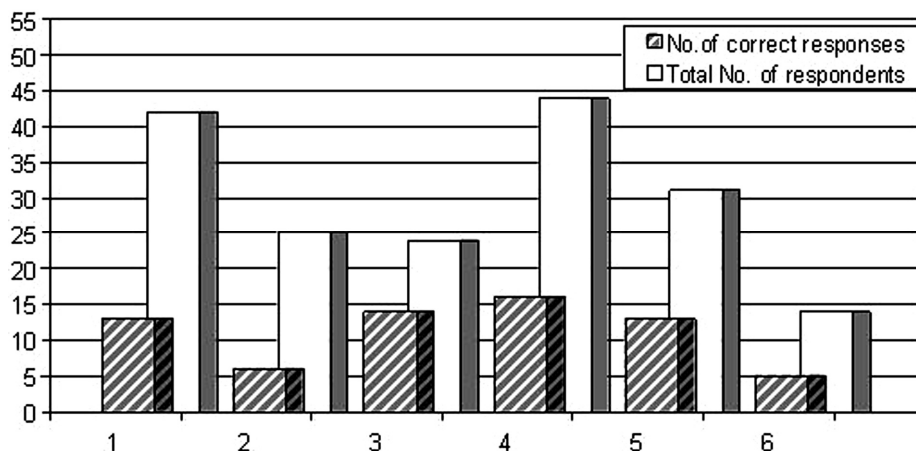
expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes and *expressing moral attitudes* with 58.33% and 41.93% correct responses were ok in these areas.

Also, they made 36.36% correct responses in imparting factual information. In *getting things done*, they made 30.95% correct responses in this area of language functions (Table 9, Figure 5b) and their performance was weakest 24% correct responses in *socializing*. For example; while responding the question No. 13: *A guest has come to your house and you ask him to have dinner with you, but he declines. Have a short conversation with the guest.* One of the responses of a pair of respondents appears as (35):

- A: Why do you turn down my favor?
- B: Because I'm on diet. Sorry!
- A: Going on a diet? You're so skinny! You don't have to lose weight!
- B: I don't think so. My boy friend said that I have a love handle.
- A: Really? He's a very rude man?

In this response, the respondents seem to be unable to communicate fluently with the appropriate lexical items. Both of the speakers try to explain their meaning but it seems something is lacking in their selection of language items and structure.

Language functions	Total no of respondents	No of correct responses	Percentage of correct responses
Getting things done	42	13	30.95
Socializing	25	6	24
Expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes	24	14	58.33
Imparting factual information	44	16	36.36
Expressing moral attitudes	31	13	41.93
Expressing and finding out emotional attitudes	14	5	35.71



Legends: 1 = Getting things done, 2 = Socializing, 3 = Expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes, 4 = Imparting factual information, 5 = Expressing moral attitudes, 6 = Expressing and finding out emotional attitudes

Figure 5a The respondents and their correct responses in language function

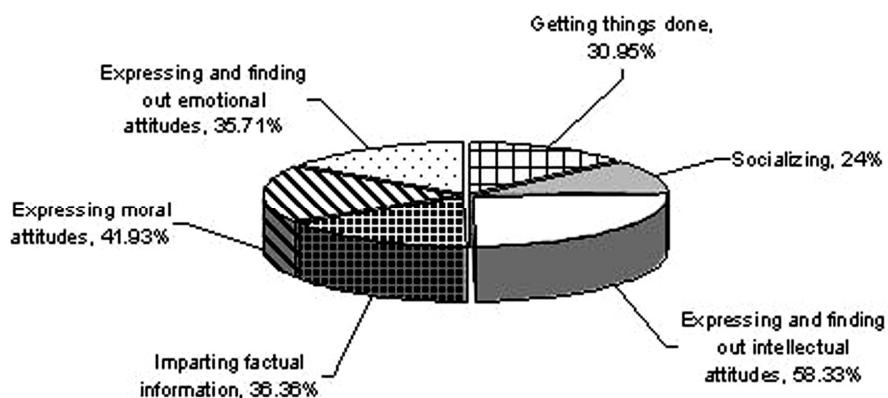


Figure 5b Percentage of correct responses in language function

Chapter 5 Discussion

5.1 Written and spoken responses

Through out the history of language teaching, the central question of concern was how to define proficiency in a second language or foreign language. In the traditional approaches to language teaching, the degree of proficiency that a learner achieves is described in terms of his mastery of 'structures'- that is phonology, morphology, syntax and lexicon of the target language- a certain amount of grammar ,and a certain number of words. But this kind of knowledge is not adequate for those students who want to learn a language in order to make of it rather than to know about it. It is a common place of cognizance now that languages are learned so that people can communicate and communication involves more than the structures. The newly designed syllabus- content includes structures. The structures are so ordered as to facilitate learning. This research work is designed to investigate the students' performance in language functions provided them in their curriculum. For the written responses there were altogether one thousand, seven hundred and ninety-five sentences expressed by the students. The students made 34% errors in structures (*Figure 1*). Structural errors included the errors in `subject-verb (s-v) agreement, tenses, word order, direct –questions and gerund /to infinitives.' (*Figure 2*) shows the detailed error percentage. While constructing the sentences, the students made the errors in using the subject with correct verb .Sometimes they used the wrong tenses. Likewise, the students could not structure the sentences with the correct use of word order, making the direct- questions or some of them did mistakes to write gerund/infinitives appropriately. In writing the sentences, there are certain grammatical rules or patterns that we have to go through and we know that mastering linguistic forms is an important component of second language learning. In a classroom where the Communicative Approach is implemented,

the students' grammatical awareness comes from the roles of the interlocutor (Larsen- Freeman, 2000). In our real life communication, we need more than just one structure to express one meaning. During the research period, I found that most of the students are failed to construct the sentences in catching the certain norms of the English grammar. The SUBJET should be followed by the correct VERB in every sentence. For example: *He goes to school everyday*, in this sentence, there is certain grammatical relation between the subject 'he' and verb 'goes'. If we write like **he go to school everyday*, this sentence is supposed to be grammatically incorrect. Likewise, the errors were categorized into the use of the grammatical words that calculate the errors in the use of the 'conjunctions, articles, prepositions, and pronouns.' The students made 36% errors in conjunctions, 28% in articles, 20% in prepositions and 16% errors in pronouns respectively (*Figure 3*). Later, the errors made in the use the correct lexical items were calculated. *Table 4* shows the error percentage made by the students. The students made 10% errors in spelling (*Table 5*). While analyzing the responses for formal competence, in the written form, the students made maximum errors in *punctuation*, the rank was 1 to 20, which means; maximum numbers of errors are 20 and minimum is 1. Likewise least number of errors is found in the use of grammatical items like in *adjectives and gerund/infinitives*. In written responses, the expected number of sentences were 4 to 10, but the students wrote 1 to 25 sentences ,minimum was 1 and the maximum number of sentences was 25, that is not bad in general (*Table 7a, 7b*). Similarly, in the spoken form, the students made maximum number of errors in the use of grammatical items. This result shows, the students are better in other categories like in the use of lexical items, fluency, pronunciation etc.

In this investigation 180 students have been interviewed. In each area, students were selected randomly disregarding their merit and place in classes. Only 176 responses were recorded in the spoken tests because 4 participants

hesitated to response the questionnaire and 178 participated in written tests, 14 teachers were interviewed. Teacher samples were selected among those teachers who teach English in any classes in their schools. While investigating, the researcher talked with them informally. Informal investigation was carried out through observation and discussion with teachers and head teachers of different schools. They realized the condition that all most all of the English classes are running in Korean.

5.2 Functional responses

Similarly, the next focus was on testing the students' functional competence in the use of the languages that are prescribed in the syllabu. The prescribed language functions in the new curriculum were tested .The language functions were categorized into six broad categories according to Van Ek's (1975) functional categories. Ignoring all the grammatical errors, the researcher observed the performance of the students to find out whether the students had followed the proper language functions/ structures or language in the given situation or not. There were eighteen questions asked to the students in a questionnaire. Only four students out of one hundred and eighty did not respond to the functional aspect of the test and two hesitated to response in written test (*Figure 5a*). All the students were asked to answer the questions in written form followed by a conversation in pairs turn by turn using the same questionnaire and situations. The students did not like to response the answers instinctively; their teachers had to encourage them to get their responses frequently. Their conversations were recorded with the help of a tape-recorder. The written and spoken responses were evaluated based on the grammatical, lexical, contextual and structural elements to find out their error percentage.

We know that the functional competence is the user's ability to use language in the context taking the particular role. Comparatively, the students were found good at '*expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes*' (58.33%) and *expressing moral attitudes* (41.93%) respectively (*Figure 5b*). The students were found less competent at *socializing*, only 24% correct responses were got in this area of language function.

The new curriculum targeted that the students have to express their feelings and ideas as fluently as they could according to the situation. However, while visiting the schools, the environment is not in favor of the goal of the national curriculum. Firstly, the teaching-learning situation is not supportive to the communicative ways because the activities were going on through the students' mother language: Korean. Along the research time, the researcher got some factors that are the impediments for the students' performance. The National Educational Policy for teaching English at the Korean schools (Middle Schools and High Schools) that emphasis on Grammar- Translation method in the Korean high schools and Universities, and the audio-lingual methods in the Middle Schools that's why the students couldn't express their feelings and ideas fluently. That is because they are always habituated in translating the sentences while trying to get the meaning. The language functions that were selected from their textbooks but it seemed that the students were not perfectly able to use those language functions in communication. They spoke few sentences that were not the expectation; it seemed that the students are not habituated about the use of language functions.

The students responded one thousand two hundred and seventy-one (1271) sentences on the oral test. This means they produce fewer sentences in their spoken responses than in written, which are the beginning symptom for getting the result that, the students are found more competent in written responses than the spoken one. They made 22% of their mistakes in pronunciation. 20% in

fluency/pauses, 9% in grammatical items, 19% in speaking unclear words, 12% in repetition of words, and 16% mistakes in using inappropriate vocabulary. Finally, they made the low percentage of mistakes in comprehension and context/situation at 1% in comprehension and 1% in context/situation respectively (*Figure 4*). I classified their mistakes being based on the mistakes that we can catch normally while speaking and I got help from the current dictionaries and grammar books. This study shows that the respondents were weaker in pronunciation and very weak in fluency/pauses and in speaking unclear words. The students used the words but they didn't use them clearly in the appropriate place that's how the unclear words are different from their pronunciation. Likewise, they made a considerable amount of mistakes in repetition of words and inappropriate vocabulary. They provided satisfactory responses in comprehension and understanding of situations.

The large number of the students 22% committed errors in pronunciation. There found some difficulties to the students for pronouncing English correctly as well as appropriately. Sometimes the students were confused in pronouncing those sounds like /l/ and /r/ it happened because of their mother tongue interference.

The students made errors in fluency (pauses) 20%. The large number of the students could not communicate fluently.

The students also made errors in the use of grammatical items. They made 9% errors in this area. This shows that the students used the grammatical items but they did not use them appropriately.

Another error area was in repetition of words. The students repeated the words frequently. It was 12%. While giving responses, some of the students lack their confidence or they are shy that is why they repeated the words frequently.

Instead of these major errors, the students made errors in the use of correct lexical items, which is 16 %. The students are not sure about the verbs or they have no idea to differentiate the verbs.

Lastly, While they were having conversation, they could not understand each- other's sense of language so they tried to run out of track 1 % of this type of errors is recorded as the errors in comprehension .The respondents seemed not to be aware about understanding the meaning of the question. This shows that they could not understand the situation appropriately.

The respondents made errors in context/ situation. While speaking to each other, they traced out of the context e.g. in response to the situation. The 1 % of the respondents is not able to understand the context/situation while responding the situation.

The respondents' attitude towards English and their realization of why they need it, in many respects, determines how they learn English. It is the very short period of the implementation of the new curriculum for practice. At the time of the field research, the researcher held interviews with the subject teachers indirectly for the ascertain more about the situation relating to student responses. There were 100% of the teachers (out of 14) responded that respondents are not competent in the focused objectives of the curriculum (i.e., the communicative aspect of language learning) because the students are usually more concerned with performing well on the university entrance examination, which does not test the communicative aspect of language learning. Another reason was that some of the teachers at schools are not very familiar with the new methods of instruction; that is, the teachers are not trained to implement the newly designed curriculum. The teachers also have realized the situation of Grammar-Translation method applied into the classes is the problem for them to implement the new communicative syllabus into their classes because the students are already habituated in translation. This research is performed in a

limited area but reveals some generalities about teaching in current situation. The teachers have the strong role to play in enhancing the students. It was found that instead of the students, the teachers had to be active to get the responses from the respondents. It was also found that the students were not seemed to be confident and willing to express themselves until the teacher encouraged to respond to the questions. We should not think that it is the students who are only responsible for the current situation but all the related authorities should be conscious to the situation. The main reason is that the students are not getting enough time for the language exposure since they are fully motivated towards the entrance examination for the University. The second reason I found from this study that the teachers instruct their students in their native (Korean) language, unless the medium of instruction is not English, there always remains problem among the students to follow the accurate ways for practicing second/foreign language in their real life situation. The researcher also got the reflection of the government policy that is applicable up to 2010 to learn English through the Grammar-Translation method for the high schools while getting responses from the students because almost all of the students had to think for sometimes before response in the spoken/functional language test. This is the strong impediment for the CLT classes. On the other hand; I calculated the errors made by the students while having the conversations. In this category, the major error areas were like this: pronunciation, fluency/pauses, using the unclear words, they used the words repeatedly. The respondents made some percentage of the errors in the lexical items. Similarly, some of the errors they made in comprehension and context or understanding the right situations.

In comparison, in both types of responses (written and oral), the respondents from city areas are found to be comparatively more competent than those from more remote areas. In comparing the students' performance in language functions in written and spoken forms, it was found that the students were not

able to adopt the actual language function or patterns in their conversation. The students were more competent in the written form of the language than they were in the spoken form in using the language functions. They often could not express their language functions voluntarily their teachers encouraged them most of the time of conversation.

5.3 Limitations of the study

Finding out the formal and communicative competence of the students includes many things, which is not possible in a small research like this. Therefore, the study has the following limitations:

- i. This study is limited to ten randomly selected high schools of the Jollanamdo that is just a small region of Korean geography.
- ii. One hundred and eighty students participated for collecting the responses which is not a large population.
- iii. The same set of questionnaire was administered in written and spoken tests.

Chapter 6 Conclusions

The new curriculum discourages the use of books like Grammar, Translation and composition or the ones like Functional Grammar, as these are inappropriate for communicative/functional language teaching and learning. A stimulating atmosphere for language teaching, there must be an appropriate environment. This research study attempts to project the overall picture of English Language Teaching (ELT) in its classroom implementation phase in Korean high schools. As the above discussion projects, with the introduction of communicative approach, the ELT scenario is changing from its traditional teacher dominated state towards task-based student oriented one. However, still some teachers prefer some forms of Grammar- Translation Method (GTM) of language teaching.

The most significant outcome of this study is the evidence of a disparity between what the curriculum aims to teach and what the learners are achieving through this new communicative curriculum. The results point out the attitudes and motivation among the subjects toward the new curriculum. The students are found less motivated towards the new curriculum, then preparing their university entrance examination. Some of the teachers themselves are not familiar with the use of the new approach to language teaching (i.e., the communicative approach), so they are not making the best use of it. Thus, the concerned authorities should provide the orientation classes regularly to make the teachers more aware of and familiar with the proper techniques to handle the new syllabus easily. It is found that the language of instruction in the Korean English classroom is the Korean. , it is sure that until and unless the medium of instruction in the English class is in 'English', the teaching-learning activity is handicapped. Another important fact is that as already mentioned above, Korea's English teaching and learning policy in the Korean middle and high

schools (until 2010) is to follow the audio-lingual and grammar-translation method respectively, the implementation of the communicative syllabus is strongly hindered by the government policy of English language teaching methodology adopted into the classroom. The policy makers and the concerned authorities need to understand this fact in depth. The major parts of the inconsistency were found at the classroom implementation level. Most teachers failed to translate the intentions of the curriculum planners and the syllabus designers into actions. Many teachers were not acquainted with the modern development in the field of language teaching (The Communicative Language Teaching). So, the students always had a chance to memorize and translate into Korean before using the language functions in communication. Observing the overall analysis, the researcher concludes the following weak spot in the different sections for implementation the communicative curriculum in Korean context: As Son states "...that the students were not familiar with their pair or group works. This might reflect today's societal phenomena that teenagers lack socializing skills."

The result shows that the students were found weak in making sentences with correct structure. They made about thirty percentages of their mistakes in punctuation. This means while writing responses, they could not use the necessary punctuation marks in appropriate places. The students made about eleven percentages of their mistakes in lexical items; they used inappropriate words in their responses. In functional or grammatical words and spelling, they made about fifteen percentages and about ten percentage mistakes, respectively. The respondents seem to be somewhat weaker in structures, punctuations, and lexical items. They provided more satisfactory answers in lexical items and spelling categories about 10% of errors was found in these areas. The students responded to 1271 sentences on the oral test. They made about twenty –nine percentages of their mistakes in pronunciation, nineteen percentages in

fluency/pauses, eighteen one percentages in speaking unclear words, about eleven percentages in repetition of words, and sixteen percentages mistakes in using inappropriate vocabulary. Finally, they made the lowest percentage of mistakes in comprehension and context/situation about one percent in each. The researcher classified their mistakes being based on the mistakes that we can catch normally while communication. This study shows that the respondents were weaker in pronunciation and very weak in fluency/pauses and in speaking unclear words .The students used the words but they didn't use them clearly in the appropriate place that's how the unclear words are different from their pronunciation. Likewise, they made a considerable amount of mistakes in repetition of words and inappropriate vocabulary. They provided more satisfactory responses in comprehension and understanding of situations.

The functional competence refers to the user's ability to use language in the context taking the particular role and relationship of the participants into account. The researcher asked the students to have a conversation on the same situations as those given for the written test in pairs by turns and their conversations were recorded with the help of micro tape-recorder. At that time, I observed the performance of the students only in relation to whether they had followed the proper functions/structures of language in the given situation or not, ignoring all grammatical errors and classified the functions of language taken from the new curriculum that were asked to the students into six broad categories following Van Ek's (1975) functional category.

The students were found to be more competitive in *expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes* (58.33%) and *expressing moral attitudes* (41.93%) respectively. Also, they made 36.36% correct responses in *imparting factual information* and 35.71% percentage correct responses in *expressing and finding out emotional attitudes*. Their performance was weak in *socializing*, only 24% correct responses found in this area of language functions.

As Korean is the language of communication in Korea. The people of Korea do not need English or any other language for their internal communication - official or ordinary everyday communication. They need English only to deal with different international agencies and other countries. It is in much demand in international job markets and some local organizations also recruit personnel who are proficient in English. Now English is a commodity for them; they need it. Firstly, language is presented within contexts which are appropriate to the society and culture of Korea and which embody its moral and spiritual values. English language is presented to the students within the contexts which are familiar to the students. They learn the language as a foreign language associated with English people and cultures.

Secondly it aims to ensure that essential social values will be learned in most effective way. That is, students practise them within real communicative contexts. They will develop a sense of working together in pairs and groups, co-operation, responsibility and independence. The students also have hardly any opportunity to use English in their real life. The traditional grammar-translation method should be avoided. They should provide sufficient contexts for language practice. The language activities should not be merely textbook activities; rather they should be relevant to the real English culture- life activities.

The new curriculum for high school includes a wider range topics and themes, which cover different issues and events, knowledge of different disciplines and subjects, lives and cultures of the English people. In communicative language teaching, it is how rather than what should be taught in the language class that is more important. That is, what is traditionally conceived as methodology is more important than what is traditionally conceived as syllabus. It is the teachers who carry out the juggling acts in the class to implement the intention of the planners. For the successful implementation of any language programme, it needs to be done in the way it is intended to be done. That is, an appropriate methodology is

to be adopted. The current curriculum aims to foster students' communicative proficiency based on CLT approach, it is important for curriculum developers and teachers to try to seek out the most effective and timely ways to help the students with enhancing speaking skills.

The statistics shows that most of the students study English because it is a curricular subject, and they have to read it to pass the examinations and makes it clear that most of the teachers and students still emphasize on students' passing examinations as the main objectives of teaching and learning English. Although most teachers' ability and knowledge of communicative language teaching (CLT) methodology is not up to the mark, it is better than traditional grammar translation method (GTM).

In so far as the current curriculum aims to foster students' communicative proficiency based on CLT and TBLT approaches, it is important for curriculum developers and the teachers to try to seek out the most effective ways to help the students with enhancing speaking skills creating the appropriate classroom-environment. The teacher should play the vital role in making the students aware towards the communicative language teaching and learning. Striking a good balance between form-focused instruction and communicative activities is highly advisable. The learning environment should be favoured to the students for communicative learning. For carrying out teaching successfully in a communicative language class, teacher needs to come with a plan of how to manage every task which may consists of several activities This research has attempted to focus on the English Language Curriculum (ELU) and its classroom implementation phase in Korea. As the above discussion, with the introduction of communicative approach, the ELT scenario is changing from its traditional teacher dominated state towards task-based student-oriented one. The Grammar Translation Method (GTM) of teaching language methodology is the policy in the classroom teaching. The research concluded that several teachers

termed the new syllabus and methodology as unsuitable. Some teachers admitted their inability to carry out teaching effectively. National educational goals need to reflect demands of the current situation. This research study suggests that teachers recognize problems with CLT implementation particularly in relation to learner expectations. The challenge is surely for practitioners to work.

Any curriculum that aims to meet these ELT needs of the country must address the above social conditions, and take insights from time to time in course of development from all concerned parties - teachers, students, guardians, employers and others. And above all, those who work in the implementation levels, i.e., the teachers, and the textbook writers, and even the students should go through training so that they can cope with changes to meet the English language needs of the country and fulfill the expectation of the people.

- i) Teachers' training and attitudes towards English: The teachers need to be efficient enough to cope with the changes brought about in ELT curriculum and ELT methodology at national level. Although it is found that some of the teachers are not still habituated in communicative language teaching (CLT) in the field of language teaching. Teachers' attitudes towards English, to a greater extent, determine their methodology of teaching. The teachers' thinking towards the English language need of their students is just to get the good score in the tests.
- ii) What happens in the classroom: For the successful learning/teaching, the classroom discussion should be conducted in English. However, Korean is mostly used in English classes to translate. Chief among them is inadequacy of the teachers. Also students do not sufficiently use English in English classes so they come with very poor efficiency in English and this is what the

educational policy that emphasizes in grammar-translation method is accused of. Whatever might be the causes, it is found that the teachers and the students are using mostly Korean language in the English classes.

Teachers are mainly responsible for carrying out teaching in the classrooms; it is the teachers who determine which methodology will be adopted in the class. In other words, the method of classroom teaching depends on how the teachers interpret the intention and guidelines of the curriculum planners/designers. This interpretation, to a large extent, depends on teacher education provided for these teachers. It is the lack of adequate teacher education for which there is always a gap between what is intended in planning level and what is achieved in the classroom implementation level.

In a communicative language class, the students need to participate in different communicative tasks and activities individually, in groups or in pairs; sometimes they have to role-play. They have to practice all four language skills ((listening, speaking, reading and writing) in integrated manner and it is the teachers' duty to integrate different skills. Although, by now, communicative language teaching (CLT) methodology has been much talked about, from the indirect interview with the teachers, I found that teachers still give more emphasis on grammar rules. What they teach are writing and reading skills. They hardly teach any listening and speaking skills.

Pedagogical suggestions

An era which viewed English as a *foreign* or *second* language will perhaps inevitably tend to export so called 'enlightened' approaches for teaching, together with assumptions about learning. The English language needs of the country, to fulfill the expectation of the nation expectation of different parties: the government, the students, the guardians, the employers, a language policy of

acute rationale, which will direct towards a thorough needs analysis and designing a syllabus incorporating the findings of investigations and modern development in the field of language teaching, is needed. To cater these needs, appropriate textbooks and teaching materials are a must. Again, these materials should be used as they are intended to be used. That is, teachers and students should know how to use them. For this to happen, both teachers and students should be trained.

Teachers and other parties should remember that the students need English to use it in real communication. To ensure that students are learning English with the aim that they will use it, the teaching methodology must be changed.

On the first hand, the government, who determine the national policy, and in consequence, determine the language policy, should address the social demand, sociolinguistic environment and student's psychological make-up. Curriculum, which is the direct offshoot of government policy, will be implemented if an appropriate methodology is adopted by teachers for their instruction. Teachers and all other parties must take feedback from what learners do and say in reaction to all that happen.

This final part of this concluding chapter suggests certain measures for all those who work at different levels of curriculum implementation. The policy maker should address the actual needs of the students. Communicative text books should be written in English.

The policy makers and the curriculum designers' text book writers; should be mainly concerned toward the actual needs of the students. Based on the above result of the research, the followings are the major recommendations for the authorized parties for the better implementation of the communicative/functional syllabus:

1. As students are expected to use English in different spheres of life and different circumstances, they must come across with different cultures and varieties of language activities.
2. Teachers of English need to understand their students as part of a cultural entity and equally significant, when developing reaching and learning activities, they should treat them as individuals who have different language needs and abilities and levels of confidence.
3. The teachers as well as the students should be motivated towards the new English language course.
4. The students should be encouraged to speak by providing the appropriate environment from the beginning of their classes.
5. All the teachers who have been teaching the English language should be trained to conduct the new language syllabus efficiently.
6. The teacher should not depend on only the matters described in the textbook, they should construct relevant and communicative activities for genuine communication and students should be encouraged to talk about themselves.
7. The teachers' role should be a facilitator and helper to guide the students to develop effective learning communicative aspect of language.
8. Only the textbook, teacher's guide and cassettes for listening-speaking are not sufficient to make the students communicate the language functions fluently so the students should be provided enough additional learning materials which could reflect the culture of English people because without knowing the culture of the target-language people, the learning would be the 'Parrot learning'.
9. Regular checking, observation and suggestions from the experts should be continued for the better result. The teachers themselves are not habituated in the use of the new approach-communicative approach to language teaching so they are not making the best use of it. Thus, the concerned authority should provide the orientation classes regularly to make the teachers aware and familiar with the right technique to handle the new syllabus easily.

Nonetheless, the study has shown that CLT could be successfully integrated in the English classrooms. Although the sample in the study was small, these recommendations could serve as some general principles for the concerned parties including the language teachers who would like to experiment with CLT

in the English classrooms. Finally, further research, discussion and dissemination are clearly needed and the question of practical implementation of communicative/functional syllabus successfully is perhaps the next major challenge for the ELT situation in Korea. Although, the study does have some limitations, for example, the same set of questionnaire rather than multiple resources and methods is used and a small size of participants are chosen for finding out the communicative competences of the students. Nevertheless, the pedagogical implications that are drawn from the current study are of significance. So I think, the further study in this field is required to get the situation in future.

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Appendix I

Areas of the Language functions for the responses

The following language functions were given to the students from the High school new English Curriculum:

- A. Getting things done:
 - a. Making plans and expressing intentions.
 - b. Making suggestions and giving advice.
 - c. Making request.
 - d. Persuading someone to do something.
 - e. Issuing warning.
- B. Socializing:
 - a. Making offers
- C. Expressing and finding out emotional attitudes.
 - a. Expressing sympathy.
- D. Expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes.
 - a. Asking for permission.
- E. Imparting factual information.
 - a. Describing purpose and function.
 - b. Identifying.
 - c. Describing.
 - d. Talking about the past.
- F. Expressing moral attitudes.
 - a. Expressing certainty.
 - b. Expressing ability/ inability to do some thing.
 - c. Apologizing and responding to an apology.

Appendix II

Questionnaire with sample responses

What would you say in the situations below?

(다음과 같은 상황에서 당신은 어떻게 말하시겠습니까?)

1. You are meeting a new friend; make a short conversation between you and your new friend. (새로운 친구를 만났습니다. 간단한 대화를 만들어 보세요.)

Examples

- a) A: Hi! Are you Hee-yeong?
B: Yes, I'm Hee-yeong. Why do you ask my name?
A: Because I want to have a good relationship with you.
B: A....nice to meet you. What's your name?
- b) Me: Oh! Hi, I'm glad to see you again.
Friend: Do you know me? I am meeting you for the first time.
Me: really? I'm sorry. I think that you are my friend.
Friend: Your welcome.
Me: But, May I have your name? when I met you, I liked you.
Friend: sure, me too. My name is

2. Your partner wants to take an examination but is not well prepared. Now advise him/her in this situation. (친구가 시험을 보려고 합니다. 그러나 준비가 잘 되지 않았네요. 이럴 때 어떻게 충고하시겠어요?)

Examples

- a) A. Hey Friends why Do you have not prepare take an examination?
B: Don't worry
A: Why?
B: Because, I try to a few studying
A: No, No to prepare is the best way
B: That right, But I effort, Neither
- b) A: The condition is okay?
B: Well,,,,It is not bad but there is a problem

A: What problem?
 B: It does not do an examination study not to be!
 A: As what? It is disappointed to you.
 B: I'm sorry
 A: The program was salty and it studied?
 B: No. It wasn't

3. Your school is going to take part in sports competition; have a short conversation with your friend, concerning who will win the match. 당신의 학교가 운동경기에 참가하려고 합니다. 누가 경기에서 이길 것인가에 대해서 친구와 짧은 대화를 만들어 보세요.

Examples

- a) A = Do you think what schools win that play?
 B= My school win the game.
 A = I don't think so.
 B= Why?
 A= That school always won
 B= I believe My teams has luck
- b) A: What do you think we school sports team?
 B: That great.
 A: we are sports team play with another team, which win the game?
 B: hum.....I think away team win.
 A: why?
 B: Because, away team is last year champion.

4. Your friend couldn't pass the final examination. Express your sympathy to your friend. (친구가 최종 시험에 합격하지 못했어요. 당신의 감정을 친구에게 표현해보세요.)

Examples

- a) A: hey; friend what wrong
 B: I couldn't pass the final examination
 A: oh..!! that's too bad
 B: that's. ok!! Because . you could pass the examination
 A: Thank. You Good luck to you
 B: You . to...
- b) A: It saw in the last time and did the examination become how ?
 B: It appears to be falling

A: Why ? There is oneself to the examination of you Hass Canh oh.

B: That 3 month whole it sprouts and the problem is more difficult the case place though with it prepared than.

5. While you were on the way to school yesterday, you saw an accident. Describe about that accident to your friend. (어제 학교 가는 도중에 사고를 목격했어요. 그 사고에 대해서 친구에게 말해보세요.)

Examples

- a) I saw a traffic accident yesterday. It was very terrible? On the way to school. I saw a man who is running on the road. Then, a car was coming at the corner. He try to avoid coming that.but the car was very fast.He fell down on the road. Blood come out from his head.
- b) Hey. My friend, I saw a traffic accident yesterday. I was on the way to school. That situation was very surprise. so, I can't tell anything, and acting. Umm,,, that accident was happened by a big car.....

6. You see someone who looks like your friend; you go up and begin talking. When he turns round, you see it is not who you thought it was. Apologize to him. (친구처럼 보이는 사람을 만나서, 다가서서 이야기를 했어요. 그런데 그가 돌아보니 친구가 아니었어요. 그에게 사과를 해보세요.)

Examples

- a) A: Hey! I know you! You're Ho-Jung, aren't you? It's a small world!
B: No, I am not.
A: truly, would you happen to be Ho- jung?
B: No. I'm Sang -ha.
A: oops! I thought you are my friend Ho- jung.
- b) A: who are you?
B: I'm Ka-young. , Hi
A: Do you know me?
B: Oh, I'm sorry. You looks like my friend. So I called you
A: That's ok.

7. You are in a classroom. The window beside you is closed and you feel too hot. Now ask permission to your teacher to open that window. (교실에 있어요. 그런데 옆에 있는 유리창이 닫혀서 너무 더워요. 선생님께 창문을

열어도 되는가 승낙을 받는 표현을 해보세요.)

Examples

- a) Jun-ho: Um. I'm very hot. Su-san, Do you tell me "open the window" by the teacher?
Su-san: "Open the window?" of course Teacher! Please open the window
- b) Teacher! Excuse me. Um.....I'm really sorry in a class. Don't you feel hot in a classroom? (???) I'm really hot. Are you afraid of opening the window?

8. Your friend hasn't done homework; ask him/her to do the homework. (친구가 숙제를 해오지 않았어요. 그/그녀에게 숙제를 하라고 권해보세요.)

Examples

- a) Why didn't you do your homework? If you didn't homework, teacher will scold you badly.
- b) Why didn't you do your homework? You should do your homework.

9. You meet a foreigner on the way to your school, how do you start a talk to him? (학교 가는 도중에 외국인을 만났어요. 어떻게 대화를 시작하겠어요?)

Examples

- a) I: Excuse me. Would you mind if I conversate with you? I should exercise foreign language.
He: Of course not.
I: ah. Where are you from?
He: I'm from England. I was born in Manchester.
I: Oh. I know the city. There is a Korean soccer player ji-sung park belongs to Manchester united.
He: Oh. I know him. He has endless vital. I do like him.
- b) girl: Excuse me, Could I talk to you for a moment ?
foreigner: Oh,sure.
girl: Well, I'm a Jungang high school student. Where are you from?
foreigner: I'm from France. I'm here to travel.
girl: Oh, Are you French? Wow, I like French food.
foreigner: French food ? what food do you like best ?

10. You are going for an educational tour organized by your school. One of your friends is not interested to go. Make him/her go. (학교에서 여행을 가기로 했어요. 친구 중 한명이 가고 싶어하지 않아요. 그/그녀를 설득해 보세요.)

Examples

- a) I need your help I want go to the educational trip organize
- b) You know what ? Guan Sang Woo is coming to the destination of our field trip. You should go!! If you are having a hard time making the money do tell me because I can pay it for you. It's not that pitty you or something like that. I just want to go with you.

11. You think that it will certainly rain, because there is dark cloud moving in the sky. But your friend doubts on it. Make a short conversation with your friend. (당신은 비가 올 거라고 확신해요. 왜냐하면 하늘에 검은 구름이 끼었거든요. 그런데 친구는 그것을 의심해요. 친구와 짧은 대화를 만들어 보세요.)

Examples

- a) Look at the sky. Color of sky is dark. Also, bird are low flys. If you were don't believe my opinion, you would meet a rain.
- b) A: You thing today is raining /
 B: I don't think. So.
 A: Why?
 B: My feel!
 A: feel?
 B: Yes feel
 A: H'mm .. I'm raining Today Do you bete me?
 B: Yes! How much?

12. Your telephone at your house is ringing, how do you response it? (집 전화기가 울리고 있어요. 어떻게 받지요?)

Examples

- a) Rrrr.....Rrrrr
 A: Hello?
 B: Hello? Is Su-jin at home /
 A: Who's speaking?
 B: My name is Yu-jin. I'm Su-jin's classmate.

A: She's not in. Do you want to leave a message?
B: No, thank you. I'll call later.
A: Ok.

b) (The telephone rings.)

A: Hello.
B: Is this Kelly? Hi, this is Jim.
A: Hi, Jim. What's up?
B: I want to know if you can go to Museum with me.
A: Well, I don't care. Tell me more details about it.
B: I have Korea's history homework. So I will go to museum and server history.

13. A guest has come to your house and you are offering him to have dinner with you but he is refusing. Have a short conversation with the guest. (손님이 집에 왔어요. 저녁을 대접하겠다고 하는데 그가 거절해요. 손님과 짧은 대화를 만들어 보세요.)

Examples

a) I: Why didn't you eat?
G: I'm full.
I: Before come to here, you did to eat. Didn't you?
G: Yes. I did
I: Well...would you like a cup of coffee?
G: No, thanks. I'm really full.

b) A: Dinner is waiting for you. You may eat as much as you like
B: Thank you. But I'm going to home
A: Why?
B: My mother aches terribly
A: That's too bad. I hope your mother will be ok I'll invite you sometime next week.
B: That's! I think she is going to be ok.

14. Your friend is feeling bored. Now give him/her good suggestion. (친구가 지루해 해요. 그/그녀에게 좋은 제안을 해보세요.)

Examples

a) Are you read the book / I just read word. You bored. Hm. Me, too. Do you have good idea? How about play the soccer /No, that's very tired.

b) A: Why the long face?
B: I'm feeling bored.

- A: How about going for a movie?
 B: That sounds like a great idea! What time shall we make it?
 A: The movie begins at six- we'll have to hurry
 B: Take it easy. It's only 5 o'clock.
 A: Oum. Let's see. Oh really?
 B: I'm very expect.

15. What are your plans for the weekend? Have a short conversation to your friend. (주말에 무엇을 할 계획이지요? 친구와 짧은 대화를 나누어 보세요.)

Examples

- a) I'm falling a sleep, studying EBS lecture and helping my mother.
 b) A: Have you got any plans for next weekend?
 B: I'm planning to take the family clime mauntain
 A: Would you like to go to the concert with me?
 B: What time does the musical open /
 A: It opens at 8 o'clock.

16. Ask your friend to see the play which you are performing next Saturday. (다음 일요일에 상연될 연극을 보자고 친구에게 요청해 보세요.)

Examples

- a) A: Do you have any special plan in next Saturday?
 B: No, I don't think so, Why?
 A: Um,,,If you don't mind, would you like to see a play /
 B: of course. I'd love to who is the main character?
 A: Actually,,It's me I'm gonna be on a stage
 B: Oh, really? That's so terrific. Congratulations!
 b) A: Why don't you come to my performing see the play in next Saturday?
 B: of course, where did go?
 A: Our school in play ground/
 B: What time you'r performing start/
 A: P,M 17 o'clock.
 B: See you, again

17. Describe about your first day at school. (학교에서의 첫번째 날을 묘사해 보세요.)

Examples

- a) First I was so worried, because everything would be change. On the other hand, I was look forward to seeing new friends and teacher. When I went to the school at first, I saw my class teacher who look like tiger. Next I saw friends but most of us were very quiet (we just met at once) And we had to go to the ground, because we were checked our clothing state,hairstyle,nail , and even shoes. Anyway, that day was very interesting day.
- b) When I go to this school, I'm very excited Finally, I arrived school. Everything is fresh, new friend, new teacher. New domintary....And I saw beautiful hill in school I expected new life in this school. And I have to live in domintary. I have to leave with my family Most of student sad, and crying That day, I feel confussion.

18. How do you practice English speaking? Say something to your friend. (영어 말하기 연습을 어떻게 하지요? 친구에게 무엇인가를 말해보세요.)

Examples

- a) In English class with native speaker, I try to speak in English. As speaking, I can correct false by native speaker. And when I talk with my friends, sometimes I speak in English to improve my speaking. Although I don't know if it is correct, I try to do that. After I listen to the listening broadcasting (EBS program)', I read the script loudly. To speak correct sentence in English, sometimes, I listen to the CNN. But It is hard for me doing by myself.
- b) I talk to. Native speak in English. And .I practice . after class always talk to English. I play holiwood movie. Actor. I record. English speak. I Listen to tape. I fix . My pronunciation.

Appendix III

Questions classified into Van Ek's six broad categories

Functional Categories	Functions	Questions
1. Getting things done	Making plans and expressing intentions	What are your plans for the weekend? Have a short conversation to your friend
	Making suggestions and giving advice	Your partner wants to take an examination but is not well prepared. Now advise him/her in this situation
	Making request	You are going for an educational tour organized by your school. One of your friends is not interested to go. Make him/her go
	Persuading someone to do something	Your friend hasn't done homework; ask him/her to do the homework Your friend is feeling bored. Now give him/her good suggestion Ask your friend to see the play which you are performing next Saturday
	Issuing warning	
2. Socializing	Making offers	A guest has come to your house and you are offering him to have dinner with you but he is refusing. Have a short conversation with the guest
3. Expressing and finding out emotional attitudes	Expressing sympathy	Your friend couldn't pass the final examination. Express your sympathy to your friend
	Expressing and finding	Your school is going to take part in sports competition; have a short

Functional Categories	Functions	Questions
	out intellectual attitudes	conversation with your friend, concerning who will win the match
4. Asking for permission		You are in a classroom. The window beside you is closed and you feel too hot. Now ask permission to your teacher to open that window
5. Imparting factual information		You are meeting a new friend; make a short conversation between you and your new friend
		Your telephone at your house is ringing, how do you response it?
	Describing purpose and function	Identifying. You meet a foreigner on the way to your school, how do you start a talk to him?
		How do you practice English speaking/ Say something to your friend
	Describing (Talking about the past)	Describe about your first day at school
		While you were on the way to school yesterday, you saw an accident. Describe about that accident to your friend
6. Expressing moral attitudes	Expressing certainty	You think that it will certainly rain, because there is dark cloud moving in the sky. But your friend doubts on it. Make a short conservation with your friend
	Expressing ability/ inability to do some thing	
	Apologizing and responding to an apology	You see someone who looks like your friend; you go up and begin talking. When he turns round, you see it is not who you thought it was. Apologize to him