

The Pennsylvania State University

The Graduate School

College of the Liberal Arts

PROJECT-BASED LEARNING

IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IMMERSION CAMP

A Dissertation in

Applied Linguistics

by

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Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

December 2010

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ABSTRACT

Over the last three decades, the number of foreign language immersion programs in the United States has grown. This growing interest in foreign language immersion programs is based on the fundamental rationale that foreign language learning proceeds more effectively if the target language is used for authentic and meaningful communication rather than being taught as a separate school subject with no or reduced communicative value (Cummins, 1998; Genesee, 1992). While research has contributed much to the discovery of second language development in immersion *school* programs, few studies have investigated to understand how foreign language learners learn target languages in a short immersion *camp* programs, or about the kinds of activities and projects in which learners participate in immersion camp programs and their connection to language learning.

This dissertation research centers on a unique Korean language-learning environment, i.e., an immersion camp in which high school students spend four weeks of summer in a rural village-like setting in the Upper Midwest of the United States (Korean Language Village). Participants interact using only Korean with their peers, camp staff, and instructors in a learning environment that reflects an eclectic nature of pedagogical approaches. It contains elements of traditional second language instruction coupled with immersion instruction. In this study, language socialization (Ochs 1990; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986) was adopted as the theoretical framework along with ethnography of communication (Hymes, 1962) guiding this qualitative research with the primary concern for the ethnographic description of the community to which the learners belong and the

analysis of interactive practices in which the learners recurrently participate for explicit instruction in the target language during learning group sessions.

The data consists of participant-observation, field notes, and 25 hours of interactional data collected from a focal learning group (one teacher and five learners). The analysis is divided into two parts. In the first part, a detailed ethnographic description of the Korean Language Village is presented, focusing on the key elements of constructing the learner-oriented community as well as the functions of learning group sessions in the community. The second part demonstrates how learners were taught grammatical structures with a project-based approach, which is defined as a “social practice into which students are socialized through a series of individual or group activities that involve the simultaneous learning of language, content, and skills” (Slater, Beckett, & Aufderhaar, 2006, p. 242). While engaging in the projects, the learners used the target grammatical structures in different contexts of talk, and the learners showed their development in syntactic, semantic, pragmatic, and interactional skills.

Overall, this study indicates that language learning in this context can be characterized as a communicative approach in authentic contexts where the target language is used for daily practices, and the roles of explicit instruction are to assist learners to become more competent members in the community. This study has important implications for foreign language educators regarding the importance of learner community in which learners become valuable members through interacting with others in the target language as well as the roles of explicit instructions on language in second/foreign language learning.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In the course of writing dissertation, I received the assistance from countless people. First and foremost I would like to give a special thanks to my advisor, Dr. Joan Kelly Hall, who has continued to guide me through the years to complete this journey providing me with consistent support and care. In every step of my research study, Dr. Hall has inspired me with challenges not only in dissertation writing but also in my seven years at Penn State. She has been an outstanding advisor and most of all a phenomenal mentor. I would also like to thank all of my committee members, Dr. Karen E. Johnson, Dr. Celeste Kinginger, and Dr. Jamie Myers for their insightful comments and encouragement.

I would like to express my indebted gratitude to the teacher and students who were involved, and played a key in this study. Without their participation and support, this study would not have been possible. I am also forever indebted to Dr. Ross King who provided me with invaluable support and advice to conduct this research study during the field work. To all staff members of the Korean Language Village, I would like to acknowledge and extend my gratitude.

I must also thank all my sincere friends in the United States and Korea for continuous support throughout the years, especially to my friends at Penn State: Davi Reis, Houxiang Li, Selim Said, Tom Tasker, Jhuhyung Youn, Hyewon Lee, Tracy Beckett, Duff Johnston, Jiyun Kim, Jie Zhang, Sungwoo Kim, Alissa Hartig, Wei Lai, Kyungja Ahn, Shinobu Morohoshi, Emily Rine, Patria Lopez and Amber Navarre –

words cannot express the gratitude in which I owe them for their encouragement and great friendship.

Finally, I would like to express my love and gratitude to my family for their fundamental and unconditional love and support. Especially to my dad and my sister, Eun-Ha, I cannot even imagine completing my study without them. I know my mom feels extremely proud of me in heaven. I would also like to express my gratitude to my grandmother for her constant prayers.

I thank God, who has made it all possible.

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 The Context of the Study

For the last four decades, the number of foreign language immersion programs in the United States has grown. According to the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) 2006 report, foreign language immersion programs in this country started with three schools in 1971. By 2006, there were 263 foreign language immersion programs registered in the United States. This growing interest in foreign language immersion programs is based on the fundamental rationale that foreign language learning proceeds more effectively if the target language is used for authentic and meaningful communication rather than being taught as a separate school subject with little or no communicative value (Cummins, 1998; Genesee, 1992). Thus, the term immersion is typically described as a “language bath” or “mother’s method” focusing on a communicative approach (Read, 1996, p. 469). In previous literature on immersion, three different immersion school programs have been examined (i.e., total immersion, partial immersion, and two-way immersion), and the success of the immersion approach in language learning has been generally supported by many studies (Cummins, 1998; Duff, 1995; Genesee, 1983; Hickey, 2001, 2007; Lambert & Tucker, 1972; Swain & Lapkin, 1982, 1998; Takahashi-Breines, 2002; Tarone & Swain, 1995).

Along with the recognition of the success of language learning in immersion contexts in recent years, summer immersion camp programs, which focus on foreign language and cultural immersion in a short period of time, have been growing, and many young foreign language learners participate in the summer immersion camp programs. In general, summer immersion camp programs take place over a week or longer. The main purpose of immersion camp programs is to provide learners with a target language community in which learners are required to use the target language on a daily basis. The language instruction in immersion camp programs is characterized by a communicative language focus and instruction exclusively in the target language. In addition to instruction on the target language, learners are expected to engage in numerous learning activities outside the classroom, such as cultural activities, projects, etc. Previous studies of immersion camps have shown that intensive exposure to the target language and culture in immersion camp programs is particularly beneficial for the improvement of oral performance in the target language (Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004; Liskin-Gasparro, 1998). The previous studies on immersion camp programs provide glimpses of foreign language immersion camp programs, but there have been no studies conducted to understand how language learning occurs in such programs. Therefore, we know very little about how foreign language learners acquire target languages in immersion camp programs.

The study presented here attempts to address the gap in the literature on second/foreign language learning by examining one immersion camp program. It focuses specifically on Korean language learning in a summer immersion program. Unlike cognate languages of English such as Spanish, French, and German, Korean is considered

one of the most difficult languages for English speakers to learn because of its profoundly distinct cultural features, entirely different sound patterns and vocabulary, unique writing system, predicate-final sentence structure, agglutinative word structure, intricate hierarchical system of honorifics, and other unique structures (Cho, Lee, Schulz, Sohn & Sohn, 2000).

In the United States, Korean programs have been growing over the past three decades. According to recent Modern Language Association (MLA) statistics (Furman, Goldberg & Lusin, 2007), the most dramatic increases in enrollment between 2002 and 2006 were observed in seven foreign language programs: Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Russian, Japanese, Portuguese, and Korean. In particular, a 37.1 percent increase in enrollment occurred in Korean language programs from 2002 to 2006. According to Byon (2008), there are four factors contributing to the rapid growth of KFL in the United States: (1) the increasing visibility of South Korea on the international stage because of its fast economic development and democratization, (2) the recent growth of the Korean-American population in the United States, (3) continuing support from the Korean government regarding the expansion of Korean studies programs abroad, and (4) bilingual and foreign language education policy in the United States. Despite the growth of Korean programs, many previous studies have mainly been conducted in college-level Korean language classrooms, representing the traditional and formal context of language learning, and there have not been many studies conducted in informal settings of language learning, such as immersion camp program in which learning takes place experientially through social interaction (Byon, 2004; Lee, 2000; Sohn, 1997; Sohn & Shin, 2003; Sohn, 1995, 1997; You, 2001).

1.2 The purpose of the Study

The present study attempts to address a major gap in the literature, which is the dearth of research in immersion camp contexts of language learning, by providing ethnographic insights and detailed analysis on how grammar is taught in a Korean immersion camp program. Adopting language socialization as a theoretical framework (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1984), this study considers language a tool in the socialization process of becoming a competent member of a sociocultural group. In contexts of second/foreign language learning, through participating in various activities with more competent members such as teachers and other peers, foreign language learners are socialized into particular communicative skills, abilities, and understandings of the target language. Also, in so doing, they are socialized into particular social roles as learners and users of the target language (Eisenberg, 1986; Hall, 2004; Ochs, 1982; Ohta, 1999; Peters & Boggs, 1986; Poole, 1992). This process of L2 socialization typically occurs through the recurring interactional routines between teachers and learners (Peters & Boggs, 1986; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1996).

As in the traditional context of second/foreign language learning, learners in immersion camp programs are engaged in explicit target language instruction, i.e., explicit grammar instruction with teachers as one of the primary sources of language learning. Here, explicit grammar instruction is defined as “establishing as the prime objective of a lesson (or part of a lesson) the explanation of how a morphosyntactic rule or pattern works, with some reference to metalinguistic terminology, and providing

examples of this rule in a linguistic, though not necessarily a functional, context”

(Macaro & Masterman, 2006, p. 298).

In the previous literature on second/foreign language pedagogy, there have been long discussions on how to teach grammar and its effectiveness (Celce-Murcia, 1991; Ellis, 2006; Long, 1988; Macaro & Materman, 2006, Norris & Ortega, 2000). The first strand of research on grammar instruction is concerned with innate abilities of learning grammar. Many studies focused on morpheme studies (Bailey et al., 1974; Larsen-Freeman, 1976) and teachability (Pienemann, 1984) have been based on the assumption that learners master grammatical structures in a relatively fixed and universal order. The second strand is concerned with the natural acquisition of grammar in interaction, without explicit grammar instruction (Krashen, 1981, 1985). However, there has been research showing that learners do not achieve native-like proficiency and continue to make grammar errors despite immersion in the target language (Genesee, 1985; Harley, 1989). Research has also shown the limitations of grammar learning solely on the basis of comprehensible input (White, 1987). In recent years, many researchers argue that form-focused activities should be incorporated into communicative classroom contexts (Nassaji 2000; Swain, 1985). Most of these studies regarding grammar instruction have been conducted in traditional classroom settings, and there has been little attention to grammar instruction in other contexts of language learning. Thus, one of the main interests of this study is how grammar is taught in an immersion camp program.

The grammar instruction examined in this study is characterized as project-based learning (PBL), which is defined as a “social practice into which students are socialized through a series of individual or group activities that involve the simultaneous learning of

language, content, and skills” (Slater, Beckett, & Aufderhaar, 2006, p. 242). PBL has been developed mostly in both general and ESL education (Beckett, 2005; Beckett & Miller, 2006). As Thomas (2000) noted, however, most literature on PBL is concerned with instructional models, and very little empirical research has been conducted. In particular, scanty research has been conducted on how language learners are engaged in social interaction and what affordances they have for learning the target language in PBL.

By exploring a summer immersion camp program, this study will be able to bridge two major gaps in the literature on second/foreign language learning. First, the ethnographic findings of this study will contribute to an understanding of language learning in immersion camp programs, such as the daily practices in which learners participate during the camp period and the linguistic resources available in immersion camps. Second, from the examination of project-based grammar instruction in the learning group sessions, this study will provide an understanding of how grammatical knowledge is taught to language learners and how grammar instruction is incorporated into various projects in the informal learning context.

The research site of the present study is a summer immersion camp program, called the Korean Language Village¹. The Korean Language Village is an intentionally built village that enables language learners to be immersed in the Korean language and culture. In the Village, the camp participants are called villagers, and they participate in one of the following camp programs: (1) a four-week high school credit program, (2) a two-week program, or (3) a one-week program. One of the primary purposes of the Village is to simulate living in Korea. For this purpose, the villagers have Korean names,

¹ Korean Language Village is a pseudonym.

eat Korean food, and participate in various daily programs as a member of the Village. The Korean Language Village is a unique learning environment where learners are encouraged to become a part of the community through the use of Korean and their participation in the daily practices and activities of the community. The focal participants of the present study are four-week high school credit program learners. While living as credit villagers during the four-week period, these learners participated in various cultural and instructional activities conducted in the target language. Among various programs, the focal interest of the present study is the formal learning sessions, particularly how grammar is taught in the learning group sessions.

1.3 Research Questions

The primary purpose of the present study is to examine how the Korean Language Village is constructed to offer learning opportunities to the learners, and how grammar is instructed in a project-based approach in the learning group sessions. This study is guided by two research questions and one sub question:

1. What kind of community is the Korean Language Village?
2. How is grammar taught to the learners in the various activities and projects in which learners participate during the learning group sessions?
 - a. Is there any developmental changes observed in the learners' use of target grammatical structures?

In this study, language socialization provides explanatory power for understanding the community and the role of language in novices' process of becoming more competent members. Ethnography of communication (Hymes, 1962) provides a set of methods for conducting the study, focusing on social interaction and speech events. By examining the Korean Language Village as a community and the process of language learning with a teacher in this context, this study provides fundamental insights into the importance of creating a learning community for second language learners and the role of grammar instruction in a learning community.

1.4 Organization of the Dissertation

The organization of the dissertation is as follows. Chapter two reviews the existing literature on three areas relevant to the study. First, language socialization, the theoretical framework of the study is reviewed. Then, immersion contexts of language learning are reviewed, including two different types of immersion programs, i.e., immersion *school* programs and immersion *camp* programs. Finally, project-based learning is reviewed, focusing on its definitions and previous studies on project-based learning in second/foreign language education. In Chapter three, an overview of the methodology of the study is provided, including the research design, the site of the study, the participants, and the data collection methods. Data analysis procedures are provided along with examples of how the data for each question is analyzed. Finally, the issue of the reliability of the data is addressed. Chapter four presents an ethnographic description of the Korean Language Village, including the typical daily schedule, programs, and the

physical settings of the Village. The ethnographic findings are arranged thematically: (1) the physical settings of the Korean Village and people in the Village, (2) groups in which credit villagers participate, (3) linguistic resources existing in the Village, and (4) credit villagers' typical daily schedule and Village events. Chapter five includes an ethnographic description of the formal learning sessions: (1) the physical settings of the learning space for the focal learning group, (2) the group projects in which the learners were involved in the formal learning sessions, (3) the grammatical structures taught to the learners in the formal learning sessions, and (4) the project-based grammar learning in which the learners participated. Chapter six is concerned with a micro-level analysis of interaction during grammar instruction in order to understand how the learners participated in project-based grammar learning. Chapter seven contains a discussion of several issues related to the nature of learning in the Korean Language Village. In particular, the way in which project-based grammar instruction provided the learners with different contexts of talk and the way in which grammar instruction was embedded in communicative activities that fostered the learners' development in the target grammatical structures will be discussed. This chapter also discusses pedagogical implications for second/foreign language teachers and foreign language program directors, the limitations of the study, and suggestions for future studies.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

This chapter reviews three main areas related to this study. First, the theoretical perspective on second language learning guiding the present study is presented (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986). The review of this theoretical perspective is organized around two main issues: the process of socialization and the learning of culture in the process of socialization. Then, the immersion context of language learning is introduced, focusing on definitions of immersion contexts, different types of immersion programs, and previous studies on second/foreign language learning in immersion school programs and immersion camp programs. Finally, project-based learning (PBL) is reviewed, including a brief history of PBL and previous studies on PBL in the context of second/foreign language learning. After all three areas are reviewed, this chapter concludes with a discussion of the gaps in the literature.

2.1 Language Socialization

Language socialization, as a branch of linguistic anthropology grounded in ethnography, focuses on the process in which a child or other novice becomes a culturally competent member of the language community through language use (Ochs 1990; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986). Language socialization entails not only “socialization *through* language but also socialization *to use* language” (Ochs, 1986, p. 2, emphasis added). In this perspective, language is seen as a medium or tool to encode local, social, and cultural

knowledge. Language acquisition is seen as one aspect of the acquisition of culture (Anderson, 1986; Clancy, 1986, 1989; Hall, 2000; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986, 1996). Ochs (1996) stated that “the acquisition of language and the acquisition of social and cultural competence are not developmentally independent processes, nor is one process a developmental prerequisite of the other. Rather, the two processes are intertwined from the moment a human being enters society” (p. 407). That is to say, language socialization is mainly concerned with the interrelated development of language and social and cultural competence. Also, language socialization is indeed a lifelong process from the moment of birth, as adults are also consistently being socialized into new social roles and structures through language exchanges with other members in a particular community. This can be observed when adults get a new job, live in a foreign country, learn second/foreign languages, etc.

Language socialization research draws views on language learning within socio-cognitive approach, which include sociocultural theory (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Vygotsky, 1978) and situated learning theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991). In socio-cognitive theories of language learning, both the context of interaction and the culturally shaped participant roles are major determinants of language forms in given situations or activities (Schechter & Bayley, 2004). Ochs (2002) stated that “the language of children and language directed to children is grounded not only in the immediate discourse context but also in the context of historically and culturally grounded social beliefs, values, and expectations” (p. 106). In this approach, language learning and ongoing activities are inextricably tied, and novices’ development is seen as changing participation in given activities (or social practices) (Lave and Wenger, 1991). While engaging in social

practices, children and novices show various degrees of engagement (from legitimate peripheral to full participation), and they transform their cognition as well as the practices themselves (Kinginger, 2006).

This view of learning as changing participation has been adopted in various context of second language learning research (Hanks, 1991; Nguyen, 2003; Vickers, 2007; Young and Miller, 2004). For example, Vickers (2007) investigated an L2 speaker's (Ramelan) socialization process of becoming a core member in an electrical and computer engineering team meeting. With audio- and video-recorded data, it was demonstrated that Ramelan, a peripheral member of the team, became a core member with other core members' assistance in interaction throughout the academic year. Ramelan's peripheral membership was not simply a result of his level of L2 communicative competence, but from his lack of experience participating in interaction within this particular community of electrical and computer engineering. Vickers argued that "Ramelan's changed language behavior is a product of learning to think, design, and talk like a competent engineer" (p. 637). She concluded that Ramelan's case shows that "cognition and social contexts are intricately connected" (p. 637). Therefore, language socialization must be understood as part of a larger process of human development as it takes place in communities. As Watson-Gegeo (2004) noted in her introduction of a language socialization paradigm for SLA, "all knowledge is positioned and situated in sociohistorical, sociopolitical contexts" (p. 337). In this respect, it is important to investigate interdependence among social context, language, and the socialization process.

2.1.1 The process of socialization

A major premise of language socialization is that “socialization is an interactive process” (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986, p. 165). The organization and the role of language in framing social events are considered powerful socializing forces (Duff, 2002; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986). Garret and Baquedano-Lopez (2000) stated that “one of the most significant contributions of language socialization research is the insight it has yielded into everyday life— the mundane activities and interactions in which ordinary individuals participate, constituting the warp and woof of human sociality” (p. 343). Recurrent language practices are finely guided by preferences, expectations, orientations, and dispositions that are social in origin and culturally specific in nature (Garrett & Baquedano-Lopez, 2002).

Through participation in recurrent language practices with more competent members, children and novices (including second language learners) develop an understanding of linguistic and cultural knowledge in socioculturally defined contexts. In particular, interactional routine, defined as “a sequence of exchanges in which one speaker’s utterance, accompanied by appropriate nonverbal behaviors, calls forth one of a limited set of responses by one or more other participants” (Peter and Boggs, 1986, p. 81), serves an important role to promote language learning due to its predictability. This predictability emerges when a “specific configuration of time, place, participants and goals tends to recur, leading the child to expect particular verbal and nonverbal behavior” (Peter and Boggs, 1986, p. 84).

The role of interactional routines in the development of social competence (of which language is a part) has been examined in the context of second language acquisition. In Ohta's (1999) study, she investigated interactional routines in a college-level Japanese language classroom and learners' changes in participation in these interactional routines. The particular interest of this study is the use of the Japanese affective marker *na/ne* in teacher-fronted triadic sequences (IRF). The teacher used the affective marker *na/ne* when providing assessment to the students. Longitudinal analysis demonstrated that after being exposed to the teacher's use of and instruction on the affective marker, one learner shaped her understanding of using the affective marker in her assessment of another learner's speech during pair work. This study suggested that adult second language socialization occurs through repeated participation in interactional routines.

Looking at another study of adult second language learners' socialization process, Poole (1992) examined cultural messages that teachers displayed through interactional routines in two beginning ESL courses at an American university. She compared interactional routines in two ESL courses to the study of clarification style between children and caregivers in white middle class American homes (WMCA) (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1984). It was found that there was a tendency for the teacher to avoid overt displays of asymmetry in the classroom, a tendency which is observed in interaction between children and caregivers in WMCA homes (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1995). This tendency is achieved interactionally through false starts, pauses, and fillers during opening sequences, ease of praise giving, and the absence of stress markers during closing sequences.

In the second/foreign language classroom, interactional routines are powerful sources for socialization. That is to say, interactional routines into which the second/foreign language learners are socialized are significant in affording learning opportunities in the target language and culture. In Hall's (2004) study, the importance of interactional routines was addressed by examining a Spanish language classroom. The findings illustrated that the interactional routine in which learners were engaged, called "practicing speaking," involved learners' participation in listing lexical items and repeating after the teacher. Thus, the interactional routines allowed very limited opportunities for the learners to use Spanish, "lacking in almost anything that could be considered cognitively, linguistically or socially meaningful, or motivating" (p. 82).

As seen in the previous studies on interactional routines, children and novices' engagement in interactional routines is a socializing experience in that members of a social group are socializing each other into their particular world views as they negotiate situated meanings. In the classroom context of language learning, however, as He (2003) noted, "it is sometimes not easy to tease apart that which is culture-specific from that which is classroom-specific" (p. 142).

In language socialization, children's acquisition of language does not depend on only the frequency and formal linguistic nature of the forms that they are exposed to, but on their needs in their social roles as they actively participate in the speech environment. In this respect, there have been studies conducted on how children and novices acquire grammatical constructions and learn to use them in appropriate contexts. Ochs and Schieffelin (1995) showed that grammatical forms that are frequent in adult speech but inappropriate for children were not observed in children's speech. In contrast,

grammatical forms that are infrequent but appropriate for children were acquired first and used in children's speech. As another example of children and novices' grammar acquisition in the process of socialization, Clancy (1989) investigated two young Korean children's socialization process, focusing on their acquisition of wh-questions. By comparing the functions of wh-questions in the mothers' speech and the children's speech, Clancy (1989) argued that "the children are clearly not just assimilating the uses of language encountered in the input to which they were exposed. Rather, they are selective in their adoption of particular forms and functions to fit their personal interest and communicative goals and modify input that does not match their needs by using [it] for innovative functions" (p. 188). In this regard, the child or the novice is not a passive recipient of sociocultural knowledge, but rather an active contributor to the meaning and outcome of interaction with other members of a social group (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986; Watson-Gegeo, 2004).

2.1.2 Culture learning in the process of socialization

Language socialization has as a goal the linking of micro-level analyses of interaction involving children and novices to more general ethnographic accounts of cultural beliefs and practices of the families, social groups, or communities into which children are socialized. From this standpoint, sociocultural meanings are inextricably linked to linguistic forms. This idea, known as indexicality, is fundamental to the way in which language is used to construct social meanings and social identities. Here, social identity is defined as all dimensions of social personae including roles, relationships,

group identity, and rank. This is also a major part of novices' socialization (Ochs, 1996).

In order for speakers to establish their own social identities and those of others, they verbally perform social acts or stances. Here, social act is defined as "any socially recognized, goal directed behavior", and stance as "a display of socially recognized point of view or attitude" (Ochs, 1993, p. 288). That is, linguistic forms are crucial cues to index the activities taking place, the feeling or knowledge of the speaker, and social identities of the participants.

Ochs (1990) argued that there are two means of indexing sociocultural contexts: (1) a single linguistic form may index some contextual dimension, or (2) a set of linguistic forms may index some contextual dimension. For instance, Cook's study (1997) shows how the Japanese politeness marker *-masu* indexes not only a hierarchical relationship, but also the presentation of the public self in caregiver-child conversations. This study is a good example of how a single linguistic form indexes sociocultural contexts. In a later study on the Japanese politeness marker *-masu* by Cook (2006, 2008), she argued that linguistic forms have a broader indexical scope. The use of politeness makers does not always indicate politeness to the addressee with higher social status. Rather, she argued that social identities and structures are a product emerging through the negotiated process of interaction with available linguistic resources. In Cook's (2006) study, by examining speech-style shifts in academic consultation sessions between professors and students in Japanese universities, the way social identities were negotiated through the use of politeness marker and plain forms was examined. The findings indicated that the professor and the students displayed multiple-layered social relationships during the academic consultation session. The social structure of [the

relationships between] the professor and the students was not singly indexed by the politeness marker *-masu*. Both parties often used the politeness marker to “index their mutual professional identities and context” (p. 287). The students’ shifts to plain form have multiple functions in interaction. By using the plain form, the student co-constructed an utterance with the professor, which indexed the student’s background knowledge of the topic and the students’ conviction. Cook concluded that “the honorific form is not always a direct index of social status and not used as prescribed by social rules. Linguistic forms (both honorific and non-honorific) are commonly used strategically and serve as resources for the creation of different social identities together with grammatical structures and organization of talk” (p. 288).

In the case of a set of linguistic forms, grammatically incorrect utterances could index speech by a child, a foreign language speaker, or even an adult native speaker simply making a mistake. Thus, a combination of several indexicals will help us understand social identities of interlocutors engaged in speech events at hand. Through these two means of indexicality, children learn quite early the social meanings, including social identities of the self and others that are associated with linguistic forms. As another example, Platt (1986) observed that West Samoan children at the single-word and two-word stage have considerable understanding of the social rank indexed by the specific verbs *sau* ‘come’ and *alu* ‘go’. These two deictic verbs can be used in directives only from an inferior stance, but *aumai* ‘give’ in imperative is used as begging regardless of status. As a consequence, the west Samoan children were producing the more “complex” verb *give* rather than the less semantically complex verb *come*.

2.1.4 Summary

Language socialization is a theory of learning that sees learning as a social process, focusing on the learners' participation in repeated social practices. The key focus of language socialization is how children and novices are socialized to gain competence in linguistic, social, and cultural community practices through the use of the language. In order to demonstrate the process of socialization, researchers typically investigate recurring social practices including interactional routines in which the learners participate and the emergence of linguistic forms and social and cultural knowledge in such practices.

2.2 Second Language Immersion Contexts

Second language immersion venues in recent years have received a great deal of attention from parents, researchers, and policymakers. According to Read (1996, p. 469), "the term 'immersion' is a metaphor for an experience in which the language learners receive intensive exposure to the target language, an experience which may be thought of as a 'language bath'." This intensive exposure to the target language is meant to replicate the natural conditions in which first language learning occurs. Although immersion has been described as the mother's method (Penfield & Roberts, 1959) or as a first language approach, it is not simply a matter of treating second language learners as if they were native speakers of the target language. Rather, immersion is a communicative approach that reflects the essential conditions of first language learning and at the same time responds to the special needs of second language learners (Genesee, 1983, 1985). Second

language immersion programs can be differentiated in terms of their context: (1) immersion *school* programs in which students learn school subjects through the target language, and (2) a short-term immersion *camp* program in which language learners learn about the target language and culture.

2.2.1 Second language immersion school programs

Second language immersion school programs were first introduced in 1965 in Canada. The main purpose of these immersion schools was to provide English-speaking children in Quebec with communicative proficiency to live in an increasingly French-speaking community (Cummins, 1998; Genesee, 1985; Lambert & Tucker, 1972). These one-way programs, known as Canadian Immersion Programs, educate Anglophone children primarily through French. From research on one-way immersion programs, we have learned that students achieve significantly higher levels of proficiency in all aspects of French than students in traditional foreign language classes. Based on the French model, American educators began to explore the use of immersion in the U.S. context. According to Genesee (1995), immersion programs in the United States have been adopted for somewhat different purposes: “(1) as linguistic, cultural, and general educational enrichment; (2) as magnet schools to bring about a more balanced ratio of ethnolinguistic groups; and/or (3) as a means of achieving some degree of two-way bilingualism in communities with a large population of non-English residents” (p.544). An additional purpose of immersion programs beyond those cited by Genesee is to create indigenous/minority language immersion programs with the goal of maintaining native

language and culture by educating children in that language (Harrison & Papa, 2005; Hickey, 2001, 2007; Yamauchi et al., 2000). With these purposes, in the United States, there are three types of immersion school programs based on how the immersion language is used (Lenker & Rhodes, 2007): total immersion, partial immersion, and two-way immersion (also known as dual immersion). In total immersion programs, all subjects in the lower grades (K-2) are taught in the foreign language and instruction in English usually increases in the upper grades (3-6). In partial immersion programs, half of the subjects are taught in the foreign language, and the material taught in the foreign language is often reinforced in English. Lastly, two-way immersion programs give equal emphasis to English and a non-English language, and one to two thirds of the students are native speakers of the non-English language, with the remainder being native speakers of English.

The ultimate goal of all immersion programs is additive bilingualism, whereby students become proficient in the target language as well as in their first language. Across these different types of immersion programs, much research has been carried out on language learners' development of foreign language skills (Cummins, 1998; Genesee, 1983; Lambert & Tucker, 1972; Swain & Lapkin, 1982). From previous research, we have learned that comparing to students in traditional foreign language classes, students in such programs achieved significantly higher levels of proficiency in all aspects of immersion languages without any detrimental effects on first languages or academic success (Baker, 2006; Genesee, 1995; Swain 1974; Turnbull, Hart, & Lapkin, 2001). For example, in a recent study conducted by the Public Service Commission of Canada (PSCC, 2005), it was found that the majority of the graduating students from French

immersion programs obtained an intermediate or higher level for reading, writing, and oral interaction skills in the target language (76.6% out of 540 students). Swain, Lapkin, Rowen and Hart's (1990) study had similar findings. They studied the achievement of writing, reading, speaking and listening skills of 200 students' in the 8th grade. These students, who began French immersion in 5th grade, came from a variety of majority and minority language backgrounds, and all achieved intermediate or higher level proficiency.

However, shortcomings of immersion school programs have also been reported. One of the well-known problems is that immersion students develop somewhat limited interpersonal skills, as opposed to academic skills, in the second language because they have no interaction with native French-speaking peers (Genesee, 1985; Lambert & Tucker, 1972; Swain & Lapkin, 1998, 2002). Moreover, it has been reported that immersion students rarely use the immersion language in classrooms, particularly in peer-peer interactions (Heitzman, 1993; Parker, Heitzman, Fjerstad, Babbs, & Cohen., 1995). These studies demonstrated that there are functional distinctions between the L1 and immersion languages. Whereas the immersion languages are used for academic topics, the students' L1 is typically used for social interactions even within the same conversation. Concerning the use of two languages in immersion programs, Tarone and Swain (1995) argued that the different functions of two languages are often understood as natural phenomena in a community where two languages are used. Immersion classrooms can be viewed as a speech community of *diglossia*, in which "a variety of speech styles and registers exist and are used for different purposes" (p. 167). From a sociolinguistic perspective, the target language input that immersion students receive is primarily from teachers in the context of formal instruction in classrooms, and the formal, academic style

of the immersion language is generally provided to the students. Without receiving enough input of immersion language vernacular for peer-peer social functions, the L2 is reserved for conversation with the teacher or with other students on academic topics in “institutional” domains.

In sum, the previous studies in immersion school programs verify the assumption of success in language learning in immersion contexts. Also, many immersion students become additive bilingual speakers with no apparent loss of L1 skills. For minority language students who learn two new languages in school (target language and majority language), immersion language learning is as effective as for majority language students in developing the target language skills. One of the major shortcomings of immersion school programs is that the target language input is provided mainly within institutional domains, characterized as formal speech styles. For students’ needs of interaction in social domains with other peers, the students choose their L1 for informal conversation.

2.2.2 Foreign language immersion camp programs

In the immersion *camp* context of language learning, language learners are required to stay at a camp site for a certain period of time to learn the target language and culture. While staying at the camp, the learners are expected to use the target language in order to participate in various daily activities such as cultural activities, language instruction, and so forth. Despite the recent growth of foreign language immersion camp programs, there have been only two studies conducted in this context (Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004; Hamilton, 2004). Each of these studies has different foci. First, in the

study conducted by Freed, Segalowitz, and Dewey (2004), the researchers compared three different learning contexts: an immersion camp program context, a study abroad context, and a traditional classroom learning context, to examine the relationship between the context of learning and learners' development in fluency. The participants included 28 college students with a variety of academic majors learning French as a foreign language. None of the participants had ever spent time abroad before this research study. Of these participants, eight students were registered in a formal language class, which met 2-4 hours a week for 12 weeks, at an American university, , and whose curriculum was based on a communicative approach. Twelve students were enrolled in a summer French immersion camp during seven weeks in the summer. This French immersion camp "[integrates] formal classroom (content or language oriented) and out-of-class learning opportunities" (p. 179). Lastly, eight students attended a study abroad program for one semester. While studying in Paris, the students received a 12-week course of instruction and "potentially unlimited opportunities for use of the target language" (pp. 279-280). All the participants took interview tests (similar to the Oral Proficiency Interview (Breiner-Sanders, Lowe, Miles & Swender, 2000) at the beginning and the end of the sessions. From the two interview tests, two 1-minute segments of each participant's talk were extracted for the analysis of oral fluency. In order to measure learner's development in fluency, nine aspects of fluency were examined: oral fluency, speech rate, hesitation-free speech runs, filler-free speech runs, fluent runs, repetition-free speech runs, grammatical-repair-free speech runs, total words spoken, duration of speaking time, and longest turn. The statistical results showed that students in the immersion camp context made the greatest gains in oral fluency, despite the similar

number of hours of classroom-based instruction in the study abroad and traditional language learning contexts.

Another study conducted by Hamilton (2004) attempted to illustrate how learners engaged in interaction in a German immersion camp. Adopting an approach to repair sequences from conversation analysis studies (Schegloff, Jefferson, & Sacks, 1977), she examined repair sequences in four contexts-of-talk in the immersion camp: one beginner language class period, one advanced intermediate language class period, one culture activity period involving mixed-level learners, and one conversation involving mixed-level learners cleaning their cabin. With video-recorded data of 18 high school students and one teacher, she analyzed the proportion of repairs and types of trouble sources in the four contexts-of-talk. Also, she investigated the distributions of turns between the teacher and the learners, as well as the percentage of English use in the four contexts-of-talk. From the quantitative and qualitative analysis, it was found that the repair practices² were less frequently initiated in informal interactions in the cabin than during the class period. In contrast, English was used most in informal interactions in the cabin.

From the above two studies conducted in the immersion camp programs, we have learned that foreign language learners showed the best result in developing fluency in the target language in the French immersion camp compared to other contexts of language learning (Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004), and the learners were engaged in various contexts of talk with the native-speaking teacher in the German immersion camp

² In Hamilton's (2004) study, she did not distinguish between correction in instructional discourse and repair practice in conversation analysis (CA). Hall (2007) argues that unlike instructional correction, CA repair deals with difficulties to understand the speaker due to mishearing, uncertainty about what is heard, and troubles in word search. Many examples of repair provided by Hamilton (2004) did not include trouble sources interfering with conversational flow.

(Hamilton, 2004). However, in order to understand the learning opportunities provided in immersion camp programs and the language learners' process of learning, there needs to be more research conducted in this context.

2.3 Project-Based Second/Foreign Language Learning

As noted by Beckett (1999, 2006), project-based learning (PBL) was first introduced by David Snedden to teach science in American vocational agriculture classes. It was later developed with John Dewey and Kilpatrick, who assert the importance of experiential and action-based learning. Here, action is described as “as an expression of a basic empirical process which is organized and guided by activity and the questions it raises (Beckett, 1999, p. 9). Kilpatrick (1918) proposed *the project method*, which emphasizes students' involvement in creating knowledge while solving problems that arise during projects (Brubacher, 1947). Dewey (1938) stated that “(...) to learning from texts and teachers, learning through experience; to acquisition of isolated skills and techniques by drills, is opposed acquisition of them as means to attaining ends which make direct vital appeal; to preparation for a more-or-less remote future is opposed making the most of the opportunities of present life; to static aims and materials is opposed acquaintance with a changing world” (pp. 19-20).

Kilpatrick has agreed with Dewey's notion of the school as a social environment, and criticized the traditional curriculum in which subjects were taught separately. Kilpatrick, (1925) argued that “as I see it, our schools have in the past chosen from the whole of life certain intellectualistic tools (skills and knowledge), have arranged these

under the headings of reading, arithmetic, geography and so on, and have taught these separately as if they would, when once acquired, recombine into the worthy life. This now seems to me to be far from sufficient. Not only do these things not make up the whole of life; but we have so fixed attention upon separate teaching of theses as at times to starve the weightier matters of life and character. The only way to live well is to practice living well” (pp. 108-109). The project method has been seen as the alternative way of teaching/learning in the literature of general education (Cremin, 1964; Gull, 1933). The main goals of project-based instruction include motivating students to learn, fostering problem solving, developing independent and cooperative working skills as well as critical thinking and decision making skills, and in-depth learning of subject matter.

In the field of second language acquisition, PBL was first adopted about two decades ago as an approach reflecting student-centered learning (e.g., Fried-Booth, 1982, 1986, 2002; Haines, 1989, Legutke & Thomas, 1991; Stoller, 1997). Interactionist perspective on second language learning (Long, 1983, 1996; Swain, 1995) emphasizes negotiation of meaning in interaction and comprehensible output through meaningful interaction. One result of this perspective was project-based teaching and communicative language teaching methodology (Beckett, 1999). In PBL for second/foreign language learning, “students collaborate on sequential tasks and actively engage in gathering and processing information” to develop a final project (Mills, 2009, p. 609). In this process, students apply their linguistic and cultural knowledge to social situations where negotiation is necessary to reach the goal. According to van Lier (2006), “PBL is important not just as a different and more efficient way to afford language learning

opportunities, but in a wider sense as a semiotic-ecological endeavor that focuses on the making and using of signs that are multisensory and multimodal” (p. xiv). In second/foreign language learning contexts, two crucial aspects of PBL are as follows: “First, the well-established fact that it is a sensible and sophisticated way to approach the teaching-learning dialogue; second, the clearly observable fact that PBL mostly tends to happen in elite, low-stakes courses, where performance does not make or break a student’s future academic or professional success” (van Lier, 2006, p. xii).

For more than twenty years, many language educators’ anecdotal reports have shown the successful incorporation of PBL into language classrooms (e.g., Allen, 2004; Carter & Thomas, 1986; Gardener, 1995; Lee, 2002; Levine, 2004, Sheppard & Stoller, 1995). From these reports on PBL, Stoller (1997) summarized six characteristics of PBL in second/foreign language classrooms:

“(1) Project work focuses on content learning rather than on specific language targets, (2) project work is student centered though the teacher plays a major role in offering support and guidance throughout the process, (3) project work is cooperative rather than competitive. Students can work on their own, in small groups, or as a class to complete a project, sharing resources, ideas, and expertise along the way, (4) project work leads to the authentic integration of skills and processing of information from varied sources, mirroring real-life tasks, (5) project work culminates in an end product (e.g., an oral presentation, a poster session, a bulletin board display, a report, or a stage performance) that can be shared with others, giving the project a real purpose. The value of the project, however, lies not just in the final product but in the process of working towards

the end point. Thus, project work has both a process and product orientation, and provides students with opportunities to focus on fluency and accuracy at different project-work stages, and (6) project work is potentially motivating, stimulating, empowering, and challenging. It usually results in building student confidence, self-esteem, and autonomy as well as improving students' language skills, content learning, and cognitive abilities" (Stoller, 1997, pp. 4-5).

Stoller (2006) reported eight positive outcomes of PBL (Project-based learning) in second and foreign language teaching/learning contexts from sixteen publications (Allen, 2004; Carter & Thomas, 1986; Coleman, 1992; Ferragatti & Carminati, 1984; Fried-Booth, 1982; Gardner, 1995; Gu, 2002, 2004; Ho, 2003; Lee, 2002; Legutke, 1984; Levine, 2004; Padgett, 1994; Sheppard & Stoller, 1995; Stoller, 1997). The most commonly reported positive outcome is that projects create authentic contexts in which learners use target languages. During project work, students are involved in problem-solving activities in order to complete projects, and in so doing, students exchange ideas each other using target language. Another benefit of PBL is "the intensity of students' motivation, involvement, engagement, participation, and enjoyment" (p. 24). While engaged in projects, students work together toward making the best products rather than looking for right answers as in the traditional way of teaching/learning. Also, it is reported that students are seen to develop language skills due to the fact that projects involve various activities with reading, writing, speaking and listening. The fourth benefit of PBL is that students are seen to improve social, cooperative, and collaborative skills. The fifth benefit is concerned with its nature that "projects are planned around the

gathering, processing, and reporting of information” (p.26). Since PBL is compatible with content-based instruction, students could gain content knowledge while completing projects. PBL is reported to provide positive effects on students’ self-confidence, self-esteem, and positive attitudes toward learning, which are based on satisfaction with personal achievements. Finally, “students demonstrate increased autonomy, independence, self-initiation, and a willingness to take responsibility for their own learning as a result of project work represents another set of benefits touted in the literature” (p. 27).

While many anecdotal reports provided instructional models of PBL and the successful implementation of PBL in language classrooms, there have not been many empirical studies conducted on PBL in the context of second/foreign language learning. So far, there have been three studies conducted with three foci: (1) the effectiveness of PBL, (2) teacher and students’ evaluation on PBL, and (3) the examination of interaction occurring in projects. First, Turnbull (1999a, 1999b) investigated the effectiveness of PBL in four high school French language classrooms. All students took pre- and post-tests of overall French proficiency assessing reading, writing, and listening skills. The tests were taken six months apart. All four classes, which were engaging in a unit concerning fashion and advertising organized with the project-driven approach, were also observed for eight weeks by the researcher. From the classroom observations, it was found that two teachers organized classroom activities to complete a project. In contrast, the other two teachers did not organize any activities connected to a project. The statistical analysis of the students’ tests demonstrated that students in project-based classes achieved higher post-test results than students in non project-based classes.

Regarding second/foreign language teachers and students' evaluations of PBL, Beckett (1999) investigated the implementation of PBL in a secondary school ESL class located in Canada, focusing on a teacher's goals and teachers and students' evaluations of PBL. The data were collected through observations of two project units and interviews of two female teachers and 73 students. The findings of this study demonstrated that the teachers gave positive evaluations of PBL because it allowed them to integrate language, content, and skills in language teaching. In addition, the teachers evaluated PBL as a positive approach for the students' benefit in language learning. By providing contexts for students to use the target language, the students were exposed to functional aspects of the target language. Unlike the teacher's positive evaluations, the students' evaluations of PBL expressed dilemmas, frustrations, and tensions. Some of students found PBL helpful because the projects provided the students with other opportunities to gain knowledge in other content areas and linguistic skills (i.e., writing, communication skills, and presentation skills). The students who gave negative evaluations of PBL said the projects required much time and work (See also Beckett (2005) for students' evaluations of PBL).

Mohan and Beckett (2001) examined classroom interaction in project work in a content-based ESL class at a Canadian university. As part of the course requirements, the students in groups worked on research projects including presentations and reports on topics that they had investigated. The data were teacher-student interactions occurring when three students were making a presentation to the class. The main analysis was about how the teacher first provided recasts on the learners' mistakes on causal explanation and then supported the learners' presentations. The findings showed that the teacher's recast sequences focused on meaning rather than forms. Mohan and Beckett (2001) stated that

“the best analogy for these [recast] sequences is a complex, rapid-fire editing process with student as author and teacher as editor, both working to enhance the text that student is creating” (p. 151). In this process, the teacher is suggesting improvements, repairing students’ difficulties, and eliciting elaborations. According to the authors, “these recast sequences are important windows on the process of advanced language development. As a supportive expert editor, the teacher recasts [students] to improve and repair students’ causal explanations. As a cooperative learner author, students incorporate the teacher’s suggestions, sometimes solving the problems that teacher has identified by creating a new solution” (p. 151).

From the above three research studies, we have learned that PBL is successful in creating a learning environment in which learners are actively engaged. This main feature of PBL provides insights into an alternative approach to second/foreign language learning. In order to understand how PBL plays a significant role in language learning, more research studies are needed.

2.4 Summary and Conclusions

In this chapter, I have reviewed three relevant areas of this study: language socialization, immersion contexts of second/foreign language learning, and project-based language learning. As a theoretical framework, language socialization is reviewed focusing on three important concepts: the theoretical perspective on language, social interaction and socialization, the process of socialization, and culture learning in the process of socialization. In language socialization, social interaction is central to the

learning process to become a competent member in a certain community. As such, most studies in language socialization were conducted to discover both the recurrent communicative practices into which novices and children are socialized and the linguistic features indexing the target culture.

From the review of immersion contexts of language learning, we have learned that there are two different immersion contexts of language learning: immersion school programs and immersion camp programs. Most of the previous studies were conducted in immersion *school* programs, and it has been reported that students in immersion school programs achieve higher levels of L2 skills than students who receive foreign language instruction as a separate school subject. However, from the previous literature, the major shortcoming of immersion school programs is that the immersion students heavily rely on their L1 in interaction with other peers because they do not gain knowledge of L2 vernacular for informal conversation among peers. Unlike immersion school programs where school subjects are taught in the target language, immersion *camp* programs offer a place where language learners can use the target language throughout their daily interactions for a certain period of time. Regarding immersion *camp* programs, previous studies showed that the learners who attended immersion camp programs gain higher fluency in the L2 than they did in two other contexts of learning (i.e., classroom learning and study abroad), and the learners participated in various contexts of talk while living in the immersion camp site.

Finally, from the review of project-based learning (PBL), three research studies have shown that learners use the target language to negotiate meaning in order to complete projects. Even though many anecdotal reports demonstrate the effectiveness of

PBL in the second/foreign language classroom, there have been not many research studies examining how learners participate in various activities in projects or how they learn the target language through projects. Also, most anecdotal reports and research illustrate PBL in advanced second/foreign language classrooms. Thus, the way in which beginning-level language learners are engaged in projects while learning important linguistic forms for communication still needs to be studied.

As shown in this review, we still know little about immersion camp programs, particularly about how learners become able to use the target language in the camp and what kinds of opportunities are offered to learners. In order to understand language learning in the immersion camp setting, an ethnographic examination of language, people, and community is a necessary step for further studies on language learning.

Chapter 3

Methodology

This chapter describes the data collection procedures and analytic methods used to answer the research questions guiding this study. First, ethnography of communication, which provides a set of methods for conducting this study, is reviewed. Then, a detailed description of the research site and participants is presented, including background information on the Korean Language Village and the participants. Second, the data collection procedure for the study is introduced, including video-recording data, field-note taking, interviews and a questionnaire. Finally, an analysis of the data is provided to answer the research questions of the present study: (1) what kind of community is the Korean Language Village?, (2) How is grammar taught to the learners in the various activities and projects in which learners participate during the learning group sessions?, and (a) Is there any developmental changes observed in the learners' use of target grammatical structures?

3.1 Research Design

The present study uses qualitative research methods, specifically ethnography of communication (EC), first developed by Hymes (1962, 1972). In EC, the systems of culture are patterns of symbols, and language is only one of the symbolic systems in this network. Thus, from the perspective of EC, language is viewed as “socially constituted,” or, in other words, “social function gives form to the ways in which linguistic features are

encountered in actual life” (Hymes, 1974, p. 196). With this perspective on language, culture and community, a primary aim of EC is to “guide the collection and analysis of descriptive data about the ways in which social meaning is conveyed” (Saville-Troike, 2003, p. 2). Thus, EC is concerned primarily with a thick description of cultural contexts and analysis of social meaning in language in a certain community (Geertz, 1973; Hymes, 1962; Saville-Troike, 2003).

In EC, one of the primary units of analysis to explore interrelationships among language, culture and community is communicative activity. The units of communicative activities include *situation*, *event*, and *act* (Hymes, 1972). The *speech situation* is the context in which communication occurs. The *speech event* includes activities governed by rules or norms. The *speech act* is generally understood as a single interactional function, such as a request or a command, and includes non-verbal cues. For example, an instance of learner-teacher interaction occurring during explicit instruction time can be an analytical unit in EC studies. In this case, explicit instruction is the *speech situation*, and the speech situation can be understood by several components of *speech events* occurring in the explicit instruction, such as the teacher’s grammar explanation, learners’ pair work, and so forth.

Hymes (1962) states that “the starting point is the ethnographic analysis of the communicative habits of a community in their totality, determining what count as communicative events, and as their components, and conceiving no communicative behavior as independent of the set framed by some setting or implicit question. The communicative event is thus central” (p. 13). In order to guide the examination on the use of language in communicative events, Hymes proposed the S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G model

(setting and scene, participants, ends, act sequence, key, instrumentalities, norms, and genre). Each letter of the model represents one of the components in communicative events. According to Hymes' definition (1974, pp. 55-57), *setting* refers to "the time and place of a speech act and, in general, to the physical circumstances," and *scene* refers to the "psychological setting" (i.e., formal versus informal talk). *Participants* include the speaker and audience. *Ends* mean the purposes, goals, and outcomes of an interaction. *Act sequence* is the ordering of speech acts, including turn-taking and overlap phenomena. *Key* is the "tone, manner, or spirit in which an act is done" (i.e. serious, sarcastic, humorous, etc.). In *instrumentalities*, there are two components: channels and forms of speech. The channel is the medium in which the message is relayed, as well as the mode of use of the message (i.e., oral versus written). *Norms of interpretation* refers to the rules or beliefs of a community that inform the ways in which individuals interpret a situation. The last component, *genre* describes the kind or type of speech act that is occurring.

The S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G model provides researchers with a useful framework to discover an *emic* perspective. The *emic* perspective is often understood as an insider's perspective of a society or culture when interpreting cultural concepts or events. As an example borrowed from Watson-Gegeo (1988), in the *emic* perspective, kin terminology is understood as a social relationship (e.g., uncle) rather than a biological relationship (e.g., mother's brother). By adopting Hyme's S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G model to describe social actions and events in the Korean Language Village, this study attempts to construe what such social actions and events mean to participants.

Another major characteristic of EC is a holistic perspective on communicative activity that combines macro- and micro-level analysis. As Watson-Gegeo and Gegeo

(1985) described, a holistic perspective means that “any aspect of a culture or a behavior has to be described and explained in relation to the whole system of which it is a part” (p. 577). This holistic perspective is often understood at macro- and micro- level analyses of discourse. At the micro-level, EC deals with rules for communication and cultural rules for the context and content of communicative events (i.e., turn-taking, grammatical particles, intonational pattern, speech acts, etc.). This micro-level analysis of discourse is closely related to *communicative competence*, referring to the communicative knowledge and skills shared by a speech community, but these reside variably in its individual members (Saville-Troike, 2003). In terms of macro-level analysis in EC, studies usually look at the *community*, and Hymes (1972) defined community as a *speech community* that shares “rules for the conduct and interpretation of speech and rules for the interpretation of at least one linguistic variety” (p. 54). The analysis of a community necessarily includes examinations of the discourse contexts and ideological worlds in which members of a culture or group operate (Duff, 2002). As an example of holistic perspective in EC studies, Duff (1995) illustrated the interface of macro- and micro level changes observed in an English-Hungarian immersion school in the late 1980 when Soviet-oriented policies were rejected as well as the discourse of authoritarianism. By examining classroom discourse practices, she argued that sociopolitical changes influence on the breakdown of a traditional oral assessment, *felelés*, and it is replaced with student lectures, a more democratic and open-ended discussion.

The present study has attempted to incorporate these major principles of EC into the methodology in order to accomplish the goal of providing a descriptive and interpretive-explanatory account of foreign language learners’ socialization processes in a

Korean immersion camp. The traditional techniques of data collection in EC are participant observation, which includes residing or spending considerable lengths of time interacting with people in everyday naturalistic settings, observing and recording their activities in extensive field notes, and interviewing and conversing with them to learn their perspectives, attitudes, beliefs, and values (Harklau & Norwood, 2005; Hymes, 1962, 1973; Saville-Troike, 2003). In recent years, research studies on second/foreign language learning using the ethnographic approach usually involve audio and video recording. In the present study, the major methods of data collection are audio and video recording, interviews, and field notes. Below, I discuss the methods of data collection and analysis in more detail.

3.2 Data

3.2.1 Research site

The research site of the present study is a summer immersion camp, the Korean Language Village. The Korean Language Village is a part of World Language Villages³, one of the most well-known foreign language immersion camp programs in the United States. This immersion camp program first started with a German immersion camp with 75 participants in 1961 and has since added fourteen language programs: French, Spanish, Norwegian, Russian, Swedish, Finnish, Danish, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Italian, Arabic, Portuguese, and English. These foreign language immersion camp programs

³ World Language Villages is a pseudonym.

target elementary and secondary students, and approximately 9,500 young students participated in its 15 immersion foreign language programs during the summer in which the study was conducted. The official website of the World Language Villages states that all of the Village programs have as their mission to prepare young people for responsible citizenship in our global community. A responsible world citizen is defined as one who: (1) understands and appreciates cultural diversity; (2) communicates with confidence and cultural sensitivity in more than one language; (3) responds creatively and critically to issues that transcend national boundaries; (4) expresses empathy for neighbors in the global village; and (5) promotes a world view of peace, justice, and sustainability for all. In order to follow this mission, World Language Villages teaches language and culture in global contexts, which include geography, history, political science, and international relations.

World Language Villages are conducted within villages located in the north-central part of the United States. Participants live everyday life in the target language, typically engaging in a wide variety of activities including sports, arts and crafts, cooking, interactive nature programs, singing, dancing, theater, banking, and shopping. From years of observation and participation in village life, Hamilton, Crane, and Bartoshesky (2005, p. 5) identified the six principles guiding the World Language Villages' practices. Practices related to curriculum and programming should (1) give learners courage to participate and use the language, (2) be learner centered so that learners become invested in their own learning, (3) take place in linguistically and culturally authentic surroundings, (4) take place out of a real need to interact and communicate, (5) be experiential and

hands-on, involving multiple senses and drawing on multiple intelligences, and (6) be embedded within extended projects.

Within these mission and principles of the World Language Village, the Korean Language Village was added in 1999 as the 11th language village, and it celebrated its 10th year anniversary at the time of data collection (Summer of 2008). The research site was selected for one reason: this program is the longest-running Korean immersion camp program in the United States. The Korean Language Village offers three programs: a one-week program, a two-week program, and a four-week high school credit program.

3.2.2 Participants⁴

The participants in the study are six villagers from the four-week high school credit program and are in the low-intermediate learning group. The group consists of one teacher and five high school students. In the Village, every learning group has a Korean name that is determined by the group's members. The name of the low-intermediate learning group is the *Super Heroes*⁵. At the time of the study, the teacher was in her early thirties, and there were five high school students whose ages ranged from fifteen to seventeen. The teacher was born in Korea and immigrated to the U.S. when she was fifteen years old. She majored in linguistics for her undergraduate degree at an American university, and at the time of data collection, she was studying in an Asian Studies MA program. She had six years of Korean language teaching experience with groups ranging

⁴ The participants' names are pseudonyms.

⁵ The name of the group is also a pseudonym.

from young children to college students. This was her fourth year returning to this camp to teach Korean as a credit teacher (i.e., a language teacher for the high school credit program learners).

The student participants were from various regions of the United States. Among the five student participants, one student (Nate) was a heritage learner. Nate is a Korean American who was born in the United States, and both of his parents are Korean speakers, so Nate was exposed to the Korean language and culture prior to this camp. However, although he grew up in a bilingual home, he did not have any formal instruction in Korean. Except for Nate, who was new to this camp, the rest of the student participants were all returning learners. Amy had come to the Village six times before, and this summer was her seventh visit. This summer was Nora's fifth visit. Steve was making his fourth visit to the Village, and Kevin was making his third. According to the placement test taken on the first day and the teacher's evaluation, Steve's Korean level was slightly higher than that of the other learners in the low-intermediate level. During the learning group sessions, Steve often attended a Korean short story reading group, which was offered by the dean for advanced learners. Table 3-1 gives detailed information about the student participants in this study.

Table 3-1: Information about the students in the low-intermediate level

	Name	Age/ Gender	# of times participating in camp including the present	Prior experience of learning Korean before their first visit to the camp
	Nora	16 / F	Five times	No
	Nate	15 / M	First time	Yes (grew up in a bilingual environment; no formal instruction in Korean)
	Kevin	17 / M	Three times	No
	Amy	15 / F	Seven times	No
	Steve	16 / M	Four times	No

3.3 Data Collection Methods

The data collection for the study took place over the course of four weeks: July 22nd through Aug 16th, 2008. The data included video recordings of learning group sessions, interviews, questionnaires, and field notes concerning the Korean Language Village (e.g., village events, programs, etc.). In addition, related documents were collected, including the syllabus, small class projects, and the final project of the focal learning group.

3.3.1 Korean Language Village: Field notes -- ethnographic documentation and participant observation

In order to address the first research question, data were collected through ethnographic documentation on the Korean Language Village. While collecting the data, the researcher was a credit teacher for one of the beginning levels. Thus, as a credit teacher, the researcher participated in all of the activities in which credit students

participated, such as evening programs and cultural activities (e.g., cooking demonstrations). The researcher carefully took field notes about each activity in order to document the linguistic and cultural experiences the credit villagers participated in every day throughout the camp. For example, when the learners participated in a Village event called the "Water Festival," the researcher took notes on the number of game stations, the locations of game stations, the features of language use by staff and villagers (e.g., counting numbers, signaling the start and the finish of games, explaining games, and so on). In addition to field notes, the researcher drew or took pictures of the Village events. Every written document provided for the villagers and staff was also collected to explore how the Korean Language Village is organized during its four-week session.

3.3.2 Learning group sessions: Video recording

According to Watson-Gegeo (2004), "language socialization research is built on fine-grained longitudinal studies of language and culture learning in community or classroom settings, or both, systematically documented through audiotape, videotape, and careful field note records of interaction (pp. 341-342)." For the second research question concerning grammar instruction in the immersion camp, the primary data source was video recordings of the learning group sessions. Three times each day (two periods in the morning and one period in the afternoon), learners met with a small group of peers at their language level and a credit teacher to focus specifically on language forms and functions that are subsequently practiced in ongoing daily activities.

Before every learning group session started, the video camera was set up on a tripod and a small wireless microphone was placed on the table. All the video recordings were collected without the presence of the researcher because the researcher was a credit teacher for another learning group in the Village that was held at the same time. Due to the absence of the researcher, the camera had to be set in advance. The teacher was asked to adjust the camera angles when there was major movement. When the class moved to another location (i.e., the dining hall), the teacher carried the camera set with her, except for the trips to the computer lab since there was limited space for the camera set there. The group had two trips to the computer lab during the camp period, and these were not recorded.

Through informal conversations with participants, I was informed that they were nervous about being video recorded in the beginning, but they gradually became more comfortable. During the four-week period, twenty-nine learning group sessions were video recorded. The learning group session was designed to be 50 minutes per meeting. However, the starting time of the first learning group session was not often strictly kept because the village meeting, which was scheduled prior to the learning group session, finished late. Thus, 25 total hours of instruction were video recorded. Table 3-2 provides detailed information of the data collected through video recording.

Table 3-2: Video recording data (date and time length)

	Date/ Class period	# of mins		Date/ Class period	# of mins
1	July 23/1 st period	50:01	17	August 6/2 nd period	62:37
2	July 23 /2 nd period	47:10	18	August 6/3 rd period	50:15
3	July 23/3 rd period	49:48	19	August 7/1 st period	39:08
4	July 26	52:06	20	August 7/2 nd period	54:31
5	July 28/1 st period	39:44	21	August 7/3 rd period	56:54
6	July 28/2 nd period	43:56	22	August 9/1 st period	44:52
7	July 29/2 nd period	46:37	23	August 9/2 nd period	48:53
8	July 30/1 st period	51:24	24	August 10	47:01
9	July 30/2 nd period	50:02	25	August 11/1 st period	55:29
10	July 30/3 rd period	57:07	26	August 12/2 nd period	41:49
11	July 31/1 st period	59:20	27	August 11/3 rd period	33:57
12	July 31/2 nd period	36:24	28	August 13	41:16
13	August 5/1 st period	59:35	29	Final project 1	42:19
14	August 5/2 nd period	60:12	30	Final project 2	4:00
15	August 5/3 rd period	57:16	31	Student interview 1	43:09
16	August 6/1 st period	45:22	32	Student interview 2	41:28

3.3.3 Interview and questionnaire

In order to collect the learners' background information (i.e., age, language learning/teaching experience, reasons for learning Korean, etc.), a background survey and a short interview session were conducted. The participants' background survey was conducted during a self-study period. Since some of the survey questions were answered in a very simple fashion, more detailed information about the language learners (i.e., number of camp sessions in which they had participated, Korean studies outside of camp) was collected through the interview session. Interview sessions were conducted in a quiet room of one cabin with a camera set, and each session took about thirty minutes (See Appendices for interview questions and questionnaire).

Informal interviews with the teachers were also conducted, and the information collected through these interviews was noted in writing by the researcher. Due to the busy schedule in the camp, the interviews were conducted only when the researcher could meet the teacher. For this reason, using audio or video recording was not viable. The main purpose of the informal interviews was to understand the teacher's decision about the class, including projects and activities she assigned and her selection of grammar constructions.

3.3.4 Issues emerging during data collection

As mentioned in the sections above, this study adopts an ethnographic method, whose goal is to “discover the insider's view of the reality—the emic view” (Johnson, 1992, p. 142). In order to achieve this goal, it was illustrated how the data sets was collected. However, in ethnographic method, it is also worthwhile to understand how decisions were made to collect such data set in the field. During the field-work, three major decisions were made in terms of *what to observe*, *whom to interview*, and *what to audio- and video-record* in the field.

At the camp site there were 75 learners, 27 staff members, and it was often observed that six different meetings were held during the same time periods. In terms of *what to observe*, I decided to observe the meetings in which the focal learners participated such as cultural activities, evening programs, etc. Thus, I participated in different meetings on a daily basis. In order not to invade non-participants' rights, audio-

and video- recording was not often an option. Instead, field-note taking was a primary method of data collection in meetings other than learning group sessions.

Spindler and Spindler, (1987) argued that “observation is prolonged and repetitive. Chains of events are observed more than once to establish the reliability of observation” (p. 19). However, in the Korean Language Village, some special camp programs were observed once in the four-week period (e.g., International day, welcoming party, etc). In order to attain participants’ perspective on such camp events, informal interviews were conducted with numerous people (staff members and students), and the primary method for these informal interview was also note-taking.

In the field, the major challenges that I have faced were two. First, all the decisions should be made instantly because many unexpected events could occur at the camp (e.g., weather conditions, program cancellations, new programs, etc). It should be noted that if decisions were made with time, the opportunities for observation would not be existed any longer. The second challenge is recording devices could not be the primary data collection method due to the following reasons: (1) non-participants’ rights should be protected in any circumstances; (2) good-quality voice recordings are not easy to collect due to background noise in the field. For these reasons, field-note taking was the primary source of data collection in the field, but field-notes could not provide detailed information, which could be collected through video- and audio recording devices, such as actual conversation data in the field.

3.4 Data Analysis

3.4.1 Ethnographic description of the *Korean Language Village*

The data set for the ethnographic description of the Korean Language Village included the staff orientation booklet, information about the Village on the website, books about the Village, and notes and pictures taken from participant observation of all village meetings and events as well as conversations with staff members and villagers. The content was organized into four categories: (1) the physical setting of the Village and people of the Village, (2) different groups to which credit villagers belong, (3) linguistic resources available in the Village, and (4) a credit villager's typical daily schedule and Village events. In this study, linguistic resources are the specific uses of the target language in the camp, such as linguistic landscaping, songs/chants routinely used in the Village, and daily practices promoting the villagers' use of the target language.

3.4.2 Ethnographic description of the learning group sessions

In order to investigate how grammar is taught in the learning group sessions, it is necessary to have an ethnographic understanding of the learning group sessions. The data set for the learning group sessions was analyzed according to four categories: (1) descriptions of studying spaces and seating arrangements, (2) projects and activities in which the focal group was engaged during the camp period, (3) grammatical

constructions that were taught to the learners with the teacher's explanation, and (4) two approaches in grammar learning: form-focused and project-based.

3.4.2.1 Identification of projects and activities

In this study, projects are defined as group work involving a series of activities for the completion of a final product. For example, the focal group was engaged in a project called 'a request box,' which involved five activities: the teacher's grammar explanation, a meaning-focused writing activity, discussion of the project, an arts and crafts activity to make a request box, and a skit preparation to present the project to the Village. Here, activities are like speech events, defined by "a unified set of components throughout, beginning with the same general purpose of communication, the same general topic, and involving the same participants, generally using the same language variety, maintaining the same tone or key and the same rules for interaction, in the same setting" (Saville-Troike, 2003, p.23).

In order to identify the speech events (or activities), I looked closely at the purpose connected to each interactive practice as well as the teacher's instructions because the teachers' instructions generally indicated the main purpose of each speech event. For instance, before engaging in an arts and craft activity in the learning group sessions, the teacher said *yeki sangca kulem request box mantulca* ('Here, box. So, let's make a request box') to the learners. Along with the teacher's instructions, learners' engaged actions also indicated the characteristics of interactive practices. During one arts and craft activity, the involved actions were drawing, coloring, cutting papers, and so

forth. The boundaries of the speech events were examined using nonverbal cues (e.g., changes in body position) and verbal cues (e.g., code alternation, change of participant, change in topical focus, and change in the general purpose of communication) (Saville-Troike, 2003).

3.4.2.2 Examination of interaction occurring during project-based grammar learning

In preparation for the analysis of interaction, all the interactions present in the data from the learning group sessions were transcribed in Korean using *Transana*⁶. As for the second layer, the more detailed transcription was done according to the microanalytic conventions of conversation analysis (CA), originally developed by G. Jefferson and codified in Atkinson and Heritage (1984).

In order to investigate how the learners participated in project-based grammar learning, three speech events (or activities) were selected: the teacher's grammar explanation, meaning-focused writing activity, and discussions about the projects. The rationale for choosing these three speech events is that the learners used the target grammatical structures most frequently in these speech events. The analysis of interaction is concerned with action sequences, focusing on how participants orient to and negotiate the sequential structure of the actions in ongoing conversation (Hall, 1993, 1999; Young, 2000). Wells (1993) argues that the sequence is a basic unit of conversation to understand

⁶ *Transana* is software, which was developed at the Wisconsin Center for Education Research, to analyze digital video and audio data (find more information at www.transana.org).

a larger unit of conversation. Along with the sequence, each speech act is closely examined focusing on “the level of speech acts [which] mediates immediately between the usual levels of grammar and the rest of a speech event or situation in that it implicates both linguistic form and social norms” (Hymes, 1972, p. 57). Also, the speech acts should be understood in a sequence in which “the first move establishing the environment for the second and the second confirming the meaning of the first” (Goffman, 1981, p. 149).

The first step of analysis is to mark who initiates turns and how conversation unfolds upon the initiating moves. In particular, the teacher’s initiating moves were examined according to the function of speech acts, the grammatical forms of the message, the content of the message, and paralinguistic cues (e.g., intonation, gestures, etc.). For example, the function of the teacher’s questions in the grammar explanation and the discussion of the projects were different. In the grammar explanation, the teacher asked questions to check the learners’ understanding of the target grammatical knowledge. In contrast, in the discussions, the teacher asked the learners’ opinion of the projects.

3.4.2.3 Development in the learners’ use of target grammatical structures

While examining act-sequencing in interaction occurring in three speech events in project-based grammar learning, the learners’ development in use of target grammatical structures were also examined. In this study, the development is operationalized as changes in learners’ needs of external sources of assistance to produce the target grammatical structures and changes in the learners’ participation in speech events. In terms of changes in external sources of assistance, the external sources of assistant that

the learners needed in one speech event were listed such as the teacher's verbal and non-verbal assistance, grammar note, etc. Following speech events, which were happened in a chronological order (i.e., teacher's grammar explanation → meaning-focused activity → discussions about the projects), the learners' dependency on the external sources of assistant to produce was examined.

In terms of changes in the learners' participation, the learners' utterances into which the target grammatical structures incorporated were examined with its function in the course of interaction. For example, in the beginning, the learners' use of target grammatical structures was mainly observed in instructional activities such as teacher's grammar explanation and meaning-focused writing activities. The main function of the learners' acts in these instructional events was to respond the teacher's questions eliciting the learners' use of the target structures in their utterances. In later activities, however, the learners used the target structure to contribute their ideas to the projects while being engaged in discussions.

Table 3-3: Data collection methods and data analysis for each research question

	Research Questions	Data Sources and Collection Method	Data Analysis
1	What kind of community is the Korean Language Village?	<p>The Korean Language Village</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Participant observation for four weeks 2. Field note taking on every village event and program, including picture taking and picture drawing by the researcher for four weeks 3. Collection of official materials (i.e., staff orientation booklet, websites, books, etc.) for four weeks 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. With an emic (participant-relevant) perspective, read the data set carefully 2. Categorize the information concerning the Korean Language Village into four categories: (1) the physical setting of the Village and the people in the Village, (2) the available groups in which credit villagers could participate, (3) the linguistic resources in the Village, and (4) a credit villager's typical daily schedule and Village events
2	<p>How is grammar taught to the learners in the various activities and projects in which learners participate during the learning group sessions?</p> <p>a. Is there any developmental changes observed in the learners' use of target grammatical structures?</p>	<p>Learning group sessions</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Video recording of formal instruction periods for four week (32 video tapes; 25 hours) 2. Note taking from informal interviews with the teacher 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Identify projects and activities in the learning group sessions 2. Describe how grammar was taught with various projects and activities through two approaches: form-focused grammar learning and project-based grammar learning 3. Perform turn-by-turn microanalysis of interaction, focusing on action sequences

3.5 Validity of Data Analysis

In order to enhance the validity of the data analysis, various data sources were used: field notes including picture taking and picture drawing, video recording data, and interviews. Also, in order to examine the roles of learning group sessions in the Village, thick ethnographic description of the community is provided along with analysis of actual interaction occurring in the learning group sessions. In order to increase the accuracy of the interpretation of the data, I discussed the preliminary analysis of these interactive practices with the teacher-participant in this study. During these discussions, the teacher was asked to give feedback about the interpretation of the data.

In addition, I used peer debriefing to improve the credibility of the coding process, the emerging themes, and the interpretation of the data. A peer debriefer is a trained researcher in qualitative research in the field of second language acquisition. After reading the data analysis from the present study, the debriefer asked questions and gave feedback, particularly focusing on descriptions and assumptions made from an emic perspective. Through these discussions, discrepancies emerging from the data interpretation were resolved.

3.6 Summary

In this chapter, I introduced the methodology employed in this study. I began by describing the research design adopted (ethnography of communication). Then, I provided background information on the research site, the Korean Language Village, as

one immersion program in the World Language Village, and the six participants (one teacher and five high school students). Also, the procedures of data collection were presented (i.e., video recording, field notes, and interview). I then described the analytical procedures I utilized to examine the Korean Language Village as a learning community and the learning group sessions. For each part of this analysis, examples are provided.

Chapter 4

Living in the Korean Language Village

This chapter provides a rich ethnographic description of the Korean Language Village. Four features of the Korean Language Village are relevant to understand this unique community: the physical setting of the Village, groups in the Village, linguistic resources in the Village and the typical daily schedule of credit villagers. Each feature will be described with examples.

4.1 Korean Language Village

The Korean Language Village is designed to immerse learners in Korean language and culture in a camp setting. The Village consists of fifteen buildings and spaces: residential buildings, activity buildings, a dining hall, a bank, a market, a health center, a sauna, a soccer field, a library, a computer lab, campfire circles, and a large lake in which people can swim and canoe. Each building and place has a Korean name from a province name or city name in South or North Korea, such as *Seoul*, *Pyongyang*, *Jeju*, and so on. In front of every building, a big blue banner with the Korean name for the building is hung, and the lakefront and the soccer field are labeled with name signs in Korean. Figure 4-1 shows the physical setting of the buildings and places in the site of the Korean immersion camp. In the figure, three cabins frequently mentioned in the present study are highlighted.



- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. 하얼빈 <i>Haerbin</i> ⁷ : Dining hall, store, bank | 11. 울산 <i>Wulsan</i> : Cabin |
| 2. Parking space | 12. 대전 <i>Daejeon</i> : Cabin |
| 3. Soccer field, archery field | 13. 부산 <i>Busan</i> : Cabin |
| 4. Sauna | 14. 대구 <i>Daegu</i> : Cabin |
| 5. 강화도 <i>Ganghwado</i> : Administration office | 15. 서울 <i>Seoul</i> : Computer lab, library, art room,
snack stand, coffee shop |
| 6. 의주 <i>Uiju</i> (N. Korea): Cabin | 16. 청와대 <i>Cheongwadae</i> ⁸ : Dean's cabin |
| 7. 개성 <i>Gaeseong</i> (N. Korea): Cabin | 17. 광주 <i>Gwangju</i> : Cabin |
| 8. 평양 <i>Pyongyang</i> (N. Korea): Cabin | 18. 간호실 <i>Kanhosil</i> : Health center |
| 9. 함흥 <i>Hamhung</i> (N. Korea): Cabin | 19. 정자 <i>Jeongja</i> : Pavilion (under construction) |
| 10. 제주도 <i>Jeju-do</i> : Staff office | 20. 호숫가 <i>hoswuska</i> : Lakefront |

Figure 4-1: Physical setting of buildings and places in Korean immersion camp site⁹

Note: The transliteration conventions of each city name are followed the Korean government for official signage and documents. In the rest of text, Yale Romanization system is adopted for transliterations.

⁷하얼빈 *Haerbin* is a city located in northeastern China (historically called: *Manchu*). This was a historically significant place for the Korean independence movement in defiance of the Japanese occupation.

⁸청와대 *Cheongwadae* is the executive office and official residence of the South Korean Head of State, the President of the Republic of Korea.

⁹ The source of this picture is a staff orientation book for the Korean Language Village (2008, p.29).

Among these 20 cabins and places, the *Haerbin* cabin and the *Seoul* cabin are frequently used for Village gatherings. *Haerbin*, the village dining hall (building number 1) is the largest building in the Village and is used for major village events (e.g., Village talent shows, the Village welcome party, etc.). The backyard of the *Seoul* cabin (building number 15) is where the Village meeting is held every morning. The *Gaesong* cabin (building number 7) is a small residential cabin and is mainly used by the focal learning group (*Super Heroes*) during the learning group sessions each day.

In its design and function, the Korean Language Village represents a unique space in which learners use the target language in real world contexts. In the Village, learners are called *villagers*, and the villagers have Korean names. In order to encourage the villagers to use Korean names with each other, the villagers are required to wear a nametag necklace on which their Korean name is written. Another unique feature of the Village is that the villagers have Korean food for each meal and use traditional utensils (spoons and chopsticks). The village store sells only Korean products, from souvenir products from Korea to Korean snacks and drinks. Lastly, in the Korean Language Village, the villagers use Korean currency (*won*) with real Korean bills. Upon arrival to the Village, the villagers deposit their American money into the Village bank. At the Village bank, the villagers have a 5,000 won (about 5 dollar) limit for withdrawal so that they can have more opportunities to use the target language in this situation. Table 4-1 presents a table of the unique features of the Korean Language Village.

Table 4-1: Key features of the Korean Language Village

Name of the camp site:	Korean Village
Language:	Korean as an official language
Language learners:	Villagers
Currency:	Korean currency as local currency
Food:	Korean food as local cuisine

As shown in the table, the learners are given a new identity as villagers and are connected to new roles, new relationships, and new groups in the Korean Language Village. The villagers need to use the Korean language for communication, live with new Korean names, eat Korean food, and use Korean money within the camp setting. These requirements for villagers provide the learners with real world contexts of learning the target language. Thus, the Korean Language Village is a learner-oriented Korean community, focusing on the language learners' experience with the target language and culture.

4.2 People and Groups of the Korean Language Village

At the time of the data collection (summer of 2008), there were 27 staff members, including the dean of the Korean immersion camp, and 75 learners (two groups in the two-week program and one group in the four-week high school credit program in the Korean Language Village,). In the Village, staff members are called either staff or counselors. Among the 75 learners, 31 learners participated in the four-week high school

credit program. Regarding the staff members of the Korean immersion camp, half of them are native speakers of Korean, and the non-native speakers on staff have strong enough skills in the target language to allow them to communicate exclusively in Korean during the camp period. Among the 27 staff members, 6 were high school credit program teachers; 5 were two-week program teachers; and 11 staff members were employed in special positions. These special positions included kitchen staff, nurse, dean, program facilitators, and business manager, as well as those who had skills and knowledge in the target culture, such as music, art, dance, sports, and drama.

In the Korean Language Village, only camp participants are called villagers and two types of villagers live together during the camp period: the two-week program participants and the four-week high school credit program participants. The two-week programs are offered for all age groups, and language learning within these programs focuses on conversation with little written work. The four-week high school credit programs are intensive, fully accredited high school credit programs offered only to high school age participants. Upon successful completion of the program, World Language Villages recommends the granting of credit for one year of high school foreign language. The focal participants of the present study are *credit villagers*, participating in the four-week high school credit program (five high school students).

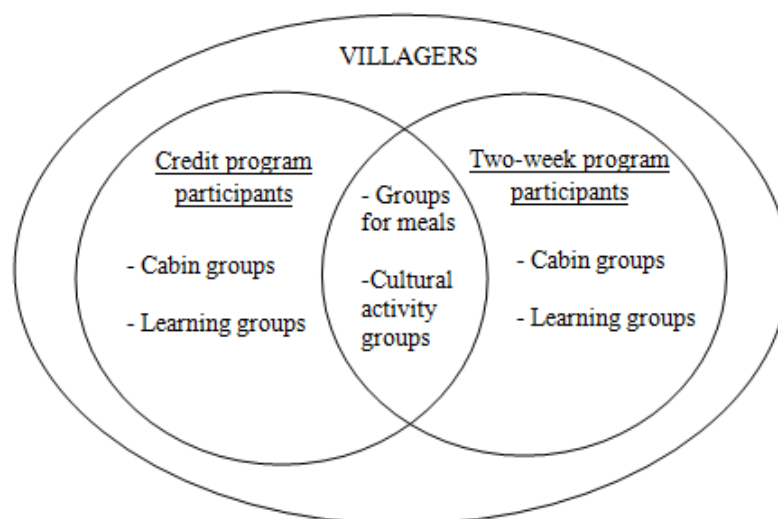
In the Village, the fundamental social unit for various daily programs is the group (i.e. small learning groups, culture activity groups, cabin groups, and family groups for meals), and a credit villager may belong to multiple groups during the camp period. The small learning groups to which credit villagers belong depends on one's level of Korean. Each learning group has 5-7 learners and has three meetings a day with a credit teacher.

Each learning group makes its own group name and cheering chants to represent it. For example, the name of the focal learning group is the *Super Heroes*, and was inspired by a cartoon animation based on super hero turtle characters.

In addition to these learning groups, credit villagers choose one activity among six culture activities in which to participate: *Buchaechum* (fan dance), *Taekwondo* (martial arts), *Kwungdo* (archery), *Samulnori* (percussion quartet), *Tocaki* (pottery), or *Gayageum* (traditional 12-stringed zither). These culture activity groups include the credit villagers and two-week villagers, and they work together to complete one performance piece for fan dance, a percussion quartet performance, a traditional zither concerto, or a martial arts demonstration.

Another important group in the Village is cabin groups. In each residential cabin, 5 to 8 credit villagers live together with cabin counselors. The cabin groups have important duties in the Village, which are wake-up duty, table set-up, and meal presentation. These duties rotate among the six villagers' cabins (*Wulsan, Gaeseong, Daegu, Busan, Gwangju* and *Daejeon*).

Lastly, for every mealtime, groups of villagers called *kacok* ('family') have meals together. One *kacok* ('family') group has 8 to 10 people: 2-3 staff members, 2-3 credit villagers, and 2-3 two-week villagers. The *kacok* ('family') groups rotate in a weekly basis. After having meals for one week, the villagers meet new family members. Among four groups, learning groups for language instruction and culture activity groups are seen more important than cabin groups and *kacok* ('family') groups. Figure 4-2 illustrates how a credit villager of the Korean Language Village belongs to multiple groups during the camp period.



Learning groups:	Learning the language together during the learning group sessions
Cabin groups:	Wake-up duty; table set-up; meal presentations
Groups for meal (Family):	Having meals together
Cultural activity groups:	<i>Buchaechum</i> (fan dance), <i>Taekwondo</i> (martial arts), <i>Kwungdo</i> (archery), <i>Samulnori</i> (percussion quartet), <i>Tocaki</i> (pottery), and <i>Gayageum</i> (traditional 12-stringed zither)

Figure 4-2: Groups in the Korean Language Village

4.3 Linguistic Resources in the Korean Language Village

The official language of the Korean Language Village is Korean, and the staff members are required to speak to all villagers in Korean except for two occasions: grammar instruction during learning group sessions and emergency situations.

Consequently, the villagers are constantly exposed to the target language by participating

in daily programs and having conversation with the staff members. In terms of the linguistic landscape in the Village, Korean is dominantly used through such means as signage with the names of places in Korean hung on the wall on blue banners and written on every guidepost.

The use of the target language is a crucial part of the experience of a member of the Korean Language Village, but this rule cannot be strictly applied to the villagers due to their limited L2 skills. It is commonly observed that the villagers converse with each other in English. The villagers often speak to the staff members in English, but the staff members respond to the villagers in Korean. The Korean Language Village provides the villagers with daily practices that promote the use of the target language. One of the daily practices is called *Sejong DaeWang* ('King Sejong') named after the king who sponsored the invention of the Korean alphabet in the 15th century. This is a voluntary activity in which the villagers decide to speak only Korean during the day (from breakfast to dinner). The villagers who participate in this activity wear other nametag necklaces indicating that they are participating in the *Sejong DaeWang* ('King Sejong') activity. The villagers who participated *Sejong DaeWang* ('King Sejong') activity ten times are rewarded with village souvenir items. Another daily routine promoting the villagers' use of Korean is called *Amhaengesa*¹⁰ ('Undercover Agents') of the Korean Language Village. During the day, two staff members who serve as *Amhaengesa* find one credit villager and one two-week villager who make the best effort to use Korean, and the two villagers receive a medal as a reward. The villagers felt proud of winning the medal and most of the

¹⁰ 암행어사 *Amhaengesa* is the name for the royal secret inspector who worked as an undercover agent during the Joseon Dynasty (1392-1910). The main duties of *Amhaengesa* were to protect people from corrupt officials.

villagers who won the medal wore it with their nametag necklaces in the Village. In addition to these strategic daily practices promoting the villagers' use of Korean, the village songs and chants serve an important function for the villagers to participate in social events. During the camp period, the villagers learn various songs of the Korean Language Village, and the villagers sing the songs every day. Some songs are tied to specific events. For instance, the villagers sing certain songs when waiting for meals, looking for owners of lost items, appreciating people, and so on. Excerpt 4-1 provides examples of the songs for social events.

Excerpt 4-1: Songs for social events


	Social events	Songs
	Waiting for meals	<p>pap cweyo pap ancweyo pap cweyo pap ancweyo ye ye ye 'Give me rice. Why don't you give me rice? Ye ye ye!' chanppto cohayo tewun papun tewuk coha 'I like cold rice. But I like hot rice more.'</p>
	Looking for owners of lost items and owner's response	<p>nwuka ilhepelyessna i mwulken (sing three times) 'Who lost this?' ppalli nawara 'Come out now.'</p> <p>nayka ilhepelyessta eccellay (sing three times) 'I lost it, so what?' ppalli cwuseyyo 'Give it to me now.'</p>

In the above excerpt, the first song is sung by the villagers while waiting for meals in front of the dining hall. The song is about asking for food and is only used when the villagers are waiting for meals. The second song is used when the villagers look for the owners of lost items in the Village. During the announcement sessions, a villager who has found a lost item raises his/her hand. When he/she is designated to speak, he/she

starts singing the song and other villagers also sing the song together. The song is about looking for the owner of the lost item, and the villagers continue singing the song until the owner comes out. Once the owner comes out, all the villagers sing the response and the villager who has the lost item starts running away from the owner, and the owner chases the villager to have the item back. When the owner catches the villager and has the lost item back, all villagers stop singing the song and the event is finished. These recurring events are ritualized with the use of the songs. As a member of this community, the villagers are expected to know the songs and understand the relevant norms of the village songs. Most importantly, the villagers are able to participate in the recurring events through the songs despite their limited L2 skills.

In addition to the village songs, the villagers make chants for their various groups. When the groups make presentations to the Village, they always begin the presentations with their own group chants. The key function of the group chants is to let the Village know who they are when presenting their projects. These chants are created by the group members on the first day they meet, and each chant is presented to the Village on either the first day or second day of the camp. Even though the length of the chants is varied, the chants are simply structured with rhythms for ease of repeating them in unison. Excerpt 4-2 shows examples of the chants of two sub-groups.

Excerpt 4-2: Group chants

	Cabin group	<u>gaesong</u> issnun <u>Gaesong</u> woo hoo ‘Gaesong (cabin) with unique personality, woo hoo!’
	Group for meals (Family)	<p style="text-align: center;">{making a ‘V’ sign upside down with the index and middle fingers}</p> wulinun yissi {ey} ‘We are the Yi’s. Ey!’
		<i>Note:</i> The hand gesture of ‘Ey’ 

The first chant was made by the *Gaesong* cabin group. In this group chant, the word *Gaesong* is used twice (see underlined words in the excerpt). The one with the uppercase letter ‘G’ is the name of city and the other one is a homonym meaning ‘unique personality.’ Similarly, the second chant consists of homonyms, and was made by the *Yi* family group who had meals together. The chant is simply structured (‘We are the Yi’s. Ey!’) with homonymous words (i.e., *Yi* as family name and *yi* as ‘two’). In this group chant, the villagers use the gesture with two fingers indicating the number *yi* (‘two’) after saying they are *Yi* family. By repeatedly using the group chants, the villagers have opportunities to learn new vocabulary and expressions.

There is one song and one chant which represent the entire Korean Language Village. These are used to construct all camp participants’ identity as Villagers of the Korean Language Village. During the four-week period, there are several occasions to meet other villagers from various language villages located near the site of the Korean Language Village. The neighboring villages are the German Language Village and the

Swedish Language Village, and the village events in which the neighboring villages participate are the Water Festival” and dance party, among others. In these social meetings with other language villagers, various games are involved and the learners display a strong identity as Korean Language Villagers through their song and chant. Excerpt 4-3 shows the song and the chant of the Korean Language Village.

Excerpt 4-3: The song and the chant of the Korean Language Village

	Korean Language Village song	name of the village alumtaweyo ‘The Korean Language Village is beautiful.’ ce melli poinun hoswululpwayo ‘Look at the lake far away’ maumul yelkose tallyekapwayo ‘Have an open mind and let’s run’ meali solika tullyeonun kyekok sokuy hulunun mwul chaca ‘Looking for the stream in the valley where you can hear echoes’ name of the village ttenayo ‘Let’s go to the Korean Language Village’
	Korean Language Village chant	name of the village name of the village ‘Korean Language Village. Korean Language Village’ ka na ta la ma pa sa a ca cha kha tha pha ha ((saying Korean alphabet)) namcatula ilena yecatula ilena ‘Boys, stand up! Girls, stand up!’ ((repeat the whole chant several times))

In the excerpt, the messages of the song and the chant contain unique qualities of the Korean Language Village. The song has an inviting message about the Korean Language Village by singing about beautiful environment of the Village. In the chant, the main part is the Korean alphabet, thus representing a unique feature of the Korean Language Village. Whereas the song is frequently sung by the villagers in the Korean

Language Village, the chant is used more in situations where the villagers show off their identity as Korean Language Villagers to other language villagers at social gatherings with other neighboring Language Villages (e.g., German Language Village, French Language Village, Swedish Language Village).

4.4 Credit Villager's Typical Day in the Korean Language Village

During the four-week period, the high school credit program is designed to offer at least 180 hours of instruction in the target language and culture. The coursework and grades are typically based on instruction and practice in listening, speaking, reading and writing in learning groups sessions; as well as on participation in culture activities (sports, arts, music, dance, etc.), club activities (skits, event organization, etc.), projects, community building activities, and formal and informal conversations with native and expert speakers of the target language. These various cultural and instructional activities are designed for the villagers' everyday life. The credit villagers' typical daily schedule is as follows:

Table 4-2: Typical daily schedule of high school credit program

Time	Programs	Descriptions
8:10	아침체조 <i>achimcheyco</i>	Morning exercises
8:30	아침식사 <i>achimsiksa</i>	Breakfast
9:20	큰마당 <i>khunmatang</i>	Village meeting
9:50	작은교실 1 <i>cakunkyosil 1</i>	First learning group
10:40	쉬는시간 <i>swinunsikan</i>	Break
10:50	작은교실 2 <i>cakunkyosil 2</i>	Second learning group
11:40	자유시간 <i>caywusikan</i>	Free time (Bank and store open)
12:00	점심식사 <i>cemsimsiksa</i>	Lunch
13:20	한국방송시청 <i>hankwukpangsong sicheng</i>	Watching Korean TV
14:00	캐빈청소 <i>cabin chengso</i>	Cabin cleaning
14:20	낮잠시간 <i>naccamsikan</i>	Nap time
15:30	놀이마당 <i>nolimatang</i>	Culture activity period
16:20	자유시간 <i>caywusikan</i>	Free time (Snack stand, coffee shop, computer lab, and waterfront open)
17:30	작은교실 3 <i>cakunkyosil 3</i>	Third learning group
18:30	저녁식사 <i>cenyeksisxa</i>	Evening meal
20:20	자율학습/마당놀이 <i>caywulhaksup/matangnoli</i>	Self-study period or Evening program
21:50	우리집모임 <i>wulicip moim</i>	Cabin time
22:30	잘자요 <i>calcayo</i>	Good night

As shown in Table 4-2, the credit villagers typically wake up around 7:30 a.m. and are immersed in a variety of language and cultural activities until they go to bed around 10:30 p.m. Every morning, the credit villagers gather around a large yard behind the *Seoul* cabin and participate in morning exercises with Korean songs. After the morning exercises, the villagers go to the dining hall for breakfast. At mealtimes, the villagers gather in front of the dining hall, and they sing songs while waiting for the kitchen to be ready. In order to enter the dining hall, the villagers line up as *kacok* (family) groups, and the villagers must answer questions, such as Korean color terms or numbers,

asked by two staff members as they are entering the dining hall. In the dining hall, the villagers sit at assigned tables and watch meal presentations prepared by one of the cabin groups. The meal presentation is a short skit to present the ethnic Korean food which will be served to the villagers. The presenters are required to say the name of each Korean dish to the villagers during the presentations, and the villagers are expected to repeat the names. After the meal presentation, the dean announces who can get the food for the family from the food tray trolley, and the designated members of the family groups come out to get the food. For example, the dean announces: *hayansayk os ipun salam naoseyyo* (“Anybody wearing white clothes, come out (and get the food)”), and the family groups figure out who they should send for food. After the meal, the *kacok* (family) groups clean up their own tables, and the Village has an announcement session in the dining hall.

Table 4-3 demonstrates the sequential order of activities during meal time in the Korean Language Village.

Table 4-3: Mealtime routine in the Korean Language Village

Waiting time:	Singing songs in front of the dining hall
Entering the dining hall:	Lining up as a <i>kacok</i> (family) group Answering questions to get into the dining hall
Before meal:	Sitting at the assigned table Meal presentation prepared by a cabin group on duty Getting food from the tray trolley
Meal:	Having meal with <i>kacok</i> (family) group
After meal:	Cleaning up the table Making announcements

After breakfast, all the villagers gather again at the backyard of *Seoul* cabin for the Village meeting. In this meeting, the villagers learn new songs and dances, and watch a play based on a well-known Korean folktale, *Hungbuwa Nolbu* ('*Hungbu* and *Nolbu*, A Tale of Two Brothers'). This play is organized into 10 episodes: one episode is performed each day for 5-10 minutes over the course of two weeks. For the first two weeks, the play is performed by staff members, and then the same play is performed again by skit groups organized by the credit villagers for the second two weeks. After the Village meeting, the credit villagers have two sessions of learning group and a 10-minute break between the two sessions. Then, the credit villagers have their first free time period of the day. During this time, the Village bank and the Village store are open for the villagers. After free time, the credit villagers have lunch and the same routines depicted in Table 4-3 are performed during lunch.

After lunch, the villagers watch Korean TV with English subtitles for thirty minutes at the dining hall. The Korean TV drama that Villagers watched during the four weeks of the study was *Full House*, which aired in 2004 in Korea. During this time, two staff members supervise the villagers while the rest of the staff members hold a regular staff meeting. After watching TV, the villagers and cabin counselors go back to their own cabins to clean. This includes vacuuming, throwing away trash, and organizing their own clothes. After cabin cleaning is done, the Villagers have some quiet time to take a nap or do personal work such as writing a diary, writing letters, knitting, and so on. After the nap time, the credit villagers have a culture activity period for 50 minutes, and they learn one of the six culture activities (i.e., *Buchaechum* (fan dance), *Taekwondo* (martial arts), *Kwungdo* (archery), *Samulnori* (percussion quartet), *Tocaki* (pottery), or *Gayageum*

(traditional 12-stringed zither)). This is followed by another period of free time, which lasts 70 minutes. During this time, the coffee shop, snack stand, and computer lab are open. This is followed by a third learning group session, and then dinner with the same routines.

After the evening meal, the credit villagers have a self-study period in the dining hall or the *Seoul* cabin. Sometimes, self-study periods are replaced by evening programs such as talent shows, an environmental activity, or documentary sessions planned for all villagers. During the four-week period, the credit villagers participate in eight evening programs: cabin night, “fabulous” night (the Village welcome party), an environmental activity, two Village talent shows, two documentary sessions, and a credit project night. After self-study periods or evening programs, the villagers go back to their own cabins. If a cabin group needs a meeting for their group, the group has cabin time (*wulicip moim*, literal translation: “our house meeting”). After the meeting, the villagers get ready for sleep and go to bed at ten thirty.

As described, the credit villagers have a routine schedule during the weekdays. During the weekends, however, the Village prepares a more relaxed schedule, which allows the villagers to have more free time, as well as cultural activities and special programs, such as cooking demonstrations, a “Water Festival,” Korean movies, and visiting other language villages, among others. In particular, the weekend of August 2nd through August 4th is called the ‘credit weekend.’ During the credit weekend, the credit villagers have a more relaxed schedule with a trip to a laundromat and a store. In the third week, all villagers have one day off from regular programs in order to participate in ‘International Day’ which is held at one of the villages that make up World Language

Villages. According to the official website of World Language Villages, the main purpose of International Day is to create a festival that (1) celebrates in meaningful and fun ways the languages and cultures represented by the Villages; (2) promotes respect and tolerance of all who are members of the Village communities; (3) builds on the friendships that have been created among and between the Village programs; and (4) provides an opportunity for villagers, staff, parents, and guests to be connected to the overall mission of the Villages. With these purposes, various programs are offered, such as an international food market and bazaar, parades, village soccer matches, and so forth.

During the four weeks of this study, International Day was held at the German Language Village. According to the website of the World Language Villages, approximately 2000 villagers, staff, parents, and guests from the thirteen language Villages (i.e., Arabic, Chinese, Danish, two French villages, German, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Norwegian, Portugese, Spanish, and Swedish) participated in this celebration. Each language village prepares dances, costumes, and a special performance for this festival. Table 4-4 shows the major events in which the credit villagers participate during the four-week period.

Table 4-4: Major events of the high school credit program (four-week period)

SUN	MON	TUE	WED	THUR	FRI	SAT
	7/21 Opening day Placement test	7/22 Dean's orientation <u>Cabin Night</u>	7/23	7/24	7/25 <u>Fabulous Night:</u> Welcome party	7/26 Water Festival Movie: <i>Forever the moment</i>
7/27 Cooking activity (making dumplings) Movie: <i>Le Grand Chef</i>	7/28 Quiz 1	7/29	7/30 <u>Environmental activity:</u> Prohibition of agricultural pesticides use	7/31 Water Festival at German Village <u>Talent Show</u>	8/1 Midterm Exam	8/2 Closing day (two-wk program 1 st group) Visitors from Swedish Village Dance party at Swedish Village
8/3	8/4 Opening day (two-wk program 2 nd group) Credit break Movie: <i>Like a virgin</i>	8/5	8/6	8/7 Quiz 2 <u>Documentary:</u> <i>Koryo saram:</i> Historical documentary	8/8 International Day at German Village Campfire	8/9 Movie: <i>My father</i>
8/10 Dean's lecture on Korean language Movie: <i>My sassy girl</i>	8/11 <u>Documentary:</u> Body image	2 8/1	8/13 Final Exam	8/14 <u>Credit Project Night</u>	8/15 <u>Talent show</u>	8/16 Closing day

Notes: Names of programs are translated into English. English titles are used for movie titles Underlined events are evening programs.

4.5 Summary

This chapter is concerned with ethnographic description of the research setting: the Korean Language Village and the learning group sessions. In the first part, four features of the unique Korean community were discussed: the physical setting of the Korean language village, the groups to which the villagers belong, the linguistic resources providing opportunities to use the target language, and the villagers' typical daily schedule in the Village. These four features of the Korean Language Village represent this learner-oriented community.

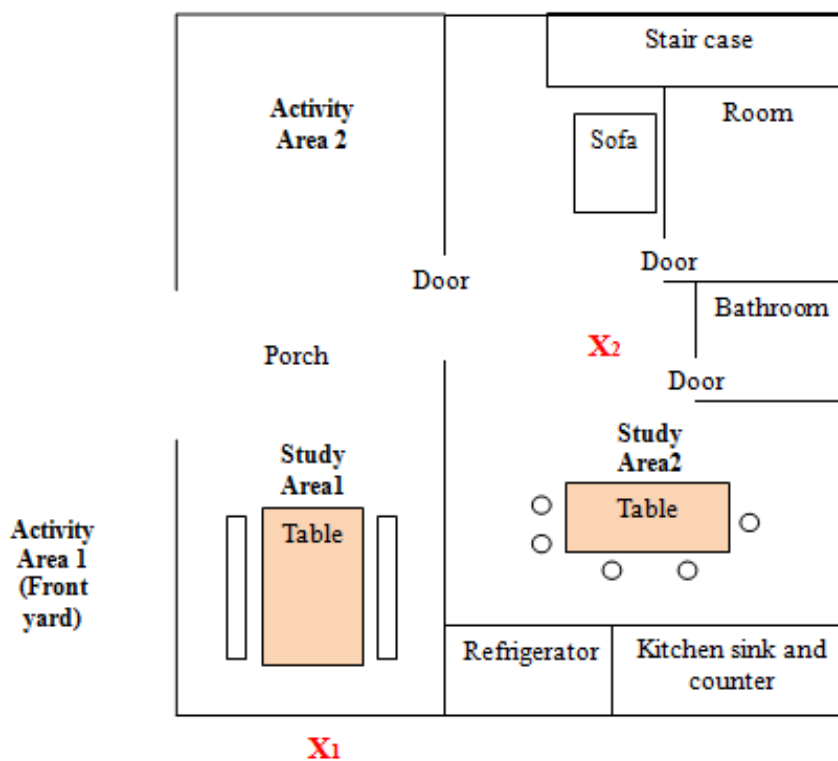
Chapter 5

Learning Group Sessions

This chapter provides an ethnographic description of the learning group sessions. The credit villagers met as a group three times a day for instruction in the target language. First, the learning space of the focal group will be presented with pictures. Next, the projects and activities in which the learners participated during the four-week period are described in detail. Finally, how the grammatical structures are taught through the approach of project-based learning is presented.

5.1 Gaesong Cabin: a study space for the low-intermediate level group

The focal learning group, the *Super Heroes*, has a regular meeting place for the learning group session: *Gaesong* cabin. Two places in the cabin are mainly used for studying: one is a table in the porch area and the other is a table in the kitchen of the cabin. Except for two occasions of cooler weather, the low-intermediate group studied outside on the porch. In addition to the study areas, there are two activity areas: one is on the other side of the porch and the other is a small yard in front of the cabin. Figure 5-1 shows the layout of *Gaeseong* cabin.



Study Area 1
(Porch, X1)



The major study area during the learning group sessions. The teacher is standing in front of the whiteboard, and students sit around the table. In this picture, the class is involved in learning new grammar.

Study Area 2
(Cabin, X2)



When the weather did not permit the outside location, the class moved to the inside of the cabin. During the four-week period, there were two times instruction took place in this location.



<p>Activity Area 1 (Front yard, X1)</p>		<p>This area was used for more action-related sessions, such as skit preparation. In this picture, the learners and the teacher gathered around to discuss a skit for a café duty advertisement.</p>
<p>Activity Area 2 (Porch, X1)</p>		<p>This area was used only when the class needed more space for arts and craft activities. A learner is standing on the other side of porch and looking down at her drawing of a big tree while the other learners and the teacher were sitting around the table to make small objects.</p>

Figure 5-1: Physical setting of *Gaeseong* cabin (X1 and X2= Camera locations)

As shown in the above pictures, during the learning group sessions, the teacher and the villagers sat around the table, and the teacher often used a whiteboard, which was placed on a chair. Activity area 1 was used when preparing for skits, and activity area 2 was mainly used when engaging in arts and craft sessions. Depending on the type of class project, the class moved to the dining hall for more space and to the computer lab for individual computer access. As shown above (Figure 4-3), the seating arrangement was casual and made it easy for the participants to interact with each other. The learners called the teacher *enni* or *nwuna* which means ‘older sister’ in Korean. During the learning group sessions, the learners felt comfortable asking questions or initiating a topic without raising their hands or asking permission to speak.

5.2 Projects and Activities in the Learning Group Sessions

During the four-week period, the learning group engaged in various activities and projects. Among these activities and projects, there were two categories: GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION and GROUP PROJECTS. Through GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION, the learning group was introduced to new grammatical structures (12 grammatical structures in total), and two types of grammar instruction were observed: form-focused grammar learning and project-based grammar learning. In form-focused grammar learning, the learners were engaged in activities focusing solely on forms such as drills for conjugation. In project-based grammar learning, the learners developed a project while learning the target grammatical structures. Unlike GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION, GROUP PROJECTS were independently organized with no relation to the teaching of a certain grammatical form. For example, the group made a skit about *phatpingswu* ('red bean sherbet') to advertise their involvement in making the Korean dessert during the free time period. Table 5-1 presents the defining features of three categories of activities in the learning group sessions

Table 5-1: GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION and GROUP PROJECTS in the learning group sessions

		Definitions
GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION	Form-focused	Teacher's explanation of rules and form-focused drills
	Project-based	Form-focused activities are extended to a project involving communicative activities
GROUP PROJECTS		Group projects with no direct association to grammatical forms

5.2.1 GROUP PROJECTS in the learning group sessions

During the four-week camp period, the focal group was involved in five projects: making an advertising skit for *phathpingswu* ('red bean sherbet'), performing a song and dance at the Village talent show, performing the play *Hungbuwa Nolbu* ('Hungbu and Nolbu, A Tale of Two Brothers'), making a decorative object for the dining hall, and a final group project. Among these, four projects were associated with Village events such as the Village talent show or café duty. The focal group voluntarily decided to develop these projects, and they presented their projects to the Village in the end when the projects were completed. With these projects, the focal group served the community by providing entertainment and decorative objects. While participating in the projects, the learners used the target language along with English to complete the projects. Due to the learners' proficiency level, English was mostly used when negotiating ideas for the projects, and Korean was used for simple questions and responses, such as *kawui cwuseyyo* ('Please give me scissors.'). During the projects, the teacher always suggested ideas and responded to the learners in Korean. It was often observed that the teacher guided the learners on how to say something or what to say in Korean. Table 5-2

demonstrates each project with detailed descriptions. In the table, the village events connected to GROUP PROJECTS are highlighted.

Table 5-2: Descriptions of GROUP PROJECTS

	Projects	Descriptions	Associated Village events/ Involved activities
	Advertising <i>phathpingswu</i> ('red bean sherbet')	The group prepared a skit and performed it after lunch.	Café duty/ - Skit preparation
	Participating in the Village talent show	The group prepared a Korean song and dance performance about a journey of raindrops.	Village talent show/ - Skit preparation - Arts and crafts for props
	Performing the play, <i>Hungbuwa Nolbu</i> ('Hungbu and Nolbu, A Tale of Two Brothers')	The group voluntarily participated in the Village skit team and performed five episodes of the play.	Village meeting/ - Skit preparation
	Making a decorative object for the dining hall	The group made a big tree drawing with pictures of credit villagers and their learning groups, called <i>credit namwu</i> ('credit tree').	- Arts and crafts
	Final project: making a music video about <i>boricha</i> ('barley tea')	The group wrote lyrics in Korean to an English song and made a music video. The music video was presented to the Village.	Credit project night/ - Make lyrics for the song - Shoot scenes for the music video

5.2.2 GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION in the learning group sessions

During the four-week period, the focal group learned 12 new grammar forms (See Table 5-3 below). Without using any textbooks, the grammatical forms were selected by the teacher based on the camp guidelines for language teachers. Also, it was often observed that the teacher chose the grammatical forms from actual announcements in the

Village and used the announcements as teaching material. In order to participate in everyday activities, the villagers were expected to understand all the announcements made in the Village. Because of the communicative needs associated with the grammar selections, the target forms were not only used in the learning group sessions, but the learners were also able to use them and, in fact, needed to use them for social interactions with other people in the camp. Thus, the grammar selections that the learners were taught were primarily focused on the communicative needs in the Village, and the grammar forms reflect the learners' life in the camp.

Table 5-3: Detailed information of each grammar rule

	Grammar rules	Function or Meaning	Examples
1	VS + <i>e/a to toayyo</i>	asking for permission	<i>ka-to toay-yo</i> go- may -POL 'May I go'
2	VS+ <i>ko</i>	and (combining two sentences)	<i>pap-ul mek-ko ka-yo</i> Meal-OM Eat-and go-POL 'I eat and go (somewhere)'
3	VS + <i>e/a hayya toayyo</i>	must / should	<i>ce-nun ka-ya toay-yo</i> I-TM go-must-POL 'I must go'
4	VS + <i>umyen antoayo</i>	must not / should not	<i>ce-nun ka-myen an-toay-yo</i> I-TM go-if not-okay-POL 'It won't be okay if I go (LT)' 'I shouldn't go'
5	VS + <i>(n)un/nun</i>	noun modifier	<i>ka-nun salam</i> go-NM person 'The person who is going'
6	VS + <i>ki</i>	Gerund	<i>ka-ki-ka elyewe-yo</i> go-Ger-SM difficult-POL 'going is difficult (LT)' 'It's difficult to go'
7	<i>waynyahamyen / VS-ki ttaymwun</i>	Because	<i>waynyahamyen na-nun ka-yo</i> because I-TM go-POL 'because I go' <i>ka-ki ttaymwuney pappa-yo</i> go-Ger because busy-POL 'Because I go, I'm busy'
8	VS + <i>ki cen-ey</i>	before S+V	<i>ka-ki cen-ey pappa-yo</i> go-Ger before busy-POL 'Before I go, I'm busy'
9	VS + <i>(n)un taum-ey</i>	after S+V	<i>ka-n taum-ey pappa-yo</i> go-after busy-POL 'After I go, I'm busy'
10	VS + <i>(u)l ttay</i>	when S+V	<i>ka-l-ttay pappa-yo</i> go-when busy-POL 'When I go, I'm busy'
11	VS + <i>e/a cwuseyyo</i>	polite request	<i>ka-cwusey-yo</i> go-please-POL 'Please go'
12	VS + <i>e/a poseyyo</i>	making suggestion	<i>siktang-ey ka-posey-yo</i> restaurant-PM go-try-POL 'Try going to the restaurant'

Notes. VS=Verb Stem; TM=Topic Marker; POL= polite speech level; LT=Literal translation; NM=Noun Modifier; Ger=Gerund; PM=Place Marker; S=Subject; V=Verb

5.2.2.1 Form-focused grammar learning

Among the 12 grammatical forms, the learners were taught eight grammatical forms with a form-focused approach. In form-focused grammar learning, the learners participated in six activities: the teacher's grammar explanation, conjugation practice with a list of verbs, a communicative activity, a form-focused writing activity, and a reading activity.

In the teacher's grammar explanation, the teacher introduced the target form and relevant rules for conjugation. The conjugation exercise was a drill focusing on form. For example, the teacher showed verbs in their dictionary form using verb cards, and the learners conjugated the verbs using the target grammatical structures. In the communicative activity, the teacher and the learners exchanged questions and answers, which reflected the traditional IRF sequence (i.e., teacher's initiation (I), the learners' response (R), and the teacher's follow-up on the response (F) (Cazden, 1988; Hall, 1998; Mehan, 1979; Nystrand, 1977; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Wells, 1993)). The teacher's initiating questions were characterized as known-answer questions in which "the teacher already knows the answer, and the main concern is to discover whether students can supply it" (Nasaji and Wells, 2000, p. 384). The learners responded to the teacher's questions with the target form. In the form-focused writing activity, the learners were asked to change the given sentences into the target form. Finally, in the reading activity,

the learners were given a short reading and were involved in the following tasks: reading aloud, underlining the target forms, and translating the sentences. Table 5-4 provides a list of eight grammatical constructions that were taught with a focus on form and activities involved in teaching each grammatical construction.

Table 5-4: Grammar constructions taught through a form-focused approach

	Grammar	Involved activities
1	VS + <i>e/a to toayyo</i> (asking for permission)	- Teacher's grammar explanation
2	VS + <i>ko</i> 'and'	- Teacher's grammar explanation - Conjugation exercise with a list of verbs - Communicative activity (a series of known-answer questions)
3	VS + <i>ki</i> (gerund)	- Teacher's grammar explanation - Conjugation exercise with a list of verbs - Communicative activity(a series of known-answer questions)
4	<i>waynyahamyen /</i> VS- <i>ki ttaymwun</i> 'Because'	- Teacher's grammar explanation - Communicative activities (a series of known-answer questions) - Form-focused writing activity
5	VS + <i>ki cen-ey</i> 'before S+V'	- Teacher's grammar explanation - Communicative activity (a series of known-answer questions)
6	VS + (<i>n</i>) <i>un taum-ey</i> 'after S+V'	- Teacher's grammar explanation
7	VS + (<i>u</i>) <i>l ttay</i> 'when S+V'	- Teacher's grammar explanation - Reading activities
8	VS+ <i>e/a cwuseyyo</i> (polite request)	- Teacher's grammar explanation - Communicative activity - Reading activity

5.2.2.2 Project-based grammar learning

The learners were taught four grammatical forms through a project-based approach. In project-based grammar learning, the learners engaged in various activities:

the teacher's grammar explanation, a meaning-focused writing activity, discussion of the projects, an arts and crafts activity, and skit preparation. As in the teacher's grammar explanation in the form-focused grammar learning, the learners were taught the target structures with relevant rules for conjugation. In the meaning-focused writing activity, the learners were asked to make meanings by using the target forms. The topics of the writing tasks were context relevant in that they were associated with camp life. For example, the teacher asked the learners to write about camp rules after learning the grammar, *-e/ayatwayyo* ('must'), and to describe staff members using the noun modifying form *-(u)n/-nun*. While the learners accomplished the given writing tasks, the teacher checked individual learners' use of the target grammar and often initiated correction sequences to encourage the learners' correct use of the target form.

In discussions on the projects, the main purpose of conversation between the teacher and the learners was to exchange ideas to develop projects. The projects were not pre-planned by the teacher before teaching a certain grammatical form. While exchanging ideas about possible projects that the group could develop with the use of the target grammatical forms, the projects were decided, including the work that the group should do for the completion of the projects. For example, after learning the grammatical structure of 'must / must not,' the learners were engaged in the writing activity to write about cabin rules. The teacher asked whether the learners wanted to make an information sheet about the cabin rules that could be hung in each residential cabin. Upon the learners' agreement on the project, the group discussed how to make the information sheet for the camp rules. Also, it was observed that while exchanging ideas for the projects, the learners used the target forms in discussions. During discussions, the teacher often guided

the learners to incorporate the forms into their speech. Table 5-5 illustrates how five grammatical forms were taught through the projects. In the table, the activities performed in the community level are highlighted.

Table5-5: Grammar constructions taught through projects

	Grammar	
1	VS + <i>e/a hayya toayyo</i> 'must / should'	<u>Project</u> : Making an info sheet of cabin rules - Teacher's grammar explanation
2	VS + <i>umyen antoayo</i> 'must not / should not'	- Meaning-focused writing activity: writing about cabin rules - Discussion about the project - Arts and crafts activity: making an info sheet of cabin rules for each residential cabin in the Village
3	VS + <i>(n)un/nun</i> (noun modifier)	<u>Project1</u> : Making a decorative object for the dining hall: staff introduction cards - Teacher's grammar explanation - Conjugation practice with a list of verbs and descriptive verbs - Meaning-focused writing activity: describing staff members - Discussion about the project - Arts and craft activity: making decorative cards, which were hung in the dining hall, for each staff member <u>Project 2</u> : Making a sign-up sheet for café duty - [Café duty for the Village] Making the Korean dessert, <i>phathpingswu</i> ('red-bean sherbet') - Discussion: the necessary roles for café duty - Arts and crafts: making a sign-up sheet for café duty
4	VS + <i>e/a poseyyo</i> (making suggestions)	<u>Project</u> : Making suggestions for the villagers' problems - Teacher's grammar explanation - Meaning-focused writing activity - Discussion: problems at camp - Arts and crafts: making a problem request box - Skit preparation: presenting the problem request box - [Presentation of the skit to the Village] If you have problems, ask <i>Super Heroes</i> - Discussion about the first request: 'I want to tell a girl that I like her.' - Skit preparation: presenting the suggestions for the request - [Presentation of the skit to the Village] - Discussion about the second request: 'The dining hall is too far.' - Skit preparation: Presenting the suggestion for the request - [Presentation of the skit to the Village]

As shown in Table 5-5, the projects re prepared in the group and presented to the community at the end. The projects extended from the learners' grammar learning, which included the teacher's explanation and the conjugation exercises. Unlike most projects, in the second project of the noun-modifying form (number 3 in Table 5-5), the learners' experience in the community-level activity (café duty: making *phathpingswu* ('red bean sherbet')) influenced the project. After the students learned the noun-modifying phrases through the teacher's explanation, that afternoon, the learners participated in a community-serving activity (i.e., making a Korean dessert (*phathpingswu*, or 'red bean sherbet')). Two days later, the learners narrated their experiences of making the red bean sherbet to their teachers. In so doing, they realized that they needed to specify the roles for each person involved in preparing it. With the teacher's assistance, the learners talked about the participant roles using the grammatical form of the noun modifying phrase. After all the roles were itemized, the learners went to the computer lab to make a sign-up sheet for the next groups who would participate in the activity. Figure 5-2 illustrates how the linguistic form of the noun modifying phrase was extended to the community level of activity.

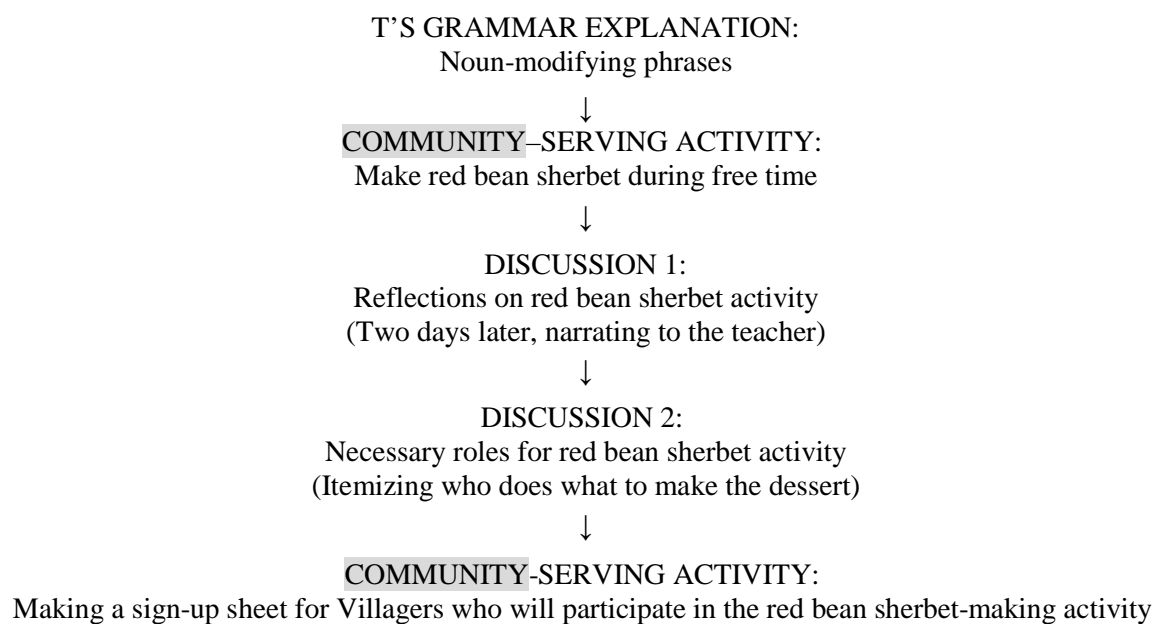


Figure 5-2: Activities related to the noun modifying phrase

As described in Figure 5-2, the learners were compelled to use the target form in two contexts: the learning group level and the community level. At the learning group level, the learners were more focused on linguistic forms and meaning making. At the community level, the learners were more focused on activities to serve the community (i.e., making the dessert and making the sign-up sheet). Also, it should be noted that grammatical constructions that were taught to the learners were closely related to the community.

5.3 Summary

This chapter describes the GROUP PROJECTS and GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION in the learning group sessions. The GROUP PROJECTS were organized without any particular grammar forms involved. In GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION, the learners participated in two different approaches to learning grammar: form-focused grammar learning and project-based grammar learning. In both approaches, the learners were engaged in various activities, but the characteristics of the activities in the two approaches were distinct. In form-focused grammar learning, the learners were engaged in drill practices, focusing on the correct conjugation of the target forms. By contrast, the learners developed the projects into which the target structures were incorporated in the project-based activities. The projects were extended to the community by presenting them to the Village.

Chapter 6

Learners' Engagement in Project-Based Grammar Learning

This chapter presents three speech events (or activities) in which the learners were engaged during project-based grammar learning: the teacher's grammar explanation, meaning-focused writing activities, and discussions about the projects. First, the sequence organization of interaction occurring in these three speech events will be presented. Then, the learners' different engagement in the three speech events will be presented with the data occurring in two project-based grammar learning sessions (noun-modifying form and suggestion form). Finally, the learners' changes in participation in three speech events will be discussed focusing on the learners' development in linguistic competence.

6.1 Sequence Organization of Interaction in Project-Based Grammar Learning

As described in Chapter 5, project-based grammar learning started with the teacher's explanation of the target grammar forms. In her explanation of grammar, four actions were included: (1) introduce the form, (2) explain rules, (3) comprehension check, and (4) form-focused activities. Whereas the first three actions were observed in the explanation of grammar, the last action was optionally chosen by the teacher.

After exposure to the explicit instruction on the target forms, the learners engaged in meaning-focused activities with writing activities focusing on creating meaning as well as the correct use of the forms in writing. The learners were given topics to write simple sentences using the target structures. During the writing activity, the teacher checked

each villager's writing and initiated correction sequences. The learners also initiated questions to the teacher concerning the forms and lexical items for their sentences. After the writing tasks were completed by the learners, the teacher often initiated large-group sharing to present the ideas from the writing tasks.

In their final activity, the learners engaged in discussions of the projects. The discussions typically began with the teacher's suggestions for projects that the learners could carry out with the use of the target forms. During the discussions, the teacher and the learners exchanged ideas for the projects. In this process, the learners needed to use the target forms for communication. In the discussions on the project, the triadic sequence of talk (Initiation-Response-Follow-up) was observed. Unlike traditional IRE (Initiation-Response-Evaluation) sequences, the third turn was not occupied by the teacher. Instead, the other learners provided feedback to each other to develop the projects. Figure 6-1 illustrates the typical sequence organization of the three speech events with two examples.

Typical sequence

- I. Explanation of grammar
 - A. Introducing the grammatical structures
 - B. Explaining rules for conjugation
 - C. Comprehension check (I-R-E sequence)
 - D. Form-focused activities*

- II. Meaning-focused writing activity*
 - A. Introducing topics to write about
 - B. Learners' engagement in writing activities
 - 1) Learners' questions (grammar and lexical items)
 - 2) Teacher's intervention to initiate correction sequences
 - C. Large group sharing to present ideas from the writing activities*

- III. Discussion about the project*
 - A. Suggesting a project idea to the learners
 - B. Initiating a discussion by eliciting pre-learned grammatical structures
 - C. IRF sequence (Teacher-Student-Teacher/Student)

* indicates optional actions

Example 1: Noun-modifying form

- I. Explanation of grammar
 - A. Introduce noun modifying form –
(u)n/nun
 - B. Explain rules for conjugation
 - C. Comprehension check
 - D. Form-focused activity: conjugate
verbs and descriptive verbs

- II. Meaning-focused writing activity
 - A. Direct students to describe staff
members using the grammatical form
 - B. Write all the names of staff members
on a board
 - C. Learners' engagement in the activity
 - 1) Learners' questions
 - 2) Teacher's intervention for
correction

- III. Discussion of the project
 - A. Initiate a topic regarding necessary
roles for a café activity
 - B. IRF sequence (T-S-T/S)
 - C. Suggest making a sign-up sheet

Example 2: Suggestion form

- I. Explanation of grammar
 - A. Introduce suggestion form, -e/a
poseyyo
 - B. Explain rules for conjugation
 - C. Comprehension check

- II. Meaning-focused writing activity
 - A. Give out a handout
 - B. Explain the handout: writing one or
two suggestions for given situations
 - C. Learners' engagement in the handout
 - 1) Learners' questions
 - 2) Teacher's intervention for
correction

- III. Discussion of the project
 - A. Suggest a project idea to the
learners
 - B. Initiate a topic concerning problems
at the Village
 - C. IRF sequence (T-S-T/S)

Figure 6-1: Typical sequence of project-focused grammar learning

6.2 Project-based Grammar Learning: Noun modifying Form

In learning the noun-modifying form, the distinction between each verb type is evident in the verb-ending morphology. That is, while the attributive marker $-(u)n$ is attached to the stems of descriptive verbs, the attributive marker $-nun$ is attached to the active verb stems for present tense reference. Table 6-1 provides an example of the noun modifying form and its morphology.

Table 6-1: Examples of the noun modifying form

	Dictionary forms	Noun modifying form
Descriptive verb (- <i>un/n</i> : consonant / vowel as ending syllable in stems)	<i>chincelha-ta</i> ('to be kind') stem-ending <i>cak-ta</i> ('small') stem-ending	<i>chincelha-n</i> <i>salam</i> ('a kind person') stem-NM person <i>cak-un</i> <i>salam</i> ('a small person') stem-NM person
Active verb (- <i>nun</i>) [present tense]	<i>nolayha-ta</i> ('to sing') stem-ending	<i>nolayha-nun</i> <i>salam</i> ('a person who sings') stem-NM person

6.2.1 Teacher's grammar explanation

During the teacher's explanation of the grammatical structure of the noun modifying form, the teacher explained the rules to the learners. Thus, the main purpose of the conversation was to teach the relevant rules, functions, and meanings of the target grammatical structures to the learners. There was no formal structure, such as raising

hands to be a designated speaker, in order to participate in interaction. The teacher mainly played the role of knowledge giver, and the learners participated in interaction by answering questions and asking questions. The teacher's questions were characterized as known-answer questions in which "the teacher already knows the answer, and the main concern is to discover whether students can supply it" (Nasaji & Wells, 2000, p. 384). The learners' responses were typically evaluated by the teacher. Excerpt 6-1 shows how the teacher and the learners participated in the interactive practice where the learners had little knowledge of the target grammatical structure.

Excerpt 6-1: Noun modifying form - Teacher's grammar explanation (July 26)

-
- 63 T: ike hapsita (0.4) wuli ecey khuta cakta cohta haysseyo (.) kulehci/
'Let's do this. Yesterday, we did big, little, good. Right?'
- 64 Nora: Ung
'Yeah'
- { writing on the board }
- 65 T: ikenun ta: { ilehkey ilehkey haysseyo } kuleh[ci?
'You can do ([make] the noun modifiers with descriptive verbs) this way, ok?'
- 66 Nate: [chakhan] salam
'Kind person'
- 67 T: ((writing on the board)) mweyeyo/ khuta hata (.) *difference* ka mweyeyo?
68 khuta cakta cohta hata mekta cata (.) *difference* ka mweyeyo (0.4) ttus/ (0.4)
69 kheyo cakayo cohayo (.) *versus* hayyo mekeyo cayo *difference*
'((writing on the board)) What are these? Big and to do what's the difference between the two words? Big, small, good, to do, to eat, to sleep, what's the difference? Meaning? Big, small, and good versus to do, to eat, and to sleep, any differences?'
- 70 Nate: **u::m**
- 71 T: ung/
'Yeah?'
- 72 Nora: [verbs
- 73 Nate: [verbs and adjectives
- 74 T: ung kulehci (.) *alasse/* ikenun khun cankun option i twukayeyeyo kulehci?
75 ike animyen ikeci (0.4) ney:? (.) ikenun aniyeyo (0.8) ikenun meknun canun
76 (.) ca: *alasseyo? vowel to consonant* to nun nun kulayse ikenun (.) *option* i
77 hana yeyo
'Yeah, right. Do you understand? You have to choose either one of these for 'big,' 'little.' Right? Either this or that. Yeah? But for 'to eat,' 'to sleep,' only one rule to apply. It doesn't matter whether (the final syllable of the stems) [it] is consonant or vowel. Just one rule.'
-

The conversation begins with the teacher's calling for the learners' attention in line 63, and she briefly reviews what the learners studied in the previous session by saying descriptive verbs, *khuta* ('big') and *cakta* ('small'). In line 65, by writing down the conjugation rule for descriptive verbs, the teacher continues the review on the noun modifying form. In the following line, Nate says *chakhan salam* ('kind person') with the correct use of the form. In lines 67 to 69, the teacher attempts to explain that two rules

are needed for the conjugation of verbs and descriptive verbs by writing a list of verbs and descriptive verbs on the board. Upon the teacher's question to find differences in the list of words, Nora and Nate provide the right answer to the teacher. In line 77, the teacher continues explaining rules of the noun-modifying form.

In this speech event, the participant roles of the teacher and the learners are distinct. The teacher was in the center of the interaction, and in this role, she provided important information to the learners. In this context, the learners' participation framework is limited to simple responses when they are asked to participate. This asymmetrical structure of participation reflects the learners' limited knowledge of the topic, which is grammatical knowledge of the noun modifying form. Another noticeable feature in this excerpt is the teacher's talk to assist the learners in understanding what she is explaining in Korean, such as using English words and avoiding the use of Korean metaterminology. The teacher uses concrete vocabulary examples (i.e., 'big,' 'little,' and 'to each,' 'to sleep') rather than Korean metaterminology (i.e., *hyengyongsa* 'descriptive verbs' and *tongsa* 'verbs') when explaining different rules to apply for noun modifying form. Also, the teacher uses English words strategically to help the learners in understanding the teacher's questions and the target grammar rules (i.e., difference, verb, and consonant)

6.2.2 Meaning-focused writing activity

After learning the grammatical structure through the teacher's explanation, the learners were engaged in the meaning-focused writing activity, which was to describe the

staff members using the target form. The purpose of this speech event was to provide the learner with opportunities to create meaning with the target structure. While engaging in the writing activity, the teacher and the learners exchanged questions and answers. The learners' initiations were to confirm with the teacher that their sentences were grammatically correct. The teacher's initiations were to correct the learners' mistakes on their sentences. While describing the staff members, the teacher provided the learners with assistance to accomplish the given task through recasts, repetitions, and metalinguistic feedback. Excerpt 6-2 shows how the learners are engaged in the writing task.

Excerpt 6-2: Noun-modifying form – Meaning-focused writing activity (July 26)

((Nate and Amy are working together to describe a staff member who teaches Korean traditional zither in the camp.))

- 191 Nate: chincel- chi:celhan
'Ki- ki:nd'
- 192 Amy: → * chince:l (.) hanun
'*Kind'
- 193 T: → ung hanun? (.) ((pointing at a vocabulary list)) ike ta *adjective* yeyo
'Uh kind? These are all adjectives.'
- 194 Nate: chin[celhan]
'Kind'
- 195 Amy: [this is for verb then
- 196 T: kulehci chincelhan
'Right, kind'
- 197 Amy: → gayageum hanun/
'Who plays Korean traditional zither
- 198 T: gayageumul hanun
'Who plays Korean traditional zither-OM'
- 199 Amy: gayageumul hanun
'Who plays Korean traditional zither-OM'
- 200 T: ((watching Amy writing)) slash¹¹ gayageumul hanun
'slash who plays Korean traditional zither'
- ((Nora and Kevin are working together to describe the dean of the Korean Language Village.))
- 201 Nora: → wait, *kaluchinun (.) kyoswunim/ ((looking at a note on grammar))
'Wait, the dean who teaches?'
- 202 T: ney (.) oh mwel? mwelul kaluchyeyo?
'Yes. Oh, what? What does he teach?'
- 203 Nora: u:h [hankwuk
'U:hKorea'
- 204 Kevin: [hankwukmal
'Korean language'
- 205 T: ung (.) hankwukmalul kaluchinun kyoswunim
'Yes, the dean who teaches Korean language'

* means grammatically incorrect sentence

The interaction begins with Nate producing a noun modifying form with the descriptive verb, *chincelha-n* 'kind'. In the following line, Amy also tries to make the same noun modifying form, but she constructs the descriptive verb with the incorrect attributive form. In line 193, the teacher repeats the incorrect part of Amy's utterance

¹¹ "slash" refers to the written symbol (/) used by Amy to produce two attributes of the person being described. One attribute is on each side of the slash mark.

using “try-marking” (Sacks and Schegloff, 1979), which is presenting “a reference form as a ‘try’ (typically, but not invariably, with an upward intonation contour) and leaving a brief pause afterwards, thereby inviting recipients to insert an assertion of their recognition of the referent during that pause” (Hayashi 2005, p. 446). The teacher also provides metalinguistic feedback to Amy. In line 195, Amy realizes that the attributive form that she used for the descriptive verb ‘to be kind’ should be used for active verb endings, and she produces the correct noun modifying form using the active verb, *gayageum hanun* (‘who plays the Korean traditional zither’). In line 201, Nora initiates a question to confirm that her sentence is correctly constructed. Even though her form is correct, the meaning is not clear without a proper direct object in the modifying phrase *kaluchinun kyoswunim*¹² (‘the dean who teaches’). In the following line, the teacher asks a subsequence question and in line 204, Kevin provides a candidate suggestion for the direct object missing from Nora’s original utterance in 201. In line 205, the teacher provides a recast by completing the grammatically correct noun modifying phrase including all components provided by the learners.

In this excerpt, it was shown that the learners create their own meaning. However, the learners’ utterances were evaluated first based on the correct/incorrect use of the target form before being accepted as valid utterances. In addition, the learners needed external sources of help, such as vocabulary list and a note on the grammatical construction, to make meaning.

¹² *kyoswunim* literally means ‘professor.’ However, in this camp, the only individual referred to with this title is the Dean.

6.2.3 Discussions of the project

The discussions of the project were typically initiated by the teacher after the learners have agreed to participate in the projects. The purpose of discussion was to develop ideas for the completion of the projects. In this speech event, thus, the learners' utterances were not simply limited to responses to the teacher's known-answer questions, which were evaluated by the teacher, who was focusing on forms. The meanings embedded in the learners' utterances were valued by the teacher and other learners with feedbacks including agreeing/disagreeing, praising on ideas, etc. In the beginning of the discussions, the learners often needed guidance, particularly for vocabulary searches and target form construction, to complete their sentences. In discussions, the learners were expected to actively participate to contribute their ideas to the projects. The teacher typically gave positive response on the learners' ideas, and the teacher served a role of facilitator of discussions. In contrast with the two previous speech events, the learners gradually received less assistance from the teacher to make meaning and became more independently involved in the discussions of the project. In the next two excerpts, the group discussed the roles necessary for the preparation of the red bean sherbet while reflecting on their activity of making red bean sherbet during free time. In exchanging ideas regarding these roles, the learners are guided to continue to use the noun modifying construction. This time, the learners received minimal assistance from the teacher to participate in interaction.

Excerpt 6-3: Noun modifying form– Discussion 1 (July 28/1st period)

((In discussing the red bean sherbet-making activity, the teacher prompts the learners to think about the roles needed to complete the activity, using the noun modifying construction.))

- 93 T: *A person who receives a money* kulehci
'A person who receives a money right'¹³
- 94 Steve: ney
'Yes'
- 95 T: ethehkey yaykihay (.) tonu:l (.) *receive*
'How can you say? A person receive'
- 96 Steve: → pa:- [pa- patnun/
'Re:- re- who receives?'
- 97 Nora: [patta
'To receive'
- 98 T: kulehci
'Right'
- 99 Steve: → patnun salam
'A person who receives'
- 100 T: xxxx tonul patnun salam philyohayyo (.) kulehci/ tonul patnun salam phily
101 ohayyo
'xxxx we need a person who receives money. Right. We need a person who receives money'
- 102 Steve: wuywulul
'Milk-OM'
- 103 T: wuywulu:l/
'Milk-OM'
- 104 Steve: → nehun
'Who adds'
- 105 T: kulehci wuywulul nehun salami philyohayyo (.) kulehci kuliko tto
'Right, we need a person who adds milk. Right. And what else?'
- 106 Kevin: → kwail
'Fruit'
- 107 T: kwailu:l/
'Fruit-OM'
- 108 Kevin: kwailul(.) *wait*
'Fruit-OM (.) wait'
- 109 T: nehunto kwaynchanhko nehunto (.) e nehun salam kwailul nehun sala
110 m kwailul nehun salam philyohayyo
111 **'Add is fine. Add is fine. Yeah, a person who adds fruit. We need a person who adds fruit.'**
- 112 Kevin: *ok*

¹³ The researcher did not correct ungrammatical English utterances.

In line 93, the teacher initiates the sequence of listing the necessary roles by first using English. Without any attempts by the learners to construct the sentence in Korean, the teacher begins the phrase in Korean in line 95 *tonul* ('money-OM'), and then says the verb English ('receive'). With the teacher's assistance, in lines 96 and 99, Steve incrementally constructs the verb phrase with the proper form by first producing the verbal components in line 96 (*patnun*, 'who receives') and then the noun *salam* ('person') in line 99. Simultaneously, in line 97, Nora attempts to respond, but only provides the dictionary form of the verb 'to receive': *patta*. From lines 102 to 104, Steve suggests another role for the red bean sherbet activity: *wuywulul nehnun* ('who adds milk'). This time he needs no assistance from the teacher but his utterance cannot be considered complete without the head noun, *salam* ('person'). In line 104, the teacher provides the complete sentence with the head noun *salam* ('person'), including Steve's incrementally built construction using the noun modifying form. In contrast, Kevin's attempt to construct the noun modifying form with another ingredient, *kwail* ('fruit'), is not successfully executed (in lines 106 and 108). The teacher provides another recast by completing the sentence herself.

In contrast with Excerpt 6-2, where all learners rely on external sources of assistance (e.g., a vocabulary list and grammar notes), in this excerpt, only Steve demonstrates his ability to participate in the discussion without assistance. For the other two learners, the teacher provided recasts and repetitions to assist the learners in participating in the interaction with the proper form for successful communication. In the continuation of this discussion in the next excerpt, the teacher's input changes dramatically. That is, she provides only repetitions as response tokens, thereby

encouraging the students to construct the utterances on their own. All learners can now engage accurately in the discussion about the roles in the red bean sherbet making activity.

Excerpt 6-4: Noun modifying form– Discussion 2 (July 28/ 1st period)

- 111 T: tto
‘Anything else?’
- 112 Nora: Phath[u:l
‘Red bean-OM’
- 113 T: [ung[phathul
‘Yeah red bean-OM’
- 114 Nora: [nehnun salam
‘A person who adds’
- 115 T: nehnun salam philyohako
‘We need a person who adds’

((Lines delete 116-142: continue discussing the roles. The teacher provides correction on Nate’s mispronounced word in his utterance.))

- 143 Kevin: → kuliko phathpingswulul meknun salam
‘And a person who eats Red bean sherbet.’
- 144 T: a:h meknun salamto philyohaayyo
‘Oh we need a person who eats Red bean sherbet.’
- 145 Kevin: [cenun
‘I’
- 146 T: [ahumorisseyo. *Bonus point.* ((laughter))
‘Oh, it’s humorous. Bonus point. ((laughter))’
- 147 Kevin: ((laughter))
-

In line 111, the teacher asks the learners a follow-up question regarding the roles in the red bean sherbet making activity. In the following lines (line 112 and 114), Nora responds with proper use of the form *phathul nehnun salam* (‘a person who adds red bean’). Upon Nora’s response, the teacher displays agreement in line 115. Once all the roles for making the red bean sherbet are exhausted with all of the ingredients having

been added, Kevin invents a final role in a jocular tone by saying ‘[we need the] person *who eats* the red bean sherbet’ (*phathpingswulul meknun salam*). In the following line, the teacher repeats Kevin’s utterance and in line 146, the teacher responds to Kevin’s joke with laughter and a positive assessment (Goodwin & Goodwin, 1992).

In this excerpt, the learners’ utterances were correctly conjugated without any assistance and they participate in the discussion. In particular, the joke that Kevin made is a good example of his competence at the syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic levels of the linguistic form. Compared to the learners’ previous utterances, the joke is different in terms of its function. The function of Kevin’s joke is to provide enjoyment to the listeners rather than discussing the roles for the red bean sherbet making activity. While exchanging ideas using the target grammatical structure, the learners built the context. Within the co-constructed context, the learners became interactionally competent to participate in interaction in a creative way.

6.3 Project-based Grammar Learning: The Suggestion Form

Before presenting how the learners developed knowledge on the suggestion form by engaging in three activities, a brief description of the Korean suggestion form is presented. In learning the suggestion form, the distinction between each verb type is important in the verb-ending morphology. That is, while the vowel *-a* is attached to the verb stems containing the vowel ‘*a*’ or ‘*o*’ in the last syllable, the vowel *-e* is attached to the verb stems containing other vowels than ‘*a*’ or ‘*o*’ in the last syllable. Table 6-2 provides an example of the suggestion form and its morphology.

Table 6-2: Examples of the suggestion form

	Dictionary forms	Suggestion form
Verb + <i>e/a poseyyo</i>	<i>mek-ta</i> ('to eat') stem-ending	<i>mek-e poseyyo</i> ('why don't you eat?') Stem-Suggestion
	<i>nol-ta</i> ('to play') stem-ending	<i>Nol-a poseyyo</i> ('why don't you play?') Stem-Suggestion
	<i>ca-ta</i> ('to sleep') stem-ending	<i>ca-(a) poseyyo</i> ('Why don't you sleep?') Stem-Suggestion

6.3.1 Teacher's grammar explanation

In the teacher's grammar explanation on the suggestion form, the teacher introduced and explained the target structure to the learners. After the explanation of the grammatical rule (explained in Table 6-2), the teacher initiated a series of questions to confirm the learners' understanding of the target grammar. In the comprehension-check sequence, two different types of the teacher's initiation were observed (i.e., known-answer questions and personal information questions.) First, the teacher asked known answer questions that elicit the learners' use of the target grammatical structures in their responses. The second type of question is personal information questions for which "the answer is known only to the person addressed" (Nassaji and Wells, 2000, pp. 384-385). For example, the teacher asked the learners about what they did during the free time and expected the learners use *-ki* (gerund form) in their responses. Excerpt 6-5 shows a sequence of comprehension checking. In this excerpt, the teacher's questions can be characterized as personal information questions. Instead of asking a direct questions, the

teacher played a person in need and asked learners make suggestions using the target grammatical form.

Excerpt 6-5: Suggestion form- Teacher's grammar explanation 2 (August 7 / 1st period)

-
- 189 T: ca (5.0) *villager* ka aphayo (1.2) aytula *villager* ka aphayo (0.2) animyen
 190 nayka aphayo naka ennika aphayo nwunaka aphayo (0.2) e Amy aphayo (1.0)
 {pointing at the clinic}
- 191 kulem cikumun cikumun a enni kanhoweney kayo (0.2) { kanhosiley } kayo
 {rubbing stomach} {pointing the direction of dining hall}
- 192 (0.2) {paekophayo enni} {siktangey} kayo *choppy* haysseyo haciman cikum
 {putting a hand on belly}
- 193 un ikello ha- ike paywu- ike paywumyen (0.4) e: {na apayo} kulem *Nora* ka
 194 *Amy* ka [ha:
'Okay, (let's say) a villager is sick. A villager is sick or I'm sick. Amy, I'm sick, you might say you go to see a nurse. I'm hungry, you say you go to the dining hall. You're saying like this with choppy sentences. Now you learn the suggestion form. (I say) I'm sick, then Nora or Amy can say
- 195 Nora: [siktangey kaposeyyo
'Why don't you go to the dining hall?'
- 196 T: enni ani aphayo aphayo
'No, sick. I'm sick.'
- 197 Nora: **Oh**
- 198 T: enni kanhosiley kaposeyyo (0.4) ney (0.4) *suggestion* iya *suggest* hanun keye
 199 yo *makingsuggestion* enni kanhosiley kayo- kaposeyyo *why don't you go* ney
 200 (0.2) *try going* tokanhosil (0.2) payka kopayo enni (1.0) ike aytula
 {eating gesture}
- 201 {enni paykophayo}
'Why don't you go to see a nurse? Ok? It's a suggestion. You suggest something. Making suggestion. Why don't you go? Why don't you go. Ok, try going to the clinic. What about this? I'm hungry'
- 202 Nora: papul
'Meal'
- 203 T: papul e
'Meal. Uh huh.'
- 204 Nora: meke[poseyyo
'Why don't you eat'
- 205 T: [mekeposeyyo
'Why don't you eat'
- 206 ((T is pointing Amy))
- 207 Amy: siktangey kaposeyyo
'Why don't you go to dining hall?'
- 208 T: ney kaposeyyo (0.4) alkeysseyo
'Yes. Why don't you go? Do you understand?'
-

In lines 193 and 194, the teacher provides a situation to elicit the use of the target form in the learners' answers. Instead of explaining the situations, the teacher plays the roles of a person who is sick or hungry with appropriate use of gestures. Upon the teacher's role-play of being a sick person, Nora makes a suggestion in line 195. However, Nora's response is considered incorrect despite the right use of the target structure because her response ('Why don't you go to the dining hall?') seems inappropriate for this situation. In lines 200 and 201, the teacher provides another situation ('I'm hungry') to the learners. In the following line, Nora suggests to have a meal and Amy suggests to go to the dining hall in line 207. The teacher gives a positive evaluation of their correct use of the form by saying 'yes.'

In this excerpt, the learners showed their ability to incorporate the target form into their utterances. However, the learners' participation is limited to answering the teacher's known-answer questions. As such, the learners are positioned as less competent members who are in need of guidance in participation.

6.3.2 Meaning-focused writing activity

In this meaning-focused writing activity, the learners were given a handout containing four problematic situations, and the learners were asked to make several suggestions. The problematic situations were as follows: (1) your girlfriend/boyfriend is mad at you, (2) your friend has a fever, (3) you don't have any money, and (4) your friend said he/she does not want to go to school. In the process of writing, the learners asked questions to the teacher in order to search for lexical items for their sentences. In

this process, the learners and the teacher did not simply exchange questions and answers, but they made conversation out of the lexical items. In Excerpt 6-6, Kevin asked the teacher two questions about lexical items when writing suggestions for ‘your girlfriend/boyfriend is mad.’

Excerpt 6-6: Suggestion form- meaning-focused writing activity (July 23 / 2nd period)

((The learners are working on problem solving situations and one issue involves making suggestions for what to do when a boy friend/girl friend is mad.))

- 228 Kevin: *apologize?*
 229 T: sakwahatasakwahata
‘To apologize, to apologize’
 230 Kevin: *oh*
 231 T: → sakwaapplehata
‘To apologize, apple-logize’
 232 All: ((laughter))
 233 Steve: → *to do an apple*
 234 All: ((laughter))
 235 T: *to do an apple kulayse salamtuli sakwahalttay ha:lttay (.) sakwa mianhay yo*
‘To do an apple. So, when people apologize, here is an apple, I’m sorry’
 236 Kevin: → *To break up?*
 237 T: *To break up heyecita*
‘To break up is heyecita’
 238 Kevin: °heyecita°
‘To break up’

((two lines interrupted by Steve’s question))

- 241 Kevin: → *heyecyeyo
‘break up’
 242 T: heyecye poseyyo
‘Why don’t you break up with (her)’

In order to complete the given task, Kevin asks the teacher how to say ‘to apologize’ in line 228. In the following turn, the teacher says the word *sakwa-hata* two

times, and in line 231, the teacher says it one more time, with the word ‘apple.’ It is not clear whether the teacher provides the word ‘apple’ to start a joke or to provide information on the spelling using a homonym that the learners acquired early on (i.e., *sakwa* (‘apple’)). Followed by laughter, Steve takes up the teacher’s utterance and makes a joke by saying ‘to do an apple.’ In line 235, the teacher produces a repetition of the “laughable item” (Bushnell, 2008, p. 63), ‘to do an apple,’ and extends Steve’s joke to a fictional situation, ‘So, when people apologize, [they say] here is an apple, I’m sorry.’ In line 236, Kevin asked another question to the teacher about how to say ‘to break up’ in Korean. In the following line, the teacher provides the Korean word for ‘to break up’ to Kevin. In line 241, Kevin attempted to make a suggestion with the word ‘break-up,’ but his attempt is not successfully completed. In the following line, the teacher gives a correction to Kevin.

In this excerpt, the interaction was started with the learner’s question and developed as a casual conversation with jokes made by the teacher and the learners. Even though the jokes were not related to the activity in which the learners were involved, they were not considered as disruptive actions. Rather, the learners appeared to be interested in learning new words through exchanging jokes. Sullivan (2000) noted that as one type of language play, jokes are “socially mediated activity that stands between the individuals (students and teacher) and the language being learned. The students are not demonstrating passive responses to the teacher’s playfulness, but are jointly engaged in it themselves. These playful exchanges serve as tools that result in awareness of language meaning and form” (p. 123). Even though this excerpt did not clearly show that the playful exchanges about the lexical item led learning, the learners participated in

meaning-making activity with available linguistic resources, including the given lexical items and the target grammatical form.

6.3.3. Discussion of the projects

After the meaning-focused writing activity, the teacher came up with a project idea: making a problem-request box at the dining hall and making suggestions to the Village. The teacher asked the learners whether they wanted to do the project, and the learners showed excitement for the teacher's project idea. While discussing how to present the project to the Village, the learners exchanged opinions on the problems in the Village.

Excerpt 6-7: Suggestion form- Discussion 1 (August 7 / 1st period)

((The learning group is discussing a project related to resolving the problems in the camp. While exchanging ideas on these problems, the learners also suggest solutions using the target form, suggestion form (*V-e/a posseyo* ‘Why don’t you do (something)’).))

- 342 T: wuliidea ikechipmunks
‘Our ideas are chipmunks’
- 343 Amy moki
‘Mosquitoes’
- 344 T: e:h ney:
‘Oh, Yes’
- 345 Nora: → ***It’s like too many people per cabin so not enough showers.***
- 346 T: ***cabin problem cabin***
- 347 Kevin umsik silheyo
‘The food is not good’
- 348 Nate: → hoswueyse showerlul hayposeyyo
‘Why don’t you take a shower at the lake?’
- 349 T: a:h hoswueyse shower hayposeyyo?
‘Oh, why don’t you take a shower at the lake?’
- 350 Nate: ney
‘Yes’
- 351 T: nemwu cohta *idea* aytula kulemyen nemwu cohayo nwuna nwuna aytula
‘I like the idea. Guys, then, this is just so good.’
- ((Deleted lines 352-362: the teacher’s explanations on a possible skit idea to present this project to other villagers.))
- 363 Nate: → *chipmunk* pwulul cilleposeyyo
don’t you set the chipmunks on fire?’
- 364 Nora: ***what did you say?***
- 365 Nate: ***Set the chipmunks on fire***
- 366 All: ((laughter))
- 367 T: → ttayliseyyo ttaylyeposeyyo ca kulemyen pwa pwa
‘Please hit them. Why don’t you hit them? Ok?’
- 368 Amy → caymiepsnun salam ttalyeposeyyo
‘Why don’t you hit uninteresting people?’
- 369 All: ((laughter))

The interaction begins with the teacher’s summarizing the problems in the village, which had already been discussed. In line 345, Nora suggests a new problem in English concerning limited bathrooms for showering in the cabins. To respond to Nora’s newly suggested problem, Nate provides an unrealistic solution by saying *hoswueyse showerhay*

posseyyo ('Why don't you take a shower at the lake?' in line 348. Following Nate's suggestion, the teacher shows her positive reaction toward Nate's unrealistic suggestion by praising it. In line 363, Nate displays his playful attitude again to make a suggestion to the problem of having many chipmunks in the camp: *chipmunks pwulul cille poseyyo* ('Why don't you set the chipmunks on fire?'). Even though his suggestion might be viewed as cruel behavior in the real world, his idea is considered a joke, which is evidenced by the extended loud laughter from the other learners. In line 367, the teacher also participates in making unrealistic suggestions by using the verb *ttaylita* ('to hit'): 'Why don't you hit them [chipmunks]?' which could be considered a similar concept of animal cruelty. In the following line, Amy picks up the verb *ttaylita* ('to hit') from the teacher's previous utterance, and makes a joke to suggest the solution for the problem of the uninteresting people in the village: *caymiepsnun salam ttalye poseyyo* ('Why don't you hit the uninteresting people?')

In this excerpt, the learners are engaged in interaction as competent members who make jokes and create discourse with other interactants in the given context. The learners' changes in participation are tied to the learners' development in understanding a multiplicity of language forms and meanings. In addition, by repeating the target grammatical form (the suggestion form) and the lexical item (*ttaylita* ('to hit')), the learners become more involved in making meaning and more creatively participate in interaction. As Tannen (1989) noted, repetition is "the central linguistic meaning-making strategy, a limitless resource for individual creativity and interpersonal involvement" (p. 3). In this excerpt, thus, the learners displayed their competences not only with the

successful use of the target structure, but also with their successful engagement in interaction using appropriate strategies within the context.

As another example of discussion, in the next excerpt occurring two days later, the group received a request from an anonymous villager. While discussing suggestions to solve the problem, the learners assisted each other to make suggestions, and one learner's utterance became more complicated.

Excerpt 6-8: Suggestion form- Discussion 2 (August 9 / 1st period)

((The teacher read a request to the learners and asked the learners to give suggestions. The translation of the request is as follows: I have a girl whom I like. I want to tell her how I feel but I don't know how. What should I do?))

- 73 Nora: → °*I think he should write her a song*°
 74 Kevin: ney *ask her to marry*
 'Yes'
- 75 (0.8)
 76 Nora: → *nolaylul sse poseyyo
 '*Why don't you write her a song?'
- 77 T: o:h make make mweya
 'What's make in Korean?'
- 78 Amy: man[tul
 'Make'
- 79 T: [mantul
 'Make'
- 80 Amy: → mantuleposeyyo
 'Why don't write her a song'
- 81 T: → ney: (.) o:h nemwu coha
 'Yes, oh, I like it very much.'
- 82 (1.2)
 83 Steve: → °yenghwa ponun pamey (.) yeca yephey ancaposeyyo (.) yenghwaka
 84 sulphul ttay (.) anacweposeyyo°
 'Why don't you sit next to the girl when you watch movies? When
 the movie is sad, why don't you hug her?'
- 85 T: → o:h Steve ((laughter)) [nemwu romantic hayyo
 'That's so romantic.'
- 86 Kevin [yenghwa o:h
 'Movie, oh'
- 87 T: aytula aytula *firefire* u:h mweci? modakpwulfire mweci?
 'Hey guys guys, *firefire* what is that the fire?'
- 88 Nate: *camp fire?*
 89 T: → ung (.) *camp fire* hal ttay (.) o:h kulehci ulttayto ssul swu isse *when*
 90 *there's a campfire* kathi ancaposeyyo (.) ung/ sonul capaposeyyo
 'Yeah, when we have a camp fire. Oh, you can use when in your
 sentences. When there's a camp fire, why don't you sit together?
 And why don't you hold her hand? '
- 91 Nora: o:h cohayo
 'I like that'

In line 73, Nora makes the first suggestion on the requested problem in English, and in line 76, Nora says the same suggestion in Korean: *nolaylul sseposeyyo* ('Why

don't you write her a song?' However, in Korean, the verb *mantulta* ('make') is used in the expression of 'writing a song.' Upon the teacher's feedback (line 77), Amy provides the right expression for 'writing a song' in lines 78 and 80. The suggestion, 'Why don't you write her a song,' is completed through Nora and Amy's collaboration. In line 81, the teacher gives positive feedback on the idea by saying *nemwu coha* ('I like it very much.'). In line 83, Steve makes another suggestion using the target form. In his suggestion, he combines another structure, *-ulttay* (when, as in 'when you watch movies') with the suggestion form. In line 85, the teacher provides feedback on his idea by saying, 'That's so romantic.' In line 89, the teacher also participates in the discussion by making a suggestion on the problem. To make the suggestion, the teacher also receives help from Nate to remember an important word in her suggestion: 'campfire.' In line 91, Nora compliments the teacher's idea by saying, 'I like that.'

In this excerpt, the learners and the teacher assisted each other to develop ideas. Also, the teacher and the learners gave feedbacks on each other's ideas. By sharing ideas, the distinctive roles of teacher and learner observed in the first two activities became less pronounced. The learners participated in interaction as competent members.

6.4 Learners' Changes in Participation in Project-Based Grammar Learning

As shown in the above examples, the projects extended from form-focused activities where the learners' utterances were evaluated based on their correct use of the target grammar in the meaning-focused activities where the learners' participation was considered to provide valuable opinions for the projects. In this project-based grammar

learning, three main purposes of interaction were observed: (1) to learn the grammatical forms, (2) to provide the learners with situations where the target forms could be used in conversation, and (3) to discuss projects related to the use of target grammatical structures. In these contexts of talk, gaining linguistic competence in the target forms is very closely tied to the learners' participation structures.

In the teacher's grammar explanation, the learners' participation is limited to simple questions and answers concerning the target grammatical form. The learners incorporated the target forms into their utterances with the teacher's assistance, and received positive or negative evaluations. The meanings embedded in the learners' utterances were rarely considered by other interactants. All these features of the learners' participation indicate that the roles of the teacher and learner are distinct in this speech event. In the meaning-focused writing activity, the learners were positioned to create meanings with the target forms through writing. The given topics of the writing activities often set the limits within which the learners could make meanings. For example, the learners were asked to write the camp rules, which were given information to everyone in the Village. In this speech event, the learners' meaning-making attempts were still evaluated by their forms, but the teacher also provided feedback on meaning. During the discussions, the learners' engagement in interaction was radically changed from the previous speech events. The learners made meanings with the use of target grammatical forms and contributed their ideas to develop the projects. In this speech event, the learners were no longer novices whose utterances were constantly evaluated or validated first by more competent members. Table 6-3 shows how learners participated in these three speech events as they developed their projects.

Table 6-3: Learners' participation in project-based grammar learning

Focus on forms ←————→ Focus on meaning		
EXPLANATION OF GRAMMAR	MEANING-FOCSED WRITING ACTIVITY	DISCUSSIONS ABOUT THE PROJECT
Participating in conversation by responding to the teacher's questions regarding grammatical forms (e.g., question-and-answer exchange (known-answer questions))	Practicing language to make meaning with the target forms. Learners' language is still evaluated in terms of correct use of the forms (e.g., simple sentence writing in situations)	Using language and forms to communicate in situations where negotiation is a necessity to reach understanding
The learners heavily rely on external sources of help to use the target form (e.g., teacher's correction sequences)	The learners are still in need of external sources of help (e.g., vocabulary list, a note on conjugation rules)	Without any apparent source of help, the learners were able to produce the target forms in conversation
Limited participation ←————→ Full participation		

6.5 Summary

This chapter focused on the three speech events in which the learners participated during project-based grammar learning: the teacher's grammar explanation, a meaning-focused writing activity, and discussions about the projects. By exploring interaction occurring in learning two grammatical forms (the noun modifying form and suggestion form), it was demonstrated that the learners gradually became more competent in incorporating the target form in writing and speaking. As such, the learners' participation was differently displayed in the three activities. Whereas the learners were passive participants in the teacher's explanation of the target structures by responding to the

teacher's questions, the learners were active participants in interaction as they gained competence in the target language.

Chapter 7

Discussion and Conclusions

This chapter discusses several significant findings from this unique context of language learning, the Korean Language Village. By adopting language socialization as a theoretical perspective and ethnography of communication as an analytical framework, the two main foci of this study were: (1) to explore the Korean Language Village as a community in which the learners lived while using the target language for four weeks, and (2) to investigate how the learners were taught grammar knowledge and were enabled to develop competences in producing such grammatical structures in interaction occurring in the learning group sessions. The findings illustrated that the Korean Language Village is a learner-oriented community where daily practices are designed to teach the target language and culture. The learning group sessions were designed to teach the target language to the villagers in an explicit manner with a language teacher. In the learning group sessions, the learners were involved in group projects and grammar instruction. The main characteristic of grammar instruction is project-based, which allows the learners to be engaged in various activities to the completion of projects. While engaging in the projects, the learners used the target grammatical structures in different contexts of talk, and the learners showed their development in syntactic, semantic, pragmatic, and interactional skills. In the following sections, the interpretation of these findings will be discussed, focusing on the nature of learning in the Korean Language Village. The discussions also include the roles of grammar instruction and the roles of

language play in second/foreign language learning. This chapter concludes by discussing possible implications and suggestions for future research.

7.1 The Nature of Learning in the Korean Language Village

In the Korean Language Village, the learners were given the opportunity to become members of the target language community. As a villager, the learners were expected to participate in various activities ranging from mundane daily activities to instructional activities. In these camp activities, the learners used the target language, which was often ritualized through chants and songs in order to accommodate the learners' level of proficiency. In these ritualized routines, the learners were given opportunities to learn the target language and to be socialized into the villagers of this community.

This unique learning environment can be interpreted as a community of learners (Rogoff, 1994; Rogoff, Matusov, & White, 1995). In a community of learners, "children learn informally through active observation and participation in ongoing community activities with mutuality and support from more skilled community members" (Rogoff, et al., 1996, pp. 396-397). In the Korean Language Village, the learners work with counselors to complete projects such as making pottery, learning to perform a fan dance, learning to play the Korean zither and so on. In these activities, the roles of expert and novice were not solely determined by their language skills. Rather, the expertness was from one's knowledge in involved activities. For example, a villager who has skills in making pottery is not positioned as a novice due to his/her limited language skills.

In addition, as noted by Rogoff (1994), “in a community of learners, both mature members of the community and less mature members are conceived as active; no role has all the responsibility for knowing or directing, and no role is by definition passive. Children and adults together are active in structuring shared endeavors” (p. 213). In particular, the roles of adults are to support the children’s learning and development “through attention to what the children are ready for and interested in as they engage in shared activities in which all contribute” (Rogoff, et al., 1996, p. 396). This feature is also observed in the Village as well as the learning group sessions. The findings of the learning group sessions illustrated that the teacher and the learners were jointly involved in a series of activities with collaboration for the completion of the projects. Even though the teacher was the center of the interaction by teaching the learners during the grammar explanation, there was no exclusive occupancy of the position of knower during these project-based activities. Also, as demonstrated in the excerpts in Chapter 6, the explanation of the grammar is an interactive process. The learners participated in learning the grammatical forms by making attempts to make sentences and confirming their understanding to the teacher. In this process, the teacher’s role was not to be an authoritative knowledge possessor; instead, the teacher helped the learners gain knowledge through their own attempts and questions.

While living in this community, the role into which the learners were socialized was that of a villager who is expected to be responsible for his or her own learning. Within this understanding of the Korean Language Village, two issues will be discussed in the following sections: (1) the roles of grammar instruction in second/foreign language

learning and (2) the roles of language play and playfulness in second/foreign language learning.

7.1.1 The roles of grammar instruction in second/foreign language learning

From the findings of the learning group sessions, several issues about grammar teaching in second/foreign language learning arise. The most significant is the activities in which the learners were engaged to learn the grammatical structures. As shown in Chapters 5 and 6, the learners participated in form-focused and project-based activities providing different opportunities to the learners. These two kinds of activities were not separately organized. Rather, the form-focused activities were extended to the projects involving conversation where the meanings were equally important as the forms. In the field of second language pedagogy, as a reaction against a communicative approach “which advocates the exclusive use of meaning-focused activities in language classroom” (Nassaji, 2000, p. 242), the importance of form-focused activity has been discussed (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Nassaji, 2000). These researchers argue that form-focused activity is necessarily incorporated into communicative contexts of language learning in order to develop an accurate knowledge of language. Nassaji (2000) argued that “the most effective way of [developing fluency as well as accuracy and complexity] is to consider activities that result in attention to form while maintaining meaningful communication and using form for communication” (p. 244). However, this issue of incorporating form-focused activity into communicative activities in the second/foreign language classroom has not been much addressed (Nassaji,

2000), and many educators suggest a separation of form-focused activities from communicative activities (e.g., Lightbown, 1998).

In this study, it was demonstrated that the projects associated with the target grammatical forms provided communicative situations as well as focus on forms. As such, in the discussions of the projects, the learners actually used the target forms to create meaning. Previous reports on project-based learning (PBL) also suggest that PBL is effective for helping language learners to develop their proficiency in the target language because these projects include a series of activities in which the language learners can use the target language (Turnbull, 1999a, 1999b). However, these activities typically focus solely on message, and none of these anecdotal reports and studies explicated the projects associated with the grammatical forms. The PBL examined in this study demonstrated that both grammatical forms and meanings are focused on in interaction. More importantly, the main purpose of the projects was to provide the learners with opportunities to use the target grammatical structures in meaningful contexts of completing the projects. Thus, the project-focused grammar learning shown in this immersion camp is significant in two ways. First, this study provided concrete examples of how grammar can be taught with a project-based approach. Also, this study illustrated how different contexts of talk in which the learners were engaged during projects, fostered the learners' development in target language skills.

Another issue about grammar teaching that arises from this study regards the choice of the grammatical forms that are to be taught to the learners. In this immersion camp, the teacher did not use any textbooks to teach grammatical knowledge to the learners. The teacher decided what to teach based on her understanding of the learners'

needs for communication in the community. As a means of grammar selection, the teacher kept records of the Village announcements, which held important information for the villagers, and chose frequently used forms. Thus, the learners not only used the grammatical structures within the learning group sessions, but also constantly used the structures in the community.

In the previous literature on grammar teaching, there has been a long discussion on what to teach in terms of grammar (Ellis, 2006; Mackey, 1976; Richards, Platt, & Webber, 1985). Most discussions were on linguistic structure itself, including structural grammars and generative grammars (based on a theory of universal grammar). These approaches consider language users to be “passive bearers of unconscious patterns of language and culture” rather than “active agents whose actions and sensibilities at different moments influence the organization, meaning and outcome of events” (Schegloff, Ochs, & Thompson, 1996, p. 6). If we take this view to understand language learners, grammar instruction should be organized to help learners to make meanings in social activities in which the learners participate.

From the analyses of interaction occurring in project-based grammar learning, the way in which the learners changed their participation in activities as they gained competence in the target grammatical forms was illustrated. Hall (1999) argues that “the more competent we become, the more we (1) use our knowledge to better interpret and respond to the ensuing talk, (2) become creative in the ways we chose to participate, and (3) become adept at realizing our individual goals within the larger practice-related goals, and in some cases, at changing the practice in light of our changing goals” (p. 140). In the data, it was shown that the learners used jokes as a creative way of participating in the

discussions. Also, the learners transformed their roles from being passive responders to becoming active agents who contribute their knowledge to the projects. These changes in the learners' participation are inextricably connected to their development in target language skills and the activities allowing the learners to perform different roles. In this respect, what this study suggests is that grammar learning should not be treated as a separated practice consisting of meaningless drills. Rather, as part of sociocultural activities, grammar learning should be extended to meaningful communication with the use of target forms. It should be noted that unlike fragmentary and context-irrelevant communicative activities in which language learners typically participate in classrooms, the projects create meaningful contexts of communication, including a series of various activities into which the learners are socialized to play different roles and to use the target languages.

7.1.2 The roles of language play in second/foreign language learning

In Chapter 6, it was reported that the learners showed playful use of the target language by making jokes. Jokes are considered one type of language play, which are associated with fun and enjoyment and often accompanied by laughter (Cook, 1997, 2000). In this study, three examples of language play were presented, which were observed when the learners exchanged ideas about the identical sounding words (i.e., 'apple' versus 'to apologize') and discussed topics related to the projects (i.e., creating fictional situations) (see Excerpts 6-4, 6-6, and 6-7). From these examples, two important features of language play in the context of language learning were observed: (1) language

play is socially co-constructed activity through interaction, and (2) language play and language learning are inextricably tied.

As noted by Carter (2007), language play is one way of creative language use emerging from the course of interaction. As shown in two examples of language play (Excerpts 6-4 and 6-7), the joint orientation of the teacher and the learners to the projects at hand provided opportunities to negotiate and exchange ideas. Within the co-constructed context of talk, the learners' jokes occurred. That is, without the contexts built through interaction, the jokes could not be understood by other interactants, or the learners would not attempt to make such jokes. Also, it should be noted that upon the learners' jokes, the teacher gave positive responses with praises and laughter. The teacher's positive responses encouraged the learners to be engaged in joke-making sequences (see Excerpt, 6-7). In this process, the teacher and the learners reorganize the activity (e.g., discussions about the projects) as play and then effectively participate in joke-making sequences. In order to participate in joke-making sequences, the learners needed to understand other peoples' jokes and to employ discursal strategies such as repetitive use of laughable items (Bushnell, 2008). Thus, language play, such as joke-making sequences, provides affordances (van Lier, 2000, 2004) for developing target language competence.

In this study, the examples of language play are very closely connected to a sign of learning and development. Tarone (2000) stated that language play creates a situation for learners to engage in the act of noticing linguistic and helps them gradually replace incorrect production with correct forms. In the example of language play with homophony (see Excerpt 6-6), the language play was initiated from the learners'

realization of the two identical sounding words: *sakwa-hata* ‘to apologize’ and *sakwa* ‘apple’. Also, in this study, the learners’ jokes were an indication of the development of their understanding in syntactic, semantic and pragmatic knowledge of the target language. These findings suggest that language play occurring in language classroom should not be treated as disruptive or ‘off-task’ behavior. Rather, language play can be a possible motivation for the learners to use the target language because language play is often associated with emotional excitement from its competitiveness (Cook, 1999; Broner & Tarone, 2001). As seen in Excerpt 6-7, for example, the learners exchanged jokes by making unrealistic suggestions (e.g., hitting chipmunks, setting fire to chipmunks, hitting uninteresting people, etc.) as if they were competing at creating fictional and funnier situations. Thus, language play needs to be re-conceptualized with its function of facilitating language learning.

7.2 Implications for Second/Foreign Language Teaching

The findings of this study provide a range of pedagogical implications, particularly for second/foreign language teachers and program directors. First of all, for second/foreign language learners’ development, it is necessary to have a learner community where they can become valuable members through the use of the target language. Typically, second/foreign language learners have a community of learners within four walls (i.e., classrooms). In these classrooms, learners generally have a fixed role as novices in a hierarchical relationship with teachers, and this role of novice is typically generated from the learners’ level of target language. Also, the learner

community existing in the classroom offers somewhat limited opportunities for learners to play the role of competent members of the community in their academic tasks. In order to build a community of learners in language classrooms, language learners should be re-conceptualized as active agents who participate in constructing knowledge through interaction with other people rather than passive recipients of what is being taught to them. Rogoff, Matusove, and White (1996) argued that “[classroom] organization involves dynamic and complementary group relations among class members who learn to take responsibility for their contribution to their own learning and to the group’s functioning. Instead of a teacher attempting to address and manage many students as one recipient of instruction, trying to treat them as a unit, the organization involves a community working together with all serving as resources to the others, with varying roles according to their understanding of the activity at hand and differing (and shifting) responsibilities in the system” (p. 397). This study also provides implications for the construction of learner communities in classrooms. As demonstrated in these findings, many of the activities in the immersion camp are organized around projects, and some of the projects are related to grammar learning. The project-driven activities are effective in eliciting the learners’ active engagement in learning. Thus, through projects, the learners participated in different contexts of social interaction, and they become more knowledgeable in the target linguistic structures. Importantly, in this process, the learners were socialized into the role of active agents, who contribute their own resources and knowledge to the projects.

Regarding grammar instruction, teachers need to study their own community of learners in the classroom in order to understand the learners’ communicative needs in the

community rather than following the organization of the textbooks. As illustrated in this study, the selection of grammar should assist the learners' participation in social activities. By gaining grammatical knowledge, the learners become more competent in engaging in conversation during tasks and in casual conversations. More importantly, it would be ideal for the grammatical forms and involved projects to be extended to a community beyond the learner community existing in the classroom. As shown in this study, the projects in which the learners were engaged were prepared for a larger community: the Korean Language Village. Thanks to the project presentations to the Village, the learners appeared to be more motivated and they challenged themselves for more difficult tasks. By connecting the classrooms with larger communities, the language learners could participate in a variety of projects such as activities or festivals about the target language and culture organized for all language classes in a foreign language program.

Most importantly, this study shows how grammatical structures can be integrated into projects which involve various communicative and form-focused activities. In previous literature on PBL, projects were typically content-based, and students focused on meaning negotiation for gaining knowledge in the course of project completion rather than correct use of language forms (Stoller, 2006). Due to this characteristic, PBL is known to be not applicable to beginning learners of second/foreign languages. However, as shown in this study, the language learners whose language skills were not high enough to participate in discussion in the target language were involved in developing the projects. The projects provide the learners with varying degrees of activities to drilling exercises in order to learn the target structure and to create meanings in meaningful contexts.

7.3 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

In addition to the pedagogical implications for second/foreign language teaching, several limitations must be mentioned for future research. First, this study mainly focused on grammar instruction and its roles in the Korean Language Village. However, immersion camp programs offer other informal opportunities for learning language and culture to learners during the 24 hour-a-day immersion experienced during their stay at the camp. In order to have a holistic perspective on how language is being learned in immersion camp programs, it is necessary to investigate other informal learning opportunities as well as learners' use of Korean in those contexts where the target language is used for other social events rather than language used solely for language instruction.

In addition, this study examined the Korean Language Village as community of learners. For this investigation, the main data sources were from field-notes of participant observation and official documents related to the camp. However, the data set was limited to gain participant-relevant perspective on the ways in which the community maintains and functions such as “patterns of role and status, rights and duties, differential command of resources, transmitted values, [and] environmental constraints” (Hymes, 1980, p. 100). In order to achieve such understanding of the community, it is necessary to include formal interview data investigating how people (villagers and staff members) perceive the community and relevant rules existing within this setting of the Korean Language Village.

The findings and limitations of the present study provide directions for future studies. First of all, studies are needed to investigate other foreign language immersion camp programs, focusing on community, learners, and the use of the target language. Since there have not been many studies conducted in this context of language learning, examining other immersion camp programs is significant step for understanding this unique learning environment. In particular, by examining language instruction in other immersion camps, possible implications can be directed more toward language learning in the context of the classroom.

Second, the way implicit learning occurs in immersion camp programs should be further studied. In immersion camp programs, learners live in the camp. During the camp period, learners are exposed to language and culture by interacting with staff members who are expert speakers of the target language. For example, they eat foods from the target culture with staff members at each meal. It has been studied that mealtime is a culturally-oriented activity (Ochs, et al., 1989; Ochs & Shohet, 2006). The implicit way of learning is one of the major parts of learning in immersion camp programs.

7.4 Concluding Remarks

This study presents relatively unknown context of foreign language learning with two foci: (1) to understand the ways in which summer camp community is designed to provide learning opportunities to language learners, and (2) to investigate target language instruction in this unique setting. The findings of this study could contribute to the field of SLA in three ways. First, the immersion camp context of language learning is

relatively less examined comparing to other contexts of second/foreign language learning (e.g., language classrooms, study abroad programs, etc.). This study provides a detailed ethnographic description of immersion camp programs which help language educators' understanding of this learning environment. Second, this study illustrated project-based grammar learning. Even though the benefits of projects in language classroom have been reported, there has been little discussion on grammar instruction in a project-based approach. The project-based grammar learning described in this study suggests an alternative approach of teaching grammar by providing meaningful social activities where learners use the target language with focus on form as well as meaning. Lastly, this study contributes an understanding of language play in language learning. Language play has not considered important in adult language learning. However, this study provides positive functions of language play. Above all, it suggests that more research studies should be done in this context as well as important findings in this study, i.e., project-based grammar learning and the roles of language play in second/foreign language learning.

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Appendix A

Transcription Notation

(.)	Micro pause (for pauses less than .2 of a second)
(2.6)	Time pause: timing of pauses based essentially on: “one one thousand”=one second
[Overlapping speech (note if there is one bracket, there must be another bracket lined up vertically on the following line)
{ }	Gestures and non-verbal information
=	Latched speech (immediately contiguous utterance, whether within a turn or between turns)
> <	Compressed speech
(XXX)	Inaudible speech
()	Uncertain speech
-	False restarts (e.g., <i>nayka- mwela kuleci?</i>)
:	Sound stretch (whether on vowels or consonants)
::	Longer sound stretch
:::	Very long sound stretch
WOW	Upper case letters – increase volume
°darn°	Decreased volume/whisper (word should be within two degree symbols)
.	Falling intonation
?	Strong rise intonation
,	Continuous rise only
<i>you</i>	Spoken in English
(you)	not mentioned in Korean, but inserted in English translation at convenience

Appendix B
Grammatical Gloss

VS	Verb Stem
TM	Topic Marker
POL	Polite speech level
LT	Literal translation
NM	Noun Modifier
Ger	Gerund
PM	Place Marker
S	Subject
V	Verb

[English Translation for Teacher's Questionnaire]

1. Name:

2. Age:

3. Where are you from?

4. Have you taught Korean language and culture before? (if no, skip to 8)

Yes

No

5. Is this your first visit to the Korean village? (if no, when did you visit here?)

6. For how long have you taught Korean language and culture?

7. Where did you teach Korean language and culture and who were your students?

8. Have you ever learned other foreign languages? If so, could you tell me what language did you learn? And, for how long?

9. What is one important thing to teach Korean language and culture in your teaching philosophy?

10. What do you expect to experience in the Korean village for 4 weeks?

Appendix E

Interview Questions for Students

[For students]

1. How is your experience in the Korean village so far?
2. Do you think you learn many parts of Korean language and culture? Could you tell me specifically?
3. What are three activities you like the most? And what are three activities you like the least? And why?
4. What are three things good in the Korean village in terms of language learning experience? What about three things which are not that good for you?
5. Can you say this camp meets your expectation you had before?

Appendix F

Interview Questions for Teacher

[For teachers - ENG]

1. How is your experience in the Korean village so far?
2. What are the most difficult or challenging things for you to teach Korean language and culture to the students?
3. What are three things good in the Korean village in terms of language learning and teaching? What are three things which are not working for you?
4. Compare to your own language learning experience and your teaching experiences, what are new to you here?

[For teachers - KOR]

1. 지금까지 숲속의 호수에서의 생활이 어떠세요?
2. 한국어와 문화를 가르치면서 가장 어렵고 혹은 도전이 되는 점은 무엇이 있나요?
3. 한국어를 가르치고 배우는데 있어서 숲속의 호수가 좋은점 세가지가 무엇일까요? 하지만 본인에게 잘 맞지 않은 것이 있다면 어떤 세가지 인가요?
4. 외국어를 배운 경험과 가르친 경험에 비추어 봤을때, 이 곳이 새로운 점이 있다면 어떤 것인가요?

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