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**DEVELOPMENT OF MEANING MAKING IN SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING  
OF KOREAN INTERNATIONAL GRADUATE STUDENTS:  
A SOCIOCULTURAL AND COGNITIVE LINGUISTIC PERSPECTIVE**

A Dissertation in  
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by  
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## Abstract

The current dissertation project sought to promote a total of ten Korean international graduate students' literacy development in the study abroad context by designing and implementing a meaning-driven, metaphor-focused pedagogical intervention. Specifically, it integrated the Cognitive Linguistic (CL) approach to language analysis and the Sociocultural approach to learning and development to materialize an effective pedagogical strategy for the academic literacy development of multilingual writers. To this end, building on recent development of the applied CL approach to second language pedagogy, the researcher provided participants with a metaphor-analytic mediational tool based on the principles of conceptual metaphor theory (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980).

An activity system analysis of the participants' literacy ecologies revealed that they were facing two major challenges for literacy development. On the conceptual level, they needed to redefine the realities and challenges they had to confront with a principled and deeper understanding of literacy. On the activity level, they needed to reorganize their literacy practices with quality mediational tools. To address these issues, the participants joined a meaning-focused, metaphor-mediated L2 writing study group, which lasted for one academic semester. Meanwhile, metaphor identification, adaptation, and annotation were provided as the main mediational means for analyzing and appropriating conceptual and linguistic elements of discipline-specific discourse. In the process of locating metaphors in authentic texts and improvising them based on their needs for academic communication, the participants were able to recognize the importance of analytical reading as well as the connection of reading and writing. Additionally, the annotation activity enabled them to attend to the conceptual and structural aspects of each expression, showing the importance of L1 as a thinking tool in second language writing pedagogy.

A grounded analysis of the study group sessions and the patterns of the participants' metaphor identification, adaptation, and annotation revealed that the CL-inspired L2 writing pedagogy has the potential to encourage the participants' cross-linguistic, cross-cultural, and interdisciplinary discussions and provide them with an effective tool for textual production. Furthermore, it mobilized their critical and reflective stances towards their own and other disciplines. The intervention has also left us with one major challenge in attempting to enhance its pedagogical effectiveness: structural components in L2 writing need to be addressed within the overarching principles of foregrounding meaning at the center of pedagogy, integrating language and culture, relating disciplinary concepts to linguistic metaphors, and fostering critical and creative minds towards academic discourse.

This discussion shows that the field of second language writing can benefit substantially from the recent development of the applied CL approach to language learning and teaching. It further suggests that it would be needed to reconfigure the functions of university writing centers and the curricular of ESL programs by incorporating diverse conceptual and linguistic tools including metaphor analysis and specialized corpora. This interdisciplinary enterprise and the effort to transform international students' literacy activity systems will contribute to helping them gain confidence as scholarly writers and overcome the current trend of mechanization and skillization of literacy.

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I was wrong.

My time here at Penn State led me to realize that there is no such thing as independence. The notion itself is ontologically misleading, epistemologically untenable, and ethically unsound. Lauding individual agency is a symptom of the current politico-economic system, which takes the atomized person as the unit serving it. Now I realize that my own mind and body is ever being (de)constructed through my interaction with the people in the world. Thus, for me, even the singular first-person pronoun *I* stands for interdependence, not independence.

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## **Chapter 1**

### **Introduction**

The current project sought to promote Korean international graduate students' literacy development in the study abroad context. To achieve this purpose, the project designed and implemented a meaning-driven, metaphor-focused pedagogical intervention. Specifically, it integrated the Cognitive Linguistic (CL hereafter) approach to language analysis and the Sociocultural approach to learning and development to materialize an effective pedagogical strategy for the literacy development of multilingual writers. To this end, building on recent development of the applied CL approach to second language (L2) pedagogy, the researcher provided participants with a metaphor-analytic mediational tool based on the principles of conceptual metaphor theory (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980).

This introductory chapter is divided into six parts: The first section provides the rationale for incorporating metaphor-based pedagogy into L2 writing instruction, highlighting the potential of metaphor for integrating language and culture as well as reading and writing. The second section problematizes the current South Korean sociopolitical and educational landscape, characterized by commodification and 'skillization' of writing. This will provide a critical understanding of the research participants' sociocultural backgrounds. It also calls for a critical examination of writing at the level of human culture. The following three sections respond to this call by exploring three aspects of writing in parallel with three branches of philosophy: ontology, epistemology, and ethics. The three strands of examination lay the groundwork for understanding the relationships between our existence as humans and writing, the impact of literacy on knowledge construction and consumption, and finally the ethics involved in the act of writing.



These discussions serve as the philosophical and methodological foundation for the research, which set out to foster a deeper understanding of the act of writing on the part of international graduate students beyond offering them an effective tool for improving their writing skills. The final section provides the three research questions that will be addressed throughout this dissertation. This is followed by a brief synopsis of each of the subsequent chapters that comprise the body of the dissertation.

### **1.1. Why Conceptual Metaphor?**

This section provides some rationale for using metaphor for second language learning and teaching. The discussion is limited to theoretical aspects of metaphors and language learning as extensive research on the CL approach to language learning will be discussed in Chapter 2. The rationale is described in four themes: (1) the integration of language and culture; (2) the reading-writing nexus; (3) the unit of analysis for tracing second language development; and (4) the reconceptualization of multilingual writing.

First, metaphors carry rich cultural meanings (Yu, 2009). This makes it possible to teach languaculture (Agar, 1994) in its integral form. While traditional language classroom dealt with language and culture in separate ways, the theoretical concept of languaculture argues that these two cannot be divorced. This is in line with the perspective of cognitive linguistics, which posits that culture and language forms a dialectical, mutually-defining relationship. Thus, separation of the two will compromise the integrity of languaculture, which will in turn give an inaccurate picture of the two to language learners.

From the perspective of L2 learning, the power of metaphor teaching can be increased when learners approach metaphors from a crosscultural perspective. For example, while American English construes an act of preparing for life's risks by regularly paying a certain

amount of money to a company as "buying the insurance," Koreans use the expression "bo-heom-e dul-da" (join the insurance). When learners encounter this kind of example, they can raise a set of questions regarding similarities and differences between the two languacultures: Does this linguistic difference reflect different conceptualizations of insurance? Why do two linguistic communities use different expressions for the same apparent behavior? What do some differences in language, if any, tell us about the respective cultures? These questions will provide language learners with rich points (Agar, 2006), the enlightening moments that offer opportunities to think deeply about one's own and another culture. In this way, learners can approach language in an organic relationship with culture, departing from the dissociation of culture and language manifested in textbooks as "cultural tips" or "culture notes."

Second, learners can engage in deep processing of language by attending to metaphors. This has a particular relevance to the reading-writing nexus. Considering the relatively small amount of target languacultural experiences of multilingual writers, it is crucial to make a solid connection between reading and writing. In addition, integrating reading and writing is essential considering literacy development in academic settings, which involves acculturation to new types of genres and discourse (Hyland, 2009). In this context, identifying metaphorical expressions can mediate learners' reading and writing activities in a principled way, contributing subsequently to enhancing their communicative competence (Littlemore & Low, 2006). At the same time, crosscultural comparison of different metaphorical construals can be an important source of creativity in multilingual writing. Writers can carefully transfer their L1 metaphors to writing assignments, weighing the degree of appropriateness of embedding native language metaphors into second language writing.

Third, metaphoric competence is a strong candidate for a meaning-based indicator for language development (Danesi, 2000), which differs from more traditional feature-based measures. Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki, & Kim's (1998) meta-analysis of writing proficiency uses

features such as counts of number of words, clauses, sentences, or T-units in a text, averages of the number of words per clause, per sentence, per T-unit, per error-free clause, or per error-free T-units in a text as indicators of levels of writing. Lu's (2010) measures of syntactic complexity also depend on structural features of writing in profiling ESL writers' language development. In spite of the usefulness of these indices, they rely only on formal features of language, leaving meaning, the essential part of literacy, out of the picture. This necessitates a search for an alternative unit of analysis in second language writing development research and pedagogy. Metaphor, when properly operationalized (see Praggeljazz, 2007), can serve as a valuable pedagogical and analytical unit.

Fourth, using metaphors as a basis for understanding the nature of second language writing can counter the conventional ways of understanding second language writing. Several biases towards second language writing can be framed in a conceptual metaphor format, which includes **WRITING IS EXTERNAL EXPRESSION OF ONE'S INDIVIDUAL THOUGHT**; **WRITING IS A STEP-BY-STEP LINEAR PROCESS**; and **SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING IS WRITING ONLY IN SECOND LANGUAGE**. Introducing metaphors into writing pedagogy has the potential to restore the status of writing as one of the best mediational means for thinking and communicating simultaneously by interweaving culture, language, and creativity into the production of a text. This will likely contribute to deconstructing the myths about multilingual writing as well as enabling learners to understand and perform writing as conceptualizing, reconceptualizing and counter-conceptualizing processes.

## **1.2. Problematizing the Status of Writing Pedagogy in Current Sociocultural and Educational Landscape: a South Korean Perspective**

This section overviews the sociocultural and educational landscape in South Korea, highlighting its impact on second language pedagogy. As the current project aims to mediate Korean international graduate students in their effort to transform their writing activity systems and literacy practices, it will be crucial to understand their sociocultural backgrounds. This type of macrocultural review will also offer insights into the participants' perceptions and understandings of writing in the study abroad environment, which will be discussed in detail in subsequent chapters.

Writing instruction, in many industrialized countries, is based on a standard curriculum, which means that it is subject to a set of standardized criteria for assessment. In the South Korean context, English writing pedagogy has been frequently associated with test preparation (Shim & Park, 2008). This trend has brought about several consequences in teaching and learning second language writing, including mechanization and reduction to skills, which in turn have contributed to overemphasizing foreign language writing competence as cultural capital while ignoring its value as a thinking tool.

Writing instruction has been mechanized in various aspects. For example, South Korea often witnesses "how-to" books on writing a diary in English in the bestseller section of mega bookstores. These types of books offer a large number of English expressions, juxtaposed with their Korean equivalents. Readers are encouraged to find sentences relevant to their own experiences, use them in their diary, which will hopefully improve their second language writing skills. Although it seems that these books can serve as a reference for English expressions, they relegate the readers to passive consumers of meaning, rather than challenge them to explore new meanings in another language. Here, writing one's diary in another language is a tool for expanding 'glossodiversity' but falls far short of promoting 'semiodiversity' (Halliday, 2007).

L2 writing has also been largely reduced to functional skills. In spite of the capability of this ubiquitous technology that can encompass social, cultural, psychological aspects, its use has been degraded to test preparation in South Korea. In the absence of the authentic use of writing in second language, especially in the case of elementary and secondary educational contexts, overemphasis on test scores has come to dominate the educational landscape. This trend causes homogenization of writing topics, prevalence of model essays, and memorization of skeletal expressions, which ultimately produces a massive number of test-savvy writers rather than thinkers who engage in genuine writing.

This is detrimental to language education in general. On the one hand, learners are induced to have a limited and even distorted concept of writing in another language. Most language learners aim to achieve high scores in standardized tests, and when they do, they think of themselves as competent writers. This impression is quickly shattered if and when they enter academic settings where English is the language of instruction. Rather than exploring different genres and topics, they unwittingly confine themselves behind the walls of standardized tests. Consequently, these learners come to regard their possession of a set of test-taking strategies as a general indicator of literate ability. On the other hand, teachers are forced to teach to standardized tests. As they are pressed to improve their students' test performance, they choose the textbooks that are designed for cramming for tests, use 'ready-made recipes' for writing, and encourage students to memorize as many templates as possible. All these practices lead their students to engage with test-prep textbooks, rather than engage in authentic texts.

The mechanization and skillization of writing severely undermine the potential of writing for learning and thinking. The critical value of literacy lies in its power to force as well as to enable a writer to think deeply about the subject one writes about and, at the same time, to explore one's own knowledge of, and attitudes toward, it. When one engages in an act of writing, one comes to engage both in communication and reflection: it is an act of talking to the audience

"out there" as well as "in here." This bidirectional dynamic of writing (Vygotsky, 1978; 1986) is destroyed in the mechanistic and skill-oriented writing pedagogy.

The mechanization and skillization of writing have also brought about negative social consequences: Second language writing has come to be valued as a form of capital with high exchange value rather than a par excellence tool for developing thoughts (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990; Choi, 2007). Contemporary Korean society tends to value second language writing ability as an index to a person's social and cultural status rather than as a means to mediate and transform one's thinking. As of 2012, English composition has taken on nominal status in English Education, at least in the public sector. In secondary schools it is taught as part of the subject of English but the amount of attention given to writing is minimal. In colleges and universities, English composition is usually an elective. However, English composition courses in the private education sector have gained more and more popularity over the years. This trend operates on a very simple but powerfully communicated assumption: if you cannot write a good 5-paragraph essay in English or achieve high scores in standardized tests, you are not a good writer of English. Most of franchise language institutions have introduced writing courses into their curriculum. It is now the case that any language-teaching institute cannot argue that it offers quality English education without a well-integrated writing component.

In this situation, foreign language education in South Korea has constantly failed to deepen people's understanding of other cultures and to provide opportunities for enriching their own lives. Fostering multicultural perspectives and critically reflecting upon one's own culture, which is one of the most important reasons of foreign language learning, seems to have been long forgotten. In a sense, language educators are unwittingly enhancing a "monocultural" perspective, where competitive edge trumps all other values of learning multiple languacultures (Agar, 1994), under the name of multiculturalism.

This lack of crosscultural sensitivity in language education is being accompanied by diminishing room for critical thinking. Students who are accustomed to the "banking concept of education" (Freire, 2000) do not want to immerse themselves in deep, critical thinking. Test scores speak louder than the thinking processes in learning a subject, leading to the victory of quantity over quality in most areas of education. Rather than exploring the dynamism of composing processes, students want to learn how to apply "quick templates" and "proven formulas" to their writing. Writing as a tool for thinking is giving way to writing for standardized tests. This educational and institutional reality is shaping students' beliefs about and attitudes towards writing (Ratner, 2011).

This brief sketch of the status of writing and writing pedagogy raises two points. First, writing as a process of understanding who we are as humans, namely, culture, seems to have been long forgotten. At the same time, students seem to fail to appreciate the value of writing as one of the most effective and aesthetic forms of mediations for thinking. These underscore the need to integrate the learning of writing and the study of culture, and the restoration of the status of thinking in the writing process.

The challenge of restoring the status of writing in second language classrooms goes well beyond the walls of school and requires us writing teachers to ponder seriously on what it means to write. In other words, we need to lay a strong philosophical and ethical foundation for writing before honing the instrumental efficacy of a certain pedagogical strategy. A series of questions will be valuable as a guiding path to subsequent discussion: What makes writing a ubiquitous and necessary technology in human society? How is writing intertwined with our existence? What does it mean to know or create knowledge in the literate society? What moral responsibilities are involved in the act of writing? As a point of reference for reflecting upon the meaning of writing, to address these questions, this researcher proposes, as noted above, a philosophy of writing framework in parallel to the three branches of philosophy: ontology, epistemology, and ethics.

The first reflection on the ontology of writing relates to the ways writing contributes to what we are; in other words, to the import of being human. The epistemological reflection involves the ways writing is intertwined with knowing about the world. The final reflection illuminates the act of writing as a social action, where ethical involvement and moral evaluation is unavoidable. Each of these aspects of writing is fleshed out below.

### **1.3. Ontology and Writing**

A number of descriptive terms are used to capture human essence, for example, Homo technologicus (technological man), Homo laborans (working man), Homo imitans (imitating man), Homo politicus (political man), Homo ludens (playing man), and so on. It is a daunting task to pinpoint the most important characteristics of humans in only a few words and none of the terms captures the essence of being human. However, all these descriptors converge to one crucial concept in defining what we are: culture. Technology, labor, politics are major parts of culture and writing is among the most powerful mechanisms for sharing and transmitting these cultural elements. Such being the case, answering who we are has much in common with answering what culture means to us. In other words, the relationship between writing and human beings can be best illuminated by looking closely at the relationship between writing and culture. In this vein, discussing the concept of culture and its relationship to writing seems to be in order.

Scholarship has long attempted to define culture from various vantage points. In a book-length volume on the notion of culture, Faulkner et al. (2006) analyze its different themes and focus on 313 definitions. Using the "constant comparison method" (p.29), which marks new elements in each definition until any new semantic dimension cannot be added to the repertoire of defining terms, the authors proposed seven major themes in the definition of culture: Structure/pattern, function, process, product, refinement, power of ideology, and group



membership (pp. 30-31). Four themes -- structure, function, process, and ideology-- are deemed most relevant for the current discussion of writing and culture.

The first cohort of definitions, structure, recognizes culture as "social heritage transmitted to others" and tends to understand the core of culture as "(a) whole way of life, (b) cognitive systems, (c) behavioral systems (either individual or communal), (d) language and discourse, (e) orientation/relational systems, (f) social organization, and (g) structure as an abstract construction" (Faulkner et al., 2006, p. 31). For example, Geertz (1977) focuses on the meaning-symbol aspect by defining culture as "an historically transmitted pattern of meaning embodied in symbols, a system of inherited conceptions expressed in symbolic forms by means of which men communicate, perpetuate, and develop their knowledge about and attitudes toward life" (p. 89), while Firth (1951) emphasizes the substance of social relations by defining culture as "the content of [social] relations" (Faulkner et al., 2006, p. 27). Thus, this line of definitions construes culture as a systemic structure that shapes and maintains our lives.

The second group of definitions approaches culture from the standpoint of what culture does rather than what culture is. From this functional perspective, culture "solves a problem" (Agar, 1994), "define[s] the logic of communication" for their own inhabitants" (Applegate & Sypher, 1988, pp. 49–50), differentiates human groups (Tokarev, 1973), stereotypes, and also control. Turner's (1985) position, given below, clearly emphasizes the controlling function of culture. It should be noted that culture "creates patterns," "sustains privilege," and "masks underlying conflicts of interest" (Faulkner et al., 2006, p. 40).

Culture is used to create patterns of superordination and subordination [...] Culture is manipulated by the more powerful to sustain their privilege and to mask the underlying conflicts of interest between those who have and those who do not have wealth, power, and other valued resources. (Turner, 1985, p. 74)

The third strand approaches culture as process, focusing on dynamics of cultural phenomena. To put it metaphorically, the approach focuses on the flow of a river, rather than its makeup. Even though the flow of a river cannot be separated from its chemical components, it offers a better picture of culture when dealing with the change of cultural phenomenon or developmental trajectory of a person. In this approach, culture is described as "differentiating ourselves into groups with and against others", "a process of sense making", "process of relating to others", "process of domination", "process of transmission", and so on (Faulkner et al., 2006, pp. 40-43).

The fourth approach to culture, focusing on power and ideological aspects of sociocultural phenomena, rejects the often-asserted neutrality of culture. Influenced by critical theory, this view focuses on the role of culture as wielding domination and fragmentation (p. 49). Also, the approach sees culture "a contested zone in which different groups struggle to define issues in their own interests" (Moon, 2002; pp. 15-16) rather than as an array of social practices or processes. Postmodern and poststructuralist theories of power, including that of Foucault, interpret culture as "multivocal and determined by context and discourse, rather than having a specific meaning" (Faulkner et al., 2006, p. 50). For these scholars, who are keen on power relations within specific social, political, and institutional contexts, it is impossible and theoretically flawed to attempt to establish a notion of culture which can be applied to multiple contexts without consideration of concrete sociopolitical forces.

Though different in its focus and orientation, each definition advises us that it should be borne in mind that culture is not an abstract concept but concrete manifestations and effects of a constellation of entities, relations, and interactions in society. In other words, culture is not a nebulous, abstract phenomenon; rather, it is a social and psychological reality, which has its origin in sociopolitical and economic forces (Ratner, 2011). Recognizing the concreteness of culture leads to the conceptualization of culture as intergenerational heritage, social function,

sociohistorical processes, and ideology. To be more specific, it raises an issue of what technology serves as the foundation for forming, transforming, sharing, and internalizing culture.

In an attempt to answer these questions, I will resort to Searle's work on language and society (Searle, 2010). According to Searle, language plays the most important role in shaping human society. As he previously noted in his theory of speech acts, beyond symbolizing, processing, imparting and receiving information, humans perform actions by speaking to others such as declaring war and marriage as well as making a promise (Searle, 1969). He extends this important insight on language to the enterprise of understanding human civilization from the perspective of philosophy of society. He notes that the construction of institutional reality requires three entities: human, intentionality, and language (Searle, 2010, p. 109). For example, we may ask the question: what makes money, a fundamentally institutional and cultural artifact which underpins the capitalist society, money, rather than a sheet of paper with some marks on it? The acquisition of its monetary status is made possible because humans as a collective have intentionally endorsed the status of money. Meanwhile, language plays a crucial role here. Without mediation by language, the piece of paper cannot acquire its status as money.

What is notable in the function of language in constructing social reality is that the emergence of writing systems has changed the way language works. Before the invention of writing, the status of each institutional artifact must have been mediated directly by people. In other words, people had no option but to agree upon the status of artifacts, engagements, and rules with oral language in a face-to-face environment. Even if a group of people had agreed upon the status of certain things or behaviors, it must have been extremely difficult to maintain the agreement across generations. However, the introduction of writing systems into human culture radically transformed this. That is, “[t]his stability of written language enables the creation and continued existence of status functions that do not require any physical existence beyond the linguistic representations themselves.” (Searle, 2010, p. 115) Humans became able to construct

lasting social reality mediated by the enduring medium of writing: Humans could now interact with people from the other side of the earth as well as with people who had long passed from the pages of history. Accumulation of stories, narratives, songs, and wisdom was made possible, which was fueled by the further development of technology from printing press to social network media. This formed one of the most important foundations of human civilization.

In spite of the crucial role of writing in human society, it seems to be a 'forgotten' technology in the modern era. Its ubiquity makes it difficult to realize its importance. Like a fish in water, we unconsciously inhabit this technology rather than consciously sensing its powerful presence. Here emerges one important enterprise of writing researchers and teachers: to help students open their eyes to the edifice of human civilization. This can enable the students to recognize and appropriate rich symbolic affordances around them and join "the ongoing construction" of civilization. In addition, it can slow the process of skillization of writing and create the possibility to integrate the ideals of a liberal arts education and writing instruction. In sum, writing should be understood in its ontological relationship to human existence and taught as the defining technology of human culture.

#### **1.4. Epistemology and Writing**

This section discusses the relationship between writing and knowing. A number of cognitive activities affect how we perceive and understand the world, such as recognizing, categorizing, judging, and activating existing knowledge structures, all of which are built primarily on language. Writing, along with reading in literate societies, has a specific influence on the status of knowledge, truth, and people's attitude towards knowledge. To fully understand the impact writing exerts upon the way we understand the world, two historical domains should be considered: sociocultural history and ontogenetic development. Sociocultural history sets the

scope and parameter of literacy. For example, the researcher's current literacy activities are operating within a highly literate culture with strong influence of technology on writing. Built on the sociocultural edifice of literate culture with specific affordances and confinements, individuals are socialized into the semiotic world. This socialization process is characterized by learning how to make meanings, which includes symbolic interpretation, representation, manipulation, and integration of one's experiences as well as of other forms of discourse. The following section provides a closer look at the development of language and literacy in two domains: ontogenetic development and sociocultural history. In fact, this approach that integrates individual development and sociocultural evolution was one of the most important insights of Vygotskian approach to human development (Vygotsky, 1987; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

#### **1.4.1. Ontogenetic Development of Language and Literacy**

Human life is a series of meaning-making activities. When a baby is born, he has neither the concept of meaning nor how to make meanings. However, he is bombarded with meanings made by people around him. In other words he becomes part of so many different meanings even though he may not be able to intentionally create meanings on his own. He is joy to a family and future of a country. He may shake his hands for some reason and in a certain way, which is instantly taken up by his caretaker as pointing to something (Kita, 2008). This indicates that he participates in joint meaning making activities and becomes meaningful to people around him well before he learns how to make meaning with language. Protoconversation is a superb example demonstrating this observation. Babies and their caregivers collaboratively create meaning through protoconversation (Bråten, 1988). Synchronization in their smiles and coos nicely illustrates the babies' innate capacity to join the dynamic architecture of communication.

These pristine ways of communication take on a different quality when infants start to differentiate linguistic input, pay conscious attention to their caregiver's speech sounds, and produce basic vocabulary. It is the moment when their initial experience of symbolic systems emerges. Entering the era of one-word and pivot-word communication, babies can manipulate words at their most basic level. However, these utterances do basic yet important work: they can "order" their mom to feed them, show their emotions, and direct their caregiver's attention to specific objects. They now do something with words and learn to appreciate the power of verbal actions. A further development in their meaning-making emerges when they enter the world of grammar. Before this era, language and actions are not clearly differentiated in the children's minds. While passing through the gateway of grammar, they come to have an implicit concept of human communicative system, at the heart of which lies symbol manipulation, or grammar in a broad sense. Halliday (1993) describes what happens at this stage of symbolic development:

The system as a whole is now deconstructed, and reconstructed as a stratified semiotic, that is, with a grammar (or, better, because this concept includes vocabulary, a lexicogrammar) as intermediary between meaning and expression. (1993:96)

Now children slowly appropriate this symbolic system called language for doing various things. They combine and transform words to interact with others. They engage in verbal play and ask questions to learn about the world. Their understanding of the symbolic system passes through a qualitative transformation when they enter school. The driving force for this change is literacy, the flagship area of learning in formal schooling. It is not an exaggeration to say that schooling is an organized sequence of literacy activities across subject matters and it is impossible to imagine formal education without writing and other related activities. Then, what is

the mechanism for this revolutionary change in children's understanding and producing of language?

Firstly, writing makes language visible (Vygotsky, 1978). For example, learning phonics, which involves breaking down words into individual sounds and synthesizing those sounds back into a word, visualize phonemes. Children also learn how to transform a verb to an agent using the "-er" suffix, which discloses the existence of morphemes. Filling in a blank with words drives them to recognize word slots or the paradigmatic axis in a sentence, which leads to awareness of parts of speech. All these processes contribute to children's understanding of syntax. They open their eyes to written discourse while keeping a diary or drafting a show-and-tell speech.

This can also be understood from a slightly different vantage point: self-discovery. Writing does not emerge from nowhere: rather, it builds on one's speech, which children have long been engaged in. Phonics books exploit the words learners have acquired in speech. Dictation usually uses familiar phrases or sentences. Drafting a recount for class presentation links one's everyday conversation with friends and family members with a specific type of writing. Through these types of literacy activities, children learn to reflect upon their own language in an explicit manner. In other words, writing activities enable them to "discover" their own linguistic practices.

Secondly, writing enables children to build their own symbolic worlds. While songs, nursery rhymes, and language play a crucial part in introducing children to the system of verbal language, keeping a diary invites them to create one's own representation of the world. While selecting a set of events for an entry, children begin to develop a sense of personal history. To translate their experiences into words, they have to profile them, highlighting or downplaying some aspects of certain events. These writing-mediated activities lead children to an implicit yet crucial realization that their own experience can be represented, interpreted, and shared

symbolically yet, at the same time, in different ways depending on their intentions. They become residents of the symbolic world.

This short sketch has shown that writing plays an instrumental role in helping children to develop a sense of discourse and communication, promoting the explicit reflection on language and discourse and enabling their construction of symbolic worlds. This process is mediated by their social interaction with other people around them. However, a writing system itself comes neither from individuals nor from their caregivers or teachers. Rather, it comes from human culture and owes its existence and innovation to human history.

#### **1.4.2. Sociocultural History of Writing**

This section reviews the cultural history of writing, aiming to describe the relationship between writing and human culture in view of the impact of writing on the evaluation of facts and truths. For this purpose, the researcher resorts to two strands of theories proposed by Ong (1982) and Frawley (1987). While the discussion of the former highlights the nature of literacy as a type of technology that penetrates human thinking processes, the latter focuses on the impact of literacy on sources of knowledge and criteria of truths.

Ong (1982) defines writing as a kind of technology which has the following characteristics. First, technology is material in nature. It is not a batch of ideas or imagination but something we humans use in concrete activities whether in the domain of everyday life, industry, or science. As technology intertwines with more and more aspects of life, it actually becomes our mode of thinking. The writing technology is no exception. For example, since papyrus and printing technology has fundamentally changed the way people in industrialized societies do things, it is impossible to imagine a world without note-taking, printed books and papers. By the same token we can hardly think of going back to the pre-computer and pre-internet era as our



everyday life is built on these technologies. Second, technology is artificial since it is developed by humans for a certain purpose. With its penetration into everyday life, however, humans tend to forget "the artificial character of human communication" since "after learning a code, we have a tendency to forget its artificiality" (Flusser, 2002, p.3). In other words, technology forms the very ecology of human living and at the same time becomes transparent like air.

However, writing as a technology has not maintained the same characteristics throughout human sociocultural evolution. Different sociocultural eras have witnessed different levels of literate culture. This has a direct impact on how humans think about the world, facts and even the truth. This is because humans form and transform the framework through which they understand their experiences by engaging in literacy practices. Ong notes:

Evidently, in processing text for meaning, the sixteenth century was concentrating less on the sight of the word and more on its sound than we do. All text involves sight and sound. But whereas we feel reading as a visual activity cueing in sounds for us, the early age of print still felt it as primarily a listening process, simply set in motion by sight. (1982, p. 119)

This shows that the study of literate cultures involves not only a different quantity of texts and literary activities in human life, but also the differing impacts of literary practices on human cognition. In other words, the dialogic relationship between mind and literacy, which is one of the most important symbolic mediations, should be explored. For example, "writing makes possible increasingly articulate introspectivity, opening the psyche as never before not only to the external objective world quite distinct from itself but also to the interior self against whom the objective world is set." (Ong, 1982 p. 103)

In another aspect, different levels of literacy bring about different modes of knowledge construction, sharing, and transformation. Based on Ong's analysis of literate and oral cultures Frawley (1987) discusses social and epistemic consequences of literacy. He proposes three broad

eras of human sociocultural domain by adding one more era to Ong's binary division of oral and literate cultures. This tripartite classification includes orality, literacy, and hyperliteracy, each of which is characterized by three keywords: non-textuality, textuality, and intertextuality.

Frawley first discusses the impact of textuality on quality and quantity of knowledge. Oral culture is characterized by homeostasis of its knowledge. This does not mean that knowledge in oral culture is static and not shared with members of the community. Rather, it implies that knowledge in oral culture is born at the expense of the death of other knowledge. For example, some oral cultures introduced new gods in their tradition, eliminating "old gods." This implies that oral societies could not hold various ideas in a material form so that their culture could be constructed through a constant compilation of knowledge.

The introduction of written text led to a growth of knowledge. In fact, the act of transforming of experience into text itself expands knowledge dramatically and this surge is witnessed on both individual and societal planes. The author offers an intriguing example showing how text and growth of knowledge operate in tandem: the co-expansion of public libraries in 18th century Europe accompanied the dramatic increase of print media. The later transition from the textual to the intertextual era, characterized by a massive compilation of knowledge and its distribution, changed how knowledge was created, shared, and interpreted. With the ubiquitous presence of textual knowledge, it is now a necessity to criticize someone else's text to establish a new line of knowledge. Knowledge creation is now seen as positioning one's view within a discursive space, rather than recording one's or others' direct experiences.

An important consequence of this change in practices of knowledge construction is that it has changed a societal view of dogma or the ultimate criteria against which one can evaluate one's opinion. In oral culture, there is no ultimate "doxa" or the ultimate doctrine, as people do not depend on codified principles of their behaviors. Rather, one's criteria of truth can be found within the community in which one is living. It is the initial stage of textual culture that engenders

text as doxa. Here, "good knowledge" depends on its coherent logic based on a relevant doctrine. As text-mediated knowledge is distributed across a wider range of regions, people become aware of the possible narrowness of local practices and pursue well-established knowledge. As the hyperliterate culture emerges, subsequently, hierarchy between local texts and the ultimate text starts to disappear: There no longer exists one ultimately important text: local sports news and political discourse in the capital of the nation are often consumed in the same way.

What is interesting about the change in the hyperliterate era is its parallel with the demise of 'aura,' or "[a] strange tissue of space and time: the unique apparition of a distance, however near it may be" (Benjamin, et. al., 2008, p. 14). With the technological advances in printing press, photography, motion pictures, and other art forms, the aura attached to a piece of art starts to fade. A work of art loses its 'ritual' status (p.15) within the world of its copied versions. For instance, as reproduction technology such as the digital camera falls into people's hands, the aura around the Eiffel Tower loses its power. Now, people visiting Paris do not care much about pursuing direct aesthetic experiences with the physical entity; rather, they are busy taking pictures against the tower. In place of auratic works of art appear reproduced artifacts one can cherish and share with other people.

Textuality also impacts the way communal members form their attitudes toward the community. In oral cultures, members of the community have an intimate bond with the community; they experience their lives as a whole since they tend to cherish values of the community. Thus, their life questions and doubts are to be resolved in the community. The situation becomes different in the text-based society. Now the sense of totality of oral culture is hardly sustained. The doxa emerges but it is not available from the community any longer. Knowledge from outside overwhelms their communal wisdom, which leads them to doubt the ultimate legitimacy of their local knowledge and authority. In due course, creating a new doxa becomes costly, which engenders the notion of copyright, and furtherance of author's rights. This

in turn influences the citation practices and also people's conceptualization of intellectual work and property. One important offshoot is that copyright culture does not allow cultural convergence. Even if one person has almost the same idea as another person, it does not lead to one's free expression of it: one must constantly check textual spaces to legitimize one's sentences. The subsequent emergence of intertextuality breeds people's apathy for the world. Too many things exist as knowledge now and people lose their interest in things outside their life circles. Inundated by the flood of information and knowledge, they come to stop feeling that they do not have a proper amount of knowledge.

Textuality has also changed the notion of history. The current notion of history, that is, a record of events in the form of written documentation was made possible by literacy. This modern version is in contrast to that of oral culture, in which past events are almost always relayed through oral narration. The era of hyperliterate culture has made the discipline of history base itself almost exclusively on written documents; most historical accounts are now "meta-history." This has some practical consequences. For example, many veterans across the world are concerned about the stance of younger generations toward war in that the latter has no direct experiences in military conflicts. Some students are even confused with "real" history and adapted stories. For example, some adolescents, who indulge in history fictions may believe what they read describes real historical events.

The same logic in the modern construction of history can be applied to the status of truth across time. Oral cultures hold "prehended truth," literate cultures "comprehended truth," and finally hyperliterate culture "citationality" (Frawley, 1987, pp. 71-77). In other words, orality mandates face-to-face communication for resolving different opinions. Any decision is made on the spot and this immediacy of decisions makes truth something that cannot but be prehended by interlocutors. The emergence of literate culture makes this impossible and debates come to revolve around the proper interpretation of authoritative text. Now "truth" is not prehended, but

comprehended. The scene becomes different in intertextuality-based societies. Since there is no absolute truth, every proposition is assigned the status of argument. The notion of truth gives way to the Derridian concept of "citationality." "Truths" are arguments which have gained their legitimacy within multiple networks of texts and the legitimacy is at the heart of the citationality: There is no one "true" article; rather, there are just some articles with higher citation indices (Frawley, 1987, pp. 75-77).

Frawley's discussion shows that it is impossible to dissociate literacy and culture. The act of writing engenders, develops, and transforms culture: Culture in turn constrains and changes the scope and characteristics of literacy. According to Ong (1982), oral culture depends primarily on coordinate conjunctions such as *and* or *but*. However, in literate culture, subordinate conjunctions such as *while*, *before*, *until* gain more importance. The mode of telling dependent on others' stories becomes more and more important and has an impact on the grammatical structure of text. The 'macro' sociocultural history in terms of literacy takes precedence in a writer's 'micro' selection of coordination, conjunction, and subordination.

Ong and Frawley's discussions of historical construction of literacy and knowledge indicate how the history of the technology can help students appreciate the relationship between writing, knowledge, facts, and "truths." This would be particularly relevant to students of the current generation, who are experiencing a revolutionary change in media environment. This will enable them to approach their writing activities on the web, including writing emails and communicating via social networks, from a historical and thus comparative viewpoint. This kind of reflexive literacy will enrich their understanding of media in general and their influence on their communication practices and identities.

### **1.5. Ethics and Writing**

The final reflection upon the role of writing leads us into the realm of ethics. In a typical writing classroom, the issue is discussed in relation to plagiarism, copyright, and academic integrity. Ethical writing is equated with writing without infringement of copyright laws. In the current discussion, however, the issue is framed beyond this conventional understanding of ethical writing. As the first section has argued, writing constitutes the very basis of human culture and we constantly engage in writing activities, either formally or informally. This requires us to think seriously about the act of writing from the ethical perspective since what we do in everyday lives is subject to ethical examination. For example, our life is replete with eating, playing games, reading books, having sex, keeping pets, and talking. In the case of graduate students, scholars, technical writers and other professional writers, writing is one of the defining activities of their profession. As we have ethics of eating or sexual ethics for everyone, we need the ethics of writing for any writer, including professionals. I would like to address the issue of ethics of writing from three vantage points.

The first point is related to the traditional approach to academic integrity, which involves the production side of any written artifact. This requires a writer to be conscientious about his own work during the composing process. However, this should not be reduced to the issue of plagiarism; rather, it should be understood as a process of appreciating human interdependence. The writing process is supported by various mediational means including books, articles, computers, paper and pencil, and even search engines. All these sources form the basis for a new piece of writing. In this sense, writing is an act of practicing interdependence rather than of demonstrating an individual opinion.

Writing researchers and teachers should be most alert to these ethical aspects of writing. However, contemporary writing pedagogy tends to deal with these issues from a rather

mechanistic perspective. Teachers emphasize the importance of avoiding plagiarism and paraphrasing, at least in the western context with a relatively long history of institutionalizing copyrights on symbolic artifacts. This seems to be a superficial approach to academic integrity in that it fails to address cultural differences towards composing and learning processes. This also implicitly promulgates the status of writing as an individual enterprise rather than as a social one, where a writer joins other authors in collaboratively weaving cultural resources into new clothes. Furthermore, student writers are treated as potential perpetrators and consequently cannot develop their meaning-making potential to the fullest.

In this situation, it is necessary that academic integrity be considered from both multicultural and developmental perspectives. According to this view, the teacher's responsibility to develop the abilities of multilingual writers while respecting their cultural norms about writing and learning, takes precedence over students' responsibility to comply with the rules in a specific culture. In another aspect, the responsibilities involved in text production in educational contexts are collective in nature. Thus, the student's ability to produce texts without violating copyright should be set as an outcome of writing pedagogy rather than its prerequisite.

The second point involves the author's critical understanding of how one's words may be interpreted by the audience or taken up by those invested. Related cases can range from one's use of words or images on social media on the web to the ethics code of a researcher. A writer should exert oneself to choose the best lexicogrammatical options in a given context. In other words, a writer should be sensitive to the potential impact of one's own rhetorical actions. It is obvious that the same level of ethical standard applied to professional writers cannot be mandated to language learners, who are in the process of learning how to write in another language. However, teachers should foster the student writer's awareness that their choice of words and grammatical patterns can lead to different meanings, which can potentially contribute to misrepresenting a group of

people, worsening cultural stereotypes, stigmatizing a specific social group, or even strengthening a biased political ideology.

This point also speaks to the question of literacy as sociocultural involvement (Brandt, 1990). Any symbolic action, including writing, is performed within a nexus of mediated actions, intervening in the unending flow of events (Scollon, 2001). Whether it is for completing an academic assignment, posting on a blog, or issuing a political statement, writing mediates social actions. Any writer should understand this mediating nature of his rhetorical actions. To achieve this goal teachers may invite students to talk about the impact of graffiti in public space on the viewers' perceptions, posts on social network websites on the mood of website visitors, a thank-you note on the receiver's perception of reciprocity, and even the power of a memo attached to a computer monitor on one's own motivation. In sum, through the realization of various kinds of impact writing has on the world, students can learn to contribute to society by the very act of meaning making, which forms an integral part of human development (Grabois, 2008).

The ontological, epistemological, and ethical aspects of writing discussed above can be enriched by the CL-inspired metaphor-driven pedagogy in several ways. First, the ability to think metaphorically is one of the most important characteristics that make us human (Gibbs, 1994). Our symbolic nature owes much to our capacity to use, understand, and manipulate metaphors. In this sense, metaphor-based pedagogy can foster language learners' reflection upon their own existence as human beings. Second, it is closely related to how we understand the world. As a most powerful pattern of thinking, it forms the foundation of all academic endeavors whether in the humanities, the arts, and even the social and hard sciences. Thus, it will offer valuable insights to graduate students, whose main concern is to construct new knowledge. Finally, the creation and use of metaphors has its ethical dimensions (Goatly, 2007). By highlighting certain aspects of the reality while downplaying others, it often functions as an ideological apparatus. In this vein, metaphor-mediated meaning-making activities will likely foster language learners' critical



understanding of the rhetorical options available to them as they undertake to create communicatively effective disciplinary texts in their new language.

### **1.6. Research Questions**

Hyland (2009) provides a practical framework in which one can approach writing and academic discourse, which is the focus of the current project. He proposes three principal ways to understanding academic discourse from the perspective of discourse analysis: textual, contextual, and critical. The first approach is related to text production in academia. Various types of writing practices are found in this discourse community, which includes SOP (Statement of Purpose), conference abstract, research article, resume and cover letter, and dissertation. The second approach deals with contextual aspects of academia. Sociology of science, sociohistorical approaches, and ethnographic approaches fall into this category. Here, analysis focuses on the ways in which groups of scholars build scientific communities over time, under different social, technological, and cultural contexts. The final approach questions the sociopolitical identities and power of academia, in the case of CDA (Critical Discourse Analysis), or understands literacy practices as a verb (p. 43), focusing on actual literacy practices people engage in to function across different contexts, in the case of the New Literacies approach.

There exists a parallel between the three approaches outlined above and what multilingual writers, especially graduate students, have to go through in their academic life. It is needless to say that the diverse academic genres impose different challenges on them as students are expected to create their own texts as they are socialized into different discourse communities. In this process, different forms of writing play a crucial role. In addition, students form identities as scholars in a specific field. Again, writing about one's own field while recognizing discipline-specific conventions is key to constructing a scholarly identity and enhancing self-reflexivity of a

certain field of study. In this sense, writing is arguably the most important and valued ability in academia, which aims to create, share, and transform knowledge based on constructive peer criticism. In sum, writing should be understood in relation to epistemology and taught in light of its impact on knowledge construction and transformation.

With these theoretical backdrops, the current project brings meaning making activities to the center of writing pedagogy. This leads to designing and implementing a concept-driven, metaphor-focused curriculum for second language writing. Meanwhile, an ecological understanding of participants' writing activity systems is sought as an integral part of the project. The participants and the researcher work as a functional team, taking efforts to transform activity systems in which they are embedded. This collaborative intervention will bring to light the potentials and limitations of integrating sociocultural theory and CL approach for promoting second language writing development. Specifically, the study addresses the following questions:

1. What are the realities and challenges multilingual writers face, in terms of their writing activity systems and literacy activities?
2. What constitutes the Zone of Proximal Development in second language academic literacy development in terms of metaphorical competence? How do multilingual writers respond to a pedagogical intervention focusing on metaphors?
3. What does the metaphor-driven second language writing pedagogy tell us about designing and implementing a concept-based, meaning-centered writing curriculum?

## **1.7. Thesis Organization**

The current dissertation is divided into ten chapters, including this first chapter. The second chapter reviews literature on the sociocultural perspective to second language literacy practices and cognitive linguistic approach to L2 pedagogy, focusing on a sociocultural understanding of writing activity, the potential contributions of CL to current L2 writing pedagogies, and recent development in applied cognitive linguistic approach to L2 pedagogy. The third chapter describes the research methodology, research context, and method of data analysis used in the present study. This is followed by four chapters, which discuss the results of the research. Chapter 4 presents an ecological view of the multilingual writers' literacy practices, triangulating various data sources including an activity system analysis. Chapter 5 describes the study group sessions, addressing two topics: the focus of pedagogical intervention and metaphor-related episodes in the study group sessions, which offer insights to the metaphor-driven writing pedagogy. Chapters 6 and 7 detail the multilingual writers' metaphor adaptation and annotation, respectively, which have served as a main mediational tool for connecting reading and writing activities. Chapter 8 synthesizes these four results chapters, discussing their implications for L2 research and second language writing pedagogy. Chapter 9 presents themes of the participants' reflective narratives on their experiences in the study group sessions and literacy development after the pedagogical intervention. Chapter 10, the final chapter, addresses the three research questions raised above and discusses implications and limitations of the current project.

## **Chapter 2**

### **Literature Review**

The current chapter reviews literature on the sociocultural perspective on second language literacy practices and the cognitive linguistic approach to L2 pedagogy in three parts. The first section discusses a sociocultural understanding of writing activity and its implications for the current project. Specifically, it highlights the importance of understanding writing from perspective of activity theory and suggests that it is necessary to empower learners to transform the entire writing activity system to develop one's writing competence. The second section briefly overviews three main approaches to teaching L2 writing and discusses the potential contributions of CL to this enterprise. The third part is comprised of two subparts: the first reviews conceptual metaphor theory, and the second foregrounds applied the cognitive linguistic approach to L2 pedagogy, which is a significant component of the framework within which the current project was conducted. Specifically, it reviews recent developments of cognitive linguistic approaches in the field of second language learning and teaching with the sociocultural approach to learning and development in mind. I begin the discussion with an overview of the contribution of sociocultural theory to second language writing research and instruction.

#### **2.1. An Ecological View of Graduate Writing from the Sociocultural Perspective**

The sociocultural approach to literacy situates writing in particular sociocultural contexts. It also recognizes writing as a form of social action, which is mediated by, and also mediates, other social actions (Vygotsky, 1986). This view is based on Vygotsky's notion of mediation and Engestrom's subsequent elaboration of the notion in his activity system framework (Engestrom,

1987). According to Vygotsky, in human interaction with each other, one's thoughts must be mediated by various forms of semiotic tools such as language, gesture, and images. This act of communication always happens within specific activity systems, where subjects draw on mediational tools, communal resources and rules, and their collaboration with other people. In this framework, a writer literally cannot write independently. Every step of writing involves different kinds and levels of mediation and one's ability to explore textual, technological, and social affordances constitutes a crucial asset for writing. Therefore, it would result in losing an integral aspect of writing if researchers focused mainly on textual production per se in trying to understand the writing process.

Writing poses substantial challenges for learners in that it involves a process in which they must abandon many of the mediational means utilized in oral communication such as gesture, facial expressions, suprasegmental features, and proximal adjustments. In the case of second language writing, writers need to learn to communicate without a set of communicative resources for face-to-face interaction while employing a new languacultural system, which makes the business of writing even more challenging.

The activity theoretical understanding of writing, emerging recently in the field of second language writing, is not completely new as can be noted in the literature of L1 composition studies. Inspired by early works of scholars such as Bazerman (1985, 1988, 1994), researchers have been investigating writing from an activity systems perspective for nearly three decades. Russell (1997) overviews the necessity of cultural historical activity theory (CHAT) in writing research as follows:

Thus the social as well as psychological dimensions of writing came to be an object of focus, though the early research reinscribed formalist and structuralist assumptions by treating the differences as caused by the textual conventions of "discourse communities" (Nystrand, Greene, & Wiemelt, 1993). However, as researchers and theorists looked more widely and deeply at disciplinary activity

systems extending beyond the classroom, some began to focus not on discourse per se, but on the ways discourse mediates disciplinary and professional activities. Cultural-historical activity approaches were appropriated. (Russell 1997: 225)

This recognition of writing as a situated, socioculturally-mediated/-mediating activity gave rise to several approaches to writing in applied linguistics, including genre-based approaches (Swales 1990; Hyland 2003, 2007; Johns 2002), which have bearing on Hallidayan views of language and pedagogy. Critical discourse analysis (Fairclough, 1995) has focused on the issue of power and ideology in discourse (Russell, 1997), while corpus-linguistic approaches to writing research started paying closer attention to contexts of language use beyond lexicogrammatical features.

Not a few studies illustrate the ways the CHAT perspective has shaped writing research. For example, Bazerman and Russell (2003) showed the power and implications of adopting an activity theory perspective by revealing the nature of writing as situated activity in professional and educational settings. This suggests that one should understand writing not just in terms of text comprehension and production; rather, close attention should also be paid to the issue of a writer's multiple "footings" (originally from Goffman, 1981) and diverse affordances in intersecting, and often conflicting, activity systems. Thus, writing researchers and teachers need to consider ways to empower writers to transform the entire writing activity system over the course of literacy development.

In the same vein, Prior and Shipka (2003) pointed out the potential weakness of traditional writing research from the activity system perspective. According to the authors, "most studies of writing processes have focused on immediate, short-term actions and operations" as in the cognitive tradition of writing research and even longitudinal studies tend to "live within the circumscribed space of some institutionally defined world, the school or the workplace in

particular" (p. 207). They further argued that even in the works based on an activity systems perspective, scholars tended to focus primarily on internalization of existing social practices and genre conventions:

Perhaps because of concentrating so heavily on learning/development in children, asking primarily how children become enculturated, how they encounter and develop some mastery over material and psychological tools, the central narrative of CHAT has focused on internalization and idealization, on the gradual move from externalized practice to interiorized practice, from external regulation of behavior (by environments and other people) to self-regulation (by inner speech). (p. 228)

Based on this evaluation of mainstream and CHAT-informed writing research, Prior and Shipka call attention to the writers' sense of their own writing and writing processes, emotional experiences, and strategies for shaping conditions for optimal consciousness. These foci highlight the writers' subjective experiences throughout the writing process, noting embodied aspects of the activity of writing. At the same time, they illuminate the strategies writers employ to reconfigure their physical and psychological environments to their conscious activity of writing as well as adapting themselves to the tasks and confinements of the environments.

Lundell and Beach (2003) illustrate the value of recognizing multiple activity systems and their interconnectedness in understanding academic writing, a focus of the current project. It documents how graduate student writers perform writing across multiple activity systems. Prior (1997) also captures this point by arguing that multiple activity systems "are continually intersecting and overlapping each other." (Prior 1997, p. 277) Russell (1997) embraces this view by emphasizing the change of writers' actions across diverse modes of writing and in dynamic negotiation of their activities with disciplinary practices:

Their images of authorship change as they negotiate authorship among themselves in their oral and written interactions, redrawing disciplinary boundaries as they redraw their personal boundaries and align themselves with—and sometimes reject—powerful disciplinary social practices (Russell 1997: 230)

The fact that international graduate students' lives are embedded in multiple activity systems poses several challenges in their literacy practices. First, the writers need to deal with discourse in multiple modalities in academic discourse. They need to address different issues in diverse academic contexts. Hyland (2000) characterizes this complex process of disciplinary socialization as follows:

... with its particular norms, nomenclature, bodies of knowledge, sets of conventions and modes of inquiry constituting a separate culture (Bartholomae, 1986; Swales, 1990). Within each culture individuals acquire specialized discourse competencies that allow them to participate as group members. (p. 8)

This portrait of inter- as well as intra-cultural socialization suggests that learning to function as a new member in an academic community entails familiarization with diverse cultural practices, in addition to appropriating new disciplinary (Murray & Moore, 2006).

Second, international graduate students in the U.S. need to adapt themselves to a new discourse community, whether it is a professional organization, department community, or a lab, let alone to new life styles as a resident of the host country. In other words, initiation into the world of new discourses is not limited to acquiring new textual practices such as writing a reaction paper or submitting an abstract to a conference: it also requires that they function as graduate students, socialize with classmates, participate in classes, interact with faculty and staff members, and sometimes present at a conference. Thus, graduate students in the U.S. higher educational institutional context have the dual objectives of developing advanced languacultural



ability as well as acquiring disciplinary knowledge. Both of these are essential to becoming fully functional in a new set of discursive and educational communities.

Third, international students knowingly and unknowingly cross boundaries of different genres and thus need to appropriate semiotic resources in one genre and use them in another. For example, students need to discuss a certain topic, give an oral presentation on that topic to a group audience, and write a paper on it. They also need to learn to produce different formats of documents depending on the contexts of use. These activities require the international students to marshal their semiotic repertoires from multiple domains of discourse and then recontextualize them in a selective yet relevant manner.

Fourth, the multilingual students have to deal with tensions among these activity systems. This not only involves prioritizing tasks in one system to tasks in another, but also entails restructuring activity systems while at the same time evaluating progress in a particular system. For example, they need to take the roles of student and teacher simultaneously when they assume the responsibility of an instructor, which poses substantial psychological and logistic burden on them. The burden reaches its peak when they approach final terms, when they have to complete their own academic assignments while evaluating their students. In other words, one needs to address "double binds" (Engestrom, 1987), maintaining momentum for advancing to the next stage of their academic life.

This short discussion informs us that international students have to adapt themselves to new physical and semiotic environments, attend to multiple genres, and negotiate in multiple activity systems. The issue arising from this picture is that most of them, including the participants in the current research project, have little opportunity to receive principled yet practical guidance in order to cope with this complex situation. Here, the responsibility of language teachers and researchers emerges to mediate students in addressing the challenges. One important lesson can be learned from the observation of how people transform their environments

while at the same time adapting to them. According to Engestrom, faced with double binds in the intersection of multiple activity systems, people have the potential to create new possibilities for new activities. In other words, they should learn how to transform a given new activity to a created new activity. In academic socialization, international students face the situation where mastery of multiple genres in diverse modalities is required. This is clearly a given, yet new, situation.

The issue, then, is how one can redefine the situation, both at the conceptual and material levels, and transform it constantly over the course of academic study with one's objects and outcomes in mind. Even though there would be no single answer to this complex question, it will be worthwhile to seek and develop quality mediational tools. One promising answer to this enterprise comes from recent developments in CL: conceptual metaphor. As a pattern of thinking, conceptual metaphor can help students understand their new disciplinary context in a reflexive manner; as an instantiation of culture, it fosters their situation from a cross-cultural perspective; as an analytical scheme, it can serve to connect reading and writing; as an ideological apparatus, it can foster students' critical stance towards discourse. The next section explores the potential contribution of these rich dimensions of conceptual metaphor to second language learning and teaching.

## **2.2. Potential contribution of metaphor-based pedagogy to three main pedagogical approaches to second language literacy development**

This section discusses three major approaches to empowering international students to address the issue of literacy development in the new cultural and discursive context: New Rhetoric, English for specific purposes, and the genre-based approach (Hyon, 1996; Hyland,

2007). In reviewing each of these traditions, potential contributions of metaphor-driven pedagogical intervention to L2 learners' academic literacy development are proposed.

Some scholars have proposed that addressing the issue of power and ideologies immanent in any activity system can help language learners develop critical understanding of literacy practices. For example, researchers in the tradition of New Rhetoric have conducted this line of research through meticulous documentation of the asymmetrical distribution of power among genres and a critical ethnography of diverse literacy practices (Hyland, 2007). Thus it focuses on the roles of context of rhetorical genres. Hyon notes:

New Rhetoric researchers, in line with their theoretical focus on sociocontextual aspects of genres, have predictably been less concerned with the potential of genre theory for teaching text form and more with its role in helping university students and novice professionals understand the social functions or actions of genres and the contexts in which these genres are used. (Hyon, 1996: 698)

Even though this approach may help learners reach a situated, critical understanding of their writing processes and literacy environments, it lacks a concrete pedagogical strategy, especially for L2 learners. It also fails to offer a viable method for empowering students in that it tends to separate challenging the mainstream conventions from appropriating them. This line of thinking seems to emerge from two sources: understanding imitation as following mainstream standards in an uncritical manner and lumping together psychological tools and psychological orientations.

From a Vygotskian perspective, imitation is a very powerful tool for learning and development (Holland & Lachicotte, Jr. 2007). At the same time, it serves as a most important way of learning to perform certain types of activities, such as swimming or playing a piece of instrumental music. One of the most important, yet often ignored, aspects of imitation is that each turn of imitation has different psychological effects on the subject, even though from an etic

perspective it may appear to be simple mechanical repetition. In other words, each round of imitation is psychologically and historically unique although phenomenologically repetitive. It is one of the integral components of literacy development to "have a feel for," and subsequently appreciate, the different meanings of imitative moves. According to Holland and Lachicotte, Jr. (2007), this line of thinking owes its origin to Baldwin's (1906) discussion of human nature to imitate others.

Embedded in a context of ongoing social suggestions, a child, as she becomes able, imitates the behavior of others. At first, her own performance serves as a stimulus for her subsequent behavior. She reiterates her own behavior regardless of its mistakes as judged against the model. Then, at some point, as the child matures, she stops focusing on her own original imitation, attends instead to the model, and produces novel variations on it. (Holland & Lachicotte, Jr. 2007: 105)

This characterization of imitation may again face New Rhetoricians' counter-argument that learning a code, especially a standardized one, cannot be separated from learning an entire set of values and ideologies involved in practicing the code. For example, a specific tool may have its ideological orientation, as illustrated by the current culture of standardized testing geared towards measuring human abilities with no consideration of each learner's sociohistorical backgrounds. This researcher would argue, however, that a tool functions as a double-edged sword in most cases, which explains the long-held debate between technological optimism and pessimism (Lanier, 2010). This bidirectional impact of any psychological tool comes from the fact that a tool completes its function in interaction with the people who use it within a specific sociohistorical context or "the culture of use" (Thorne, 2003).

It follows that whether the impact of learning a certain genre is positive or negative depends on how and in what context the genre is taught. For example, English can be unwittingly taught as an imperialist language when it is imposed without fostering learners' critical stances

towards the diverse roles and influences of the language across geographical, ideational, educational, and political domains. However, the same pedagogy does not exclude the possibility that learners will adopt a critical perspective on sociocultural and political issues implicated in the English language. Thus, it would be necessary to equip students with a set of conceptual tools to cope with prevalent symbolic manipulations (Goatly, 2007; Santa Ana, 1999), rather than leaving them to their own devices and expect them to figure out the complex ideological terrains in academic discourses. In this vein, metaphor-based pedagogical intervention can be a valuable asset even in a pedagogy framed within the tradition of the New Rhetoric.

ESP (English for Specific Purposes) forms another important pillar of second language writing pedagogy. Research on the use of metaphor in teaching ESP-based courses is still in its budding stage. Some studies have investigated the cross-linguistic differences in reporting a specific domain of knowledge (Charteris-Black & Musolff, 2003), or have investigated metaphors in one specific discipline such as economics or Human Resource Development (Charteris-Black, 2000; Kuchinke, 2001; Shindell & Willis, 2001). CL approaches can enhance the ESP tradition broadly in two ways: First, it can enrich students' understanding of a specific discipline by directing their attention to conceptual structure of theory. Additionally, it can provide concrete methods for analyzing metaphors in texts of each discipline. Let me review each point in more detail.

First, recent proliferation of CL approaches to disciplinary knowledge has witnessed several book-length publications, though not written for pedagogical purposes, dealing with metaphors in international relations theory (Marks, 2011), politics (Lakoff, 2009), marketing (Zaltman & Zaltman, 2008), organizational theory (Morgan, 2006), information systems modeling (Waguespack, 2010). The uses of metaphor as the foundation of theories are not limited to these examples. Genetics uses a metaphor of library (Nanney, 1989), and software engineering borrows metaphor from architecture and construction (Benyon & Imaz, 2007).

This is not surprising in that theory itself is metaphorical. For example, Rigney (2001) discusses eight pivotal metaphors in social theories: society as a living system, machine, war, legal order, marketplace, game, theater and discourse. Each metaphor functions as a theoretical framework, according to which main elements of the theory and relations between them are understood. Goffman's metaphorization of social relationships as those of theatrical characters (Goffman, 1986) is one prominent example in that Goffman "develops a view of social life as an intricately staged theatrical production in which social actors attempt to pass themselves off to audiences as the characters they are pretending to be." (Rigney, 2001, p. 151) Thus taking up Goffman's theoretical lens means to take Goffman's SOCIETY AS STAGED THEATER metaphor in understanding human interaction. Adopting a certain theoretical position means understanding the metaphorical structure of the theory, its elements, and being able to think through and verbalize those metaphors, and apply them to various phenomena relevant to one's field.

Second, analyzing metaphors can be a powerful tool for critical understanding of a specific theory. Goatly (2007) discusses how the metaphors employed by Hobbes, Newton, Hume, Adam Smith, Malthus and Darwin have shaped modern ideologies. The author also illustrates the relationship between metaphor and educational ideology by meticulously analyzing one official document on educational policy in Hong Kong and revealing internal conflicts among the metaphors used. Lakoff takes issue with game theory, one of the most widely employed theoretical models in modern economics (Lakoff, 2009). He warns the reader that we may fall into the fallacy of understanding decision-making processes as a game involving only a cold calculation of risk and return, while in fact our everyday life decisions are based on much broader range of factors, emotional states, social dynamics, and even some unknown factors, lending themselves to no conscious analysis. Marks (2011) also critically reviews the history of the power metaphor in international relations such as the balance of power, soft power, hard power. He

advises the reader to be cautious in understanding the meanings of these metaphorical terms since they tend to highlight or downplay some aspects of international relations and sometimes reify processes into something static.

These observations inform us that metaphors can be used as a useful way to enrich ESP-based writing pedagogy for graduate students by enabling them to examine discipline-specific terms and concepts. In addition, metaphor analysis can be a valuable tool for fostering their critical stance towards their own discipline or other theories in the process of exploring disciplinary knowledge. Consequently, it can serve as a synergetic tool for integrating ideas and methods from different disciplines as it is "articulated conceptual frameworks which claim to transcend the narrow scope of disciplinary world views and metaphorically encompass the several parts of the material field which are handled separately by the individual specialized disciplines." (Miller, 1982: 21, italics added by researcher)

Another main pedagogical strategy empowering students to improve their writing ability while recognizing the sociocultural nature of their literacy activities is the genre-based approach to writing (Swales 1990; Hyland 2003, 2007; Johns 2002). Hyland (2003) characterizes genre-based approaches to second language writing pedagogy as follows:

Teachers who take a genre orientation to writing instruction look beyond subject content, composing processes and textual forms to see writing as attempts to communicate with readers. They are concerned with teaching learners how to use language patterns to accomplish coherent, purposeful prose. The central belief here is that we don't just write, we write something to achieve some purpose: it is a way of getting something done. (Hyland 2003: 18)

Recognizing writing as a social activity, a genre approach to writing pedagogy aligns well with the basic tenets of the sociocultural understanding of writing. Specifically, it provides learners with a principled conceptual tool to analyze various types of texts and then apply the

analysis to text production. Furthermore, it emphasizes goal-directedness of a rhetorical action, various functions of texts, the importance of audience awareness, and different expectations of certain genres across different contexts (Hyland, 2007).

Metaphor-informed pedagogy can enhance genre-based writing instruction in several ways. At the overarching level, teachers can help learners recognize the metaphoric nature of language, building the foundation for incorporating the metaphorical aspects of text into genre-based pedagogy. An interesting point is that writing processes in a genre-based approach have been described mostly in metaphorical terms. For example, raising a valid research question usually involves "noticing a research gap" in one's field of study, where the notion of "gap" is metaphorical. In addition, one's rhetorical progression is metaphorized as one's rhetorical moves (Swales, 1990). Thus, incorporating discussions of metaphor into classrooms will help learners enrich their understanding of genre-related terms such as "genre," "stages," "move" structure, "hedging" device, "interactive" features, and genre "families." It will also likely help learners avoid essentializing those concepts as rigid, fixed, and mandated.

At the concrete pedagogical level, teachers can expand the vocabulary of genre by integrating core concepts of CL. For example, an analysis of reporting verbs can be carried out with pivotal cognitive linguistic concepts in mind, including metaphor, personification and metonymy. Teachers can cover various reporting verbs such as assume, argue, assert, state, while addressing how these verbs combine with non-human entities such as study, research, report, institutions. A discussion can take place on how to achieve textual cohesion by using a set of words that are invoked by a specific conceptual metaphor (e.g. EDUCATION IS A JOURNEY). It is also possible to conduct an informal metaphor analysis of a text to connect reading and writing activities in a similar way that genre-feature detection and annotation are done (Cheng, 2008). Finally, pedagogy of textual cohesion can be enriched by introducing the concept of



conceptual key, which is "a statement that resolves the semantic tension of a set of conceptual metaphors by showing them to be related." (Charteris-Black, 2004: 22)

## **2.3. Cognitive Linguistic Approach to Language and L2 Pedagogy**

### **2.3.1. Conceptual Metaphor Theory**

Conceptual Metaphor theory proposes a radically different view of metaphor from the long-held view of language and metaphor in mainstream linguistic theory. According to the traditional view, our language is primarily literal: Language, if used properly, faithfully reflects the world and metaphors are decorations of literal language. Using metaphors is neither required nor unavoidable. Thus, in most rhetorical situations, one can express ideas effectively without resorting to metaphors. The following excerpt clearly reflects the traditional disposition in suggesting that metaphor is used to describe something by using another thing and we can, and even had better, avoid using metaphors in some situations:

A metaphor is a word or image used to describe something not like itself, for instance: "A human is a trembling daffodil."... Extended metaphors are a difficult enterprise and are probably best avoided until you are more comfortable. Don't use a metaphor unless you feel that the thing you are describing could be better described in no other way... Also avoid mixing metaphors. A mixed metaphor starts out with one image and ends with another: "That test was a piece of cake and it was smooth sailing all the way. The reader is left to wonder. (Lerner, 2001: 23. Italics by the researcher)

Lakoff and Johnson's groundbreaking work *Metaphors We Live By* (1980), followed by numerous publications on conceptual metaphors, has changed the way we understand metaphor. The authors, along with other researchers such as Gibbs (1994), have demonstrated that our way

of thinking is fundamentally metaphorical rather than literal. For example, in English, we understand our life as a journey, regard ideas as tangible, transferable entities, construe positive emotions like happiness with the preposition up, and conceptualize time as space.

The first step to understanding the metaphorical nature of language is to recognize that the human world is made up of two worlds: material and symbolic. Humans live in the physical world, made of atoms and their interactions, the study of which belongs to the realm of the physical sciences. At the same time, they inhabit the symbolic world, composed of mental representations and conceptual categories, usually mediated by signs and symbols. Therefore, in attempting to construe our experiences, we need to integrate the material and symbolic worlds. In this process of integration, human beings are faced with a substantial challenge. We cannot achieve an exhaustive translation from the physical world to the symbolic one: Every construal is partial. Thus we attend to some aspects of a specific event, selectively adopting parts of the event. In cognitive linguistic terms, we profile a certain phenomenon, which is crucial in the conceptualization of the event (Evans & Green, 2006).

From a communicative point of view, when we need to share our experiences with others, we need to profile and signify them through language that can be understood by other people. This process involves a series of actions including perception, conceptualization, and signification, which necessitates multiple translations between different epistemological modes. The fundamental issue here is that this translation process happens between what we can physically experience and what we can experience only mentally. This border-crossing activity entails making use of what can be sensuously experienced to make sense of what cannot be physically experienced. This explains why the majority of metaphors are based on our embodied experiences. Just as the media functions as an extension of the human body (McLuhan, 1994), metaphor extends our embodied experiences to the symbolic and conceptual realm of the human mind.

This human capacity to construe and make sense of what we cannot experience in sensuous activities also makes it possible to understand abstract concepts or structures in terms of another abstract entity. Being powerful and innovative analogy creators, humans can juxtapose non-physical entities and generate metaphors that can weave them together. For example, we can understand academic writing in terms of social network, dissertation processes as project management in Information Technology or building construction, or working as a leader for a conference as conducting an orchestra. This type of analogical power is in fact the very mechanism of understanding something new or theorizing specific phenomena. Analogy powers human reasoning and imagination (Turner, 1998).

Lakoff and Johnson not only provide us with a new vocabulary to look at metaphor and literalness, but also argue that the ways we use metaphors in communicative encounters is systematic. For example, we can observe one person employ a series of statements such as one defends her position in a conference presentation, loses her ground in her field of study, or forms allies with a cohort of scholars, it can be posited that this line of linguistic expressions are based on the conceptual metaphor ACADEMIA IS WAR. In other words, this speaker's ways of construing academia are based on her understanding of academic activities as a military war and she has developed a conceptual system operating on the ACADEMIA IS WAR metaphor.

Even though Conceptual Metaphor Theory has significantly contributed to our understanding of the nature of human language and cognition, it has also benefited from debates and criticisms that have refined the specifics of its claims. One of the notable criticisms was leveled by Svanlund (2007), who argued that the theory had largely ignored the role of culture, resulting in a misunderstanding that "metaphors seem to emerge more or less automatically from our cognitive dispositions and our encounters with the world." (p. 50) Gibbs (1994) aligns with this position in emphasizing the crucial role of culture in shaping and constraining its members' embodied experiences, which has a direct impact on one's ways of thinking. Yu's (2009) analysis

of the concept of heart in Chinese and its metaphorical construal makes a similar point by showing that patterns of metaphorizing the human mind differ in English and Chinese. The heart is usually associated with mind in Chinese discourse, while English rarely relates the heart to reasoning, considering it the primary seat of emotions. These examples illustrate that a culturally dominant way of thinking about a certain concept exerts a powerful impact on its members' metaphorical thinking and construal of the concept.

Two strands of criticism have been leveled against the methodology employed by early conceptual metaphor theorists. The first strand pointed out that some scholars failed to consider the importance of context in metaphor use, which has resulted in increased investigations of metaphor use in context. Cameron's (2003) work on educational discourse is an example, which investigated conceptual metaphors in situ, focusing on classroom interaction in primary school settings. Related to this is the issue of functions of metaphors. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) highlighted linguistic metaphors which reflect conceptual metaphors, and thus using the metaphors was viewed primarily as an act of externalizing inner patterns of thought. Valid as it may be, this vantage point has not been completely successful in incorporating various functions of metaphor depending on the context of communication. For example, Tseng (2010) notes the role of metaphor as a performative act. Drawing on Mack's position (1975) that "metaphoring itself be seen as a speech act, as uttering a metaphor is an action that is more than just saying something," he emphasized performative aspects of metaphor. In this view, we use metaphors "to fill lexical gaps because there isn't any existing word or phrase that is sufficient or precise enough to express the meaning intended," "to reconceptualize and thus reassess experience, to insinuate ideology, or even to defamiliarize something." (pp. 118-120)

The second strand of criticism of early Conceptual Metaphor Theory was targeted at its research method, usually drawn on the researcher's own intuition and self-selected excerpts

(Deignan, 2008). These two approaches to data collection have serious problems in that "[b]oth intuitive and elicited data can be criticized because they seem likely to produce innovative rather than conventional metaphors." (p. 110) Deignan argues that the four pivotal issues of ambiguity, frequency, context and authenticity, which have been problematic in psychological and traditional cognitive approaches to metaphor research, can be addressed with incorporation of corpus linguistic methodologies (p. 114). This criticism suggests that researchers can secure a better understanding of writers' uses of metaphor by enhancing cognitive/introspective method with corpus analysis.

The discussion suggests that more discourse-based and context-rich research is needed. In other words, more research should explore dynamic relationships among cognition, communication, and contexts, mediated by metaphorical use of language. With regard to second language learning and teaching, this means that it is necessary to explore learners' metaphorical competence in situ, so that this understanding can feed back to designing and implementing metaphor-informed pedagogy. The next section details these points through a review of applied cognitive linguistic research in the area of L2 learning and teaching.

### **2.3.2. Cognitive Linguistic Approaches to L2 Development and Pedagogy**

This section reviews recent developments in cognitive linguistics as extended to the field of second language education. This literature has provided themes and guidelines for the pedagogical intervention used in the current project. Even though there is scant research on using metaphor as a main mediational means in second language writing instruction, cognitively-minded L2 pedagogy squares with the current project in that it takes effort to complement and overcome the limitations of traditional teaching methods, to integrate thinking and language, to

situate efficacy at the heart of the pedagogical innovation, and to rethink the metaphorical nature of language.

The endeavor to integrate CL and second language learning is a relatively recent phenomenon (Boers, 2011; Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008; 2009; Danesi, 2000; 2003; Holme, 2004; 2009; Kramsch, 2009; Lantolf, 2011; Littlemore, 2009; Niemeier, 2004; Robinson & Ellis, 2008; Russo, 1997; Segalowitz, 2010; Snowfaki, 2008; Tyler, 2012; Tyler et. al., 2005). Despite its relatively short history, the cognitive linguistic approach has shown its promising potential in second/foreign language education. Specifically, it provides language learners and teachers with an ecologically valid and pedagogically practical method in that it is a meaning-based theory of language rather than structure-focused. According to this model, the formal structure of language serves the structure of meaning and communication. In addition, it accepts the usage-based model of linguistic development (Langacker, 2000; Tomasello, 2002; 2005). This point is crucial in that the nature of the theory mandates that we teachers incorporate the learner's entire history of semiotic experience in explaining and promoting their linguistic development. This position is also in accord with the sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1986), which privileges learners' ontogenetic and microgenetic history in explaining and promoting learning and development (Lantolf, 2011).

The cognitive linguistic enterprise in second language pedagogy offers researchers and teachers a set of theoretical and practical tools to reconceptualize second language learning and teaching. For example, Holme (2009) provides teachers with a set of principles and guidelines, focusing primarily on meaning-making rather than on formal accuracy. Specifically, he explores various themes in CL such as embodiment, conceptualization, gesture, construal, and encyclopedic knowledge, which have been paid little attention in mainstream language pedagogy. Below these topics lies the author's criticism of the dualism between mind and social experience implicit in many forms of language pedagogy. For him, this duality also resides in communicative

language teaching, one of the most influential approaches to language pedagogy since the 1980's.

He notes:

In pedagogy, an even more reductive consequence of the reification of language as a social entity was to de-emphasise its grammar entirely. Language was perceived less as a rule system designed to match utterances to social objectives, and more as a set of pairings between fixed expressions and their functional meanings. (p. 5)

According to the author, the communicative language teaching movement unwittingly reified human communication as a purely interpersonal activity while focusing on the acquisition of a linguistic repertoire across a fixed set of contexts, ignoring psychological aspects of communication. This led teachers and researchers to bring examples of "successful" interpersonal communication into classrooms without considering the human capacity to sense, perceive and conceptualize her experiences through language and culture. He levels a similar critique at corpus linguistics, which is "research tools of great promise," but "postulated a metaphor of a language as something captured as a totality, or as an extraneous and complete product." (p. 6) This voice warns us against placing corpus data at the center of language pedagogy without considering learners' meaning-making intentions within concrete sociocultural contexts.

Holme's description of four areas of metaphor research that should be of interest to applied linguists are informative in setting the agenda for designing metaphor-inspired research and pedagogy: (1) metaphor analysis; (2) the differentiation of first language and target language content; (3) creation of analogues that help explore and explain target language content; (4) fostering the cognitive organization, retention and correct production of second language grammar and lexis (Holme, 2009, p. 134). The first strand of research is concerned with identifying metaphors and using the results in order to analyze teacher and learner perceptions and conceptualizations (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999). This can be understood as a metaphor-powered

method for discourse analysis. The second theme aims to define the ability to use metaphorical expressions appropriately in a target culture. Low's definition of metaphoric competence (Low, 1988) and Danesi's notion of conceptual fluency (2000; 2003) are in this line of endeavor. The third strand explores the relationship between metaphors and concepts. This is a natural corollary of the cognitive linguistic tenet that thinking and language are inseparable and the substance of thinking is concepts (Rosch, 1999). The final function of metaphor is related to its role in enhancing learners' lexical and grammatical knowledge. For example, Boers (2004) showed that organizing and teaching vocabulary according to conceptual metaphors improves students' retention of lexical items.

Even though CL attempts to overcome the limitations of traditional language teaching while building a body of knowledge in the field of applied linguistics, it also has potential for complementing existing pedagogical practices based on communicative language teaching. For example, Littlemore and Low (2006) present a theoretical position that metaphorical competence is intertwined with every aspect of communicative competence. Building on the framework of communicative competence proposed by Bachman (1990), they detail the ways metaphorical competence contributes to each component of the model. For example, metaphorical competence bears relevance to grammatical competence, which is rarely associated with metaphorical language in mainstream textbooks. The authors illustrate this point with a demonstrative that in "Oh that (awful) woman/man!" In this example, the demonstrative indicating physical distance is used to "signal psychological rejection" (p.284). In this way, even a grammatical element such as demonstratives can have metaphorical status. Metaphor can also play a crucial role in textual competence. For example, it is common to use metaphorical expressions for structuring one's argument (Cameron and Low, 2004).

In spite of this close connection between communicative and metaphorical competence, the authors suggest that metaphor-based pedagogy is still in its nascent stage. This observation



seems to be obvious, considering that the notion of metaphoric competence (Low, 1988) has neither been defined with a close tie to general language skills nor taken seriously in various academic levels. Thus, it is not surprising that a metaphor-based approach has not been widely adopted by language teachers across diverse educational contexts.

At the heart of the cognitive linguistic enterprise to theories and practices of language pedagogy lies an effort to bring thinking to the center of language classrooms. Littlemore and Low (2006) argue that "figurative thinking can contribute to the development of textual competence in three ways, which includes "the detection of figurative clusters," recognizing "the role of figurative language in topic transition," and using "overarching conceptual metaphors to structure discourse." (p. 134) The first ability to detect metaphorical threads in a text can enhance textual coherence. A speaker's use of metaphor to wrap up a segment of discourse using metaphors is a prime example of the second point. The last point refers to cases where multiple expressions in a stretch of discourse are based on an overarching conceptual metaphor, which in turn drives the occurrence of semantically related lexical items. This illustrates an ongoing effort of cognitive linguistic pedagogy to bring language and thinking together, based on the cognitive commitment, which aims to offer "a characterisation of general principles for language that accords with what is known about the mind and brain from other disciplines." (Evans & Green, 2006, pp. 27-28)

One caveat here is that the effort to foreground the role of deep thinking in classrooms should not be understood as a move downplaying the role of social interaction in language teaching. Rather, it should be understood as an effort to restore the dialectical unity of thinking and language (Vygotsky, 1986). In other words, it pursues an integrative view of cognition and communication. Sfard's (2008) notion of *commognition* captures the view in a succinct manner.

... thinking is defined as the individualized version of interpersonal communication – as a communicative interaction in which one person plays the roles of all interlocutors. The term *commognition*, a combination of communication and cognition, stresses that interpersonal communication and individual thinking are two facets of the same phenomenon. (p. xvii)

From this viewpoint, cognitive linguists and socioculturally-minded scholars highlight the importance of thinking in action in language classrooms. Furthermore, they believe that language learning becomes more effective when learners immerse themselves in thinking deeply about the patterns and motivations of target language use.

In addition to making language learning cognitively more stimulating, CL offers language learners ample opportunities for exploring cross-cultural aspects of language. Niemeier (2005) provides an interesting example: feeling blue in English means that one is depressed while "er ist blau," the lexically equivalent expression in German, means that someone is drunk. The equivalent lexical items have very different entailments and cultural meanings in the two languages. Littlemore (2009) also emphasizes cross-linguistic differences in using conceptual metaphors. According to Wu (2008), the following examples are possible in Chinese, but not in English (Wu 2008, cited from Littlemore, 2009, p. 98).

Car head (nose of car)

Boat head (nose of boat)

Brush head (tip of brush)

Eyebrow head (tip of eyebrow)

In this scenario, Chinese learners of English should learn to reconstrue these concepts, which in turn pose challenges for them. At the same time, however, directing their attention to the different conceptualizations of the same referents can foster their cultural awareness. The

challenge teachers face is how to encourage learners to expand their conceptual repertoire in another languaculture in a situation where "it is equally important for them to develop an awareness of discourse constraints and the relevant lexico-grammatical patterns that signal metaphorical uses of words in the target language." (Littlemore, 2009, p. 105) In other words, learners need to appreciate the rich cultural repertoires embedded in metaphors, while recognizing cross-linguistic and pragmatic differences in using metaphors (Cameron & Deignan, 2006).

These cross-cultural complexities often lead to learners' failure in using metaphors in an appropriate manner. This issue is to be discussed in a serious manner in that conceptual, rather than linguistic elements are the most 'disruptive' factor in comprehension of a specific learner discourse (Danesi, 2003; Russo, 1997). Littlemore and Low (2006) suggest that there are three main reasons why language learners fail to employ appropriate metaphors for their rhetorical purposes (p. 6). First, they may not be familiar with the pragmatics of metaphorical expressions even though they are well aware of their linguistic meanings. This may happen when learners have not achieved sensitivity to the contexts in which a specific metaphorical expression can occur. Second, they may not be able to attribute some of the cultural connotations to certain metaphorical expressions. This can cause the interlocutor to wonder, and even feel awkward, about the meanings of those metaphors. Third, L2 learners may not have acquired metaphorical constructions that can capture the central ideas they want to deliver to their audience. In case one does not know culturally appropriate, widely used metaphorical expressions such as freedom of speech or burden of proof, it usually takes more words to present the full meaning to the reader. This can decrease linguistic efficiency and even label a learner as lacking knowledge in a specific field. In addition, the issue of appropriateness can materialize as to how a concept will be interpreted in a particular discourse community. For example, using a machine metaphor to describe the global capitalist system in political economy will invite a radically different

interpretation from using the same metaphor about humans in ecologically-minded developmental psychology. Thus the issue of cultural appropriateness in metaphor use should be one important focus in metaphor-informed L2 pedagogy.

One of the ways to address the issue of inappropriateness of metaphor use is to incorporate corpus consultation into language classrooms, as suggested by MacArthur and Littlemore (2008). In this way, learners can explore diverse metaphorical expressions while checking linguistic, semantic, and pragmatic constraints in the use of those expressions through corpus consultation. For pedagogical purposes, it would be also relevant to expand learners' metaphorical repertoire by coupling metaphor analysis and corpus consultation. For example, a learner can be encouraged to use a metaphorical expression, say, "blind acceptance" as a springboard to search for other metaphors with similar structural patterns. This will lead her to other expressions such as blind love, blind spot, blind loyalty, and so on.

Cognitive linguistic approaches to second language learning have focused mainly on acquiring vocabulary or grammatical features (Tyler & Evans, 2003; Tyler, 2008; Lee, 2012) rather than on writing extended prose. In a comprehensive review of literature on the effectiveness of cognitive-linguistics' contribution to teaching vocabulary and phrases, Boers (2011) described three tenets of CL pedagogy: (1) It is needed to enable learners to understand conceptual motivations behind the meanings of certain phrases; (2) seemingly different expressions may share a specific source domain and presenting them according to the common domain can be used as an effective pedagogical strategy; (3) development in metaphorical reasoning involves one's awareness of concrete, physical meanings of certain expressions. Boers identifies three strands of experimental research based on these tenets: comprehension of L2 figurative phrases; retention of the meaning of L2 figurative phrases, and the form as well as the meaning of L2 figurative phrases (pp. 231-240). After a careful summarization of relevant

literature, Boers concluded, with some caveats and suggestions, that cognitive semantic approaches to language teaching seem to lead to better outcomes:

Although the majority of the studies are small-scale — both in terms of number of participants and the number of targets for learning — their outcomes in favour of CS (cognitive semantic)-style treatments indicate that, collectively, these studies begin to constitute a body of evidence that is hard to ignore as an incentive for implementing CS insights in mainstream language pedagogy. (p. 233)

For example, Boers (2004) suggested that it is effective to enhance students' awareness of conceptual patterns for vocabulary learning, arguing that metaphorical themes (Boers' own term corresponding to conceptual metaphor) can be useful in organizing a group of vocabulary items according to specific source domains. Specifically, this pedagogic strategy can improve language learners' vocabulary retention, compared to the "traditional and functional" groupings of target lexical items (p. 214). By the same token, Charteris-Black (2004) proposed the notion of conceptual key, which is "a statement that resolves the semantic tension of a set of conceptual metaphors by showing them to be related." (p. 22) Using conceptual keys, language learners can build an overarching conceptual framework. These studies suggest identifying pivotal conceptual metaphors, words, their meanings, and the relationships among them as one of the important tasks in second language classroom, which can consequently help learners to build L2 conceptual networks in an effective way.

While most research in CL approaches to L2 pedagogy has compared its effectiveness with traditional teaching methods, some studies weighed the effectiveness of different pedagogical strategies based on the CL framework. For example, Skoufaki (2008) designed two pedagogical interventions, both of which are informed by CL. A set of idioms grouped by conceptual metaphors was presented to two groups of participants. One group was given

meanings of idioms without particular activities; the other group was given the opportunity to guess the meaning of each idiom drawing on the clues based on conceptual metaphors. The results showed that the guessing group learned the idioms better than the non-guessing group. The author concluded that "a fair amount of guidance and feedback is required for this method to pay off in the classroom." (p. 101) Beréndi, Csábi and Kövecses (2008) confirm these results by showing that depending solely on learner autonomy in detecting and understanding metaphors is less effective than presenting them in a systematic way. These studies suggest that language learners' deep processing of metaphors combined with systematic and explicit instruction will lead to a better learning outcome, compared with discovery-based learning. Csabi (2004) further suggests that explicit knowledge about conceptual metaphor can facilitate vocabulary learning. Specifically, she shows that the awareness of cognitive linguistic motivation for lexical items can have an impact on students' understanding and producing idioms.

The CL approach to teaching vocabulary and phrases informed the content and organization of several textbooks. Rudzka-Ostyn (2003) presents phrasal verbs and compounds based on the mechanism of metaphorical meaning construction from basic to figurative meaning. For example, a physical sense of "drag" in the phrase "drag a person out of the house" can be related to a more metaphorical meaning, as found in "the meeting dragged out." By the same token, the meanings of particles are introduced by first addressing their physical and prototypical meanings and then moving on to metaphorical meanings. Laza (2003) adopts a similar principle in covering a number of metaphorical expressions that fall in the same cognitive domain, such as horticulture, machinery, and food.

Wright (1999) is another volume that deals with English idioms from a CL perspective. It comprises three sections, one of which clearly resonates with conceptual metaphor theory (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), taking the format of A is B metaphor. For example, the table of contents for the first section includes chapters such as TIME IS MONEY, BUSINESS IS WAR, and SEEING

IS UNDERSTANDING. The first unit of the section, Time is Money, begins with the following remark.

We spend money. We spend time doing something. We even spend a lot of time spending money! The idea that time is money is very common. Here are 16 sentences - 8 literal and 8 metaphorical. Write the metaphorical sentence under the one with the literal meaning. (Wright, 1999: 12)

In this way, the textbook encourages its readers to compare literal and metaphorical sentences, which will likely enhance the readers' metaphorical competence. However, the volumes discussed above are quite exceptional in their theoretical orientations. Most of the vocabulary and writing textbooks neither deal with metaphorical language as an important component of understanding texts nor teach use of metaphors as a comprehension or textual strategy. In this situation, it is not surprising that ideological aspects of metaphors are rarely discussed in commercial textbooks.

Even though CL approaches in second language learning and pedagogy are heavily focused on lexical and sentence-level features, they also raise important issues to language pedagogy at a discourse-level. Littlemore and Low (2006) discuss three points in this regard. First, if figurative clusters can play an important role in forming semantic structure of discourse such as academic lectures, learners can use their understanding of the clusters in order to understand the theme of a target discourse, if properly trained to detect those clusters. The second implication relates to the fact that metaphorical discourse is co-constructed by multiple participants. Thus, figurative clusters perform "social bonding (including word play) functions as well as being explanations and evaluations." Thus foreign language learners should be able to interact with other speakers using metaphorical expressions on a real-time basis, employing strategies such as "repetition and relexification and modification" through metaphors (Littlemore

and Low 2006, p.143). The final point is related to topic transition. Drawing on Cameron (2002), Littlemore and Low (2006) show that figurative language is often used in changing topics in oral discourse. Thus language learners would benefit from learning to "close the topic in a diplomatic and smooth way." (p. 146) Lastly, figurative language also has a place in building an overarching theme in discourse. The authors provide the following example to illustrate the point:

Sergio Grinstein and colleagues take us through the process of phagocytosis. The chapter provides a comprehensive guide to the dynamic nature of the process. We are given a tour of proteins. The final chapter takes us into the nucleus.  
(p.150)

This shows that a metaphor (a journey metaphor in the above case) can function as an overarching theme in an extended stretch of discourse, beyond the sentence level, and learners' recognition of this function can help them organize a coherent discourse. This kind of training for detecting and using metaphors may be particularly relevant to international students since they sometimes fail to properly understand instructors' metaphorical utterances (Littlemore, 2001).

## **2.4. Conclusion**

This review of literature offers several implications for the current project with its focus on second language literacy development. First, it is clear that applied cognitive linguistic pedagogy has paid a great deal of attention to lexical and phrasal levels. Even though it has been repeatedly shown that the approach is effective in teaching lexical items and phrases, its potential in second language writing has been underexplored. Writing carries many more complex features with it compared with sentence-level features, in that it encompasses higher-level conceptual and



discourse components. Thus, it would be valuable to track the genesis of metaphorical competence in an extended stretch of text beyond the lexical and phrasal levels.

Second, there is little research on the role of L1 in promoting L2 development. This may result in ignoring the potentials of L1 in two aspects. On the one hand, one may unwittingly deny students the learning opportunities for transcultural aspects of language. Considering that contrasting L1 and L2 conceptual structures and respective linguistic instantiations may provide a rich understanding of the dialectic relationship of language and culture, it is necessary to develop a pedagogical strategy that incorporates L1 into L2 classrooms. On the other hand, excluding L1 can have negative consequences in depriving learners of a tool for quality verbalization, which is a crucial learning mechanism in Systemic-theoretical instruction (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). The STI, inspired by Vygotsky and concretized by Gal'perin, posits three pivotal elements in concept-based teaching: a complete concept, its materialization, and its verbalization. In this framework, quality instruction needs to present a concept in its complete form, to enable learners to materialize the concept freely as long as their materializations do not compromise the integrity of the concept, and finally to encourage them to verbalize their understanding in an explicit manner. Thus removing L1 from learners' explorations of another meaning system will likely undermine pedagogical effectiveness by limiting their access to a powerful psychological tool for verbalization.

Third, the review also reveals a dearth of research on the patterns in which learners appropriate and apply a specific psychological tool, which, in the current project, entails metaphor identification, adaptation, and annotation. From the perspective of double stimulation, introduced in Chapter 1, this issue is important because learners may employ what appears to be apparently the same tool in different ways depending on contexts and their level of development. This means that learners will adjust their relationship to, and attitudes towards, the mediation considering their goals and resources within their writing activity systems. Along the way, the

psychological status they attach to the mediation would also be expected to change. Thus, it would be valuable to document the ways writers tailor metaphor analysis to their needs, their responses to this new mediational tool, the impact of appropriating the tool in their conceptualization of writing, in addition to its effect to textual improvement.

Fourth, there is scant research on applying CL principles to designing an entire course. Most studies are based on short-term instruction or conducted in quasi-experimental settings. This poses a limitation on designing and implementing a meaning-based curriculum, since it is difficult to anticipate the dynamics of pedagogical intervention revolving around a new understanding of language and pedagogy. In this vein, documenting how a new pedagogical strategy reshapes the ecology of language learning would offer a valuable insight for setting the parameters and agenda for the meaning-based, metaphor-powered language classroom.

Finally, most of the studies implicitly treat their participants simply as learners of specific linguistic features, without considering their diverse roles and identities. This seems to come from overlooking three crucial facts: (1) a learner is a whole person with multiple roles and identities; (2) a person builds substantial parts of her identities in dynamic relations to one's tools, whether psychological or physical; (3) a person is highly versatile in applying a psychological tool in one domain of knowledge to other domains of cognition and communication. Thus, it would be necessary to understand how a conceptual tool, like metaphor analysis, may affect a person, rather than a learner of specific elements or skills. In academic literacy development, then, it would be necessary to trace the influence of metaphor-based pedagogical intervention on students' identities across contexts in addition to investigating its effectiveness in improving their writing ability.

With the backdrop of the review, the following chapter introduces the participants and context of the current project, where the insights from this review are materialized in praxis.

## **Chapter 3**

### **Research Methodology**

This chapter describes the research methodology, research context, and method of data analysis used in the present study. The research methodology section discusses methodological orientation and research design. The research context section offers details of the research site, the research participants and the pedagogical intervention, focusing on metaphor-focused study-group sessions. The section on method of data analysis discusses the types of data and analytical framework adopted for the project.

#### **3.1. Research Methodology**

##### **3.1.1. Methodological Orientation**

The current project bases its methodology on Vygotsky's method of double stimulation (Vygotsky, 1978: 74). In this framework, participants are given a set of problems, which they have to address independently. If the attempts are not successful, physical artifacts, concepts, or technological tools are introduced into the context. However, these are not provided as ready-made solutions; rather, they have potentials to mediate the participants' actions on the problems in diverse ways. Engestrom explains the main principle of double stimulation as follows:

The human subject always “imports” a set of *stimulus–means* (psychological instruments) into an experimental setting. These stimulus-means are in the form

of signs that the experimenter cannot control externally in any rigid way. Hence, the experimental setting becomes a context of investigation where the experimenter can manipulate the structure of the investigation in order to trigger (but not “produce”) the subject’s *construction* of new psychological phenomena. (Engestrom, 2007: 373, italics original)

According to Engestrom, the researcher employing the method of double stimulation "manipulates the structure" of experiments, which some may interpret in a negative way as introducing a contaminant into a study. However, manipulating the structure does not refer to controlling the participants' actions; rather, it refers to the mediator's expert mediation to "trigger" the participants' "construction" of new behaviors. In other words, the researcher engineers the context in which the participants can make the most of the mediations and, if necessary, to transform it based on their needs and evaluations of the situation.

Based on this theoretical foundation, the current pedagogical intervention pushes participants to recognize the issues in their academic literacy practices in a principled way while providing them with mediational means they can employ to address those issues. Thus, participants are also encouraged to recognize conflicts in their environments and explore, adjust, and transform the material and psychological tools for resolving the conflicts. The researcher intervenes as a mediator and forms a functional system with the participants with the goal of promoting their development. In this process, the participants internalize the mediational means of metaphor identification, adaptation, and annotation to different degrees, depending on their needs and levels of development. Through this process, they can redefine the situations they are embedded in and transform their literacy activities.

The researcher took the following three aspects into consideration in adopting Vygotsky's double stimulation methodology: Transformative research, agency as the central consideration of the research design, and new ethics of transformative research. Each of these themes is discussed below.

### 3.1.1.1. Transformative Research

Vygotsky was not only interested in building a theory for human development but also in establishing a new methodology for developing "minds in society." In his discussion of the crisis in psychology (Vygotsky, 1927), he critiqued then influential psychological methods of approaching human behavior, each of which had critical drawbacks. For example, behaviorism reduced the human mind to a series of observable external behaviors, discarding the study of inner elements and processes of consciousness; psychoanalysis drew heavily upon subjective concepts, such as unconsciousness and id, which do not lend themselves to scientific verification. In this situation, according to Vygotsky, no psychological theory served as the framework for understanding the human mind, which animated Vygotsky to pursue a new theory of human consciousness. However, he did not want to adopt an eclectic approach, whereby the strengths of each theory would be amalgamated into a patch-work psychology. Nor did he want to mimic natural science whose objects of research are completely different from those of psychology. In sum, Vygotsky sought to revolutionize the discipline of psychology and create an entirely new human science.

At the core of this endeavor was Vygotsky's passion for creating a new methodology. Recognizing that psychology should be a principled effort to understand human development over time rather than capturing snapshots of the adult mind, he redefined the meanings of both 'understanding' and 'human development.' Regarding the former, he built on Marx's tenet in the *Theses on Feuerbach* that "The philosophers have only interpreted the world, in various ways; the point is to change it." (Marx, 1845) According to this view, humans understand the world by acting upon it, rather than by contemplating it. This epistemological departure from traditional science forms the foundation of the new science in tandem with the new perspective on the development of the human mind. Vygotsky argued that the environment is the source, not a factor, of human development; human development is inseparable from the socio-cultural environment

in which humans live (Vygotsky, 1987). In this vein, human development should be defined as a change in a person's relationship with his environment and "subject and object, person and environment, and so on cannot be analytically separated and temporally ordered into independent and dependent variables." (Cole, 1996:103)

Accordingly, changing part of one's life entails changing the configurations of one's total life conditions. Newman and Holzman (1993) suggest that Vygotsky and Marx take the same ontological and epistemological stance in thinking that "practical-critical activity transforms the totality of what there is; it is this revolutionary activity that is essentially and specifically human." (Newman & Holzman, 1993, p. 41) Based on these theoretical underpinnings, the current project takes a transformative approach to research (Negueruela, 2010). This means that the researcher does not merely observe the behavior of the research participants, but instead plays a mediating role in their literacy development, encourages them to reconceptualize their literacy practices, and provides them with the mediational activities to revolutionize the literacy ecologies in which they are embedded.

### **3.1.1.2. Agency as the Central Consideration of Research Design**

The term *transformative* in transformative research outlined above evokes an image where one person (the agent) forces the other (the patient) to change his behavior. This is an unintended, uninvited consequence of the transitive structure we use. This structure implies that the researcher is likely an agent, who enforces change, and the participant a patient, who is affected by the changing force exerted by the agent. Classroom cultures are often framed as "student-centered" or "teacher-centered" for the same reason since one party should take on the central role while the other adopts an ancillary role (Lantolf, personal communication, February 15, 2012).

In the method of double stimulation, however, this dichotomy does not hold. To the contrary, the agency of research participant takes center stage in that the method "aim[s] at eliciting new, expansive forms of agency in subjects" and "making subjects masters of their own lives." (Engestrom, 2007, p. 363) Taking this stance towards agency requires us to adopt a new understanding of the notion since it is in contrast to the common sense approach to agency which posits that humans, as agents in their lives, are free to choose to do what they will, against their biological and environmental forces. A mainstream view of agency takes this stance:

Agency is the capacity that certain organisms have to behave or believe in conformance with, in contradiction of, in addition to, or without regard for what is perceived to be environmental or biological determinants. (Encyclopedia of Psychology. Volume 1, p. 104)

The problem of assuming such a definition of agency is that it separates a person from her environments. Thus this view sees agency mainly as an individual will and determination rather than her alignment with the environments. Furthermore, it implicitly lauds individual determination and success, downplaying cultural forces and communal responsibilities operating in any choices (Ratner, 2011). As a consequence, this view places the locus of agency within individuals, rather than the dynamic relationships they establish with their sociocultural environments. In contrast to this individualistic notion of agency, the sociocultural approach posits that two propositions are of crucial importance for reconceptualizing the notion: (1) one's agency itself also develops over ontogenetic history and (2) the extent to which one exercises her agency can be either enhanced or weakened depending on the ways the person interacts with other people and with the sociocultural environment.

Misunderstanding often arises when we fail to differentiate human rights and agency in considering agency in educational research. The former belongs to any human and thus must be

protected anytime, anywhere: human rights are inherently endowed upon each human being by virtue of their humanity. However, agency emerges and develops over one's lifetime, which means that it is a culturally shaped trait, rather than an inherent property of an individual. Agency is also different from independence. It draws on the degree to which one can marshal and rearrange different material, semiotic, and relational resources to create 'new' mediational means and desired social relationships (Wertsch et al., 1993). In other words, agency is characterized by the patterns in which one aligns oneself with other persons and the environment, rather than by the extent to which one is free from the influence of others. In this sense, human agency should be understood as an *interdependence strategy*.

Based on this new understanding of agency, the researcher mediates the participants in recognizing the issues in their literacy practices, conceptualizing them in a principled way, and designing relevant mediational tools and collaborative activities. This implies that the mediational activities should be collaboratively designed as long as they are relevant to academic literacy development. To achieve this goal on a theoretically solid basis, conceptual tools from cultural historical activity theory, cognitive linguistics, and corpus linguistics were provided with the learners' academic needs in mind.

### **3.1.1.3. New Ethics for Transformative Research: Beyond the Observer's Paradox**

The transformative research paradigm that seeks to intentionally transform participants' lives raises two important issues: (1) the perspective of representation represented by the etic/emic distinction, and (2) the degree of objectivity in describing the research process and interpreting its outcomes, illustrated in the notion of "observer's paradox" (Meyerhoff, 2006, p. 38). Regarding the former issue, it should be kept in mind that the researcher serves as a mediator in employing the method of double stimulation. This means that the researcher intentionally and persistently attempts to remove the wall between "me the researcher" and "you the participants."



As the researcher and participants collaboratively create a functional system (John-Steiner et al., 2009), the etic/emic distinction becomes an object to be overcome, rather than an option to choose from. A true understanding of the phenomena is reached when the researcher and the participants form the optimal functional system to address issues and conflicts in a given context.

The observer's paradox should be reexamined in this research paradigm because it occurs only when one takes the position of an observer. The paradox ceases to exist when one brings oneself into the heart of other people's lives as a mediator. The researcher and the participant become the witnesses to, and transformers of, each other's lives. This necessitates that the concern about objective representation be reframed as the ethics of mediation. In other words, the researcher's interest in what is happening should give way to his concern about what should be happening. It is needless to say that seeking optimal ways to describe, interpret, and understand the target phenomena still remains a crucial issue in carrying out any research project. But this epistemological concern about what to know and how to represent should be addressed within the ontological consideration of the researcher and the participant as interdependent humans.

### **3.2. Research Design**

As discussed in Section 3.1, the current project was designed following the tradition of *transformative research* (Negueruela, 2010; Newman and Holzman 1993). The design itself aims to engineer a context in which the researcher and the participant collaboratively create a transformative space for critical reflection on the participants' current writing practices as well as for building a set of resources for their subsequent work in academia. Specifically, the current project was designed in five phases.

Table 3.1. Five Phases of the Project

Phase	Description
Theorizing	Pedagogical intervention in multilingual writing was designed through the integration of conceptual metaphor theory and Sociocultural theory.
Understanding	Through a review of multilingual writing samples and open-ended interviews, the participants' current academic practices and sociocultural environments were reviewed. This understanding of the writers' realities informed the researcher in elaborating the pedagogical intervention.
Problematization	The initial stage of pedagogical intervention focused on problematization of participants' academic literacy practices, encouraging them to critically reflect upon their strengths and weaknesses as a writer as well as conceptualization of second language writing. Mediational tools they employ for academic assignments as well social relationships they form in academia were also discussed. Through this problematization process, the participants recognized issues and conflicts in their literacy activities, such as the gap between their comprehension and production abilities and lack of analytical reading for appropriating linguistic features relevant to academic writing.
Mediation	The participants sought to address their issues in academic writing mediated by the researcher. Metaphor identification, adaptation, and annotation were introduced as the main conceptual tool, complemented by corpus consultation strategies. At the same time, the researcher constantly consulted the participants on issues in the participants' assignments.
Follow-up	The participants' narratives about the value and limitation of pedagogical intervention were collected, approximately 5 months after the pedagogical intervention.

### 3.3. Research Context

#### 3.3.1. Research Site and Participants

The study group sessions took place in a major American research university. The university draws a large number of international students. Korean students comprise one of the largest international cohorts, along with Chinese and Indian students. Participants in the research project were recruited through a website operated by the local Korean student association. (For a detailed description of the recruitment advertisement, see Appendix C.) A total of 12 students participated in the study. The researcher assigned them to two groups based on their preferences for meeting time. An important factor in organizing the groups was the participants' weekly schedule and availability. Table 3.2 summarizes the composition of the two study groups. They were named after the day of the week when each group gathered: Thursday and Saturday.

Table 3.2. Research Participants

<b>Name</b>	<b>Group</b>	<b>Major</b>	<b>Program / Year</b>	<b>Background</b>
Pil	Thursday	Higher Education	2nd year Ph.D	MA in education (Korea) Working experience in a major university
Myung	Thursday	Educational Theory and Policy	2nd year Ph.D	MA in public administration (Korea) 7+ year work experience in Korean Ministry of Education
Hoon	Thursday	Workforce Education	1st year Ph.D	BA in business administration MBA (Korea)

				6-year work experience in headhunting and consulting industry
Kyu	Thursday	Educational Theory and Policy	2nd year MA	BA in history 15+ year work experience in Korean Ministry of Education 2-year work experience in UNESCO, Paris
Mee	Thursday	Hospitality Management	1st year Ph.D	BA in hospitality management (Korea) MA in hospitality management (US)
Seop	Thursday	Law	LL.M. (Acquired)	B.A. in Law 7-year military experience as an officer
Soo	Thursday	Political Science	Housewife	B.A. in political science (attained) Working experience in a Korean newspaper company
Young	Saturday	TESOL	2nd year MA	Short-term private tutoring experiences
Jun	Saturday	Business	3rd year Ph.D	BA in Economics MA in Business Administration (Korea)
Hana	Saturday	Music Education	1st year MA	BA in Music MA in Music Education (Korea)
Seung	Saturday	Hospitality Management	1st year Ph.D	BA in Hospitality Management (Korea) MA in Hospitality Management (US)
Yeon	Saturday	Childhood development	2nd year MA	BA in Early Childhood Education

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\* All the names are pseudonyms. The participants will also be called multilingual writers (MWs hereafter), second language learners, or international (graduate) students, depending on the context. All of them agreed to participate in this study by signing the IRB form.

Two participants decided to abandon the study for personal reasons. Specifically, Soo discontinued his participation just before the 6th session. Seop decided to leave the study in the 10th session in order to prepare for the bar exam. Attendance of other participants was relatively consistent by around the 10th session. However, this trend was not maintained after the 11th session as some of them were pressured by their final course assignments and presentations.

### 3.3.2. Study Session Details

This section describes each study session in terms of its main theme, activities, and materials. The two groups covered the identical content with the same activities while they differed more or less in their pace for covering each unit. Table 3.3 summarizes themes and activities for each session.

Table 3.3. Themes in Study Group Session

Session #	Themes	Description
1	One's own understanding of writing in one image;  Writing activity systems analysis	The researcher provided the participants with an overview of the study group meeting. Each participant conducted an informal activity system analysis, focusing on the sociocultural environment in which they were embedded and the mediational means they employed for academic writing.

- |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|
| 2 | <p>Reflection on the gap between reading and writing;</p> <p>Ubiquity of metaphor</p>                                     | <p>The participants were asked to reflect upon the gap between what they can comprehend and what they can produce in their second language. They also reviewed 45 English metaphorical expressions in everyday language, which contributed to their recognition of the ubiquity of metaphors in discourse. (For details, see appendix B.)</p>                                 |
| 3 | <p>Conceptual metaphors and linguistic metaphors;</p> <p>Metaphor identification method</p>                               | <p>The notions of conceptual and linguistic metaphors were introduced (Lakoff &amp; Johnson, 1980). Several instances of the nexus of conceptual and linguistic metaphors were discussed. (e.g. THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS &amp; The theory has solid foundation.) An informal version of metaphor identification method based on the Pragglejazz Group (2007) was presented.</p> |
| 4 | <p>Sharing metaphors with other members;</p> <p>Introduction to corpus consultation method in second language writing</p> | <p>The participants shared their collection and adaptation of metaphors with other members of the group, which lasted throughout the study group sessions. The researcher gave an informal overview of the value of corpus consultation for MWs.</p>  |
| 5 | <p>Introduction to COCA (Corpus of Contemporary American English) and Google Books corpus</p>                             | <p>The researcher introduced the participants to the COCA and Google Books corpus. In addition, uses of Google and Google Scholar were discussed with regard to academic writing. A short discussion of Writer's Block followed.</p>  |
| 6 | <p>Metaphor in</p>  | <p>As an illustration of metaphor use in academic writing, the</p>  |

	academic discourse & conceptual reading of a text	ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE IS A TERRITORY metaphor in a discussion of interdisciplinarity was presented. This was followed by the researcher's presentation of a close conceptual reading of a text.
7	Advanced search options in COCA;  Hands-on practices with COCA	Several advanced search options for COCA were reviewed. (e.g. [=fast], fast rapid) The participants engaged in hands-on practices with these options and discussed interesting examples they found.
8	Reading on the Web;  Reading for academic writing;  Discussion on how to connect reading and writing	One of the participants shared his own reading methods with the group. This focused specifically on the ways of enhancing the efficiency of reading as an integral step for completing academic assignments. Other group members commented on this presentation and shared their strategies for efficient reading and writing as well.
9	Reading a text in a different way:  Wordle and Mindmap software for organizing thoughts	Following up on Session 8, the group discussed how to understand and produce a text in a "macro" perspective. For this purpose, a word cloud creator and mind-mapping software were introduced. Potential uses of these tools in academic writing were discussed.
10	Metaphor identification in abstracts	The groups focused on uses of metaphor in article abstracts. Specifically, each of the participants identified metaphors from two abstracts in their fields and shared the metaphors identified with the group.
11	Metaphor identification in	Building on Session 10, the groups identified metaphors in the literature review section of academic publications in their fields of

	literature review; Creating word lists (AntConc)	study. The researcher introduced them to a corpus tool (AntConc) for systematically compiling word lists.
12	Quantifier and metaphor  CCLB (Conceptually Conspicuous Lexical Bundles)	The researcher presented the group with several examples of quantifiers. (e.g. a battery of tests / a stretch of road / a leap of imagination). This was followed by the participants' identification of similar constructions in their academic texts. Additionally, the researcher introduced the notion of CCLB.
13	Metaphor and Ideology (1) - Education	The group reviewed the impact of metaphor on implicit and explicit ideological stances manifested in a text. The discussion revolved around metaphors in educational discourse, based on Goatly's analysis (2007).
14	Metaphor and ideology (2) - Metaphor of power;  Wrap up	As a continuation of Session 13, the group discussed the relationship between metaphors and power. The entire meeting was wrapped up with each member's brief comment on what they had felt and learned throughout the sessions.

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\* All sessions were conducted in Korean.

The procedure for identifying metaphors proposal by the Pragglejazz Group (2007) was adopted as a mediational tool for MWs. However, the research does not focus on training them as a metaphor analyst. Rather, the procedure was presented as a heuristic to identify metaphorical expressions these writers are not familiar with and thus want to learn. The metaphor identification procedure (MIP, hereafter) takes the following four steps: (1) Reading the entire text for understanding in its entirety; (2) determining the lexical units in the text; (3) establishing the meaning of each lexical unit and classifying it into basic or non-basic meaning and/or



contemporary or non-contemporary meaning; (4) determining whether the meaning in the context in question contrasts with other contemporary uses of the item. Specifically, they propose the steps given in Figure 3.1 for identifying metaphorical expressions.

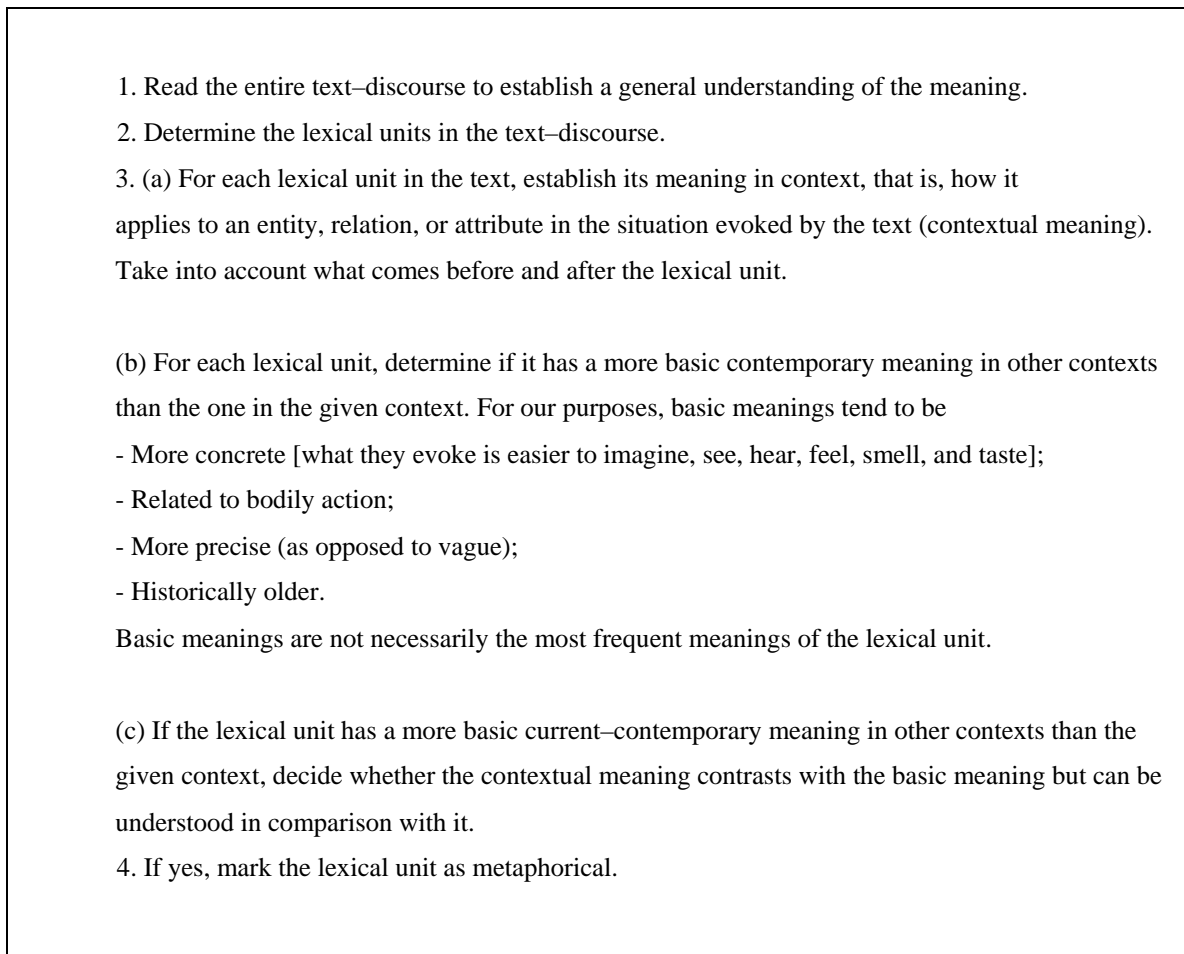


Figure 3.1. Metaphor Identification Procedure (Pragglejazz, 2007, p.3)

The study group topics were based on the cognitive linguistic approach to language learning, where meaning-making activities take center stage, and the sociocultural approach to development, where imitation within the zone of proximal development is a fundamental mechanism of development. Most of the materials were adopted from two sources: (1) literature

on cognitive linguistics, specifically conceptual metaphor theory, and (2) corpus linguistic tools including COCA (Corpus of Contemporary American English) and Google Scholar. In addition, some genre-based websites for multilingual writing were introduced for reference. The following points serve as a rationale for materials and activities selection, development, and presentation.

First, some activities, such as the writing activity system analysis and SWOT analysis, were selected to encourage the participants' ecological understanding of second language writing. Specifically, these activities aimed to help them recognize that their writing processes are embedded within a set of activity systems and it is necessary to exert conscious effort to transform the sociocultural dynamics of their writing processes. Second, materials were prepared to provide the participants with a set of principled mediational means for improving their writing. As noted in the previous chapter, these writers wanted both to produce linguistically accurate texts and to expand their meaning-making potential. To address these goals, both corpus consultation and metaphor use were emphasized throughout the intervention. Third, several sessions addressed the issue of metaphors and disciplinary reflexivity. For example, the last two sessions explicitly focused on ideological aspects of different metaphors, which are linked to the participants' critical view of each discipline. Finally, all the participants were encouraged to work with disciplinary texts from their own field of study in all the sessions. Each participant selected texts they worked on in identifying, annotating, and adapting as well as analyzing metaphors. This was also the case in Sessions 11 and 12, where they identified metaphorical language use in abstracts and literature reviews.

### 3.4. Data Analysis

#### 3.4.1. Data Sources

The study used multiple data sources for exploring the MWs' use of metaphors and mediational strategies for their academic literacy development. Table 3.4 summarizes these data sources. Note that they have been divided into two batches in order to address the research questions.

Table 3.4. Data Type and Description

Data/Activity	Description
<b>Data for main analysis</b>	
Study group sessions	The participants gathered for a total of 14 times to study various aspects of academic writing in a collaborative setting. Each session lasted 1.5 - 2 hours. For most of the sessions, the researcher presented concepts and tools, followed by discussion and application of them. All the sessions were videotaped.
Activities for an ecological understanding of the writers' literacy activities	Five activities were carried out: (1) informal interviews on each learner's English learning history; (2) SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats) analysis; (3) activity systems analysis; (4) description of the gap between the participants' reading and writing abilities; and (5) description of the ways they read academic text for writing assignments.
Metaphor identification, adaptation, and annotation	The participants were encouraged to identify, annotate, and adapt linguistic metaphors relevant to their fields of study. Most of the metaphors were collected from authentic academic texts they had to cover for their coursework.
Reflective Narratives	Four or five months after the end of study group sessions, the participants were asked to write a short reflective narrative on their experiences of the pedagogical

intervention.

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**Data for contextualization and triangulation**

Interview	Two open-ended interviews were conducted before and in the middle of the intervention. The theme of the first interview revolved around each participant's English language learning history, focusing on literacy practices. The second interview involved their perception and evaluation of ongoing study-group sessions. All the interviews were audio recorded.
Individual conference	The participants were encouraged to request writing conferences to the researcher when needed. A total of 8 writing conferences were conducted and audio recorded.
Class preparation group meeting observation	The researcher observed two class preparation meetings in which Pil and Myung took part. The purpose of the meetings was to check their understanding of the reading materials for a course on educational politics and to share ideas about themes and structures of the assignment they needed to complete.
Samples of academic writing	The participants were asked to provide the researcher with their writing samples on a voluntary basis. Most of these were their academic assignments, which had been actually submitted to course instructors.

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**3.4.2. Data Analysis Procedure**

This section overviews the methods for analyzing data, focusing on three data sources: activities for reaching an ecological understanding of the MWs' activity systems, study-group sessions, and metaphor identification, annotation, and adaptation.

**3.4.2.1. Activities for an Ecological Understanding of the Writers' Literacy Practices**

The researcher conducted an informal interview with each participant prior to the start of the study group sessions. All interviews were theme-coded. The initial two study group sessions were assigned to the SWOT analysis, activity systems analysis and the participants' descriptions

of the gap between the learners' reading and writing abilities. In these activities, the participants answered semi-structured questions relevant to each topic and submitted their answers via electronic file. They also shared these answers with other members. All the results were reported by integrating the documents submitted and their presentations of the topics. In sessions 9 and 10, the participants described the ways they read academic text for writing assignments. Their presentations were transcribed and analyzed using grounded analysis.

#### **3.4.2.2. Study Group Sessions**

The first study group (Thursday group) gathered a total of 13 times and the second (Saturday group) met 14 times. For the first step, the first three sessions of the first group's meetings were transcribed in full. Next, a grounded content analysis procedure was applied, based on the method employed by Faulkner et al. (2006). Through this process, relevant categories and themes for subsequent coding were identified. This was followed by the application of constant comparative method, where the initial analytic categories were constantly revised and expanded as they were applied to the rest of the data. The final stage involved the translation of the results from Korean to English, given that the medium of study-group interaction was Korean.

#### **3.4.2.3. Metaphor Identification, Annotation, and Adaptation**

Participants identified some linguistic metaphors in their disciplinary readings. They also annotated and adapted these metaphors while relating them to various topics in their respective fields. In analyzing the MWs' adaptation of the metaphors identified, grounded content analysis was applied to the writers' adaptations, with Cameron & Deignan's (2006) suggestion in mind. According to the authors, metaphor use can be analyzed from various aspects, including lexical, grammatical, and pragmatic ones. Annotation data was also analyzed using grounded content

analysis, which revealed several themes including cross-cultural comparison, (inter-)disciplinarity, and emotional stance towards metaphors.

#### **3.4.2.4. Participants' Reflective Narratives**

A total of seven participants sent their narratives to the researcher approximately 4-5 months after the pedagogical intervention. All of them were written in Korean and translated to English by the researcher. Thematic analysis was applied to these narratives, which was accompanied by the researcher's interpretation of the themes with their relevance to the efficacy of pedagogical intervention and the participants' literacy development in mind.

### **3.5. Conclusion**

This chapter overviewed the research methodology, research context, and method of data analysis employed in the current project. Regarding the research methodology, the tradition of transformative research was introduced and Vygotsky's notion of double stimulation was discussed. It was emphasized that we need to have a new notion of agency, which takes an integrative view of person and the environment. Furthermore, it was suggested that the field of applied linguistics needs to think more deeply about ethical aspects implicated in designing pedagogical interventions and conducting research on human development. The research context offered details of the context, participants, and pedagogical intervention in the current project, highlighting metaphor-driven study-group meetings. This was followed by a discussion on data sources and analytical framework.

The ensuing chapter reviews literature relevant to the current project. Specifically, it discusses the importance of taking the sociocultural approach to writing in achieving an ecologically-valid, praxis-oriented view of the realities the MWs face. This is followed by a

discussion of traditional approaches to L2 writing pedagogy and the potential contributions of cognitive linguistic approach to the MWs' literacy development.

## **Chapter 4**

### **Literacy Practices of the Graduate Students: An Ecological View**

The ensuing four chapters report results of the research. The current chapter presents an ecological view of the MWs' literacy practices, addressing topics such as their language learning history, perceptions of their own writing abilities and sociocultural environments, practices in connecting reading and writing, and the writers' activity system analysis. Chapter 5 describes the study group sessions, the main face-to-face pedagogical intervention, in two parts: pedagogical focus, which served as the guiding themes of the researcher's mediation, and rich points (Agar, 2006), where we can witness the learners' responses and stances to the metaphor-driven writing pedagogy and gather insights for designing and implementing a meaning-based writing curriculum. Chapters 6 and 7 report on the writers' metaphor adaptation and annotation, respectively, which have been proposed as two of the major mediational tools for connecting reading and writing activities.

As discussed in the previous chapter, five activities were carried out to understand the MWs' textual practices in an ecologically valid way. The activities were also designed to encourage the MWs to recognize issues and conflicts in their writing practices.

It is necessary to have an ecological understanding of these writers' past and present academic practices because they form the very sources of literacy development, which of course encompass sources of metaphorical competence. This close understanding of their literacy history and current sociocultural environment can contribute to furthering the multilingual subjects' writing competence in three ways. First, it can reveal their language learning history, which forms



the *habitus* for MWs. This can enable them to develop a critical understanding of their respective current literacy practices. Second, it can help the MWs to examine their writing activity systems and to recognize tensions between what they actually do and what they want to achieve; in other words, what they are and what they are yet to be. Third, an ecological understanding can detail both how MWs use texts to understand disciplinary content and how they produce academic texts, which in turn can inform them with regard to developing effective strategies for making a reading-writing connection. With these points in mind, the following sections report on the results of the activities conducted for an ecological understanding of their literacy practices.

#### **4.1. Interview on English Learning History**

Initial interviews were conducted with all participants as a way to understand their language-learning history and current literacy activities. The interviews were semi-structured, covering questions about each participant's English learning history with a specific focus on experiences in writing. Each interview lasted approximately 30-40 minutes. All the interviews were conducted in Korean and translated by the researcher.

One theme common to all the interviews was the learners' educational experiences. All of them had received English education in Korea. Most of the participants began learning English in the middle of their elementary schooling or at the outset of secondary education. Except for two participants who had studied in US graduate programs (Seung and Mee), none of the learners had experience of composing full-length academic texts such as research articles before they entered their current graduate programs. It is safe to say that this is a consequence of the Korean English education curriculum, where writing is given minimum attention.

Another common point that the MWs stated and even insisted on was that they were poor writers of English. This lack of confidence was evident at several points throughout the interviews. For example, Pil noted his lack of confidence in excerpt (1):

(1) Pil: confidence using English

In terms of confidence in using English, I think I lack confidence. You may see this as an extreme lack of confidence. This was partly because I thought I should be modest. At the same time, I was actually not confident... The other semester, I got a good grade in one course. Even when I submitted one assignment for the course, I was uncertain about the quality of my writing. "This is completely messed up. What have I written here?" I thought. But I got a good grade. Then I asked myself whether my writing was not that bad.

This excerpt shows Pil's understanding of himself as a not-so-competent writer. He uses the expressions such as 'extreme lack of confidence.' In addition, in retrospect, he was uncertain about the quality of his writing even in a course where he received a high grade.

Myung, who had served as a government official in Korea for more than 5 years, was keen to point out the discrepancy between his Korean and English proficiency when he described his writing ability. Excerpt (2) from his interview shows the perceived gap:

(2) Myung: a gap between Korean and English proficiency

In Korean, I think I can do all the things except for creating extremely exquisite sentences or prose. In the case of English, I am not good at writing or reading. I haven't thought much about the cause of this problem. I know that this cannot be addressed in a short term but also feel I should have done something more.

Apparently, his perceived lack of English proficiency was in contrast to his career experience, where he served as a high-ranking government official and contributed to the establishment and implementation of national education policies in Korea. The contrast existed not just from an *etic* viewpoint or the researcher's; he himself also felt a contrast. This became clear to the researcher when Myung shared his story of taking an undergraduate course and feeling "dumb" even though the level of some class conversations was quite plain. As a learner, he was not capable of expressing his topical knowledge and experience in related areas: he simply could not join the conversation in the classroom with all his expertise.

Young described the difficulties he had in writing an academic paper in a detailed way. He recollected the moments when he received feedback on his first academic writings from his professors. In one course, in which he received a low grade, the professor's feedback pointed out that his paper did not follow the proper format of an academic paper. Another instructor commented similarly that his paper failed to follow the conventions required of scientific journals. These episodes show that he had a hard time fully understanding the structure of a research article. In response to the researcher's question regarding whether or not he had gained some confidence in writing over the first year of his graduate study, he answered in the negative. He commented that he thought he was "able to graduate somehow" but still doubted his competence as a writer, backed up by his feeling that he was "afraid to advance to a doctoral program in the US."

Young also shared his experience of considerable difficulties in his first year writing. He remarked that he "could never start writing from a blank sheet of paper." Therefore in his early writing he used to begin with some texts copied from his previous writing or expert texts, and then transform these by playing with words and structures. Clearly, he was dealing actively with his problem by drawing upon the textual affordances he was able to marshal. However, his stance

was negative towards this kind of practice. When asked by the researcher to explain his perception of his writing ability, he offered an analogy to describe the challenges he faced:

(3) Young: the challenge of writing in L2

Yes, that's it. For example, let me imagine I have written a piece of writing in Korean and it is gone because of computer malfunction. Then I can just write it again since the writing has remained in my head. Now suppose I have written one page in English. If it disappears, I cannot write it again, even though it is definitely something I myself have written. That is something I feel awkward about writing in English. I have written a final paper for one of my summer sessions. I dedicated myself to writing it. However, I didn't feel it was mine since I would not be able to produce it again if asked to write it one more time. I cannot reproduce the same thing. It is the biggest stress for me. I should be able to take it out from my head. So I started to memorize. Imagine there are three red balls, two green balls, and three blue ones in a black box in your mind. Now you shake them up. If you ask someone to take one red ball out of the box, he will not be able to do it. However, if one knows the exact location of the balls, he will be able to do it. So I thought that one can take out one specific sentence if he has memorized its exact location. For me, everything has been mixed up and I cannot take one specific ball out. I don't know what is where. When I see an English sentence, I find it really easy. But I cannot take it out of my head. I have frequently thought about my English in this way.

Young's narration shows his perceived asymmetry between text comprehension and production. It also indicates that his lack of confidence in English writing has much to do with his sense of ownership of texts he has created. He feels his Korean texts are "his own," because he can "take out" the writing from his own head. In the case of English writing, he does not have the

same feeling. To address his problem, he resorted to memorizing a large number of expressions. However, he is not satisfied with this strategy. At other times, he admitted that his phrase and expression cramming strategy has definite limitations for writing.

Even though this lack of confidence set the major tone in the MWs' interviews, they also shared their more positive experiences with professional and academic writing. For instance, Pil discussed having written a daily report for the upper chain of command during his military service. He took responsibility for collecting information about accidents and casualties in a large number of military units and formulating this information into a report that conformed to a template. Myung mentioned his experiences of learning how to write various forms of governmental documents in his extensive work for the Korean Ministry of Education. Kyu recollected having prepared welcoming speeches for the Minister or Vice Minister of Education, by marshaling a number of text samples from previous speeches and memoranda. He also mentioned his 2-year experience in UNESCO, where he coordinated several meetings and workshops. Young also reported having written short English assignments in his undergraduate program and one-year study abroad experience.

#### **4.2. SWOT Analysis**

To explore the learners' perceptions of their writing ability, an informal SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats) analysis was carried out. Coupled with activity systems analysis, this analytical tool revealed the ways each participant understood himself as a writer. Specifically, participants were asked to reflect upon their respective strengths and weaknesses, which highlight individual competence based on past experiences. They were also asked to mention any opportunities and threats, which are shaped by their sociocultural environments from the present-to-future perspective. "Threats" here has been used in a meaning

different from an everyday sense. Specifically, it refers to the negative environments, in opposition to opportunities, for achieving one's goals.

Pil first talked about his strengths and mentioned his study experience in a private language institute in Korea, which formed his "psychological base." He said that what he memorized in that institute functions as a basis for his current level of confidence, allowing him to tell himself, "I know this much." For weaknesses, he pointed out his struggle with time pressure for writing assignments and his limited experience in shaping ideas into actual sentences and then into an entire piece of writing. For opportunities, he mentioned the current study group, his interaction with the researcher, and one of his colleagues who is "very open" to him and "accepts any questions and explains about them." For threats, he raised the issue of time again, which he needs to efficiently "allocate considering all the reading and writing assignments."

Myung pointed out his professional experience and a wide range of knowledge in social science as his strengths as a writer. He listed his weaknesses such as his limited experience in English composition and failure to improve his writing ability by reaching out to his communities. For him, studying abroad was an opportunity. He considered a large number of reading and writing assignments as threats because he had limited time to cover them. He added that another threat lies in the fact that there was no feedback channel for his writing.

Young stated that he was good at "decorating his paper." Just after saying this, interestingly, he took his words back. He clearly showed an ambivalent stance towards his "good decorating skill" by saying he "felt he didn't have any strength," since the skill comes from "collecting what he considers to be relevant expressions mainly from the Internet," rather than from his own knowledge. Moving on to his weaknesses, he pointed to his difficulty in constructing a long stretch of discourse and overdependence on other people's words and sentences. To compensate for this weakness, he relied on a strategy of collecting and

paraphrasing "great sentences" and writing the adjacent sentences. Excerpt (4) explains the details of his strategy:

(4) Young: strategy for academic writing

In academic writing, I have to provide a lot of references. It should be the case that the writer composes a large amount of text and adds some supporting materials to it. In my case, the main way of doing that was something like this. If I think I have located some great expressions while reading books or related articles, I first copy and paste the expressions and then fill in sentences before and after them. I mean I write sentences before and after the copied one that can make the text flow naturally. As I said in my interview with the researcher, I don't feel like a paper is mine even after I have written the entire piece. Once I have changed the sentences, they do not show traces of the originals, which can help avoid plagiarism. In this way I avoid plagiarism and get grades, but I cannot rewrite the paper if asked to write it one more time.

Although the participants' evaluations of their ability and prospects as writers are multifaceted, one thing was very clear: Most of them considered their professional knowledge and experience as a source of strength while pointing out linguistic issues as a major weakness. The study abroad situation was seen as providing them with ample opportunities for interaction in English, while the issue of limited time manifested frequently in their description of threats for developing their academic ability.

Table 4.1 summarizes the results of the SWOT analyses. (All the statements were written or presented in Korean by the learners and summarized in English by the researcher.)

Table 4.1. SWOT Analysis Results

Participant	Self-reported SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats)	
Pil	<p>Strengths</p> <p>Study in a private language institute in Korea</p> <p>Opportunities</p> <p>The study group with the researcher and one colleague who is open to his questions about writing</p>	<p>Weaknesses</p> <p>The issue of time; limited experience in shaping ideas into actual sentences and an entire piece of writing</p> <p>Threats</p> <p>The issue of time; difficulty in "allocating time effectively" considering all the reading and writing assignments</p>
Seop	<p>Strengths</p> <p>Fast writing using numerous memorized expressions</p> <p>Opportunities</p> <p>Exposure to numerous occasions for writing; communication opportunities to get feedback on what expressions are more persuasive and reasonable from the viewpoint of American people</p>	<p>Weaknesses</p> <p>Relying on highly formal expressions; inherent limitations of memorization</p> <p>Threats</p> <p>Potential risk of misunderstanding and miscommunicating when using expressions not confirmed as correct without due consideration; sticking to the same expressions over and over</p>
Hoon	<p>Strengths</p> <p>Mindset as a novice writer; high level of understanding of diverse content in his field of study</p> <p>Opportunities</p> <p>Doctoral study itself, which now he now has no choice but to continue; has some time for writing and preparation for writing</p>	<p>Weaknesses</p> <p>Difficulty writing even in Korean; tendency to be "uptight" and a perfectionist in English</p> <p>Threats</p> <p>Feels less competent when comparing self to other students, including Korean students and other native or international students; exploration of shortcuts for improving his writing ability</p>
Kyu	<p>Strengths</p> <p>Previous experiences related to major; capability of bridging own ideas with content</p>	<p>Weaknesses</p> <p>Lack of vocabulary; lack of techniques for connecting one paragraph and the next paragraph</p>



	<p>Opportunities</p> <p>Is taking practical courses where he can cover diverse kinds of expressions</p>	<p>Threats</p> <p>Has to share housework and it is hard to concentrate on work; Both self and native speakers are busy so it is hard to communicate with them</p>
Mee	<p>Strengths</p> <p>Knowledge and information</p> <p>Opportunities</p> <p>Graduate courses and the study group</p>	<p>Weaknesses</p> <p>Limited amount of reading</p> <p>Threats</p> <p>Frequent exposure to Korean materials</p>
Soo	<p>Strengths</p> <p>Likes writing</p> <p>Opportunities</p> <p>Can learn 'fresh' expressions from child; Frequent contact with American culture</p>	<p>Weaknesses</p> <p>Has small 'expression database'; limited vocabulary; limited amount of hours for studying English</p> <p>Threats</p> <p>Child may fall ill; the current situation making it difficult to dedicate self to studying English.</p>
Myung	<p>Strengths</p> <p>Experience, diverse knowledge,</p> <p>Opportunities</p> <p>The present study group; Can refer to other friends' writings; an environment which encourages the use of English</p>	<p>Weaknesses</p> <p>Limited experience in English composition; Small repertoire in academic as well as everyday language; limited speaking and listening ability, which makes it hard to make foreign friends</p> <p>Threats</p> <p>No time for reviewing own writing; no feedback channel for sentences and the nature of writing, in addition to content</p>
Young	<p>Strengths</p> <p>"Decoration of texts"</p> <p>Opportunities</p> <p>Started intentionally thinking in English</p>	<p>Weaknesses</p> <p>Overdependence on other people's texts</p> <p>Threats</p> <p>Difficulty in forcing self to think in English</p>

Jun	<p>Strengths</p> <p>Motivation; logical structure</p> <p>Opportunities</p> <p>Co-work with academic advisor; dissertation writing; working on journal publication; the study group</p>	<p>Weaknesses</p> <p>Language barrier; limited writing practice; limited expressive power</p> <p>Threats</p> <p>Pressure from conducting various projects in the case he returns to Korea</p>
Hana	<p>Strengths</p> <p>Structuring writing logically</p> <p>Opportunities</p> <p>Ample opportunities for reading and writing English texts; the present study group</p>	<p>Weaknesses</p> <p>Lack of basics in vocabulary; limited writing experience; has real difficulty writing without Naver dictionary; use of limited words and expressions</p> <p>Threats</p> <p>Other activities require a lot of time (e.g. speaking and listening training, reading assignments, housework, etc.), which makes it difficult to think deep enough and produce a tightly-interwoven text.</p>
Yeon	<p>Strengths</p> <p>Natural expressions acquired from GRE and TOEFL preparation; likes English</p> <p>Opportunities</p> <p>Lots of assignments; Had to write reports for observation assignments</p>	<p>Weaknesses</p> <p>Frequent mistakes in grammar; usage error in even a very easy word; repeated language patterns (Memorization gives ability to produce expressions naturally; however, this is also a problem.) Writing out of focus; sometimes produces structures which seem strange to American people, which causes sense of shame.</p> <p>Threats</p> <p>Cannot avoid reading a lot of things; It seems that all the time is spent on reading; Upon graduation, will likely not use English much.</p>

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### 4.3. The Gap between Writing and Reading

Two short questions about the participants' perceived gap between their writing and reading abilities were formulated based on two lines of observation. First, the participants considered themselves to be incompetent writers in English. Second, according to the researcher's observation throughout his teaching experience in the site of research, most international graduate students invest little time in writing other than fulfilling their academic assignments. This means that the questions aim not to test the hypothesis whether there is actually a gap between comprehension and production, but to give the participants the structured opportunity to reflect critically on their reading and writing practices. In other words, they were asked to evaluate their strategies to improve their writing competence and invited to recognize implicit conflicts between their objectives as a writer and their actual literacy practices. The questions were as follows:

#### Questions 1

Do you feel that there is a gap between your reading and writing ability? If so, describe the gap in your own words. Do you think that the situation is different in Korean than in English? If so, why is it the case?

#### Question 2

In what ways are you trying to fill the gap between your reading and writing ability?  
What are some strategies you want to adopt in addressing the gap in the future?

For the first part of Question 1 ("Do you feel that there is a gap between your reading and writing ability?"), the learners replied unanimously in the affirmative and one response was marked quite emphatically: "of course!" In describing why that was the case, the writers offered

diverse explanations. The first strand of answers ascribed the discrepancy partly to linguistic differences between Korean and English. For example, Seop mentioned "different word order" and "unpredictable English word combinations." Kyu gave a more nuanced explanation, stating that "when I write in English, even after I finish writing letters or research articles, I know they are English sentences, but cannot be assured that my writings are relevant to each context." Here he connects both his linguistic problem per se and his lack of genre knowledge needed for English composition in explaining his limited writing proficiency.

The second strand out of answers was that writing is not so frequently required while reading is a must in everyday life. Soo mentioned, "the gap is quite natural since I invested less time in English writing in comparison with English reading." This aligns with Hoon's statement that he "can manage his everyday life quite well even if he has limited writing experience."

Yeon's description, given in (5), summarizes this line of reasoning:

(5) Yeon: Reasons for Stagnant Writing Ability

I think the reason why my writing does not improve is that my writing practice is not enough and I do not find practicing writing in English absolutely necessary for me. When I was a child, say, in elementary school, I did writing, even though against my will, because my teachers asked me to write diaries, essays, book reviews, and so on. Now I don't have to write much, unless I successfully motivate myself to do so.

The third strand described different cognitive processes involved in writing and reading. Jun highlighted the differences as follows: "[i]n Korean, the brain uses similar abilities for reading and writing, not recognizing reading and writing processes as separated, while in English it approaches them as if they are separated, different processes." Hana concurred with this idea and pointed out the reverse direction of information flow involved in writing and reading

activities. According to her characterization, "while reading is a process in which I take *external* information *into* me, writing is a process where I *externalize* something *inside* me." This asymmetry apparently makes writing more difficult than reading.

Regarding ways to address the reading-writing gap, many of the participants responded that they employ highlighting and collecting useful expressions as a major strategy. Soo said, "I underline important sentences. I also use the (underlined) expression when I write my own sentences for assignments," while Hana mentioned that she "write[s] down good expressions and sentences while reading." Myung adopted a similar strategy of "writ[ing] down basic yet 'forgotten' or great expressions." Pil's remark "I want to build my own database whenever I have the oh-this-is-how-I-express-that moments" represents this line of effort.

The learners also mentioned that they planned to write in English on a regular basis. This seems to reflect their diagnosis of the gap as originating from limited writing experience. Hoon expressed his intention "to write every day, even if the amount is not big." Soo also stated, "I would like to imitate good sentences, getting accustomed to written expressions." Hana said she planned to write down good expressions and sentences she identifies while reading.

Seop, who majored in law, was unique in that he was using a strategy in which he begins the writing process from his own thinking and looks intentionally for expressions in related texts. Specifically, he searched for expressions that corresponded to the meanings he would frequently express by reading the works by "some people whose thoughts are similar to his own." Jun wanted to adopt a similar strategy "to focus on different ways the same idea is expressed while reading." He used the term "active reading" to describe this kind of approach to reading.

Table 4.2 summarizes the MWs' perception of the reading-writing gap and proposed methods to overcome the problem. All the statements were written or presented in Korean by the learners and summarized by the researcher.

Table 4.2. Writers' Perceived Gap of Reading and Writing and Proposed Strategies

Writer	Question 1 (Gap description)	Question 2 (Current and future efforts to bridge the gap)
Seop	Yes. (1) Different word order (2) When I evoke my thoughts in language, Korean and English have different uses of words (little correspondence), and from the Korean perspective, there are quite many unpredictable English word combinations (e.g. half mile down). (3) Prepositions frequently substitute verbs.	Searching other sentences first in Google or Naver; Trying to mark and memorize the expressions I find while reading, if they correspond to what I often want to say (e.g. just because ... doesn't necessarily means that ...); Reading some writings of the people whose thinking is the same as mine or whose language is similar to the language I usually use.
Soo	Of course there is a gap. I can read professional books or newspaper articles in English but feel that I am at the elementary school level in terms of writing. The gap is quite natural since I invested less time in English writing in comparison with English reading.	I underline important sentences. I also use the (underlined) expression when I write my own sentences. I would like to imitate good sentences, getting accustomed to written expressions. I expect those sentences will become mine in that way.
Kyu	The gap between writing and reading: I read letters, academic articles, and greetings for conference; words and expressions for each occasion are slightly different. However, when I write in English, even after I finish letters or articles, I know they are English sentences but cannot be assured that my writings are relevant to each context.	To fill the gap, I adopt formats of previous letters if I have to write letters. I also use expressions and formats of other articles for expressing my thoughts in an article. For future efforts, it would be necessary to memorize key expressions relevant to each context.
Pil	I feel the gap. But this gap makes me think about the context. For example, if I have to take a test, reading would not be	I plan to write frequently about topics in my major, everyday life, study habits, social issues, and so on. Especially, I

that easy. In the case of reading, I can understand the text with the support of dictionaries, while talking to myself, "wow, this is expressed this way." In the case of writing, I sometimes cannot find the expressions I have once seen however hard I try to find them in a dictionary.

would like to remember the researcher's suggestion that no writing means no thinking and my own realization about writing. Regarding expressions, I would like to apply expressions in my academic writing book.

I am thinking that I need to write down even just a paragraph after reading an article. I also plan to build my own database. (Whenever I have the "oh, this is how I express that" moment.)

Hoon

I feel the gap. Reading is something I have to do in my everyday life, for example, I need to read instructions after purchasing a product. So I experience reading more than writing. However, in the case of writing, the number of experiences is relatively small. In other words, I can manage my everyday life quite well even if I have limited writing experience. The exception would be the case where one motivates oneself to write more.

I try to write every day, even if I don't write much. (For future efforts) I will write a planned amount of academic prose. I also want to show my writing to other people and getting feedback from them.

Myung

Basically, I think there is a gap between writing and reading even in Korean. However, I do not envy people except for a few authors who write extraordinary sentences. In the case of English, my reading and writing abilities show a big difference. Reading is relatively easy. One reason is that in the case of writing I need to use expressions to relevant occasions

I am not trying any strategy for improving writing (other than taking coursework and writing for assignments. - added by researcher) I sometimes write down basic yet forgotten expressions, or great expressions. This is not done in a systematical way and I haven't made it a habit.

but I lack that kind of competence. As with speaking, I doubt I would be able to write like a native writer.

I have not thought about how to fill the gap between reading and writing. I try to make good writings and expressions mine.

Hana

First of all, I feel that there is a gap between reading and writing. While reading is a process in which I take external information into me, writing is a process where I externalize something inside me. In the case of reading, we can understand by hunch and skip some parts even though we do not comprehend the entire writing. However, in the case of writing, I need to express the exact thought inside me. Thus the thought itself should be clear and the expression of my writing should be clear, too. This makes writing difficult. I think the gap is different in Korean and in English. When I write in Korean, I have lots of vocabulary, expressions, and knowledge of grammar. In contrast, I have limitation in these things, which makes me experience difficulty.

Writing down good expressions and sentences while reading; Writing table of contents while reading.

Jun

In the case of my Korean, it seems that there is no wide gap between writing and reading. In the case of English, there seems to be one. It seems that the fundamental reason lies in the fact that, in Korean, the brain uses similar abilities for reading and writing, not recognizing reading and writing processes as

It seems that I am trying no method to fill the gap. I focus on receiving information and grasping knowledge when I read English. It may be great to focus on different ways the same content is expressed while reading. Active reading and passive reading.



separated, while in English it approaches them as if they are separated, different processes, which are not integrated.

Seung

Yes. There is a gap between reading and writing.

Writing is mainly a very active part while reading is mainly passive. In other words, when you read, you read and judge other people's ideas while writing is one's own creative process, which imposes much more burden on the person. In my case, the gap plays in different ways in Korean and in English. Each language has different structures and tends to reflect culture. So there is a large difference between Korean and English in terms of the number of words I can use.

For now, I reserve using potentially awkward expressions for official writings. I try to avoid using unfamiliar words in research project reports and such documents. However, this has its advantage of making sentences simplistic.

For future - I think reading a lot matters. I also think reading a lot of writings by other people and learning expressions from them will help me overcome the gap between reading and writing.

Yeon

(Yeon integrated her description of the gap between reading and writing.) Regarding reading, I became competent enough to read New York Times and academic articles, which other people find hard to read, without much difficulty; however, I frequently feel like I am at the level of a kindergartener or elementary schooler in terms of writing. In fact, I still have to look up difficult words in a dictionary while reading. Every time this happens, I feel, "Ah, I need to study vocabulary." I think the reason why my writing does not improve is that my writing practice is not enough and I do not find practicing writing in English absolutely necessary for me. When I was a child, say, in elementary school, I did writing, even though against my will, because my teachers asked me to write diary, essays, book review, and so on. Now I don't have to write much, unless I motivate myself to do so. And I sometimes try to translate what I read into Korean and doubt whether I am reading in an appropriate way. I am concerned about this.

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#### 4.4. How Multilingual Students Read Texts for Assignments

Pil first shared details of his reading practices for writing assignments with the group. He began by saying, "I am constantly changing reading strategies." He used two sides of the margin on the page, writing down meanings of the word on one side and key content on the other. He often assigned numbers to the author's key points, in addition to marking signposts such as first, second, and third. Drawing pictures was another method he frequently used for grasping the gist of the reading materials. In excerpt (6) he describes one of the diagrams he drew for summarizing an article:

(6) Pil: description of summary diagram

I am not familiar with policy studies or related topics as I am taking this kind of course for the first time. In this course I learned several terms such as agenda setting and problem identification. (Pointing to his own diagram) I use arrows to show that these policy processes are not linear. This is what I drew in trying to understand the concept of *a policy window*. It uses a metaphor by stating that at one moment a window opens for an idea to materialize as a policy.

Pil's subsequent explanation revealed that he employed a series of strategies to achieve a close understanding of an article: (1) creating his own table of contents using headings and subheadings in the article; (2) organizing references following APA style; (3) using handwriting (rather than typing) to remember key points; and (4) consolidating his understanding through discussion with other people in his course discussion group.

Mee categorized reading assignments into two types. The first requires her to memorize and fully digest the content while the second is about getting the gist of a text. She mentioned that

she underlined keywords rather than sentences, adding that she did not like using highlighters because it directed her attention only to highlighted parts. Recently she started using a tablet device for article reading, but sometimes returned to the old way of reading printed materials. She would scan section titles for wrapping up her reading so that she could refresh her memory about main points of an article.

Kyu jokingly called his main strategy for dealing with a large amount of reading "having intentional 'prejudice' about the content of the articles." He first reviewed the table of contents for each article in order to determine his strategies for selecting what to read. He tended to read conclusions first for the same reason. What stood out in Kyu's case was his use of markers of diverse colors. For example, he used yellow, blue, and red markers respectively for the author's key points, what he would like to express in his own speech and writing, and domain-specific keywords in higher education. For marking unfamiliar words, he used a pencil. When he returned to the same article, he usually read just the marked parts rather than the entire piece.

Myung used a slightly different strategy to extract content knowledge from a text. He collected all the useful quotes in one notebook. He was keen to identify the segments he would potentially cite in his own writing. In the past he used five colors for marking texts, which was one of the common strategies employed by test takers for the Higher Civil Service Examination, but not anymore. Recently he gave up marking keywords but continued to mark useful sentences for quotation. One of his goals for doing this was to compile in one place all the important information for dissertation writing.

Kyu, in excerpt (7), provided an interesting remark regarding why readers return to print format from using new technological gadgets. According to him, physical characteristics are very important for his organization and memory of diverse reference materials.

(7) Kyu: reading in print rather than electronic format

I have tried to read things on the Internet or articles in a pdf format on screen, only to fail. I need to read printed articles or books. Directly. When I see a long list of pdf files, I do not remember which article contains what. If I read books, I remember the image of the book, which reminds me "Ah, I read that in the yellow book." And I can get directly into the volume. Maybe I am in a concrete image manipulation stage rather than in a symbol manipulation one. Red book, blue book, this article, big article. I cannot remember file names for the life of me.

Hoon, self-admitted novice writer and reader, commented that he did not have any specific strategy to read for writing. He usually printed out reading materials. He used his ballpoint pen for marking texts and employing a tactic of reading aloud when he was unable to focus on reading just by silent reading. He sometimes walked around while reading articles.

Mee shared her experience in her master's thesis writing, where a strategy of writing down key findings was not an effective method since she rarely revisited them. One useful strategy, however, was to create folders in her computer whose names corresponded to key words in her field of study and to place relevant articles in those folders. What was unique to her case (among the participants) was that she often placed an article into different file folders if it related to multiple key words.

Seop mentioned that the majority of the reading he does in law school is on court cases, which are usually from the Supreme Court and comprise the opinions of the nine justices. Another genre is legal review, which he noted he has not read a great deal of. He first used different colors for marking important parts of the court cases. As the first, the second, and the third court decisions include different reasoning patterns, he used to apply as many as six colors to marking different perspectives and lines of thinking at his early days in law school. Currently, he was using two colors, one for facts and the other for reasoning

Seung used "sectional reading" as his main reading strategy. He focused on different sections of research articles depending on his own purposes. Unlike most of the learners, who had difficulty reading online, he used a digital device for reading and marking journal articles. To grasp the gist of each article, he tended to read the abstract and the introduction first.

It was notable that Pil continually changed reading strategies even within a short period of time. For example, for his qualitative method course, he marked information provided by different interviewees and informants in different colors so that he could easily differentiate those parts. He also adjusted his reading strategy depending on reading materials (for example, book chapters versus journal articles) as well as on course content. He even changed marking strategies from one article to another.

Jun's strategy, reached after considerable trial and error, according to the learner, was to summarize an article in a single sentence. He realized that this was very useful for him after he experienced embarrassment when faced with several instructors' questions asking the author's intentions in each article. He stated, "I couldn't answer those questions because I didn't hold the core idea." Since then, he made it a rule to attach a sentence which describes "what this article is doing" to a printed copy of the article he has finished reading.

Young, who read articles of 20-30 pages most of the time, said he writes down important parts or key words, using either pen and paper or a computer. When he returns to an article, he checks whether he can retrieve "the schematic image of the reading" with what he has recorded. If he thinks those parts do not enable him to remember central ideas, he revisits the relevant parts of the article. One important strategy was using Korean translations for understanding difficult sentences. He said, "I write Korean translations of the parts if I cannot easily understand them in English. Once I finish translation, I can understand Korean better than English."

Yeon, as with Jun, said that she experienced trial and error in reading for courses. At the outset of her graduate study, she had thought that she needed to read an entire article. This "took

such a long time" since she was a "very meticulous person." She therefore changed her reading habits little by little. In order to organize articles, she printed and bound them according to their topics. She was still in the process of figuring out the best way to do course reading since it takes "such a long time" to read for writing assignments.

Hana paid close attention to the logical structure of an article, marking "objectives, counterargument, problem-posing, etc." When time was limited, she would write down the contents of an article and read the parts relevant to her purpose. She mentioned that one thing she has realized is that some articles deal with many concepts even if they are short while some articles elaborate one concept in quite a lengthy way.

#### **4.5. Contextualizing all these: Activity Systems Analysis**

Participants conducted an activity systems analysis in order to understand their sociocultural writing environment in a systematic way. The activity system triangle, borrowed from Engestrom (1987) and Yamagata-Lynch (2010), was proposed as a conceptual tool for participants to reflect critically upon their own writing practices. This informal heuristic can address questions such as "what kinds of tools am I using for writing?" "what object do I try to achieve as a writer?"; "what are some rules I need to follow in pursuing my goal?"; "who and which communities do I interact with for this writing activity?"; and finally "whom do I collaborate directly with for accomplishing the task?" In the following discussion, labels for each element in Engestrom's activity systems framework will be used for reference. The original model is reproduced below.

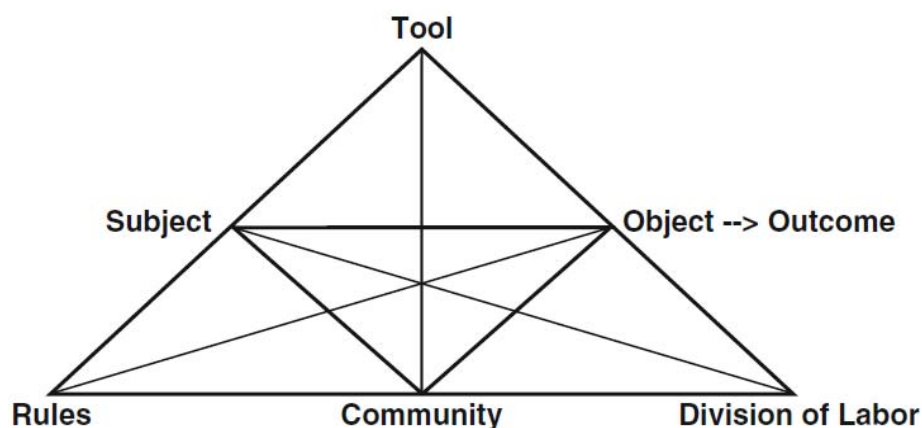


Figure 4.1. Activity System Triangle from Yamagata-Lynch (2010) (Original from Engestrom (1987))

It seems that a few words would be relevant in contextualizing the use of activity system analysis in this format. According to Engestrom (1999) third generation activity theory posits complex interactions and tensions of multiple activity systems. In other words, no activity system exists as a self-contained, closed system. It follows that a writer's activity system should be understood in relation to other activity systems. For example, Myung, who had worked as a civic official, came to the university with support from the Korean Ministry of Education. This means that his study goals cannot be separated from his career goals, and motives for the actions to improve his own writing ability would be influenced by institutional expectations. In the study group session, however, it was proposed that the participants focus on why, how, with whom they write, and think deeply about how they can transform their activity system. This was an intentional choice considering that the participants needed to focus primarily on their writing practices and also it was the first time for them to engage in an activity system analysis, even an informal one.

All the participants, except for Seung, performed the analysis and shared results with the other group members. The analysis of the subject was replaced by the SWOT analysis reported above. The discussion of mediational tools followed. In terms of the frequency of use, online dictionaries took first place among their preferences. Writing-related references and Internet search engines were also frequently used. Expressions gleaned from articles and books were also important mediational tools.

Only Seop reported using anything resembling a corpus tool as an aid for writing. Seop compiled all the emails he received in English and used them as his own database for expressions. He was able to find useful expressions using the search function of his email account. Interestingly, he described source emails he had collected as "spam from the perspective of American people." Jun was the only person to use a thesaurus as one of the mediational tools. Even though Hoon mentioned that he was using the Google translation service as a tool for writing, he qualified the value of this strategy by pointing out that his use of machine translation was strictly limited to sentences with fairly simple structures. Table 4.3 summarizes the mediational tools employed by each of the participants.

Table 4.3. Activity System Analysis: Mediational Tools

<b>Participant</b>	<b>Mediational Tools</b>
Pil	Daum/Naver dictionary, Wikipedia, articles, laptop, miscellaneous files, blog, copying and pasting English expressions
Myung	Naver dictionary, electronic dictionary, Google, Korean English newspapers
Hoon	Google translation, smartphone dictionary (dictionary.com); Hopes to use other articles and expressions in other people's books
Seop	Dictionaries on law, online dictionaries, expressions in court cases, Facebook, emails



including official emails from the university (spam from the perspective of American people)

Mee	Dictionaries, English articles written by Korean researchers
Kyu	Naver English dictionary, keywords in articles
Soo	Online dictionaries such as Daum and Naver, books on English composition, Merriam-Webster English dictionary
Jun	Oxford Thesaurus dictionary, Naver dictionary, Google search, writing reference: Elements in Style by Strunk and White
Young	Laptop, smart phone dictionary, Naver dictionary and examples, previous assignments, scholarly articles
Seung	No entry
Hana	Laptop, Naver dictionary, Google
Yeon	Naver dictionary, Google, electronic dictionary, books on writing, laptop, notepad

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The MWs' conceptualizations of their objects as writers were different in scope. Most of them aimed to complete academic assignments, write a thesis or dissertation, or publish an academic paper. Seop, a law major, emphasized the persuasive power of writing. Yeon mentioned that it was one of her 'simple' goals to submit assignments on time while Myung commented that "speeding up English writing to the pace of Korean writing" was an important personal objective.

Pil and Young provided interesting remarks with reference to this component of their activity system. The former mentioned becoming a "storyteller" and a "researcher in higher education" as his objects and the latter stated that he was hoping to write poetry in English. These were broader in scope compared to other common goals. Other more fine-grained objects included "enhancing sensitivity to using Korean-influenced expressions" (Jun), "submitting my

reports without any grammatical mistakes" (Yeon), and "to write well in plain words" (Young).

Table 4.4 summarizes the objects pursued by each of the MWs.

Table 4.4. Activity System Analysis: Objects

<b>Participant</b>	<b>Object</b>
Pil	Storytelling, completing a dissertation, becoming a competent researcher in higher education
Myung	Writing a dissertation, articles, and assignments; speeding up English writing to the pace of Korean writing; persuasion of foreign people with English writing
Hoon	Writing reasonable thesis statements in academic prose; writing course assignments, emails, and articles
Seop	Becoming a persuasive writer
Mee	Writing that is clear, well-structured, and fit to its purpose
Kyu	Master's thesis and other papers
Soo	Drafting a simple document in English; thorough understanding of contracts; fluent expression of thoughts
Jun	Building the foundation for writing; enhancing sensitivity to using Korean-influenced expression
Young	Writing poetry in English; Needs to write a master's paper so wants to write well in plain words
Seung	No entry
Hana	Writing for academic assignments, publishing papers
Yeon	Writing a master's thesis, submitting reports on time and without any grammatical mistakes

With regard to “rules” to follow in writing, a majority of the participants referred to the issue of plagiarism. It seems that this is an unintended result caused by a short discussion of plagiarism in the same study group gathering. At the same time, this reflects the fact that most of the MWs were acutely aware of the importance of academic integrity and possibly feeling pressured to avoid plagiarism. Other than this copyright issue, reference formats such as APA and paraphrasing strategy were mentioned as examples of rules in writing. Table 4.5 presents the rules the participants referred to.

Table 4.5. Activity System Analysis: Rules

Participant	Rules
Pil	Copyright, plagiarism, and APA. Setting my own goal.
Myung	Plagiarism
Hoon	Regular writing, even in a small amount, completing all the assignments, reading three articles weekly, keeping all appointments
Seop	distinction between <i>a(n)</i> and <i>the</i> , passive and active voice, tense distinction, if/when, use of appropriate transitional words
Mee	Depends on purpose of the writing (term-paper, thought paper, report, academic article)
Kyu	No entry
Soo	Plagiarism
Jun	Plagiarism, complying with the norm in the field of business, APA
Young	Avoiding plagiarism
Seung	No entry

Hana	APA style, consistency & cohesion, grammar, rubric, norm, citation
Yeon	Avoiding plagiarism. APA style, citation, paraphrasing

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It turned out that the number of community members with whom the multilingual subjects communicated as writers were quite small. They were academic advisors, Korean colleagues, and professors. Many of the participants mentioned the metaphor study group as one community for academic communication. Pil and Myung were participating in another study group, where they prepared course readings and assignments with other Korean colleagues. Meanwhile, a few participants raised the concern about interacting only with Korean colleagues and friends. For example, Kyu said, "the amount of communication with Korean people is larger than that with native speakers. This is helpful for organizing content but of limited value in developing language skills," while Myung was hoping to "interact more with foreigner friends and [her] academic advisor." Table 4.6 includes the participants' descriptions of the communities relevant to their literacy activities.

Table 4.6. Activity System Analysis: Community

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<b>Participant</b>	<b>Community</b>
Pil	Email exchange with friends studying abroad, conversation with people while having meals, study groups (the present writing study group and other groups for studying topics related to my major), academic advisor
Myung	Korean colleagues in the department (current); hopes to interact more with foreigner friends and academic advisor
Hoon	Department, academic advisor, Korean student committee in the department, the current study group

Seop	Department friends and lawyers
Mee	Academia; people whose first language is not English
Kyu	The amount of communication with Korean people is larger than that with native speakers. This is helpful for organizing content but a limitation in developing language skills.
Soo	This study group, husband
Jun	Academic advisor, a professor he collaborates with for a project, the current study group
Young	Friends (social), department friends
Seung	No entry
Hana	The current study group, colleagues in the department of music education, course instructors
Yeon	academic advisor, a few American friends

---

The learners' descriptions of division of labor revealed that they were rather isolated from social interaction with other people in terms of collaboration for writing projects. Many of them talked about their experiences of working with native proofreaders or editors. However, Kyu pointed out that there is a definite limitation in working with proofreaders in that "those editors have nothing to do with my own major, which limits the possibility of getting context-relevant feedback that is helpful for revision." Some of the writers had benefited from close friends (Young) or a spouse (Hoon) in their proofreading stage. Pil was concerned about dividing work for writing assignments because it "delays [his] writing process." Table 4.7 summarizes the patterns of labor division in the MWs' composing processes.

Table 4.7. Activity System Analysis: Division of Labor

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Participant	Division of Labor
Pil	Division of labor delays writing process, usually takes care of editing and proofreading on his own, sometimes talks with the researcher for checking ideas in the ideation stage, graduate writing center
Myung	Takes care of almost everything himself. One exception was two editors (one Filipino editor and one American reviser in 2011); hoping to have one native friend who can review everyday emails and all the assignments but interacts with Koreans only
Hoon	Proofreading by spouse
Seop	Asks various questions to American friends and lawyers
Mee	Feedback on contents of the first draft from the colleagues who know the field very well; Proofreading for master's thesis by a native speaker
Kyu	Previous experiences working with native editors for completing assignments. However, those editors had nothing to do with his own major, which limited the possibility of getting context-relevant feedback that is helpful for revision.
Soo	Husband, American friend, MS Word (grammar check)
Jun	Proofreader (not one person, changes depending on work), academic advisor in the case of co-authoring a paper
Young	One roommate who offers proofreading and corrects grammar, academic advisor
Seung	N/A
Hana	No division of labor at the moment; hopes to go to the graduate writing center; wants to work with native speaker friends in the department
Yeon	Interacting with some members of one transcultural group meeting, though not directly related to current work

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#### **4.6. Conclusion**

The current chapter presented an ecological view of the MWs, employing multiple sources of data obtained from the informal interviews, SWOT analysis, the learners' description of the gap between their reading and writing abilities, description of the ways they read academic text for writing assignments, and finally activity systems analysis.

The environments for these writers were characterized by generic mediational tools such as online dictionaries, a dearth of social interaction relevant to literacy practices, a set of outcome-based descriptions of their objects, awareness of the institutional and legal rules including plagiarism, and a division of labor involving native speakers as a final proofreader. The issue of limited time often surfaced as the most important hurdle in their effort to improve writing ability, to which no solution was found. The writers were mobilizing various semiotic resources and mediational strategies for reading for their academic assignments; however, these were based on common sense approaches rather than some quality textual and technological tools like genre analysis and corpus consultation, let alone metaphor analysis. In other words, they were aspiring to improve their writing but had few opportunities for writing-related discussions and workshops. This made them stick to their habitus in understanding literacy activities, which in turn has clear presence in their reading and writing activities. These observations suggest that the MWs were conscious of the problems and issues in their writing activity systems but at the same time could not but struggle to fulfill their academic requirements and related responsibilities.

The next chapter analyzes some insightful and informative study-group episodes, which cast light on how an effective mediational strategy might be designed based on the cognitive linguistic approach to second language learning and teaching.

## **Chapter 5**

### **Pedagogical Intervention: Study Group Meetings**

This chapter discusses the pedagogical intervention that was implemented in the study-group sessions. The discussion will be divided into two parts. The first briefly describes the pedagogical focus, which provided the overarching theme for study-group sessions. The second considers some "rich points" (Agar, 2006), where the participants' conversations on metaphors revealed significant insights into their literacy development.

#### **5.1. Pedagogical Focus in Study Group Meetings**

Several points were emphasized by the researcher throughout the pedagogical intervention. First, it was stressed that literacy development is not limited to changing textual practices such as reading and writing. For the purpose of emphasizing this idea, an informal activity system analysis was conducted during the first session of the study-group gathering. The concluding remark by the researcher in this session clearly shows this orientation:

(1) Researcher: emphasis on the entire writing activity system

Lastly, I think that we need to consider the entire writing activity system to become a good writer. Reading many books may be central in becoming a proficient user of English. But that is a very small part of academic communication, as far as I have been able to determine. As I noted before, there are several components in this system and I



think it would be difficult to improve our writing dramatically within two or three years, for the period we study abroad, without attempting to change various elements in that system. So I think we need conscious effort. I would like to emphasize this. The next thing I would like to tell you is that it would be great to learn how people improve writing and where they encounter difficulties, rather than just collect English expressions.

The importance of connecting reading and writing was also frequently communicated to the participants. One entire session was devoted to reflecting critically on reading practices for writing assignments. In addition, the crucial role of conceptual understanding of text and analytical reading in terms of metaphors was often discussed. The following excerpts from one of the handouts distributed to the study group members show this emphasis.

(2) Researcher: emphasis on connecting reading and writing

The phrase "integration of thinking and writing in education" is often used in Korea. However, as far as I know, the focus of writing pedagogy is still on memorization of writing templates and core expressions. Of course there are some great teachers and my observation does not apply to all the classrooms. Okay, let's start today's discussion. The following is an excerpt from a New York Times article. "Before striking New York, the storm left a path of wreckage that killed at least 16 people in six states, paralyzed most modes of transportation across the Northeast and caused flooding in several states." Here the storm refers to the hurricane. Its impact is being expressed in as many as four ways. First, there is an expression *strike New York*. If a natural disaster 'hits' a region, the verb *strike* can be used. In this case, *hit* can also be used. In a less strong sense, if the storm reached the region, you may want to say *arrive*. Other than these uses, a storm can *approach* and *pass*. In this way, it would be helpful for improving our writing to think

deeply about what verbs can appear instead of a specific verb or what kinds of verbs typically describe the actions of a certain subject. Linguistically, this involves conceptualizing the position where the verb *strike* occurs, which is called the paradigmatic axis, and listing the expressions that can fill in the paradigm.

In relation to the mediational means for connecting reading and writing, the researcher asked the participants to engage in analytical reading in addition to reading just for content. He suggested that the participants should overcome the preconception that only writing will improve their writing abilities, and try other approaches to writing, including reading texts while identifying metaphors, examining/considering different uses of an expression with the support of corpus consultation, jotting down new and interesting expressions, and checking exemplars for specific sentences they want to create. He further emphasized that MWs need to expand the notion of reading from reading for content to reading in an analytical way with focus on semantic and conceptual structures and lexicogrammatical choices.

The next focus was helping participants understand the ubiquity of metaphor in language whether in their everyday use or disciplinary discourse. This led to a discussion of everyday metaphors in Session 2 and disciplinary metaphors throughout the group meetings. To help the MWs develop critical reflexivity on their disciplinary metaphors, the final two sessions were devoted to discussion of the relationship between metaphor and ideology. This focus is closely connected with the core tenets of cognitive linguistics and conceptual metaphor theory, according to which metaphor is, is a particular way of thinking, not an ornamental device of speech and thus should be recognized as a fundamental mechanism of how humans understand complex entities and abstract relationships.

As discussed in Chapter 2, metaphor identification, adaptation, and annotation were adopted as the main mediational tools for the current pedagogical intervention. At the same time,

the researcher sought a balance between exploring new metaphors and using them correctly by introducing corpus tools, in particular, COCA (Corpus of Contemporary American English). In a study group presentation, these mediational tools were framed as a useful way to bridge the gap between one's perceived abilities of comprehension and production. This framing was based on the researcher's teaching experience and his interview with the participants. A detailed description of this pedagogical strategy follows below.

Finally, graduate students' identity as scholars was discussed in association with the importance of writing in academe. The researcher suggested that the participants set up an open or closed blog and keep writing about a specific topic. He also talked about his wish to be a good writer and at the same time a good writing teacher. The following excerpt from a study session shows the researcher's stance towards one's identity as a scholar and its relationship to writing development.

(3) Researcher: account of the relationship of scholarly identity and writing

When we as students meet other people and ask about their jobs, it is often the case that Americans tend to talk about their interests without hesitation. On the other hand, Koreans tend to be indirect or intentionally ambiguous due to the valuation of the virtue of modesty. However, I think I myself have changed. And I try to deliver why I am passionate for what I am doing rather than just giving information about my work. I think my work is reading, writing, speaking, and debating. Writing should be an integral part of the scholarly and graduate life. If writing is not firmly embedded in one's identity, it will be difficult to succeed in this field. Actually, it's almost impossible. It would not be far from true that successful people in academia are those who take writing as one of the central activities in their life and write almost every day.

Here, the researcher shares his identity shift since he entered graduate school. His intellectual modesty has given way to the passion for sharing his research interests with other people. He also stresses that "writing should be an integral part of the scholarly and graduate life," suggesting that writing may determine academic success. In this way, he attempts to shake up the participants' conceptualization of relationship between writing and scholarly identity.

## **5.2. Study Session: Rich Points**

Some "rich points" in the metaphor-related episodes are discussed below. The term "rich points" has been borrowed from Agar's (2006) discussion on languacultural experiences of "outsiders." He defines the term as "those surprises, those departures from an outsider's expectations that signal a difference between LC1 and LC2 and give direction to subsequent learning." (p.2) Along this line, rich points in the current context refer to the episodes that reveal participants' languacultural experiences. Thus, these moments provide rich insights for the participants' perception of and stance towards metaphor-driven pedagogy. These points are also rich in that they reveal what teachers and researchers should consider in designing a metaphor-driven curriculum for second language writing. Several themes were identified as a result of content analysis based on grounded theory: (1) sources and strategies for understanding unfamiliar metaphors, (2) cross- and intra-cultural comparison of metaphors, (3) cultural awareness in understanding metaphors, (4) selecting and applying metaphors to one's own experience, (5) interdisciplinary conversation with metaphors, and (6) the participants' critical stance in evaluating metaphor-based discourse analysis. (In the excerpts below, the researcher has been named SWK.)

### 5.2.1. Sources and Strategies for Understanding Novel Metaphors

In the second session of the group meetings, the participants were provided with 40 everyday metaphors and asked to decipher their meanings. After approximately 20 minutes of silent reading, the group discussed the meaning of each metaphorical expression. During the silent reading time, they were encouraged to write down the meaning of each expression. The typical pattern of interaction in this session was the participants' verbalization of their own understanding or reasoning, followed by SWK's response. For example, when the expression "Don't lose heart" was presented, Seop defined it as "Don't lose your confidence," which was immediately followed by Kyu's interpretation, "Don't be disappointed." SWK echoed their answers to which Pil responded by adding his interpretation: "Don't lose your passion."

In some cases, the learners successfully guessed the meaning of a given expression. The following episode on the metaphor "there are problems on the horizon," shows an example where the participants reached the correct meaning relatively quickly and effortlessly.

(4) Group: discussion on the metaphor *an issue on the horizon*

Seop: A certain issue emerges? A certain issue... This is really an issue.

SWK: This is a real issue.

Seop: Yes.

Kyu: Now a real problem has just started emerging.

SWK: A problem has just started emerging. What's the meaning of horizon?

All: 수평선 [horizon]

SWK: Yes, it is 수평선. So?

All: (silent)

SWK: You got it right. Horizon means 수평선. So something was not visible and now something starts becoming visible at that end.

Pil: Ah...

Soo: A problem is now going up over[emerging on] the horizon.

Pil: has surfaced.

Other episodes revealed a more complex picture of the strategies the learners deployed to unpack the meaning of new metaphors. For example, in their discussion of "give somebody a black look," they referred to different meanings of *black*.

(5) Group: discussion on the metaphor *give somebody a black look*

SWK: Give somebody a black look.

Kyu: He failed to give someone a good impression.

SWK: Failed to give someone a good impression. What made you think so?

Kyu: If it is black, you cannot see well.

SWK: Oh, I see. Any other opinion?

Seop: What is the answer? Is Kyu's answer correct?

SWK: Hmm, can I also hear how other people guessed?

Pil: Now that I heard Kyu's explanation, it may rather mean "I do not remember someone well." I have no clear memory of someone.

Seop: Someone is a xxx (inaudible) person. Not a unique one.

SWK: Other people? So, after all, is the word *black* the most important cue?

Seop: Yes, it's "black."

Pil: Yes.

Mee: He gave me a strange look, I guess.

SWK: Gave a strange look? Uh...

Mee: People often express facial expression or look in color.

Seop: Someone has a bad impression?

SWK: Bad impression?

Seop: I got a hint from "black," which just occurred to me.

Kyu: If you interpret *black* as having a negative meaning, it will mean someone has a bad impression. If you read *black* as meaning you cannot see anything, it may mean that you do not remember a clear impression of him.

SWK: Hmm.

Kyu: Its interpretation depends on the meaning of *black*. It may mean something negative or xxx (inaudible).

SWK: Maybe Mee's guess would be correct. Here, however, to be more precise, *black* does not mean something bad; rather, it related to someone's frown. For example, when talking with Pil, if I do not agree with him, or frown a little bit, wrinkling my brow while saying, "No," and so on. Frown, frown. If you frown, you can say *give someone a black look*.

Here, the participants attempt to guess the meaning of the expression *give someone a black look*. It is quite obvious that they know all the individual words that comprise the expression but they have a difficult time understanding the meaning of "black" in this metaphorical expression. They attempt to interpret its meaning by marshaling a range of meanings they already know. Upon hearing several candidates, Kyu aptly suggests two possible interpretations: (1) black as a color to express negativity and (2) black as an antonym to light (i.e., lack of illumination). However, it seems that the learners do not think much about the remainder of the structure of the expression, which contains "give a look." If they had used this structure as

a starting point or incorporated it into their reasoning process rather than concentrating mainly on the lexical meaning of black, they might have reached a more plausible interpretation.

In another episode, *to put words into someone's mouth* was presented as the target metaphorical expression. SWK asked whether any of the participants was aware of the meaning. No one was sure and the group members took turns sharing their guesses. What is notable in this excerpt is Kyu's attempt to articulate the process of understanding the meaning.

(6) Group: discussion on the metaphor *put words into someone's mouth*

SWK: Does anyone know what *to put words into someone's mouth* means?

Mee: I have no idea.

Kyu: Do not force your idea upon me? I don't know.

Seop: I think, Do not ever talk about such a thing?

SWK: Then you, Kyu. You think that it means "Do not force an idea"?

Kyu.: Yes.

SWK: Any other people?

Mee: I failed in guessing.

SWK: Kyu, why do you think that it means "Do not force an idea"?

Kyu: Here we have "Don't." Here the subject of the sentence is "You," Ne [Korean informal second person pronoun]. So it means do not put words into my mouth. Words. Words are people's thoughts. So putting words in my mouth means that someone keeps me from doing what I want to do.

SWK: How did you figure out the meaning, Seop?

Seop: I think my thought is similar to that of Kyu's. Literally, put means place something in some location.



It is not clear why Kyu approximated the correct meaning this time while he failed to do so in the "give someone a black look" example, even though he clearly knew all the words making up each sentence. One possibility is that the construction *put something in someone's mouth* is more closely connected to its metaphorical meaning, compared with a very generic meaning of transfer the verb *give* represents, which make the meaning of the former expression readily accessible to Kyu. To add to this, he used both sentence structure and word meanings in understanding *put words into someone's mouth*, which may have contributed positively to his thinking process.

### 5.2.2. Cross- and Intra-cultural Comparison of Metaphors

One episode helped the group members recognize the complexity in understanding a metaphor in another languaculture. In discussing the meaning of the metaphor *eat like a sparrow*, the learners made a constant comparison with a similar but not equivalent Korean expression "깨작깨작 먹는다" (eat something you do not like in a hesitant, slow manner) and "입이 짧다" (one's mouth is short, meaning you eat neither much nor a variety of food)" At the same time, they had different connotations, which led to some discussions on the subtle differences of the two Korean expressions. To help appreciate the development in the participants' discussion of the meaning of the metaphor, a rather long excerpt is presented in (6) below.

(7) Group: discussion on the metaphor *to eat like a sparrow*

SWK: What does "eats like a sparrow" mean?

Soo: Eat a small amount.

Kyu: 깨작깨작 먹는다. [Pecks at food.]

Seop: Eat a small amount of food?

SWK: What is important here is, when you say that someone eats a small amount,

Seop: For one's health

SWK: its connotation can be positive.

Seop: For one's health.

SWK: But 깨작깨작 is of course

Seop: Rice grains, rice grains, hahaha.

SWK: Its meaning is closer to 깨작깨작 [pecking at one's food].

Pil: Eat 깨작깨작 is what I also wrote down. It is surprising that all the Koreans thought of the exact same expression.

SWK: Yes, it is.

Soo: So it means eating something not deliciously, eating something feeling not so good about it?

Mee (In Korean) 부정적이야 [Negative].

Seop: (In English) Negative, negative.

Pil: By the way, does it mean "pecks at food"? (깨작깨작 먹는다?)

SWK: Yes. Eat a little, in rather negative connotation.

Pil: In a negative manner?

SWK: It does not fit perfectly well with Korean expression "깨작깨작."

Pil.: xxx (inaudible)

SWK. What it is... is to eat a small amount.

Hoon.: 입이 짧다 [One has a short mouth]. (Korean way of "eating a small amount, usually with a small variety of food)

SWK: Yes. Small mouth. Eating a very small portion. But 깨작깨작 has a

Seop.: Negative

SWK: A stronger negative sense.

Pil.: Actually, as you said before, it describes some behavioral patterns. It is not just about eating a little. In fact, it gives an impression of someone picking up and down a small portion of food. However, having a short mouth means eating a somewhat small amount of food.

SWK: Yes. As you pointed out, 깨작깨작 highlights a description of one's behavior.

Eating like a sparrow does not cover that description.

Pil.: Actually, I pointed this out because you talked about the antonym. Eat like an horse.

For example, if you translate "eat like a sparrow" into 깨작깨작, its antonym, for me, should be eating deliciously, rather than eating much. Then "having a short mouth" is much closer to the meaning of the metaphorical expression.

SWK: It's a good point. I didn't explain that in an accurate way, well,

Seop: Even Korean is difficult.

Pil: Yes, it's difficult.

Pil was sensitive to the subtle difference between *eat like a sparrow* and. Even though all the members were instantly reminded of the same Korean expression "깨작깨작 먹는다," the English and Korean expressions are different in their connotations. 깨작깨작 "describes some behavioral patterns. It is not just about eating a little amount." And Pil moves on to the intracultural comparison of juxtaposing 깨작깨작 먹는다 and 입이 짧다. Seop concludes this episode by saying that even Korean is difficult. It is probable that a cross-linguistic analysis, even though

an informal one, contributed to the participants' realization or confirmation that even metaphors in their own mother tongue can be difficult to interpret accurately.

### 5.2.3. Cultural Awareness in Understanding Metaphors

In another rich point, SWK introduced the conceptual metaphor TIME IS MONEY to the Thursday group. This metaphor was selected as the first topic of discussion since time is one of the most frequently and ubiquitously metaphorized concepts, according to Lakoff and Johnson (1980). As one of its linguistic instantiations, SWK discusses with the group the expression *time is money*. Specifically, he illustrated potential cultural differences in construing time by contrasting rural areas of India and Wall Street.

(8) Group: discussion on the TIME IS MONEY metaphor

SWK: So I gave you some examples of economics and theories to explain conceptual and linguistic metaphors. Let me give you some more examples. Time is money. It is such a famous metaphor. So now we feel like it is our reality. (Group: laughter.) Ah, this is very important: It is the case that time was not money all the time.

Myung: I see.

SWK: Have you ever made an appointment? I am not talking about academia here. It is often the case that Indian people make an appointment and wait for the other person to appear for one or two hours.

Myung: You mean someone coming late?

SWK: Yes.

Seop: Ah, I understand.

Kyu: Their notion of time is extended to eternity, so one hour is not that long.

SWK: Yes, I agree with you. I believe that there is the notion that time is money in Indian people's minds too. But their notion of time is radically different from that of people here, say, the people in Wall Street, NYC in the capitalist USA. So for them time is not money.

Seop: Hmm.

SWK: They may save money, but do not save time as much.

Pil: (Laughter)

SWK: Can you understand what I mean?

Myung/Pil: (Laughter)

Myung: Something is strange.

SWK: Yes, that is strange. But we may seem strange to them.

Myung: I guess they would not save money, either.

Pil: (Laughter)

SWK: But if you do not save money, you may get hungry. They hate being hungry so they may save some money at least more than time.

All: (Laughter)

Kyu: I guess so. They think time is different from money.

Myung: A friend of mine says he has a lunch appointment with an Indian guy at 12:30.

Kyu: (In a playful way) You (Myung) may go at 1:30.

All: (Laughter)

Here Kyu takes up SWK's introduction of the TIME IS MONEY metaphor and offers an explanation: "Their (honorific) notion of time is extended to eternity, so one hour is not that long." He also echoes SWK's discussion of conceptual metaphor, which happened just before this episode, by saying "They think time is different from money." He also applies this understanding

in a jocular way to Myung's situation by indicating that Myung can be one hour late for his appointment with his Indian friend.

In one conversation, the issue of the relationship between metaphor and thinking emerged. SWK talked about the Spartan way of raising children where a child was literally deserted and required to survive on his or her own. He raised a question of whether the Spartan people thought of it as a kind of nurturing. Myung answered in a positive, but jocular, way that the Spartans "may have thought the way is a kind of nurturing." Pil interjected and said, "If the Spartans see our current ways of nurturing kids, they may think, "what are these people doing?" This discussion gave the participants an opportunity to think about the possibility that the notion of "nurture" itself can emerge and change through history and be perceived as radically different across cultures.

Myung mentioned that some metaphors, though not equivalent in linguistic meaning, can have a very similar force in different cultures. When SWK mentioned that the word *hunt* has been used in the United States in describing police action toward undocumented immigrants, Myung pointed out that Koreans also use 체포, which corresponds to the English word *arrest*. Pil responded by saying that *hunt* gives him the sense that one picks up a gun and shoots while its Korean equivalent 사냥 is not used about immigrants in Korea. Myung replied that for him, the English word *hunt* feels like 체포 in Korean, to which Pil replied that he could understand what Myung meant.

#### **5.2.4. Relating and Applying Metaphors to One's Own Experience**

In one study session, SWK introduced the expression *waste one's time*. Several participants reacted to the expression based on their past experiences and needs for

communication. Soo, who rarely led a discussion in other meetings, was eager to share her own experience of using the expression *you're wasting my time* in her conversation with a customer representative working for a department store. As excerpt (8) shows, most of the study group members accepted her strategy for dealing with the situation as an effective one.

(9) Group: discussion on the metaphor *to waste one's time*

SWK: You're wasting my time.

Soo: Hmm.

SWK: As if time is a kind of resource, especially money. Originally, you can waste resources. As you know, you can also waste time.

Soo: If you use this expression when you have a fight with customer service,

SWK/Myung: Oh oh

SWK: Oh, I see.

Pil: Wow!

SWK: You're wasting my time.

Myung: In what other situation can we use this expression?

SWK: So, I think this fits the situation very well.

Myung: Yes, I think it does, too.

Soo: When I did that, the service person did this and I used the expression, "Put me through to your manager." And his attitude changed dramatically.

Pil: Uh, uh

Seop: Hmm.

SWK: Nice.

Kyu: Oh, I have to use this expression.

Pil: (Laughter)

Kyu: Ah, that one is really useful. *Wasting time*. And then moves smoothly on to "Put me through to your manager."

Seop: We see a 까는 [kicking in Korean] expression after a long while.

Soo's use of the expression was appreciated by the group members; exclamations by some members confirm this observation. Kyu, who is married and often talked about his family, clearly appreciated the potential of the expression by saying, "Oh, I have to use this" and "Ah, that one is really useful. *Wasting time*. And then I need to move smoothly on to "Put me through to your manager."" Seop joined in by saying, "We see a 까는 [kicking] expression after a long while." "까는" is an adjective form of 까다 [to kick], which is Korean slang corresponding to *blame or criticize*.

In the immediately following episode, SWK discussed "You're running out of time" as a linguistic example of the conceptual metaphor TIME IS MONEY. Here, Soo talked about the potential context in which she could use the sentence *You're running out of time*. Pil improvised on the expression by adding a possessive pronoun "my" before *time*. Some members replied to this adaptation in various ways.

(10) Group: discussion on the metaphor *to run out of time*

Soo: Isn't this an expression that I can very frequently use to my child?

Pil: (Laughter)

Soo: You have to finish your homework soon.

Myung: Isn't that too cruel?

Pil: Wow, you catch the meaning instantly.



Myung: I am learning expressions here from the teacher so that I can use each of them when I send emails to my team members.

Pil: So you're going to say, "You're running out of my time."

Myung: I'm not talking about foreign friends. I mean Korean team members.

Kyu: If you say, " You're running of, running out of *my* time."

Myung: *My* time.

SWK: *My* (time)? Can we say that?

Seop: We use the expression here and there. We're running out of time. In radio programs or EBS (Educational Broadcasting System) and so on.

SWK: That's right.

Seop: Or,

Myung: It can mean something has to be finished soon.

Seop: When we have five minutes and the program will end with a final piece of music, we often say "We're running out of something." Professors use that quite often too. When they finish classes.

SWK: Me too. If time has ended, we say, "Time is up."

Seop: So this does not mean you are exhausting my time; rather, it means we have limited time. We have no time so

Myung: xxx (inaudible) no time.

Pil: I just looked up the expression in the dictionary. It should be "run out of time" without any intervening word and means "time is up."

SWK: Yes, yes. We have almost reached the scheduled time.

Seop: So we use the subject like "you" or "we."

SWK: Yes, we often use "we" as the subject.

Soo: We have no time. Come right over and eat. We're running out of time.

Seop: Ah, and there are expressions like running out of, running out of gas.

SWK: Right.

Seop: We also have "running out of paper."

SWK: Yes.

Seop: We ran out of gas. "Enko-nadda." [a slang for *to run out of*, which is often used in military]

Pil: (Laughter)

SWK: Yes, exactly.

Soo: Military makes people weird.

In response to Pil's example "You are running out of my time," Myung repeated the improvised part, "My time." SWK raised a question if it would be correct to say, "My time." Seop, based on his own experience, talked about several contexts in which this metaphorical expression can be used. None of his examples included any instance of "my time." Pil, after consulting an online dictionary, retracted his adaptation, saying, "I just looked up the expression in the dictionary. It should be "run out of time" without any intervening word and means time is up." Soo adapted the expression to her family context, imagining asking her child to finish her meal fast in a hectic morning situation. Seop intervened again, pointing out the sentence containing the metaphor usually takes *we* or *you* as its subject. He also offered similar examples such as *running out of paper*.

In one session, the Thursday group engaged in a discussion of the STUDENTS ARE CONSUMERS metaphor in education. In discussing the potential fallacy and harmful consequences of the SCHOOLING IS CONSUMPTION metaphor, Pil shared an experience with his previous academic advisor in Korea. The professor was highly sensitive to analogies implicated in the LEARNING IS CONSUMPTION metaphor and guarded against relating his

theory to the metaphor of supplier/consumer in education. Pil further noted that even though it is widely used in education, the construction or modular metaphor also has negative implications for the discipline.

### 5.2.5. Disciplinary and Interdisciplinary Conversation with Metaphors

The learners related some metaphors to their own discipline. This was a natural move considering that they were asked to identify metaphors in their disciplinary texts. Even though promoting interdisciplinary conversation through metaphor was not an initial objective of the pedagogical intervention, it emerged as a major theme of discussion in several sessions. This section highlights some portions of the study group sessions where participants shared their own understanding of metaphorical expressions within their areas of study.

In one session, Myung commented on some metaphors in education that describe education as an enterprise characterized by standardization and mechanism. To appreciate a typical development of this disciplinary conversation, several turns around the theme of *mechanism* and *standardization* are presented in their entirety.

(11) Group: discussion on the metaphor *mechanism* and *standardization* in education

Myung: I think the national educational system has emerged for that very reason. I do not mean that it is a good system. I mean under the national regime, the nation apparently keeps pushing people to be creative but in fact the nation can face a very complex problem of whether it would be possible that it can allow people to be creative. In economic terms, it is a Keynesian approach, involving government intervention, rather than thinking in line with Adam Smith. I see this kind of tendency, and understand the author's argument. But I also doubt that we can do this or that it will be really possible.

Hoon: Mechanism itself aims to achieve something through predefined processes, and involving the notion of quality in the processes means taking standardization as the ultimate goal. After all, formalization is the common element both in mechanism and standardization. In this vein, the author seems to raise the issue about the trend that generally education standardizes all the people.

Myung: I think you are right. However, the national educational system originally aimed at standardization. So without changing that, this argument will remain as a mere critique.

Pil: I see that secondary education came from the context of human power development and industrial society. Primary and secondary schools were different from universities in terms of standardization but nowadays it has reached the level of universities.

The excerpt shows the potential of using metaphors as a way to approach various themes in any discipline. As will be discussed below, it can help the learners develop a critical stance towards a certain theory and thus manifest reflexive sensitivity to their own disciplines.

As most disciplinary concepts are based on metaphors, metaphor-mediated conversation can also spark disciplinary inquiry. For example, Hoon introduced the metaphors of *shared* and *distributed* leadership and showed interest in exploring the differences between the two terms and in incorporating this into his own research agenda. He introduced to the study group two different terms for one concept as used by different academic communities. Specifically, he explained that European scholars tend to prefer the term *distributed leadership*, while American scholars adopt *shared leadership* more frequently. He added that Korean academia, aligning usually with the American trend, uses *shared leadership* quite often.

In one session, Kyu talked about the meaning of *design* in arts and architecture and its application to most disciplinary contexts. He also pointed out that the term *enterprise* originated in the field of business and relates to companies, industry, and economy but that it also can be

applied to educational institutions. SWK agreed with this by adding that *enterprise* is not necessarily used to mean business and the notions of *enterprise* and *entrepreneurship* are sometimes used in public service. Hoon, who had some consulting experience in human resources contributed to the discussion by pointing out that *enterprise* is a concept with an emphasis on complexity of an organization. According to one article he had read, *enterprise* can be used when a writer focuses on complexity of an institution, while *company* is preferred when the entity described is treated as one large organization. Myung put forward the opinion that Hoon's explanation was correct by sharing the term *policy entrepreneur*, which is often used to refer to people who set the agenda in policy-making processes. Pil added another layer to the use of *enterprise* and *entrepreneurship* by noting that the connotation of *enterprise*, which involves a focus on complexity, is lost when the terms are translated and used in Korean.

In another meeting of the Saturday group, SWK discussed the issue of the acquisition metaphor in education with the participants. When SWK raised the *language acquisition* metaphor in applied linguistics, Seung mentioned acquisition of companies, as in merger and acquisition, in business. Hana mentioned that the expression “acquire musical knowledge” can be used while stating that “acquire music” is rarely used. Hoon said that he could not think of other acquisition metaphors other than acquisition of companies or knowledge. In a subsequent discussion, Seung gave several examples of describing the task of getting people to work for a company such as employ, hire, and recruit, to which Hoon responded by observing that in human resource management, it is possible to use an expression such as *staffing*. When SWK pointed out the use of the delivery metaphor in education, Seung mentioned *service delivery* in his field and also a generic expression of delivery of a baby.

In the same session, SWK discussed the possibility of problematizing the notion of quality assurance in education and asked Hoon whether quality assurance is considered important in economics and business administration. He said that it is, adding the importance of

standardization in quality assurance. Seung concurred with Hoon and added that it is also important in the field of supply chain management. SWK shared his experience in a software development company by emphasizing the crucial role of quality assurance in developing software.

Mechanism metaphors in education were also discussed. As a way of opening a discussion of this metaphor across disciplines, SWK asked Hana, “I guess you rarely use the metaphor of mechanism in music education?” She confirmed this conjecture. When asked about his field of study, which is business, Jun introduced *governance mechanism*, one of the central concepts in his current area of study related to CEO behavior. He added that the term is related to the method of designing compensation packages for CEOs and passed as “almost like a proper noun” in his field.

#### **5.2.6. Critical Stance in Evaluating Metaphor-based Discourse Analysis**

In discussing metaphors in disciplines, some participants showed a critical stance towards Goatly’s analysis, which was the main material for the final two study-group meetings. The following excerpt shows Hana’s critical evaluation of the exploration metaphor in education

(12) Group: critical discussion of metaphor and ideology (1)

Hoon: The moment the term quality is used, a standard is emphasized. Of course it can mean that we need to raise the average but also mean that we should maintain a certain range of quality, as far as I understand. So there emerges a tension. The terms quality and mechanism are used and creativity, as you mentioned, xxx (inaudible).

Hana: But creativity has certain components, while the outcome of creativity cannot be predicted. Components like fluency, elaboration, and originality can be evaluated based upon certain criteria, right? Mere diversity does not guarantee creativity.

(13) Group: critical discussion of metaphor and ideology (2)

Hana: Does the author have a background in education? When we have a topic, each person's experience of it will be different. I mean each individual's emotions about and focus on the topic. We can use the *explore* metaphor to mean exploring those things.

SWK: Not just in relation to knowledge?

Hana: Yes.

In a following conversation about creativity in education, Jun and Hana maintained a critical interpretation of the relationship between fostering creativity and having structured elements in education.

(14) Group: critical discussion of metaphor and ideology (3)

Hana: The author's arguments have a point in some sense. However, one can build a building with one's own design even when he is given blocks. If someone is asked to build something without any guide,

Jun: At least one should be given instructions for the type of building he is to build.

Hana: Right.

Jun: If one needs to build something without any instruction,

Hana: The situation is like this.

Hana also takes a critical stance towards Goatly's use of the EDUCATION IS EXPLORATION metaphor with regard to the domain of knowledge.

(15) Hana: critical discussion of metaphor and ideology (4)

Imagine you have a composition class in music and let your students make music completely on their own. Is this an effective and meaningful class? Teachers need to give meaningful lessons to their students. So they offer students certain materials and also give them choices of building one's own villa or something else with the given building blocks. It seems that this aspect has been ignored.

In the Thursday group, Myung commented critically on the EDUCATION IS CATERING metaphor. He noted, "I think the catering metaphor has the following connotation: You have to just accept well-planned curriculum or certain knowledge, once determined." He was strongly against this kind of metaphor, which was manifest in his statement that he felt that metaphor is "a kind of forceful imposition" and has "no consideration for improvisation on the side of learners, students, or teachers, who deliver the curriculum in the middle." He also raised concern about the MECHANISM metaphor of education and asked whether EDUCATION IS A QUALITY ASSURANCE MECHANISM can be the main metaphor in education. He was clearly aware that using specific metaphors can bring positive or negative consequences to education.

### **5.3. Conclusion**

The participants' responses to the metaphor-driven pedagogical intervention showed several patterns. They mobilized a wide range of resources in making sense of metaphorical expressions, including their L1, related experiences, and cultural knowledge along with L2



knowledge. Though not the focus of the current project, their gestures also played a role in talking about the meanings of some metaphors.

They often used crosscultural and cross-linguistic comparison as a strategy to understand metaphors. It was observed that metaphors function as a mediating tool for disciplinary and interdisciplinary conversation, which elicited interesting discussions about some terms and concepts in the participants' fields of study. This shows a promising picture for designing metaphor-based curricula for academic writing, where disciplinary concepts and terms play a crucial role. At the same time, this approach can contribute to building learners' disciplinary identity vis-à-vis other disciplines by exploring themes and variations in metaphorical themes in their disciplinary texts.

The participants evaluated metaphor analysis as a valuable tool for learning about and analyzing academic discourse yet showed critical stances towards the results of one metaphor analysis, which was given in order to stimulate a discussion on metaphor and ideology. Some of the participants also applied several themes of the discussion to examinations on Korean educational policies and ongoing expansion of higher education geared towards professional training. This suggests a potential for using metaphor as a viable tool for promoting a principled critique of sociocultural phenomena.

The next two chapters discuss the participants' metaphor identification, adaptation, and annotation, which have been proposed as the main mediational strategies to connect reading and writing.

## Chapter 6

### Analysis of Metaphor Identification and Adaptation

The current chapter reports on the results of analysis of the participants' metaphor identification and adaptation, which served as the main mediational strategy along with metaphor annotation for the participants' literacy development. Specifically, it details the suggested format for this procedure, the issues in metaphor identification, and three major patterns in metaphor adaptation. The analysis revealed that the participants faced structural and conceptual challenges in adapting metaphorical expressions. This suggests that the metaphor-driven cognitive linguistic approach to writing pedagogy needs to develop a viable way to address both of the issues, even though its primary focus is on the writers' meaning-making activities.

Throughout study group sessions, participants were encouraged to read their discipline-specific texts in two ways. First, they were asked to read the texts anticipating their needs for academic assignments. This approach included various strategies such as summarizing specific parts of given texts, highlighting key words, comparing main points of different articles, and marking important sentences, which may be quoted in their assignments. Second, they were encouraged to *analytically* read texts. An analytical reading involved the writer's incorporation of various features of text such as genre features, grammatical constructions, and technical terms relevant for a given field of study. In the current project, metaphor identification method was suggested as the major mediational tool for engaging in analytical reading. This was followed by their adaptations of the identified metaphors. In order to properly adapt metaphors, the MWs needed to pay close attention to the meaning and usage patterns of each word, which was

expected to contribute to their deeper processing of the identified expressions as opposed to when reading just for content.

For this task, the researcher provided the participants with a table (see Table 6.1 below), which they were able to access on the Web. This online format enabled them to share the metaphors they had identified with each other. In other words, each participant worked independently to collect metaphors but all the collections were shared by all of the study group members.

Table 6.1. Suggested Format for Metaphor Identification, Adaptation, and Annotation

Title of the article / Source	Original text	Adaptation	Annotation of the identified metaphor (Korean or English)
Making College Writing Fun for ESL and EFL Learner Using Kamishibai	<i>fine tune</i> their thoughts before committing their writing to the scrutiny of the teacher.	Some writers want to create different kinds of meanings through their uses of metaphors. This kind of "fine-tuning" of one's writing remains, however, at the level of desire, rather than going up to the level of designing and implementing effective strategies.	<i>tune</i> means to adjust pitch for musical instruments. So, fine tune means to adjust pitch in a subtle manner. Here, we can also fine tune thoughts. Maybe we can fine tune other things, too.
	This pre-writing technique not only <i>fosters</i> creativity and risk-taking, but also, reduces tension and allows students to draft, sketch and converse repeatedly before they commit to	What are the most essential traits we teachers need to <i>foster</i> in classroom? Some teachers think we need to train their students to conform to rules. I have a different opinion. We need to teach our students how to become a creative, critical, but collaborative person.	<i>Foster</i> is used when we talk about growing plants; it is also used to talk about human characteristics such as creativity.

a formal draft.

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The participants were asked to provide reference information in the first column. In the second column they were to indicate the portions of the text in which they identified metaphorical expressions. This was usually done by copying and pasting relevant clauses or phrases. The third column was reserved for their own adaptation of the identified expressions. In performing this task, the learners were advised to focus specifically on their own disciplines. The participants were also asked to write annotations for the expressions in the fourth column. Here, they were encouraged to include two things: their understanding of the source and target domains; other comments on the metaphorical expression which they thought might help further their retention and production of the expression. They were also given two choices of annotation language: Korean and English.

In many cases, the MWs successfully adapted the metaphors they identified. However, there were some instances where their adaptations were not completely successful. Before discussing each instance in more detail, it should be noted that the issues presented here should be understood as a developmental snapshot, which shows a process of the participants' ontogenetic development. Furthermore, some of these errors may be interpreted as part of the evolution of languages, where changes in grammatical structure of sentences and semantic scope of lexical meaning take place over an extended stretch of time. However, the researcher labels these instances *issues* or *problems* since none of the participants wanted to create room for being misunderstood for content or criticized for grammatical and semantic issues. We begin the discussion by presenting a complete scenario of the process involved in using metaphor identification, adaptation and annotation as mediational means. The following scenario has been created based on the participants' report in study group sessions and informal interviews with some of them.

As the participants were asked to use metaphor analysis as a tool for connecting reading with writing, they first had to select reading materials for the task. They usually chose articles or book chapters they had to read for their coursework, except for Jun and Kyu, who had finished their coursework requirements and were working on research articles and a MA thesis, respectively. They usually read the target sources for content first, followed by their application of metaphor identification, adaptation, and annotation. Jun mentioned that reading for content is a completely different task from reading for metaphor analysis, and all of the participants agreed with this opinion. Young once mentioned that he tried to do the both of the tasks at the same time in the initial stage of the study group meeting but he abandoned the strategy after a short time.

While they engage in an analytical reading of target materials, they identified metaphorical expressions based on the informal procedure presented by the researcher. This was followed by their adaptation and annotation. One complete series of these actions, based on Jun's case, is described in Figure 6.1 below.

**a. Selecting target text**

Tetlock (2000). Cognitive Biases and organizational correctives: Do both disease and cure depend on the politics of the beholder? *Administrative Science Quarterly*.

**b. Read the text for content and then read the same text one more time for analytical purpose.**

**c. Locate a metaphorical expression: *deeply ground in***

Intuitive theories of good judgment *are deeply grounded in* personal epistemologies and political ideologies. (original)

**d. Annotate on the identified metaphorical expression *ground*.**

It seems that the author used *ground* ('Ddang' in Korean) as a verb (passive form) to mean something is deeply stuck. This means to become foundation or basis. In a further sense, can this mean "to have cause in something"?

**e. Adaptation with *be grounded in***

Firms' strategic actions tend to *be grounded in* their current resources and prior decisions.

\*\* The sequence of d and e is arbitrary. One can annotate first and then adapt, and vice versa.

Figure 6.1. Typical Sequence for Metaphor Identification, Adaptation, and Annotation

In this scenario, Jun starts with his observation of the linguistic form *ground*, noting that it corresponds to a Korean word 땅. He also points out that the word is a verb and has been used in a passive form (is grounded). Then he moves on to mention its metaphorical meaning (foundation or basis). This is followed by his extension of its scope to another domain of meaning, which is causality. Based on this analysis, he adapts the sentence with his field of study in mind. This was followed by his sharing and discussion of the metaphorical expression with his study group members. For example, in one study session, he raised the question whether he can use this expression (be grounded in) in order to express a causal relationship. This series of steps showed that his adaptation was appropriate, but he still had doubts about the possibility of using the expression to refer to causal relationships. This example of metaphor identification, adaptation, and annotation, which sometimes led to study group discussion, illustrates a typical scenario of how the participants used metaphor analysis as the textual mediation.

The current chapter reports on the participants' use of this pedagogical tool. Specifically, it focuses on the potential of using metaphor identification, adaptation, and annotation as a mediational means for analytical reading and connecting this to their textual production. One

caveat is in order before moving on to discussing the results: the format provided above was not imposed on the writers as a rigid structure they needed to follow: rather, they were encouraged to tailor the contents in each column according to their own preferences, as long as they judged the modifications to be relevant and helpful to improving their writing ability. More importantly, it should be noted that the learners were given the choice over the language of annotation to allow them to express their thoughts freely and explore some subtle elements in understanding the target metaphorical structure. Except for Yeon, all the participants chose *Korean* as their language of annotation.

### **6.1. Issues in Metaphor Identification**

As the metaphor identification procedure was presented as a self-learning tool rather than as a theoretical tool for text analysis, it was not expected that the participants would identify all the metaphors that met the criteria specified in the procedure established by the Pragglejazz Group (2006). Another important reason that the research did not incorporate a thorough analysis of metaphors was due to the participants' time constraints. Several examples will be discussed below to illustrate some difficulties experienced by the participants in applying this simplified metaphor identification procedure.

Some writers identified the metaphorical expressions successfully but then applied their more basic meanings in the adapted sentence. For example, Hana showed this pattern when she created the sentence, "it is very hard to draw the boundary between your side and my side in one apartment -- draw a boundary," where the word *boundary* was used in a literal sense, even though the original use of *boundary* was metaphorical (Original: It certainly - paradoxically- allows Andrea to *draw* clear *boundaries* about the ways they are allowed to participate in the classroom).

In another example, Pil pointed out that "close to an hour" is not a metaphorical expression. Specifically, he wrote down, "for close to an hour - This is not a metaphor; however, I chose this because I can see "nearly one hour" can be expressed this way, too." Mee also mentioned that "lead the way" in "She intends to lead the way with a very aggressive discussion" is not metaphorical. Hana raised a question about metaphoricity of "inextricably linked" in "Theory and practice are inextricably linked in actional research," writing to herself, "Is 'inextricably linked' metaphorical?" Similarly, Young asked himself whether the word *stage* was used metaphorically in "The field of L2 gesture studies is admittedly only in its initial *stages*."

This shows that the participants' everyday understanding of metaphor was rather different from the concept of metaphor in the Pragglejazz's MIP model. It should be noted one more time, however, that the current project aimed at providing the writers with the method of metaphor identification as a mediational tool rather than training them to become metaphor analysts. Therefore, the patterns of the participants' uses of metaphors are given primary focus, rather than the degree of success in their metaphor identification. These issues observed in the metaphor adaptation are discussed below.

## **6.2. Issues in Metaphor Adaptation**

The learners were asked to improvise on the metaphors they identified. In performing this task, they were encouraged to address discipline-specific subjects. As discussed in Chapter 2, the participants had diverse academic discipline backgrounds including education, business, organizational behavior, applied linguistics, and law. Each of the participants created sentences relevant to their respective disciplines.

Several patterns emerged in the adapted sentences. Many of the sentences are structurally and conceptually appropriate. However, the section focuses on the problematic patterns identified



in the writers' production of new sentences. A total of three patterns were identified, as listed in (1) below:

(1) Problematic Patterns in MWs' Adaptation of Metaphors

- Ungrammatical use of the metaphorical expressions
- Difficulty understanding conceptual relationships of arguments
- Difficulty understanding subtle semantic meanings

One very important caveat should be given before discussing the results of the MWs' adaptations of metaphor. The problematic patterns presented here can be interpreted in different ways across different contexts. In other words, their grammatical and conceptual problems can be evaluated differently by their peers, instructors, and even by the writers themselves. This means that they are *potentially* problematic depending on the rhetorical situations in which they are embedded and the reader's expectation of the writer's performance. For example, if the reader tends to accept some non-nativelike expression involved in second language acquisition or appreciate the theoretical position of World Englishes, the somewhat unconventional linguistic and semantic patterns will not surface as problems. However, if the reader expects the writer to conform rigidly to the 'standard' conventions and native-like expressions, these potential issues will materialize as problematic. The interviews with the participants also informed the researcher that their instructors show divergent orientations toward and evaluations of nonnative-like language use. Therefore, the languacultural patterns reported here should be understood as potential factors that can undermine the writer's meaning-making and activity-mediating capacity rather than as categorical problematic uses across all contexts.

### 6.2.1. Ungrammatical Uses of the Metaphorical Expressions

In most cases, the writers were able to correctly identify metaphors; however, they often encountered grammatical difficulties when they attempted to recast and extend them to other contexts. The following examples illustrate this point.

(2) Seung

Little investigation has *occurred on* whether franchising actually contributes to firm's financial performance. (original)

Much investigation has *occurred to* the research topic. (adaptation)

Here, Seung was able to identify *occur* as a metaphor. The problem arose, however, when he attempted to create a sentence with the metaphor. He used the preposition *to* rather than *on*, which changes its meaning in an unintended direction. It is plausible that this choice was influenced by the fact that the high-frequency verb phrase *occur to* had become deeply entrenched in his English and he failed to recognize the original pattern, which involves a semantic connection between *investigation* and *on*. The next example reveals a similar problem, also encountered by Seung.

(3) Seung

Resource scarcity theory and agency theory are the two *dominant theories* to explain the motivation of firms to decide franchising. (original)

Trade-off *theory* is *dominant* to explain the leverage. (adaptation)

Seung correctly identified *dominant theory* as a metaphor. However, the original and his adaptation have different syntactic structures: the original sentence contains a to-infinitive structure (to explain) that modifies a noun phrase (the two dominant theories). Seung changed its grammatical structure in producing his own sentence. However, it results in a less frequently used structure (dominant to explain), where *dominant*, an adjective, is followed by a to-infinitive clause. Consultation with COCA and two expert writers suggest that *dominant in explaining* would be a more acceptable pattern. It is highly likely that the writer failed to pay attention to these structural differences in recontextualizing the metaphor.

Table 6.2 presents some examples that highlight the grammatical problems encountered by the MWs in integrating the metaphors identified into their own writing.

Table 6.2. Grammatical Problems in MWs' Adaptation of Metaphors

Writer	Original	Adapted
Seung	Consequent financial performance may help restaurant executive officers and financial managers to <i>make sound</i> strategic <i>decisions</i>	The adoption of a new technique is a <i>sound decision making</i> to enhance efficiency.
	Issue: <i>A sound decision making</i> sounds less natural. The problem arises from a misuse of “a.” “The adoption of a new technique is sound decision making in order to enhance efficiency” would be more appropriate.	
	The firm’s value <i>deteriorates</i> as franchised units dominate the restaurant operation system beyond the second stage of degree of franchising.	Casino firm value are[sic] <i>deteriorated</i> after strong regulation.
	Issue: Deteriorate is usually used as an intransitive verb and cannot be used in a passive construction. “Casino firm value deteriorated after strong regulation” would be more appropriate.	

Franchising is globally one of the most *rapidly growing business* strategies because it enables a franchisor to develop with minimal capital involvement.

This company has *a rapid growth* in the hospitality market

Issue: Nominalization with an indefinite article sounds inappropriate. "This company has *rapid growth* in the hospitality market." would make it more appropriate.

Hana

I have *distilled* from his writing *four criteria* that I feel characterize his concept of reflection and the purposes he felt it served.

In order to make a good summary it is required to *distill* from your thoughts and feelings."

Issue: Distill is usually used as a transitive verb. There is no object for the verb *distill* in Hana's adaptation.

For a lifetime enriched by the arts, all students need the opportunity to find their music—the art form that *reaches* and inspires *them*.

Music is the most *effective to reach* and inspire people

Issue: *Effective* followed by a to-infinitive structure makes the sentence less natural. It seems that a noun is missing. Thus "the most effective means to reach..." would be more appropriate.

This plan needs to be *farsighted* enough to anticipate reasonably expected problems.

In this rapidly changing world, the farsighted plan for education is required.

Issue: It seems that the use of "a" is problematic. "... a farsighted plan for education..." would be more appropriate.

The primary *antidote* to educational change based on the passions of the moment is well-designed, unbiased research.

The *antidote of* education according to the writer, is firstly, well-designed research and secondly, the actual application of the research results in educational practice.

Issue: It seems that the writer inappropriately used *antidote of* instead of *antidote to*. It is also likely that this is a typical preposition problem in using the preposition of, emerging from its wide scope of meaning.

Yeon

Rather, the real break in communication seems to be rooted in *a clash in cultural perspectives*.

Their strange silence seemed to be rooted in *a clash in cross-culture*.

Issue: *Cross-culture* is rarely used as a noun. "A culture clash" or "a clash in cultures" would be more appropriate.

This imbalance is most obvious in symbolic or make-believe play, in which children ignore the real identities of objects and use them to represent other objects that *suit their play purposes*.

Exercise and game in outdoor *suit* children *to improve* their physical development.

Issue: The *suit + object + to infinitive* structure is rarely used. "Exercise and games in the outdoors *suit* children in order to improve physical development" would make the sentence more appropriate.

Hoon

"What a wonderful time to be an OD professional, to be a member of a field dedicated to the implementation and effective change within a set of uncompromising human values at a time when we see massive changes at an *ever-accelerating* rate."

The *ever-accelerating rate of change* will *shock into* many of brick and mortar company.

Issue: The preposition *into* is unnecessary.

The concept of leadership *eludes us* or turns up in another form to taunt us again with its slipperiness and complexity.

At the first time, the concept of leadership *eludes my grasp* to classify specialized role or influence process.

Issue: *Elude my grasp + to infinitive* seems to be an inappropriate infinitive construction. It seems that the writer attempted to express two propositions at the same time: (1) the concept of leadership eludes my grasp and (2) I cannot classify specialized role or influence process with regard to the concept of leadership.

Kyu

The higher education enterprise and our society *thrive* on decentralization and diversity of institutional purpose and mission.

Under this harsh situation, none of universities could *dream to thrive*, but only to survive.

Issue: It would be more conventional to say *dream of thriving* rather than *dream to thrive*.

An accrediting organization informs the institution or program about the process by

If *the ground* for efficient management is not found through the audit, the institution should

- which the appeal will be conducted, *the grounds* for appeal, and any costs associated with an appeal. submit a plan of management rationalization to the government.
- Issue: It seems that the writer failed to distinguish *ground* (a physical sense) from its plural form *grounds*, which usually means the foundation or basis on which a belief or action rests.
- Myung A is best *suited* for this study. Critical case study is *suited for/to* your research question.
- Issue: An active construction "case study suits your research question" would make the sentence more appropriate.
- Jun The question remains, though, how organizational theorists should react to this *burgeoning evidence* of deviations from rationality at the individual level of analysis. *Burgeoning evidences* contradicting the norms in this field imply that it is time to change our paradigm.
- Issue: *Evidence* is always singular, as is research.
- (No entry) Some top-level executives advised that listening to key voices in *a lower-level* of the organization helps them understand their firm's strengths and weaknesses.
- Issue: As the phrase top executives is contrast to "lower-level," "in *the* lower level" would be more appropriate than in *a* lower level. Alternatively, "voices at a low level," can also be used.
- Young Within *mainstream linguistics* Birdwhistell's admonition has, for the most part, gone unheeded as theories of language continue to focus on traditional areas of morphosyntax, phonology... I am the one out of *mainstream* of APLNG.
- Issue: There is no article attached to *mainstream*. *The* mainstream would be more appropriate.
- The relation between them can be *twofold*: static or dynamic. Based on the evaluation of his writing, his most frequent mistakes are *in twofold*: the use of particle and the tense in relation to verb inflection.
- Issue: Twofold, an adjective, is not used with the preposition *in*. It is likely that the writer took

*twofold* for a noun, reasoning from his annotation on the expression with a mention to *file folder*.

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The above examples show that commonly reported grammatical problems are the main challenge in adapting metaphors. For example, issues include singular/plural distinction (e.g. evidences), preposition selection (e.g. antidote to > antidote of), articles (e.g. mainstream without the definite article), transitivity of a verb (e.g. sink into). This suggests that metaphor identification should not stop at the level of recognizing conceptual relationship between lexical items, but be related organically to the actual use of metaphor, highlighting appropriate grammatical features. And as cognitive linguistic approach to grammar has showed, the two conceptual and structural issues are intricately interwoven.

### **6.2.2. Difficulty in Understanding Conceptual Relationships of Arguments**

The writers sometimes had difficulty understanding and thus representing conceptual relationships properly with given metaphorical expressions. In other words, they were successful in using a metaphor correctly in terms of grammatical structure but at the same time they were not so successful in understanding the semantic relations involved in the metaphorical expressions. The following two examples, both of which are taken from Hana's adaptations, illustrate the point.

(4) Difficulty in understanding semantic argument relationship: Hana

According to Erikson, play progresses through stages that *mirror* children's psychosocial development. (original)

(4a) Her attitude in classroom *mirrored* what she wanted to do at the time.

(4b) Parents' ethnicity *mirror* their children's behavior. (two adaptations)

In the original sentence, two elements are involved in the use of the verb *mirror*: *stages* and *psychological development*. According to Erickson, life can be divided into eight stages, each of which involves its own virtue and psycho-social crisis. For example, the first stage, covering birth to one year of age, has hopes and trust vs. mistrust as its virtue and psycho-social crisis, respectively. This illustrates the theorist's argument that a person at a specific juncture of his life exhibits a set of developmental characteristics at that specific stage. Thus it can be stated that each stage reflects or *mirrors* a person's psychological development.

This kind of semantic relation, however, is not transparent to the multilingual writer. In (4a), *attitude* mirrors *what one wants to do*. In (4b) *ethnicity* mirrors *behavior*. These do not correspond to the semantic relations frequently construed by the use of *mirror* as a verb. Especially (4b) looks rather unconventional in that the verb *mirror* seems to describe a causal relationship between *ethnicity* and *behavior*. Table 6.3 presents some examples containing conceptual issues in adapting metaphorical expressions.

Table 6.3. Conceptual Relationships of Arguments in MWs' Adaptation of Metaphors

Writer	Original	Adapted
Seung	Moreover, franchising could significantly <i>smooth</i> the complicated opening <i>process</i> of a hotel.	New mayor's policy <i>smooth</i> the <i>demonstration</i> of workforce in the city.
	Issue: A demonstration could be stopped, halted, or cancelled. "Smooth a demonstration" is rarely used. Using this collocational pattern is deviant from the conventional understanding of situations involving a demonstration.	
	Previous research has indicated that studies are necessary to <i>fill this gap</i> and take a	My boss tried to <i>fill the gap</i> between the departments.



franchisee viewpoint.

Issue: "Close the gap" may be a more appropriate in this context, which would mean that the boss brought the departments closer together. Alternatively, *bridge the gap* would mean building a way for them to communicate. *Fill the gap* usually means making up for a deficiency as in "fill the gap between responsibilities covered by the departments" or adding something new between them.

Yeon

Rudimentary forms of executive function      Fundamental *development* of children  
*emerge* in the first year of life and continue      *emerge* in late infancy.  
to develop until at least early adulthood.

Issue: There is a high possibility that some writers will think that child development itself cannot emerge since it is a continuous process and usually means 'to appear for the first time.' At the same time, it is very difficult to judge the appropriateness of this sentence without a more concrete context.

These four sources of the sense of efficacy      Parents and teachers *construct* important  
for helping children do well in school are      *sources* of influence on the development of  
the same *source* categories that will come      children.  
into play for children as parents involve  
themselves in the children's schooling.

Issue: "Constitute sources" would make a better choice in this context.

It is only recently that *tools* designed to      It is only lately that the primary  
assess early math concepts and skills in      responsibilities of psychologists began to  
classroom settings began to *emerge*.      emerge.

Issue: There is a possibility that some writers will think that *emerge* usually involves two meanings: creation and appearance. According to this reasoning, *responsibility* has existed all the time and thus does not collocate well with *emerge*. However, there is also a possibility that this sentence can be accepted as appropriate in other contexts by some writers.

We know that active brains *make* permanent      Active play *make* a beneficial connections  
neurological *connections* critical to      to children's learning.  
learning; inactive brains do not make the  
necessary permanent neurological  
connections.

Issue: Making connections entails establishing certain relationships between more than two

entities. The writer's adaptation involves only one. It is not clear, however, whether Yeon attempted to connect active play and children's learning with an implicit agent in mind.

<p>In order to help more advanced grown-up learners to rapidly and significantly <i>expand their lexicon</i>,</p>	<p>... how non-native speaker develops schemata does have something to do with how they <i>expand conceptual metaphor</i> according to the target language culture.</p>
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Issue: Expand has to be used with something that can get larger. However, conceptual metaphor in a general sense cannot be expanded. Considering the context, "expanding one's metaphorical repertoire" would be more appropriate.

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One of the main issues relating to conceptual misadaptations is that MWs have a limited number of encounters with the metaphorical expressions in question, which makes it extremely difficult to understand the semantic relationships underlying uses of each metaphor. This challenge was also observed in cases which require their subtle meaning differentiation in addition to the recognition of semantic structure of arguments.

### 6.2.3. Difficulty in Understanding Subtle Semantic Meanings

A large number of learner-produced expressions can be understood as having deviated in subtle ways from conventional uses of the metaphors in question. The following examples illustrate this type of deviation.

(5) Difficulty in understanding semantic meaning: Hana

Usually secondary in importance to direct experience, vicarious experience also serves as a *source* of personal efficacy beliefs. (original)

Many have suggested the preeminent importance of parents' education as a good *source* of being able to replace teacher's roles. (adaptation)

The writer seems to attempt to express the meaning, "parents' education has the great potential to replace the role of teachers." However, she does not follow the conventional semantic relations involved in the "A is a source of B" structure. Table 6.4 provides additional examples of problems arising from the semantic domain..

Table 6.4. Semantic Issues in MWs' Adaptation of Metaphors

Writer	Original	Adaptation
Yeon	<p>Although teachers are an excellent <i>source</i> of information about children's behavior due to the extended periods of time they spend with them, biases may interfere with an accurate representation of their social-emotional competence.</p> <p>Issue: <i>Source</i> usually refers to something (or someone) from which you obtain a certain thing, for example, "a good source of interaction for teachers." Using "opportunity" instead of "source" would make the sentence more appropriate.</p>	<p>Family engagement in their children's education is a good <i>source</i> for teachers to get interaction with them.</p>
	<p>Early childhood education remains <i>peppered</i> with both opportunities and debate.</p> <p>Issue: "Peppering one's dissertation with journals" would make sense yet sound slightly informal. "She peppered her dissertation with quotes or citations from famous journals and articles" would fit better in formal genres like academic journal articles.</p>	<p>She <i>peppered</i> her dissertation with famous journals and articles.</p>
Pil	<p>You <i>fight the urge</i> to give in to the idea that</p> <p>Issue: "Fight the urge to become negligent" would sound odd since negligent is normally not something one aspires to. (cf. He fought the urge to smoke another cigarette and succeeded.)</p>	<p>As she has <i>fought the urge</i> to become negligent or to be easily distracted by internet, she finally began to get some fruits for the efforts.</p>
Kyu	<p>Accredited status is a signal to students and</p>	<p>Most of the small and weak universities could</p>

the public that an institution or program meets at least *threshold* standards for, e.g., its faculty, curriculum, student services and libraries.

Issue: Collocating 'cross over' with 'threshold' metaphor is problematic. "Cross the threshold" would be more appropriate.

Jun	This perspective was <i>bolstered</i> by research showing disconnects between self-identified ideology and policy preferences.	If the plan had not been <i>bolstered</i> by him, it would not have been implemented successfully. His support changed the perception of various stakeholders on the issue.
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Issue: *Bolster* usually refers to structural or institutional action rather than that of a single individual. However, it is also possible that this use will be accepted as appropriate by some readers.

Hana	These data were used as a control or <i>baseline</i> for each of the individual students. Issue: Principles are not usually used as <i>baseline</i> , which means "a standard of value to which other similar things are compared."	The five guide principles suggested by him was used as a <i>baseline</i> for music education.
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Categorization theory <i>falls under the umbrella of</i> cognitive theories that assume that individuals employ schema to understand their world.	Due to the prior CEO's unrealistic strategy, the company <i>falls under the umbrella of need</i> for drastic reconstructing.
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Issue: It can be questioned whether a company can *fall under the umbrella of need for something*. Taking into account the meaning of "under the umbrella," which assumes the relationship of one entity belonging to or being influenced by another entity, this may sound inappropriate.

Hana	It seems as though an interdisciplinary curriculum is one of those elusive ideas that makes sense in theory, but when implemented, has more <i>bumps in the road</i> than anticipated.	When implemented, it has <i>more bumps in the road</i> because of a staggering array of practical problems.
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Issue: The metaphorical expression *more bumps in the road* itself makes sense. However, it would potentially make the sentence sound redundant.

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Many of the issues reported in this section arose from the participants' limited understanding of the meanings and connotations of metaphor. In some cases, matching a metaphorical expression to context was challenging. For example, *fill the gap* was correctly identified as a metaphor but its adaptation in "My boss tried to *fill the gap* between the departments" was not completely successful. This kind of issue always surfaced when a writer attempts to recontextualize a specific phrase. However, as suggested in the beginning part of the section, most evaluations given above should be interpreted in a cautious manner since different readers will likely accept or reject these kinds of expressions with different criteria.

### **6.3. Conclusion**

This chapter reported three types of issues identified in the participants' adaptations of metaphorical expressions: grammatical inaccuracy, confusing argument structure, and other subtle semantic issues. In the current research, grammatical issues are part of semantic and conceptual issues since cognitive linguistic approach to language learning posits that syntactic structure serves conceptual structure, and thus structural patterns are reflective of conceptual structure. This suggests a need to develop a unit of pedagogy to address both structural and conceptual issues in a unified way. In this sense, it would be necessary to integrate state-of-art applied cognitive linguistic research into pedagogy.

The semantic issues reported above show a more complex picture than grammatical ones. The MWs' adaptations were largely successful but there were not a few instances where the conventional semantic relationship between the subject, verb, and the object of the sentence was not maintained. Some adaptations had varying degrees of risk of delivering inaccurate

connotations to the reader. It should also be noted that three expert writers' evaluations of these metaphors showed some variability, especially in the case of potential semantic issues.

These points suggest that metaphor adaptation as a learning tool should be fine tuned for better outcomes. For example, teachers can provide learners with a list of points to consider in adapting metaphors, including semantic relationship, collocational patterns, accompanying prepositions, as well as negative or positive connotations the metaphors carry. At the same time, they can be trained to use their L1 to facilitate their understanding and use of metaphors. The next chapter reports the results on this very issue: Metaphor annotation.

## Chapter 7

### Themes in Annotation

This, the final results chapter, describes themes identified in the participants' annotation of metaphors. It was expected that they would use a strategy to compare and contrast two possible meanings of one word or phrase as the informal presentation of Pragglejazz's metaphor identification procedure involves the contrast of a word's meaning with its more basic meaning. A total of eight themes were identified as a result of grounded content analysis. These are listed in Figure 7.1 below:

- Annotation from basic to metaphorical meaning
- Cross-linguistic comparison in understanding metaphors
- Theory and discipline as the target domain
- Relating to other lexical items and expressions
- Self-dialogue and questions about metaphor uses
- Sensitivity to grammatical aspects of metaphors
- Sensitivity to other conceptual, linguistic, and pragmatic issues
- Subjective aspects in the exploration of metaphors

Figure 7.1. Themes Identified in Grounded Analysis

In the following sections representative cases of each of the above themes are discussed. It is important to keep in mind that there are some overlaps among these categories. This is a natural consequence of the writers' free annotations on each of the metaphors. For example, one annotation can refer to multiple dimensions of a metaphorical expression, involving more than two of the categories presented above.

### 7.1. Annotation from Basic to Metaphorical Meaning

Annotating metaphors with a basic meaning coupled with a more metaphorical meaning was the most frequent of all strategies used by the MWs. The following examples show a typical annotation pattern of this sort.

(1) Jun: *grapple with*

*grapple with*: I thought this is related to bodily fight, but it can be used in an abstract sense. This can be applied to a situation where problems and conflicts are experienced.

(2) Jun: *tailor*

*tailor*: a person who tailors clothes, to tailor. Discussion can be tailored or employ diverse expressions depending on contexts. This can be put to use when there is an object or aspect I can change depending on contexts.

(3) Myung: *cookbook*

*cookbook* (Original)

*cookbook*: recipe book > a model answer

(4) Kyu: *convey*

*Convey* means to carry or move something. Here it has been used as meaning to deliver a certain situation or meaning to someone.



(5) Kyu: *mill*

The word *mill* means a place like mill or factory which produce agricultural products.

Here it means a diploma factory, accreditation factory.

(6) Seop: *pervasive*

*pervasive*: as water percolate paper

The preceding type of annotation is very similar to the model of conceptual metaphor involving two different conceptual entities: target and source domain (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Table 7.1 includes additional examples of annotations, which have been excerpted from the writers' full annotations in a basic meaning/metaphorical application format. For instance, the first example in Table 7.1 can be understood as Kyu's identification of *solidify* as a metaphorical expression and his designation of *architecture* as a domain on which a basic meaning of solidify is based and *policy* as a domain to which a more metaphorical meaning is applied.

Table 7.1. Annotations Referring to Basic and Metaphorical Meanings

<b>Participant</b>	<b>Metaphorical Expressions</b>	<b>More basic meaning applied to:</b>	<b>Metaphorical meaning applied to:</b>
Kyu	solidify	architecture	policy
	place emphasis	physical object	abstract concept
	soundness	living organism	institutions and programs
Hoon	deluge	flood	rush of letters or applications
	hostile	physical enemy	psychological: unfavorable, apathetic,

			not accepted
	construct, constructive	architecture	criticism
	draw	paint	induce, extract
	embed	fit tight physically	keep something in mind
	delineate	physical line	describe and state
	fine-grained	fine timber	very detailed
Hana	reach	physical distance	psychological distance
	baseline	baseball	a criterion value
	stagger	body staggers	staggeringly shocking, unbelievable
	spark	flame	(spark) an event
	pinpoint	point of a pin	point in a precise manner
	full-blown	flower	characteristics
	far-sighted	physical vision	predicting ability
	openness	physical space	open-mindedness
	open up	locked entity	make something possible
	antidote	anti-poison substance	solution to a problem
Pil	brick and mortar	architecture	industry
	weather	(related to ship) weather a storm	pain, hardship

Myung	coalesce into/with	brook and river	abstract entities
	yawn	yawning	widening the gap
	lynchpin	pin as a part for a wheel of a car	pivotal person or thing
	halfway home	journey	process

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These types of examples constituted the most frequent annotation strategies and the participants were mostly successful in differentiating basic meanings and more metaphorical ones. However, this does not mean that they are more familiar with the basic meanings than with the more abstract ones. For example, Hoon stated that "the word *constructive* originally did not feel metaphorical" because he uses the word so often while mentioning he rarely uses the word to refer to physically building something.

## 7.2. Cross-linguistic Comparison in Understanding Metaphors

Some writers used a cross-linguistic comparison strategy in annotating metaphorical expressions. In other words, they compared and contrasted Korean and English expressions in trying to understand or enhance their retention of the metaphors. The following examples illustrate this type of annotation.

(7) Young: *mainstream*

Actually, it seems that we frequently use the term *mainstream* when we speak Korean, too. For example, we use "주류" mainstream and "비주류" non-mainstream. But actually,

it is surprising to find that stream, whose meaning is related to liquid, like creek, is used to describe people.

(8) Jun: *key voices*

This expression seems to have stemmed from the same concept as in Korean. In this case, *voice* turns into something that means opinion.

(9) Jun: *sea change*

This has a similar meaning as 상전벽해 (a mulberry tree changes into a sea—translation added by researcher) in my language. It seems that the Western and the Oriental feel the same about change of the sea.

Young compares 주류 with mainstream, showing his surprise in finding something related to "liquid" is used for describing a group of people who are influential in society or a specific community. In (8), Jun compares the English metaphor *voice* to Korean word 목소리, both of which can function as a literal meaning (sound of one's verbal speech) and a metaphorical one (opinion of an individual of a group). By the same token, he compares 상전벽해 with sea change. Table 7.2 includes additional examples where the writers mentioned Korean and English in a comparative way. It turned out that Jun frequently used this strategy.

Table 7.2. Annotations with Cross-linguistic Comparison

Writer	Metaphorical expressions	Annotations with cross-linguistic comparison
Jun	lay groundwork	In my language, it means harden or lay the ground. English seems to use a very similar metaphor.

shape	This means to make a shape. It would be also possible to use this in a situation where something is in the process of formation, as in Korean.
scratch the surface	This means not touching the core of the matter. Is this similar to <i>licking</i> the surface of a watermelon? Scratching just the surface.

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### 7.3. Theory and Discipline as the Target Domain

Some annotations construed theory or discipline as the object of the metaphorical expressions. It seems that this line of annotation was produced in an attempt to apply metaphors to disciplinary topics the learners were studying. The following sentences exemplify this type of annotation.

(10) Jun: *constructed*

It would depend on your philosophical perspective; anyway, it is possible to say that *reality is constructed*.

(11) Kyu: *employ*

*Employ*. Isn't this usually used as meaning hiring people? But it seems that this word is used as meaning 'picking up and using something' or 'applying' in social science articles.

(12) Kyu: *investment*

*Investment*. A term used in economics and business administration. Nowadays used in any field of study.

(13) Hoon: *anchor*

*anchor* - Originally means 닻 (anchor in Korean). Now I see that the word anchor is frequently used in the field of organizational behavior, which is based on psychology. It means “to be based on something.”

In (10), Jun discusses the metaphorical expression *reality is constructed*. He seems to refer to a tension between constructivist and realist worldviews by mentioning, "it would depend on your philosophical perspective." In (11), Kyu contrasts two meanings of *employ* in economy and science articles. The former relates to everyday use of the word while the latter is observed in more formal disciplinary texts. This also applies to the term *investment* in (12). Hoon refers specifically to organizational behavior, his field of study in (13). Table 7.3 summarizes some of the annotations containing terms related to one’s field of study or theory.

Table 7.3. Annotations Referring to Theory or Discipline as Target Domain

Writer	Metaphorical expressions	Annotation with theoretical or disciplinary reference
Jun	a <i>stream</i> of theories	<u>theory or discipline</u>
Mee	branch	<u>qualitative traditions</u> as a tree
Hoon	stem from	<u>discipline</u> as a tree
	One branch of leadership research,	<u>research</u> described as plant
	compelling	<i>Compelling</i> can mean forceful, coercive. <u>In our field</u> , it usually means "making people do something," "attracting people's mind," etc, which are positive.
	strategy	Though the terms <i>strategy</i> , <i>strategic</i> are abused, they have

		their own significance. It emphasizes social structure and symbolic roles of CEO and TMT (Top Management Team) as well as the role of TMT in determining <u>organizational strategy</u> .
	density	<i>Density</i> means (physical) density or concentration; however, it usually means the degree of concentration of social relations in <u>social network theory</u> .
	cascade	<i>cascade, cascading</i> cascade (meaning waterfall) in <u>business administration</u> means a swift, stepwise delivery of information or influence within an organization.
Pil	mainstay	I identified this as metaphor since I think that <u>qualitative research</u> has been metaphorized to an architectural structure.
Myung	Critical case study is <i>suit</i> ed for/to your research question. What properties are <i>suit</i> ed for auction?"	<i>Suit</i> means fit and proper. This is frequently used when explaining suitability of a <u>research method</u> .
Hana	dissolve	<i>Dissolve</i> means to melt and disappear; deconstruct. This expression is originally related to physical substance but here it seems mean to <u>invalidate a theory by countering its grounds</u> .

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#### 7.4. Annotations Relating to Other Lexical Items and Expressions

Some writers mentioned other expressions in annotating metaphors. For example, Pil mentioned "it would be great to be able to use *guide* when I just remember *lead*" in annotating the original metaphor (the most important concepts that *guide* ethnographers in their fieldwork). This suggests that the MWs were using metaphor annotation as a tool for expanding their lexical repertoire in a conscious manner. The following instances are typical of this pattern of annotation.

(14) Kyu: *threshold*

*Threshold* originally means 문지방, 문턱 (threshold in its physical sense) in Korean.

Here the metaphor *threshold* has been used instead of the word minimum.

(15) Jun: *draw a hard line*

*Draw a hard line*: This seems to mean to draw a very distinct line. Since *hardline* means a strong policy/unyielding attitude, "draw a hard line" would have a stronger meaning than *draw a line*.

In (14), Kyu associated *minimum* with the metaphorical expression *threshold*, suggesting that the former is literal while the latter is metaphorical. Example (15) shows Jun's juxtaposition of three semantically related expressions (*Draw a line, draw a hard line, and hardline*) with different grammatical structure. Some comments on the relationship between them were also observed. For example, Seop mentioned, "*abusively* is equal to extremely but has negative nuance" in one of his annotations. Some other examples of the category are presented in Table 7.4.

Table 7.4. Annotations Referring to Related Expressions

Writer	Metaphorical expressions	Annotation with a related expressions
Seop	<i>adherents / buttressing</i>	supporter / support
	<i>brother</i> can mean another judge.	<i>sister</i> state.
	<i>abusively</i> expensive discovery	<i>Abusively</i> is equal to extremely but has negative nuance
Hoon	<i>tight</i> social framework,	<i>Tight</i> can be followed by the words like social or



	environment. And another frequently used expression is <i>clan culture</i> .
<i>tailored</i> to something	Let's remember this along with " <i>to tailor service</i> ," mentioned before in the study group. <i>Tailor</i> can be used as a verb.
The concept of leadership <i>eludes my grasp</i> .	<i>Elude</i> (avoid shrewdly, shun) here can mean something like "fail to understand." <i>Taunt</i> and <i>slipperiness</i> can also be used in a situation where something or some concepts cannot be easily understood.
<i>layers</i> of culture	Culture can be used along with <i>layer</i> as is the case with the expression <i>social layer</i> .

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### 7.5. Self-dialogue and Questions about Metaphor Use

Some of the learners' annotations took the form of a question either to oneself or to the researcher. Most of the questions were concerned with the semantic aspect of metaphor use. This type of annotation is informative in that it reveals the issues and doubts the participants had regarding their understanding of metaphor in a direct manner. The following examples shed light on some of the problems in comprehending and using metaphors. In (16), Pil poses a direct question to the researcher, asking whether his own adaptation of a metaphor is appropriate:

(16) Pil: researcher-directed question on *writer's block*

I was *trapped* in so-called a writer's block. Can I use *writer's block* in this way? I have seen an expression have writer's block. I wonder whether I can say something like this?

Example (17) shows a slightly different orientation in that Seop asked a question to himself:

(17) Seop: self-directed question on *undertone*

Members of the public, as well as critical race scholars, noticed racial *undertones* (or perhaps overtones) in the decision. (Original sentence)

??? undertone - 저의, ulterior motive = overtone 숨은 뜻 [own translation] ?

The triple question marks ??? indicate that Seop did not fully understand the meanings of the metaphorical expressions *undertone* and *overtone*. The equation sign, along with the final question mark, also suggests that he was not certain about the difference between the two words.

Example (18) is closely related to an academic concept in Hoon's field of study: *power distance*.

(18) Hoon: researcher-directed question on *power distance*

Is the expression *power distance* now widely used or not? I would like to listen to other people's opinions about this. Or what similar terms can appear in front of distance in the field of social science? Let me check corpus later.

Here Hoon raises the question of whether *power distance* is a widely used term in social science. This is followed by his expression of curiosity about which words can occur in the slot filled by power in social science discourse.

Hana's annotation in (19) is particularly interesting in that it takes the form of think-aloud protocol. It provides a glimpse of Hana's cognitive process while she was attempting to

understand the meaning of the phrasal verb *count on*.

(19) Hana: verbalization on *count on*

count on - Trust or be certain about something/someone. Count can be used as 수를 세다 [counting numbers in Korean ] How can then *count on* come to mean to trust? I guess its meaning has originated from *counting based on something*, which places emphasis on the object functioning as a basis. Why? The basis should be reliable in order that counting should be valuable and useful.

She tried to understand its meaning based on her knowledge of two lexical items: *count* and *on*. She reasoned that counting on something means counting on a baseline value, whose accuracy can determine the reliability of the result.

The final example shows the Seop's limited understanding of the expression *make sense of* while he is familiar with its form. It is clear that the writer has heard or read the expression a number of times in written or spoken discourse but even this frequent exposure did not allow him to fully understand its meaning.

(20) Seop: verbalization on *make sense of*

*make sense of* something: understand --> A certain meaning makes sense to someone. I know that Americans use make sense (of) frequently in their everyday conversation and also in writing. Often, no, actually very frequently. It is often the case that I cannot understand its exact meaning.

Table 7.5 contains additional examples where the participants raise questions or express doubts about their understanding of the meaning of metaphors and their relationship to other expressions.

Table 7.5. Annotations Containing MWs' Questions

Writer	Metaphorical expression	Annotation including questions or self-dialogue
Seop	<i>bailout package</i>	It seems to me that <i>package</i> follows a program related to money.
	the discussion lead the group into <i>a firestorm of dispute</i> b/t the countries' leaders	a debate sparking flames?
	<i>raise concern</i>	be concerned. Does this mean amplify attention? lifting?
Myung	The proposal will <i>stanch</i> the need of shadow education in Korea.	Can I use <i>stanch</i> like this? Stanch blood --> block something?
Hana	at <i>face value</i>	<i>face value</i> . Does this have somewhat negative nuance?!!
Jun	grounded	It seems that the author used <i>ground</i> ('Ddang' in Korean) as a verb (passive form) to mean something is deeply stuck. This means to become foundation or basis. In a further sense, can this mean "to have cause in something"?
	<i>leveraging</i> stakeholder responses.	<i>leverage</i> : a lever. Also used to mean 'to influence.' So does this mean to influence like you life things with a lever?
	pitted against	pit means 구덩이 (physical pit in Korean - added by researcher) If I use pit A against B, it means there is

conflict, confrontation, and competition. What kind of metaphor would this be? Does this imply a situation where A and B confront each other while having a pit between them?

cut across

*Cut across* means to impact or "to affect or be true for people in different groups that usually remain separate." (definition from a dictionary) This can also mean *to go across*. So maybe does the meaning of "to affect" come from traveling several of the separate groups?

anchor

To *anchor* means lower 錨 (an anchor in Korean). Furthermore, it means to stabilize or have basis. Does this carry a negative nuance?

bolster

*Bolster* is related to bolster (pillow) or structure for holding bridges. This can be also used as a verb. Can this be used as synonymous with support?

fall prey to

The same meaning as "becoming a scapegoat" (Korean proverb – added by the researcher) Is this the same meaning as *scapegoat*?

Hoon

*pattern* of leadership

I wonder what kind of difference is there between *pattern* (of leadership) and *style* (of leadership).

*carve out* a separate niche for examining the tradeoffs

To *carve* means to make sculpture or inscribe. Why does its meaning change to something related to "pioneer" when coupled with *out*?

a large amount of *burgeoning evidence* supporting our hypotheses.

Newly provided evidence. Does this mean that a large number of evidence/ground/ phenomenon and so on are getting out fast like blossoming flowers?

Organizations behaviors are *shaped* by CEO experience, preference, and values.

*Shape* means to make a shape. This can be also used in a situation where something abstract gets *shaped*. *Shaped* by something. Can this be used to mean

### 7.6. Sensitivity to Grammatical Aspects of Metaphors

Some of the writers were sensitive to grammatical and collocational aspects in annotating metaphors. In the following annotations Jun and Hoon respectively manifest their awareness of collocational patterns of metaphorical expressions.

(21) Jun: *crossroads*.

In our view, business ethics as a discipline *faces a crossroads*. (Original)  
crossroads has been used here. The accompanying verb is face. (annotation)

(22) Jun: *place something into context*.

*place* into context: It seems that this means to interpret the result while paying attention to each context. It is interesting to see that place has been used as the verb.

(23) Hoon: *distribute*

This article deals with two forms of team leadership: *distributed* or focused leadership distribution. (Original)

Allocation, circulation, ration. However, *distribute* means to spread to a certain range when used in a passive form. This is frequently used to explain leadership.

Some other annotations mentioned collocational patterns or part of speech. For example, Pil mentioned that "*right* is used as a verb, meaning to make someone stand up, correct, fix, rectify" (a direct copy and paste from a Korean online dictionary - added by the researcher) in one annotation. The following examples show similar interests in grammatical and collocational aspects of particular metaphors.

(24) Jun: *tailor*

tailor: a tailor (person), tailor (verb). It seems that discussion can also be tailored to situations, employing different expressions. tailor something is frequently followed by to.

(25) Hoon: *glue*

That student is always *glued* to the desk. *Glue* is used for describing human relationships. In this case, it means something physical," as if connected by a chemical glue. *Glue* can also be used as a verb.

### 7.7. Sensitivity to Other Conceptual, Linguistic, and Pragmatic Issues

Some of the writers showed awareness of other conceptual, linguistic, and pragmatic issues in annotating metaphors. Seop paid particular attention to personification, which he claimed was prevalent in law texts. He offered a total of four instances, where he directly mentioned the term personification. One notable remark he made was "institutions are almost always personified. It seems that they can think, act, make decisions, and do almost all the things human brains can do." Even though all the personifications are not necessarily metaphorical, he paid extra attention to these examples.

(26) Seop: *personified entities: corporations*

A lot of corporations are installing new financing systems in their local branches...

(Original)

Pay attention to *personification* of an institution

(27) Seop: *personified entities: the court*

1803 Marbury v. Madison (Constitutional Law case): To withhold the commission, therefore, is an act deemed by the court not warranted by law, but violative of a vested legal right. (Original)

Deemed illegal by the court - Institutions are almost always *personified*. It seems that they can think, act, make decisions, and do almost all the things human brains can do.

(28) Seop: *personified entities: the court* (2)

The court suggests that if Burns had ordered guards not to go off the premises for food that might make a difference. (Original)

Court can suggest, explain, reason, or deny and reject. *Personification*.

(29) Seop: *personified entities: statement, law, and papers*

Policy statement or law or thesis papers can explain something, too. (Original)

This is *personification*.

Mee also mentioned personification in one of her annotations. In this case, she points to a method of statistical analysis as an object of personification.

(30) Mee: *personified entities: the factor-analytic technique*

The factor-analytic technique permits the identification of the underlying patterns of relationships within the data. (Original)

The subject of permit is technique. *Personification*.

The following table shows additional themes of the writers' annotations with regard to conceptual, linguistic, and pragmatic dimensions of metaphors.



Table 7.6. Annotations Showing MWs' Sensitivity to Conceptual, Linguistic, and Pragmatic Issues

Writer	Themes in annotation	Annotations
Jun	Connotation of metaphor	Our view has always been that firms need to think through both in order to <i>craft</i> better responses. (Original) <i>Craft</i> means to make or handcraft. This also has a negative meaning like guile. I reviewed whether that kind of <u>negative nuance</u> is in here, too. It seems that it is not the case. It seems that it means to create and prepare responses in an elaborate manner.
Seop	Conceptualization involved in metaphor	an invasion of their own privacy (Original) <i>invaded</i> their privacy - Privacy is an object of invasion or protection.
Mee	Intention behind a use of metaphor	For example, SERVQUAL is a widely used <i>hallmark</i> for service quality. (Original) Hallmark characteristic, jewelry quality guarantee mark. Here <u>it seems that the word has been used to emphasize that the measurement is reliable.</u>
Hoon	Formality	He is a <i>rebel</i> who criticizes organization's current leadership of executive level. (Original) <u>A conspirator, rebel can appear in a formal book chapter</u>
	Formation of expressions	Constructive, constructively... These expressions appear very frequently. For example, constructive discussion. It is also possible to say <i>constructively challenging</i> . I now see that <u>words of the opposite meanings can make an expression with a unique meaning</u> , which makes its meaning more conspicuous.
	Basic and metaphorical meaning and	<i>constructive</i> ... constructive criticism, suggestions, advice etc.. It seems that it is constructive with the meaning in these examples that is more frequently used than the original

	frequency of use	meaning as in constructive material.
	Pragmatic note	The speed of social change is ever-accelerating. (Original) <i>ever-accelerating</i> . It is possible to add <i>ever</i> to <i>accelerating</i> to make a word I can use in general situations. (Check corpus later.) Especially, a noun like rate can follow. <u>It seems that I can use this when I want to talk about change.</u>
Hana	Origin of metaphorical expression	<i>Panacea</i> : cure-all. <u>Originally the name of a healing goddess in Greek mythology</u> . The meaning of curing disease is expanded to solving all the inflicting problems of man.
Pil	Context of exposure to metaphor	<i>Be sold on</i> means to be absorbed in something. I <u>came to get in contact with this expression</u> when someone used it in one of the web-based lectures.
	Evaluation of a metaphor	The title of a field note is a quick reminder of the session - a <i>handle</i> to grasp what the set is about. (Original) It <u>seems a little bit inappropriate</u> in that the title is directly related to handle. However, I collected this expression for assignment since it feels like metaphor.
Young	Use of metaphor for writing	It seems that <i>I have never used the word emerge</i> in my entire writing history.

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### 7.8. Subjective Aspects in Exploration of Metaphors

Young, who was majoring in TESOL and hoping to write poems in English, was unique in showing a subjective stance towards some metaphorical expressions. For example, in annotating the phrase "smell like the traditional linguistic rose" from an expert text, he wrote, "Wow, this is a really metaphorical expression. "Does not smell like the traditional linguistic rose." Great!"

In another example, given in (31), he showed his excitement in finding a great example for the THEORY IS BUILDING metaphor, which had been covered in the previous study session:

(31) Young's emotional stance on metaphors: *constructing their theoretical edifices*

Recently, however, at least two important approaches to language analysis have recognized the contribution of the human body to our meaning-making prowess and have taken this *capacity* into account in *constructing their theoretical edifices*. (Original)  
What a jackpot to find this! At first, I was about to add this to the list, thinking that the author used the metaphor using the word *capacity*, which is related to volume in architecture. Oh, this may be right since the word *construct* follows right after it. But I didn't know the meaning of *edifice* and looked up the dictionary, to find that it means a big and impressive constructional structure. Wow, great. This seems like the best example to metaphorsize academic discipline as a building.

It is likely that Young's frequent use of emotional markers in his annotation is related to his interest in poetry. In activity system analysis, as discussed in Chapter 4, he stated that one of his objectives in learning L2 is to write English poems. This shows that one's objective in writing can have distinct influence on the appropriation of learning tools like metaphor annotation.

## 7.9. Conclusion

The current chapter reported on thematic patterns observed in the MWs' annotations. Even though they were given instructions based on the Pragglejazz approach to MIP, which involves a description of basic and metaphorical senses of an expression, their annotations were found to be a rich collection of their semiotic repertoires for making sense of metaphors.

Specifically, they used cross-cultural and cross-linguistic comparisons in understanding metaphors beyond juxtaposing basic and metaphorical meanings in L2. They were also sensitive to terms and concepts that appear across disciplines.

Their use of metaphor annotation as a learning tool for language was prominent in their annotation of grammatical and collocational patterns involved in metaphor use. They made careful observations and raised questions about subtle connotations as well as semantic and pragmatic aspects of metaphor comprehension. Young often showed his affective stances towards metaphors and the action of identifying metaphors in an emphatic way, which signaled his emotional involvement in learning metaphors. These patterns of annotation suggest that the MWs marshaled all the semiotic resources they deemed relevant to their efforts to understand metaphors. This leads to a conjecture that the participants would have used visual and gestural strategies to annotate the metaphors if they had been trained to use these different modes of semiosis.

Simple as they may seem, some of these annotations reflect a very complex psychological process involved in metaphor comprehension. For example, Jun's question included in Table 7.5 and repeated here for convenience, "To *carve* means to make sculpture or inscribe. Why does its meaning change to something related to "pioneer" when coupled with *out*?" involves a series of issues: understanding the lexical meaning of *carve*; recognizing the fact that it is used with an adverbial particle *out*; inferring the meaning of the phrasal verb *carve out* from the clues in the text; juxtaposing "pioneer" and *carve out*. This observation raises an interesting issue about the value of annotation. It seems that it functioned as a learning tool, pushing the learners to verbalize their learning process in an explicit manner. This is in line with the concept of verbalization as called for by Galperin (1969) and languaging discussed in Swain (2006) and Swain et. al. (2009). This function is further highlighted in the following discussion chapter.

This chapter concludes four consecutive chapters that have discussed the results of the study. They overviewed the challenges the participants face in their writing activity systems, rich points in the study-group sessions as well as themes in metaphor identification, adaptation and annotation. The next chapter discusses these results from several vantage points relevant to the influence of the current pedagogical intervention on the MWS' literacy development. It also presents implications the results suggest for designing and implementing L2 writing pedagogy based on the sociocultural and cognitive linguistic view of learning and development. Finally, it proposes a series of agendas for transforming the nature of educational affordances in order to benefit both international students and educational institutions accommodating them.

## **Chapter 8**

### **Discussion: An Exploration for Pedagogical Praxis**

This chapter discusses the results as presented in the previous four chapters. It is organized into five individual sections, with four dedicated to the issues and themes reported in chapters 4-7 while the final section presents a synthesis of chapters in an activity systems narrative format. In discussing the results, I will focus on two broad themes: the interpretation of the results and their pedagogical implication.

The first section begins with a critical examination of the participants' writing activity systems and the characteristics of each component of these systems. In this review, the relationship between their language learning history and literacy practices is highlighted. At the same time the importance of the transformation of activity systems and provision of quality mediational tools for improving the learners' writing competence is emphasized in order to enhance their self-confidence as writers. The second section revisits some of the rich points in the study group sessions and discusses several themes, including the participants' strategies to understand metaphorical expressions, connecting metaphors to their authentic experiences, interdisciplinary conversation mediated by metaphor, and their critical stance towards an instructional method that focuses on metaphor analysis. Pedagogical implications are presented along with a close discussion of each topic. The third section discusses metaphor identification and adaptation in terms of their implications for designing meaning-based pedagogy. The fourth section continues this line of discussion, while highlighting potentials of the metaphor annotation method as a reflective learning tool.

## **8.1. Language Learning History at Work in the Current Activity Systems**

A triangulated view of the participants' activity systems revealed several themes related to their writing activities, including the impact of their common learning trajectories on their conceptualization and practices of L2 writing, impoverished conceptual and technological tools, and the importance of recognizing identities for understanding their activity systems. This shows that their sociocultural history as a language learner is at work in the current activity systems, which in turn requires researchers and teachers to make a concerted effort to transform the system itself, rather than imposing responsibilities on each writer for their literacy development. At the same time, the researcher argues that it is crucial to provide the learners with quality mediational tools to redefine and reshape their literacy practices.

### **8.1.1. Educational History and MWs' Concepts of L2 Writing**

One eminent theme with regard to the participants' conceptualization of writing was their self-deprecating stance as writers. Most of the learners stated that their writing abilities were significantly weaker when compared with their reading abilities, insisting that they were poor writers of English. This kind of a "split" identity as a reader with a reasonable level of competence and a writer with extremely limited capacity seems to be reflective of their language learning history, which in turn reflects English language teaching in Korea. The issue seems to be twofold: the English education the participants received in their home country was based on a dichotomous approach to writing and reading and the major focus of instructional attention was focused on L2 reading.

In the Korean educational context, language ability is usually divided into four skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening, but writing is not highlighted as a crucial component of

English learning, at least not in the public school curriculum. This was especially the case when a majority of the participants were attending secondary school and college, when the 5th and 6th national curricula were implemented. This has exerted a significant impact on the landscape of Korean language education. Reading and writing have usually been taught separately in private language institutions, which may have an influence on how students conceptualize the relationship between these abilities.

It seems natural that the MWs' common educational experience would have affected the ways in which these learners conceptualize English writing, which in turn contributed to forming their bifurcated identities as poor writer but competent reader. The discussion of their efforts to bridge the gap revealed that they had taken almost no extra work other than reading and writing for coursework or co-authoring papers with their academic advisors. In other words, even though the participants were keenly aware of, and highly dissatisfied with, the discrepancy between their writing and reading abilities, they were assuming that reading a large number of texts and writing for assignments would somehow resolve the gap. Myung, Jun, and Pil went as far as admitting that they never thought deeply about the gap.

The participants' language learning histories likely framed their understanding of writing as an individual rather than a social act, which in turn implied that they bore responsibility for their own literacy development. This observation is supported by the participants' descriptions of the *division of labor* in their writing activity systems: most of the participants were writing independently. Pil commented that dividing labor could make the writing process slow in that it took more time to plan and implement. Kyu mentioned that in his case the division of labor usually took the form of working with a native proofreader while sharing his experience of having received no content-specific feedback from any native proofreader, most of whom had no substantive knowledge of his field of study. One participant, who did not want to be identified even via a pseudonym for the following observation, stated that she or he needed only to take care



of the accuracy of information and logic of a piece of writing, letting native proofreaders address grammatical and stylistic issues to some extent. The writer did not mean that it is legitimate to address linguistic issues by outsourcing them to native speakers; rather, he or she showed a type of hopelessness as a writer because he or she firmly believed that being a competent writer in another language is an unreachable goal, at least within the period of time normally allotted for graduate study.

In sum, the participants' language learning histories shaped their view of writing as an independent domain of language learning and as solitary work. The historical presence of their trajectory as learners was very influential, which made it difficult to break away from their long-held view and reconceptualize writing as a social, interdependent, and communal process.

### **8.1.2. Persistent Habitus in Literacy Practices**

The writers' writing activity systems were also characterized by a common sense approach to writing, which assumes that there is no better way to learn to write than by marking and memorizing useful expressions and then using these in authentic writing. To be more specific, they used diverse strategies such as marking keywords, underlying quotable sentences, copying appealing sentences, using the table of contents as signposts for organizing contents, and summarizing the entire article into one or two sentences. Some of the participants used graphical representations to summarize important parts of an article, including drawing flow charts or diagrams and representing logical relationships between elements of a system.

This is a very rational and understandable move in that the MWs were marshaling as many semiotic and psychological resources as they could to mediate their own writing. However, this should not be accepted as the optimal strategy, considering that most of the writers were eager to improve their writing by learning how other writers write by attending to the resources

and tools available for academic composition. In other words, the writers were seeking ways to improve their writing ability, which opened up sufficient room for pedagogical intervention.

One of the issues that needed to be dealt with was that the learners, as with most international students attending American universities, had virtually no opportunities to explore mediational tools to help them improve their writing ability. Consequently, they were compelled to adhere to their previous understanding of second language writing and established literacy practice. In other words, they were "trapped" in their L2 writing habitus. A detailed view of Seung's writing reveals a snapshot of how the MWs' habitus, formed by their shared language learning histories, played out in their actual textual practices. The following is an excerpt from one of Seung's academic assignments. (The researcher italicized all the elements for cohesion.)

(1) Seung: cohesion in academic text

Franchising is a major expansion business strategy in hospitality firms. *Franchising* is explained by resource scarcity theory and agency theory. *According to the resource scarcity theory*, constrained resource is the reason why hospitality firms cannot expand their business. Fortunately, franchising system allows hospitality firms to expand their business using borrowed capital. *In this context*, franchising system is considered as main expansion strategy in hospitality business.

According to the agency theory, franchising system causes monitoring cost between franchisor and franchisee. *Agency theory* explains franchising system's disadvantages. *Franchising system's drawbacks* include loss of control and conflict between franchisee and franchisor. *This* indicates that excessive franchising can be a detrimental factor to the restaurant firm value.

*Based on this theoretical insight*, it is expected that low or excessive proportion of franchising property will lead to poor financial performance. *Therefore*, it is necessary to identify franchising's impact for hospitality.

It seems clear that he is constantly trying to build on previous sentences to advance his argument, employing various strategies such as lexical repetition (franchising, agency theory), synonyms (drawbacks and disadvantage), anaphoric adverbial or prepositional phrases (*According to*, *In this context*, *based on this theoretical insights*).

It may be argued that this is a perfectly legitimate and effective strategy from Seung's position, as he is a novice writer in his field. However, three pieces of evidence may counter this argument: (1) Seung himself was highly dissatisfied with the kinds of rhetorical patterns he uses and was seeking ways to improve his writing; (2) he completed his master's degree in the U.S. and has been exposed to academic genres in English for an extended amount of time; and (3) this kind of pattern may be ascribed to macrocultural forces (Ratner, 2011) in Korean education, such as sociopolitical structures and educational policy, rather than Seung's intentional choices.

Seung stated in one of the study sessions that he memorized several "similar" reporting verbs and "recycled" them in his academic assignments. His stance was clearly negative since he used the Korean term "돌려막기," which means 'to make up the deficit of one credit card by another.' He also mentioned that he constantly felt that he should use connecting devices or adverbs between sentences to establish cohesion, which may reflect the fact that connecting devices are the main content of lessons on cohesion and coherence in Korea. The excerpt above, replete with cohesion strategies, seems to support this reasoning.

It is likely that his recycling of lexical items and sense of obligation to deploy connecting sentences with explicit markers also have much to do with the role of English in Korea. As noted in Chapter 1, English passes for symbolic capital. Language test scores especially are considered

to be indicative of one's language ability by most learners, even when their standardized test scores are not necessarily tied to their real life concerns such as getting a job or being promoted in the workplace. This test-oriented language learning culture largely shapes how synonyms and related lexical items are presented in Korean public classrooms, private institutions, and major textbooks.

The study group members agreed on the observation that many English teachers tend to present a list of synonyms without giving concrete examples or elaborating their contexts of use. It is often the case that lexical items are lumped together without differentiating their meanings. Connecting devices are not exceptional: they are presented with no careful consideration about their roles and semantic prosody in discourse. This characteristic of English education in South Korea may have led Seung to repeatedly use several lexical items and to overuse connecting devices in sentence initial position, while not making the effort to expand his lexical repertoire or differentiating each word's meaning in diverse contexts.

### **8.1.3. Overreliance on Online Resources and Impoverished Communal Interactions**

In this situation, the participants depended largely on online resources. Specifically, they were resorting to online dictionary services and generic search engines as their mediational means, but these tools have definite limitations for their writing. As Pil and Kyu noted, the definitions and meanings specified in dictionaries cannot guarantee that their use of certain words will be appropriate in the target contexts. At the same time, most of the examples provided therein are based on everyday concepts and terms rather than on academic texts. However, these writers could not find better or complementary mediational tools beyond online dictionaries and search engines.

Seop was one exception in that he had created his own database of useful expressions for writing by compiling a large set of resources from several textbooks published in Korea. What was particularly interesting was that he put Korean translations on each of the expressions and used Korean key words in looking for appropriate expressions. For some difficult expressions, he even inserted emotional language, which showed his frustration in using the expressions. These emotional expressions were used as anchoring points in searching and remembering the difficult expressions. Upon request by the study group members, he shared two of his database files with the group. He also used all the emails he received in English as a reference, employing the search function in his email client as a corpus search interface. This suggests that writers were not aware of other possible mediational tools such as online corpora.

In this conundrum where the participants keep a persistent conceptualization of writing as independent work while relying predominantly on online mediational tools, the roles and responsibilities of their academic communities surface. If the participants' sociocultural history is in operation in a new sociocultural environment and they are struggling to depart from their past practices, the natural step would be to learn from the communities in which they are situated. This is clearly one of the most important responsibilities of any educational institution.

However, this scenario becomes complicated when the learners' current communities supporting their writing activities are closely examined. One of the striking facts regarding academic communities, which a survey by Dong (1998) revealed, is that international students tend to have limited experience in any type of academic writing, which was in line with the current project, and, to make matters worse, their academic advisors demanded fewer rounds of revision from them than from domestic students. Cumming (2008) summarizes the negative consequences of the situation as follows:

Thus, in addition to the L2 students' greater lack of experience with writing and greater social (and so academic) isolation, they were further disadvantaged by getting fewer opportunities to work through drafts of papers and to collaborate with their advisors on publications, thereby in turn giving them less opportunity to establish a professional presence and a list of publications on their resumes. (p. 41)

This poses a serious challenge for international students to develop their writing without proper mediation, which drives them to seek native speakers' final proofreading as the sole division of labor. In other words, when sociocultural history makes writers feel that writing is very individual, solitary work but demands a certain quality of final written products, they cannot but resort to a mechanical division of labor, usually based on monetary rewards for the proofreaders.

#### **8.1.4. Multilingual Identities in Conflict**

Each writer's perception of their own writing ability played a significant role in their expectation of the objectives and outcomes of their writing activities. This was evident in the case of Myung, who served as a high-ranking official in the Korean government. He was a very prolific writer in his L1, Korean, while serving in the Ministry of Education. When he had to take an introductory class with undergraduate students, he thought that he had a better understanding of the subject matter than his classmates let alone more extensive professional experience, but he felt frustrated because he could not participate actively in the classroom discussion. His ability in L1 writing along with job experience was in stark contrast to his L2 abilities, which had a clear impact on constructing his identity as a graduate student. As Hirvela and Belcher (2001) suggested, this kind of discrepancy has a strong impact on language learners' identity, which may in turn contribute to their evaluation of goals in academic writing. The same type of perception of

one's L1 and L2 abilities was also manifest in Young's case. As a devotee and writer of poetry, he took pride in producing elegant sentences in Korean. However, he felt that his English writing was very limited. This made him feel that his English writing was "not [his] own," and he was, therefore, in his own eyes at least, not a competent graduate student. Accordingly, his goal of writing poetry and a master's thesis in English was presented in a non-confident way.

This intra-personal conflict was amplified by the learners' self-comparison with native students. In several sessions of the Thursday group, the participants discussed their frustration in expressing their thoughts, especially in front of native-speaker colleagues. Seop said, "We cannot *kick* them (native speakers of English) because of English." ("Kick" is a Korean slang word which means "to criticize.") Other members embraced this emotional stance and showed frustrations with their limited ability to participate actively in academic debates. It seems that this kind of perceived difference in linguistic proficiency marks a sharp distinction between "us" (Korean people) and them (native speakers of English), at least when the participants talked about their L2 literacy practices. However, this stance was not directed toward real people; rather it represents an ideal image of 'the native speaker', given that they indicated they were on good terms with their native-speaking classmates. This observation presents an interesting picture of how the participants were competing with an abstracted person called (the native speaker) while collaborating with authentic speakers of the language in their everyday lives.

The participants' conceptualization of themselves as researchers, writers, and scholars played a pivotal role in their confidence. The results of the interviews suggest that their self-identities as professional writers should not be taken for granted. Even though these learners write regularly for their academic assignments, this did not necessarily mean that they had strong identities as writers. As Jun, one of the most proficient writers among the participants, admitted in his narrative, many international students tend to regard writing as comprising one component of scholarly enterprise, rather than the heart of academic activity. At a discursive level, most of the

participants were building their identities as graduate students, teaching assistants, research assistants, and very importantly, as "공부하는 사람" (a person who studies), rather than expert writers specializing in a specific field of knowledge. "A person who studies" places more emphasis on the fact that one keeps learning about something, rather than on becoming an expert writer. This observation calls to attention the need to enhance graduate students' identity as academic writers. Without proper mediation, many international students will continue to conceptualize writing as one type of *skill* for completing academic assignments rather than as an activity which defines academic professions and enables knowledge creation, the ostensible purpose of academia.

#### **8.1.5. Time and Locus of Responsibilities**

The overarching theme across all the topics discussed above was *time*. Most of the participants showed their concern about the issue of time, stating that they did not have sufficient time to cover reading assignments, complete assistantship duties, and take care of various tasks in their everyday lives. What makes this situation more challenging is the fact that they had almost no experience in writing full-length academic prose in English before they entered their respective graduate programs. These issues may be addressed by calling for the learners' persistent efforts to learn how to manage time in an effective manner and set aside more time for improving their writing both structurally and conceptually. It is also a "truism" that universities seek to admit only highly qualified students, with a high level of intellectual ability and writing proficiency as one of the prerequisites for entering any graduate program. However, this line of suggestion is based on the individual notion of agency, as discussed in Chapter 2, where agency is understood as the effort of an individual to overcome obstacles.



Implicit in this version of the mainstream argument is the assumption that individuals choose what they want to achieve and once they decide to pursue a certain goal, all the responsibilities should be assumed by the person alone. No one is forced to pursue one's masters or PhD degrees overseas, where writing in another language is a must. However, this logic ignores that one's psychology and competence is formed to differing degrees by macrocultural forces, such as political economy and educational policy and thus cultural concepts can shape individual understanding of, and behavior in, the world (Ratner, 2011). It also ignores that one's understanding and practices of literacy is one of the most important cultural concepts, which are heavily influenced by sociohistorical, political, and economic forces.

In this vein, both the Korean educational system and the local academic institutions need to exert a concerted effort to promote literacy as socially-mediated, communal performance, rather than as independent work. On the one hand, English education in South Korea needs to address the crucial role of literacy in society, departing from mechanization of reading and writing activities. A detailed discussion of this topic is beyond the scope of the current project; however, it should be emphasized that commodification and skillization of literacy in education cannot prepare students for serious academic work. It may seem to achieve short-term success, but it fails in the long run to foster creative and critical minds that can tackle the imperative and profound issues of society. It may not fall within the responsibility of the Korean educational system to assure that each learner memorize a certain lexical item or a certain grammatical rule; however, it is one of the most important responsibilities of society to enable any citizen of the nation to properly understand what literacy can do and how it shapes one's psychology.

On the other hand, the academic communities in the immediate contexts also have responsibilities to provide quality mediation to the graduate students for their literacy development. Writing centers and ESL writing courses are two already existing forms of institutions for this type of support. The researcher's experience, coupled with the participants'

statements about their frustrations with their interaction with the local writing center staff, suggest that their service cannot satisfy writers' needs because it goes no further than providing accuracy-oriented, one-time feedback to their writings. In other words, writing centers provide writers with "a couple of fish" while failing to help the writers to learn how to "cast the net." This practice in turn drives international students to expect a quick fix on their drafts, which unwittingly helps the institution maintain its status quo without thinking seriously about incorporating diverse linguistic and conceptual tools including genre-based analysis of disciplinary texts, metaphor analysis, specialized corpora and educational programs for training students how to employ those tools. The same kinds of suggestions can be applied to ESL programs.

This has important implications for designing and implementing meaning-based L2 writing pedagogy. Considering that most international graduate students take no more than one writing course, focusing on mediating them in appropriating quality psychological and technological tools may bring better outcomes than fixing grammatical and semantic problems of immediate writing drafts. This does not mean that teachers' meticulous feedback is not conducive to writing development. Rather, it raises the question of the most effective pedagogical experiences that can function as a springboard for the learners' subsequent development. The current project argues that it would be crucial to provide students with powerful tools such as metaphor analysis that has rich potential for helping students shape their conceptualization of writing, redefine their reading activities as a part of the writing process, reorganize the patterns of writing practices, and most importantly, reinvent themselves as writers who conceptualize, reconceptualize, and counter-conceptualize themselves in multiple fields of discourse.

## 8.2. Making Rich Points Richer: Discussion on Study Group Sessions

A total of six themes were identified in the data presented in Chapter 4: (1) Sources and strategies for understanding unfamiliar metaphors, (2) cross- and intra-cultural comparison of metaphors (3) Cultural awareness in understanding metaphors (4) relating and applying metaphors to one's own experience, (5) interdisciplinary conversation with metaphors, (6) MWs' critical stance in evaluating metaphor-based discourse analysis.

### 8.2.1. Strategy for Understanding Metaphor

The participants' interpretations of everyday metaphors were more or less successful. For example, they reached unanimous agreement on the meaning of "to talk to the wall," or "to starve to death," while having difficulty in figuring out the exact meaning of "to put one's words into another person's mouth," or "to give someone a black look." It is highly probable that cross-linguistic similarities played a crucial role here. The former two examples have equivalent expressions in Korean ("벽에다 대고 이야기하다" and "배고파 죽겠다") while the latter do not. In the case of interpretations of "to give someone a black look," the learners tended to depend heavily on their guess of the meaning of "black." What is interesting is that their interpretation of "black" evoked other semantic networks, driving them to several interpretations such as "he failed to give someone a good impression" and "someone has a bad impression" (*black* understood as *bad* and *negative*, as in Kyu's and Seop's interpretation, respectively) and "I do not remember someone well. I have no clear memory of someone" (*black* understood as opposed to *clear*, as in Pil's interpretation). It is not clear whether these interpretations were influenced by Korean counterparts such as "검은," or by English semantic networks, instantiated in expressions such as "the future looks *black*," or "*black* market," or a mixture of both. However, in Pil's case, it is

highly likely that his interpretation has been influenced by the Korean expression, "까맣게 잊어버리다," which may be literally translated into "to forget something in a black manner" and means "to forget something completely." These examples suggest that exploring second language learners' patterns of linguistic and cultural knowledge activation offer a potential cognitive window into the concrete meaning of multilingualism.

What is notable in these examples is that second language learners, not surprisingly, look unconsciously for the equivalent expression in their L1 when interpreting an expression in the L2. This conjecture is supported by the episode related to the interpretation of "to eat like a sparrow." Initially, all the Tuesday group members, including the researcher, identified "깨작깨작 먹는다" as the correct interpretation. This was countered by Pil's comment that the English expression is not as negative as the suggested Korean expression and thus another translation "입이 짧다," which is translated literally as "one's mouth is short," would be more appropriate. The group modified its interpretation, agreeing upon Pil's suggestion. This episode suggests that the structural similarity of "to eat like a sparrow" and "깨작깨작 먹는다" (verb + adverbial) played a role in the group's common interpretation of the metaphor. This quick agreement on the structurally parallel L1 expression in turn may have kept the group from exploring other possibilities. This suggests that, in the process of understanding L2 metaphors, structural similarity or dissimilarity will play an important role in understanding L2 metaphorical expressions.

This line of reasoning is further confirmed by the Saturday group members' discussion of the expression "to scratch the surface of something." The group proposed that there is an equivalent metaphorical expression in Korean: "수박 겉 핥기" (licking the surface of a watermelon). What was problematic in this association is that the English expression does not necessarily carry a negative connotation, while its Korean counterpart always has a negative

entailment. Again, it seems that the structural and semantic similarity was an important factor in understanding the target metaphor even though the English expression does not contain the word *watermelon*. This suggests that CL-inspired pedagogy mediates students to weigh entailments of both L1 and L2 metaphorical expressions when trying to understand their meaning.

The episodes presented above indicate that MWs' implicit assumption that different cultures share the same concepts, even though they do not share exactly the same linguistic codes. Answering the origin of this assumption would be beyond the scope of the current investigation. From the macrocultural perspective, however, some cultural forces must have influenced the formation of psychological processing patterns. One plausible possibility is that they have been strengthened by the grammar translation method, which was prevalent during the period when most of the participants attended primary and secondary schools. In this method, every sentence should have its equivalent in another language. In a test-driven educational culture, this results in forcing students to find exact wordings that fit specific L2 sentences.

In addition to the role of grammar-translation in the participants' internalized psychological tools, i.e. comparison of L1 and L2 linguistic and semantic structures, it seems important to investigate what kinds of roles external mediational means play in their understanding of metaphorical expressions. Almost all the participants referred to Naver and Daum online English dictionaries as one of the mediational tools they use most frequently for writing. Given this situation, it would be important to attend to the quality of the Korean-English dictionaries in mediating second language learners' comprehension of metaphorical expressions. Reviewing one of the study group episodes seems to be highly relevant for an illustrative purpose.

In a group discussion of "to bubble with something," Pil looked up the expression "bubble with" in the dictionary he usually used to check its meaning. The entry showed its translation as "[...으로] 끓어오르다, 넘치다 [with]," which translates into "to boil, overflow with something." It is clear that "to bubble with something" and "to boil with something" have

somewhat different entailments. Especially, "to boil with" is collocated with negative emotions such as rage ("화") in Korean, which will likely lead Korean learners of English to believe that "to bubble with" is usually collocated with negative emotions like rage. This reasoning was confirmed by the example of 수박 겉핥기(to lick the surface of a watermelon), discussed in the previous section.

In sum, the discussion shows that understanding the meanings of metaphorical expressions and their connotations is mediated by learners' L1 and L2 knowledge and the mediational means they employ, including bilingual dictionaries. This calls for a close review of the process in which L1 linguistic and conceptual resources are employed in understanding L2 metaphors as well as the quality of mediational means intervening in the metaphor comprehension process.

### **8.2.2. Relating Metaphors to Life Experiences and Disciplinary Concepts**

Several study group sessions were punctuated by bursts of laughter, which occurred when some members related metaphorical expressions to their life experiences. For example, when the Tuesday group discussed the conceptual metaphor TIME IS MONEY, Soo shared her anecdote with a customer service representative, whereby she complained ineffectively to the representative. After a lengthy conversation, she finally used the expression "you're wasting my time," which turned out to be very effective in dealing with the situation. Seop introduced the group to several 'military metaphors' from an insider perspective, which caused the members to laugh. These examples show that metaphors can function as an intersubjective device that evokes the learners' past experiences as well as prompts them to use the metaphors in authentic contexts.

As Seop's unique experiences and metaphors attracted the attention of the study group, each member's disciplinary knowledge and related terms also sparked the interest of other members. One notable example was a discussion of the term *performance* in business and education. The members agreed that performance is widely used across multiple disciplines but came to recognize that its sense can vary across disciplines. Specifically, performance in the field of business focuses on *outcomes* while the same term emphasizes the *process* of learning in education. Discussions followed with regard to the uses and meanings of some other terms such as *integrity*, *mechanism*, and *delivery*. These strands of discussions were very much appreciated by the participants, and some of them, including Hoon, Pil, Seop, and Seung, mentioned that it was a great advantage of the study group to have members from multiple disciplines. This suggests that metaphors commonly used across disciplines can spark an informative discussion among graduate students. At the same time, this can contribute to each learner's awareness of his or her own disciplinary identity by juxtaposing different meanings of a metaphor in different disciplines.

Moreover, the group members' discussion of ideological aspects of metaphor during the final two sessions of the group gathering sparked heated debate among the participants. The group members showed interest in the metaphor-analytic approach taken by Goatly (2007) and agreed upon the value of adopting this strategy in analyzing disciplinary discourse. However, they also adopted critical stances towards the method, pointing out the author's criticism is quite rigid and may not be based on a thorough understanding of disciplinary concepts and practices. These points show that metaphor-mediated academic discussion can be used to help learners understand writing as disciplinary performances for knowledge construction, beyond just putting important information together and adding one's own opinions.

### **8.2.3. Opening Eyes to Ubiquity of Metaphor in Language**

One of the interesting consequences was several group members' "obsessive" search for metaphorical expressions. In an informal interview with the researcher approximately 3 months after the study group meeting was launched, Seop stated that he could not stop thinking about metaphorical expressions in Korean as well as in English and that he felt that almost everything is metaphorical. He also made a number of puns based on metaphors and was even advised to stop making metaphor-based jokes by one of his friends. Young also mentioned that he came to realize that there are many more metaphors in the texts he read for academic assignments than he initially anticipated. Jun even mentioned that he had changed his view of language in a fundamental way. One important lesson from these episodes is that a single psychological tool (i.e., metaphor analysis), can lead to a radical reorientation to language and language learning. From the sociocultural perspective, the learners' internalization of the semiotic tool (metaphor analysis) reshaped their psychology, which contributed to transforming their identity as writers as well as readers.

### **8.3. Discussion on Metaphor Identification and Adaptation**

As reported in Chapter 5, three themes emerged regarding the participants' metaphor adaptation procedure: ungrammatical uses of the metaphorical expressions, difficulty understanding conceptual relationships of arguments, and difficulty understanding subtle semantic meanings. The current section reviews these themes with specific focus on its implications for research and pedagogy.

In many cases, the MWs successfully adapted the metaphors they identified. However, there were some instances where their adaptations were not completely successful. Before



discussing each instance in more detail, it should be noted that the issues presented here should be understood as a developmental snapshot. Furthermore, some of these errors may be interpreted as part of the evolution of language, where changes in the grammatical structure of sentences and semantic scope of lexical meaning take place in a very slow, incremental manner. However, the researcher labels these instances *issues* or *problems* since none of the participants wanted to create room for being misunderstood for content or criticized for grammatical and semantic issues.

### **8.3.1. Metaphor Identification**

The participants were mostly successful in recognizing metaphoricity in diverse expressions even though the notion of metaphoricity was not rigorously defined. However, there occurred an interesting reversal of a basic meaning and a more metaphorical meaning of an expression. Hoon mentioned that he used "creative" and "constructive" so many times that they "do not feel metaphorical" to him. This was also confirmed by the researcher's interaction with an expert writer, who is a native speaker of English: The native writer offered a similar explanation on the metaphoricity of "creative" and "constructive." In this regard, it would be interesting to explore the potential similarities and differences in the ways native speakers and second language learners evaluate the degree of metaphoricity of specific expressions.

In this project, the participants identified metaphors based solely on their own judgment. In other words, they chose metaphors they considered to be relevant to their writing but that were unfamiliar to them. They also selected expressions they judged to be difficult to produce themselves even though they had frequently encountered them in texts. However, a couple of suggestions can be made to make this step pedagogically more relevant. First, it would be useful to provide MWs with a set of reference points. For example, metaphorical expressions directly related to academic word lists (Coxhead, 2000) can be presented before learners engage in

metaphor identification (Flowerdew, Personal communication, Mar 25, 2012). This type of basic training would facilitate the task, directing learners to specific features of metaphors in academic texts. Second, several metaphorical themes can be presented within a specific corpus. For example, Mendis and Swales (2004) developed a set of pedagogical tasks based on the ACADEMIC PURSUITS HAVE DESTINATIONS metaphor. Goatly (2007) also provides a set of overarching metaphors in educational discourse such as QUALITY EDUCATION IS QUALITY ASSURANCE and EDUCATION IS A JOURNEY. In this way, language learners can attend to specific conceptual metaphors. These two ways of enhancing learners' sensitivity to metaphors can be employed as complementary strategies since the former focuses primarily on individual lexical items and the latter on the role of metaphorical themes in creating coherent texts.

### **8.3.2. Grammatical Issues in Metaphor Adaptation**

Issues in metaphor adaptation were sorted into three categories: grammatical problems, limited understanding of semantic relationships among arguments, and other subtle semantic issues. The distinction between the second and the third category is not straightforward in that both cause difficulty with regard to conceptual and semantic features. The former is concerned in construing the relationship between arguments in a sentence, which accordingly involves verbs mediating the relationship between the subject and/or the object, while the latter encompasses other semantic issues related to understanding and using individual lexical items and their connotations.

Grammatical problems were also documented in the MWs' adaptation of metaphors. Grammar needs to be attended to not solely because of the danger of miscommunication but also because accuracy in this aspect of language is closely tied to the MWs' presentation of self and to

the impression their writing makes on their colleagues and instructors (Lantolf, Personal communication, May 1, 2012). Furthermore, it would be fruitful to develop a unit of pedagogy to address both structural and conceptual issues in a unified way. The following discussion will serve as a springboard for this line of enterprise.

Though it would not be possible to investigate all the reasons behind these grammatical issues, several forces seem to be in play. First, one's habitus in using certain expressions can override the structure of examples identified. Let us review Seung's adaptation of *occur*, as reported in Chapter 6.

(2) Seung

Little investigation has *occurred on* whether franchising actually contributes to firm's financial performance. (original)

Much investigation has *occurred to* the research topic. (adaptation)

Here Seung identified and applied the expression to his own sentence. In this process, he changed the preposition *on* to *to*, which may potentially cause a semantic problem. Even though the subjects of two sentences are almost identical (Little investigations vs. Much investigations), he ended up using *to*. One possible reason behind this unsuccessful rhetorical move is that the verbal phrase *occur to* (e.g., it occurred to me) has been so entrenched in Seung's memory that he unconsciously used *to*. This can be interpreted as his simple failure to notice his mistaken use of the preposition *to* in adapting the expression, a problem that might be overcome by pointing out the importance of taking note of prepositions that occur with verbs. However, the researcher would argue that the problem is not that simple.

In this situation, Seung's linguistic habitus has overridden his immediate attentional capacity. From the perspective of memory, his long-term memory may have overridden his short-

term memory, at least from a phenomenological perspective. In this situation, one may propose that he should receive training to enhance his ability to detect linguistic features. For example, he might be instructed to pay attention to prepositions after verbs, which may lead to improved attention to prepositions and production of correct verb-preposition sequences. However, this raises the issue of the need for learners to control the structural as well as semantic aspects of verb-preposition sequences. Without proper conceptual understanding of the meanings of each preposition, a learner such as Seung would have to attend to prepositions as if each instance were semantically distinct. In other words, he would have to figure out the meaning of each occurrence of a preposition without recognizing that the preposition has a prototypical meaning. Consequently, such a highly inductive approach to learning is likely to take great deal of time and effort compared to a deductive concept-based approach (Lee, 2012).

Let us apply this scenario to Seung's example. If we assume that he has been trained to detect prepositions following verbs, he would recognize that the original phrase is *occur on*, and would successfully use this in his own sentence, producing "Much investigation has *occurred on* the research topic." However, this success would remain local if he has not appropriated the conceptual meaning of *on*. This means that a detection strategy training might work at the local level, but it cannot prepare him for understanding the conceptual meaning of *on*, which serves as foundation for recontextualization of the function word. Thus Seung will need a relatively high number of encounters with the preposition *on* to produce it in an appropriate manner across diverse contexts. Given this possibility, the alternative makes much more pedagogical sense-- prepositions should be taught in accordance with their conceptual meaning rather than to ask learners to memorize co-occurrence patterns (Evans & Tyler, 2003).

Some other grammatical issues can be approached in the same way. For example, Hana's use of *antidote of* instead of *antidote to*, and Kyu's use of *dream to* rather than *dream of* are all related to misuses of prepositions. One exceptional instance was Young's insertion of *in*, in

"frequent mistakes are *in twofold*." This insertion suggests a possibility that he took *twofold* as a noun and this conceptualization overrode his perception of the original sentence, where *twofold* immediately follows *be* verb ("The relation between them can *be twofold*: static or dynamic").

Other issues also emerged in the learners' adaptations of metaphors. Included among these were article use (a sound decision making, have a rapid growth, mainstream (without a definite article), the farsighted plan is required). Problems with the transitive/intransitive distinction and argument structure were also observed (*distill* (without an object), *suit children to improve*, *shock into*). Considering these categories, it would be necessary to use metaphor identification and adaptation coupled with a high quality corpus such as COCA where grammatical reference and part-of-speech are marked to help MWs produce conceptually valid and grammatically appropriate sentences. More importantly, however, the learners need to understand the conceptual basis of grammar, which will be discussed in more detail in the following section.

### 8.3.3. Conceptual and Semantic Issues

Given that the pedagogical intervention focused primarily on expanding the writers' conceptual repertoire, structurally well-formed yet semantically unconventionally expressions deserve more discussion. The results show that many of the semantic problems call for a careful examination of contexts of use. Consider the following two examples that make the point.

The first issue identified in the MWs' adaptations was concerned with a conceptual understanding of a lexical item, especially a verb, and its argument(s). Yeon's adaptation, "it is only lately that the primary responsibilities of psychologists began to emerge" is one example. This may not sound completely appropriate, when presented without any specific context, in that "primary responsibilities of psychologists" have always existed as long as there is a profession of

psychologist. This reasoning was adopted by one of the native writers. According to this expert writer, Hana's adaptation contrasts with the original sentence "It is only recently that *tools* designed to assess early math concepts and skills in classroom settings began to *emerge*," where *tools* is the subject of the verb *emerge*. As *to emerge* usually entails "coming into existence" or "being created," it may sound inappropriate to say that *responsibilities*, rather than *tools*, *emerge*. The writer suggested that the same explanation can be applied to Hana's other example, "Fundamental *development* of children *emerge* in late infancy." Here, the meaning of *development* is not compatible with the meaning of *emerge* in that development is an unbounded process. However, the other expert writer interpreted the same sentence in a different way. He pointed out that it is appropriate to say, "His responsibilities emerged as he progressed in his job," and thus it would not be inappropriate to say "development emerged." This suggests that some of the potential semantic issues cannot be properly evaluated without a longer stretch of discourse that can properly contextualize the adapted sentence.

The same type of scenario can be applied to another example. In one adaptation, Hana created the sentence "Active play *make* a beneficial *connections* to children's learning" based on the original sentence, "we know that active brains *make* permanent *neurological connections* critical to learning." In this example it is ambiguous whether Hana wanted to assign an agentive role to the subject *active play*, which connects two entities or whether she meant that *active play* is connected to *children's learning* by an unstated yet implied agent. Again, the two native expert writers evaluated this sentence in quite different ways. According to one writer, Hana's sentence requires two entities to be connected: one of the two is *children's learning* but the other entity has not been specified. The other writer was somewhat cautious in designating the example as problematic: it could be the case that Hana wanted to express the connection between physical movement of children and learning.

From the writer's perspective, recognizing the semantic relationship in a sentence is not a simple task. Structurally, there is a parallel between these two sentences ("We know that active brains *make* permanent *neurological connections* critical to learning" and "Active play *make* a[sic] beneficial *connections* to children's learning"). In the original sentence, it is assumed that connections are made among neurons, which is represented by the noun phrase *neurological connections*. An appropriate use of this structural pattern requires one to have encyclopedic knowledge about the relationship between the brain and neurons as well as connections between neurons. It is not clear that Hana has penetrated this semantic relationship. If we follow the first expert writer's explanation, Yeon's strategy to establish structural similarity between the original and the adapted does not guarantee successful sentence production.

From a pedagogical perspective, these observations suggest that writers need to engage more in paradigmatic writing in addition to syntagmatic writing. The former requires filling in slots, for example, the subject and the object which surround a verb, while the latter involves production of consecutive words. This kind of activity can encourage learners to pay closer attention to the conceptual relationships between the verb and arguments. When coupled with a corpus consultation activity, this can be more effective by engaging them in exploring different linguistic possibilities profiling the more or less similar conceptual relationships.

Some other issues seem to have risen from a limited understanding of a specific lexical item. For example, Pil wrote, "As she has *fought the urge* to become negligent or to be easily distracted by internet, she finally began to get some fruits for the efforts." This may sound odd to the reader since the noun *urge* is usually associated with something one aspires to do, as in "she fought the urge to play the computer game." It seems that Pil failed to recognize that *urge*, when collocated with the verb *fight*, is applied to something one desires but considers to bring potentially negative consequences. Another possibility is that he thought that *negligent* is equivalent to *lazy*. To confirm this reasoning, the researcher asked him to translate the sentence

into Korean. He wrote, "কেউল리지려 하거나 쉽게 산만해지려는 충동과 싸워왔기 때문에, 그녀는 마침내 그 노력의 결실을 보기 시작했다." This answer confirms the researcher's conjecture as both of *negligent* and *lazy* can be translated into কেউল리지다 in Korean. In any scenario, it is highly likely that he was not able to see that the meaning of *fight urge* conflicts with the phrases *to be negligent* or *to be distracted*.

Connotation specific metaphors carry also mattered. For example, Jun wrote, "Due to the prior CEO's unrealistic strategy, the company *falls under the umbrella* of need for drastic reconstructing." Here it would sound inappropriate to say "fall under the umbrella of *need*" considering need cannot function as an agent exerting control or a category that can encompass other subcategories or elements. This kind of subtle nuance may not be accessible to MWs, which necessitates a good explanation of the meanings and connotations of metaphorical expressions on the part of the instructor.

The discussion so far suggests that metaphor-mediated analytical reading can be performed at varying levels. Clearly, identifying metaphors is a kind of analytical reading, which requires more time and energy than reading just for content. In one scenario, this analytic reading can involve attending simply to metaphorical expressions and reusing them in a new context. In this case, an expression is selected for use, but its original context is given little attention. In another scenario, an identified metaphor can be comprehended in terms of its meaning and function in the original context. This involves more analytic work such as considering neighboring elements, like collocations, the items it modifies, or the items that modify it; reviewing the grammatical relationships around the expression; and/or examining its potential connotation against the theme and stance of the article. In a third scenario, the metaphor can be understood in comparison to its equivalent in the learners' L1. As will be discussed in section 8.4, various aspects of the L1 and L2 can be compared, including structural similarity, lexical items



used, cultural meanings and connotations. Teachers and students can choose and mix these options, depending on their purposes and time constraints.

#### 8.3.4. Native Speakers' Evaluation of MWs' Metaphor Adaptation

As briefly discussed above, one issue that emerged in the process of data coding was that native expert writers accepted the MWs' adaptations to differing degrees. For example, three expert native writers disagreed on the acceptability of a number of sentences. Table 8.1 presents some divergent opinions in the three native expert writers' evaluations of the MW's adaptations.

Table 8.1. Divergent Evaluation of Native Expert Writers

MWs' Adaptations	Expert Writer 1	Expert Writer 2	Expert Writer 3
These skinny jeans <i>taper off</i> the ankle and fit like leggings.	Jeans or pants can taper but cannot taper off.	This might be okay. It would make this better if he says "taper at the ankle."	
Unlike the predecessor, the incumbent CEO does not have enough experience to <i>grapple with</i> the current issues. The chairman of board needs to hire COO who can help him and lead this situation.		This is appropriate.	This seems to show his failure in understanding the fact that <i>to grapple with</i> does not assume one will be successful and sometimes has a nuance of 'struggling with something.'
This is an experiment to <i>reconcile</i> the difference between gender.		I think the problem here is grammatical: "between the genders"	There is a semantic issue. The word <i>reconcile</i> implies

would be fine.

bringing two groups of people together after a fight, or eliminating the difference between two ideological positions.

The recent *publicity* of government on problematic institutions *conveyed* to academic community that institution which has not made an effort to improve its quality might not get any funding and policy assistance from the government.

The collocation *convey publicity* is rarely used. This collocation is not appropriate.

It is possible to convey publicity. I am not sure whether it is deviant.

In this writing, we will find pivotal drawbacks, on the policy, that *coalesce around* policy makers' tunnel vision

Drawbacks do not *coalesce around* anything. (Drawbacks perhaps *drive from* tunnel vision?)

This may be okay.

The judgment of the native writers illustrates that there is disagreement on the appropriate use of some metaphors. They disagreed on whether the source of the problem was grammatical or semantic (reconcile difference between gender), or whether a given sentence is semantically acceptable (convey publicity; drawbacks *coalesce around* policy makers' tunnel vision). It is highly likely that this type of matter can surface not just in native writers' perceptions of MWs; it can also emerge in native writers' judgment of the sentences that other native writers produce. This is natural since one's evaluation on semantic appropriateness lies on a continuum,

rather than lending itself to binary categorization. However, this cannot be taken for granted from the pedagogical perspective: learners would seek a way to confirm the appropriateness of their language use.

One of the most useful ways to address this issue is to bring corpus consultation to learners' activity systems (Park & Kinginger, 2010). By formulating relevant search and examining concordancing results, learners can check whether their uses are appropriate. However, this method also has limitations in that it cannot address all the examples. For instance, "convey publicity" does not appear in COCA. A search for the same term in Google Scholar (convey publicity, conveyed publicity, conveys publicity, conveying publicity) returned 5 instances. In this situation, writers cannot safely confirm or reject their choice.

Here arises a question as to whether learners should depend on corpora or on native intuitions, or on their own conceptualization in confirming or rejecting some dubious language use. I argue that this is not a matter of choice of "either-or"; rather, writers must face the reality that they can depend neither solely on their or native intuition nor on corpus search results. They also should be aware that native speakers' intuitions are not the gold standard in all cases. This realization can be expected to push them to "invest more thinking" in creating texts, which may lead to the production of innovative expressions and metaphors. These new metaphors may or may not be taken up by a large number of native or nonnative speakers; however, those metaphors can serve a function in local contexts. In some situations, they may have to explain the conceptual motivation behind the new metaphor to their interlocutors. All these activities will make their work as writers more complicated yet help them understand writing in a more ecologically valid way. In sum, they need to learn to tolerate some ambiguities while making the most of their psychological, social, and technological mediation.

## 8.4. Discussion on Metaphor Annotation

This section discusses the creative ways that the participants adopted metaphor annotation as a mediational tool to gain some benefit from the analytical reading discussed in the previous section. Overall, the results of the participants' annotation of metaphor showed a complex but promising picture of using the procedure as a learning tool. This also suggests the possibility to employ annotation as a type of materialization tool from the perspective of Systemic Theoretical Instruction (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

### 8.4.1. Basic-Metaphorical Meaning Pairs and Their Pedagogical Potential

The most frequent pattern in annotation was the pairing of basic and more metaphorical meanings of an expression. The first part of Table 7.1 is reproduced here to facilitate the discussion on this type of annotation.

Table 8.2. Abbreviated Results of Annotation Containing the Basic-Metaphorical Pairing

Participant	Metaphorical Expressions	More basic meaning applied to:	Metaphorical meaning applied to:
Kyu	solidify <i>place</i> emphasis	architecture physical object	policy abstract concept

This type of annotation is in line with Praggel jazz's metaphor identification procedure, which uses the comparative strategy between a metaphorical meaning and a more basic meaning of an expression in order to judge the metaphoricity of a given expression. In my view, the approach has pedagogical relevance for three reasons. First, as Boers (2011) noted, development in metaphorical thinking entails one's awareness of concrete, physical meanings of certain

expressions. In other words, the activity of linking concrete and metaphorical meanings can contribute to enhancing language learners' recognition of the ubiquity of metaphor and deeper understanding of how human language works. This in turn is related to the second point that learners can build awareness of the prototypical meaning of words. According to Prototype Theory (Geraerts, 2006), categories are not discretely separated from each other; rather, they are radial whereby the categories close to the center explain more frequently used concepts, while those at the periphery are less frequently employed.

Even though the participants' annotations may not reflect the exact prototypical network of word meanings, repeated attention to basic and more metaphorical meanings can enhance their awareness of the prototypical meaning of a certain lexical item. For example, Hoon commented on the lexical item *glue*: "*Glue* for putting physical things together. *Glue* is also used for describing human relationships." He adapted this expression in "That student is always glued to the desk." Here, the first meaning refers to a sticky substance for attaching physical things together. The second description points to the original sentence from an academic text (maintaining a team by providing "*interpersonal glue*" that helps build a strong internal social network). His own adaptation is somewhere between the physical (the first example) and metaphorical sense (the second example) of *glue*. Hana's annotation on *panacea* ("*Panacea* - cure-all. Originally the name of a healing goddess in Greek mythology. The meaning of curing disease *is expanded to* solving all the inflicting problems of man." - Italics by researcher) shows a similar pattern. It originated from the name of a goddess in Greek mythology. It referred at one time to a medicine that can cure all diseases. Now it means a solution for all problems. These examples show that, even though learners' annotations are theoretically rigorous descriptions of semantic networks around the prototypical meaning of a lexical item, the basic-metaphorical pair format annotation can enhance learners' awareness of core and extended meanings of a word.

Third, annotation can promote learners' new conceptualization of some words they are already familiar with. Seung mentioned that one of the most beneficial parts of his study group experiences was that he came to make more use of the lexical items he had known before. One of Young's annotations mentioned that he had never used the word *emerge*, which he had known for a while, in his academic assignments. His subsequent writing sample, collected approximately 4 months after the conclusion of the study group sessions, contained sentences such as "the most striking result to *emerge* from the comparison from punctuation unit and intonation unit is that there is a difference in the information length which can be carried by each unit." and "the most important point that *emerged* from these findings is that it is worthwhile to ..." This suggests that metaphor annotation coupling basic and metaphorical senses can expand one's productive repertoire by drawing renewed attention to the lexical items whose concrete meanings are already available to the writer.

#### **8.4.2. Intercultural Awareness in Annotation and Issues in Mediation Tools**

Intercultural comparison was another theme in the MWs' annotation. This type of method was adopted by a small number of participants; however, translations of specific metaphors occurred frequently in the study group sessions. In this sense, juxtaposing the L1 and L2 can reveal linguistic and conceptual issues involved in translation (Crerar-Bromelow, 2008).

Jun was sensitive to the same conceptualization between Korean and English expressions such as *sea change*, *key voice*, and *lay groundwork*. It is interesting, however, that he paid attention to the same kinds of conceptualizations across two languages. One clue to this puzzle comes from his self-question on *scratch the surface*: "This means not touching the core of the matter. *Licking the surface of a watermelon?* (Korean proverb – added by the researcher) Scratching just the surface." Here the overlapping lexical item is "the scratch," while the verbs are

different (scratch vs. lick) and the Korean counterpart has another component, which is "watermelon." Conceptually, these two expressions share the meaning of not reaching the core of a topic, but their connotations are very different. The English expression does not always carry negative entailments, while the Korean counterpart does. This suggests that, as discussed above, Korean learners of English implicitly assume that a Korean expression will have an equivalent expression in English. In other words, Korean learners of English might be constantly looking for English expressions that match Korean expressions.

This reasoning becomes more persuasive when we consider two factors: many of the participants learned English through the grammar-translation method and the predominant mediational means for most of the participants were several Korean-English bilingual dictionaries on the web. It is highly probable that the former pedagogical method may have given the mistaken impression that Korean and English share common linguistic and conceptual repertoires. While reviewing the dictionary that most participants referred to as their main mediational reference, the researcher identified the following examples.

(3)

bridge[fill, stop] a gap  
틈새를 막다

(4)

bridge the gap/gulf/divide (between A and B)  
(A와 B 사이의) 간극을 메우다

Figure 8.1. Representations of Synonyms in a Bilingual Dictionary

Item (3) shows how some examples are represented. It does not indicate that *bridge* is the equivalent of *fill* or *stop*. However, it does state that *bridge* is exchangeable with *fill* or *stop* when collocating with *a gap*. Item (4) gives the same instruction for the nouns: it implicitly states that *gap* can be substituted for by *gulf* or *divide* when used with the verb *bridge*. This type of explanation is more or less the norm for bilingual dictionaries. When learners do not differentiate the meanings and connotations of these choices, they may end up describing target objects or phenomena in an inaccurate way and present unintended impressions to the reader.

These observations have significant implications for designing L2 pedagogy, including writing instruction, as a site for intercultural, cross-linguistic learning. L2 learners need to recognize that different cultures have different ways to construe experiences and concepts while attending to the different ways different languages materialize them. From the cognitive linguistic perspective, learners need to learn themes and variations in conceptual metaphors across cultures and the ways each language represents these (Kovecses, 2010). In sum, annotation of L2 metaphors with using resources available in one's L1 can highlight the universal and cross-cultural aspects of language, leading to heightened cultural awareness.

### **8.4.3. Metaphor-mediated Academic Conversation: Potential for Interdisciplinary Conversation and Reflexive Disciplinarity**

Some annotations referred to disciplinary terms and concepts. As discussed in Section 8.2, which described rich points in the study group sessions, disciplinary and interdisciplinary conversations were frequently mediated by metaphorical expressions. In fact, the ubiquity of metaphor in academia is well attested in basic domains, including the names of different areas of study: *International relations*, *organizational behavior*, *human ecology*, *green economics*, *social stratification*, *data mining*, *expert systems*, *linear programming*, to name a few. Inside each



discipline exist a plethora of metaphors that characterize the discipline. The following example in the field of International Relations illustrates this point.

IR scholars have privileged aspects of international relations by enshrining them in defining metaphorical frames. Metaphorically speaking, the narrative starts with an emptiness called “anarchy” that provides a building space for “systems” and “structures” occupied by “states” seen as “individuals.” States also house “domestic” politics, while anarchy permits the creation of “societies” and “communities.” This metaphorical architecture of international relations constitutes the contextual narrative of the field. (Marks 2011: 30)

The MWs' annotations were not aimed at drawing metaphorical themes from their disciplinary texts. For example, they were not given any specific instructions as to identifying overarching metaphors like EDUCATION IS JOURNEY; rather, they identified individual metaphors corresponding to lexical or phrasal units. However, some indication of systematic identification of thematic strands was observed. Kyu mentioned that terms like *investment* and *employ* are originally from economics yet are now used across disciplines. Hoon referred to *stem* and *branch* of a tree as a source domain for theory. Seung mentioned that the THEORY IS A BUILDING metaphor was useful in understanding academic texts while most of the participants valued the analysis of ideologies in education performed by Goatly (2007).

The awareness of disciplinary metaphors and their ideological orientations are important in that metaphors function as one of the major mechanisms for describing the target phenomenon, which in turn has a profound impact on the main tone and methodology of a specific discipline. For example, the cognitive revolution since the 1950's relied mainly on the emerging disciplines of computer science and neuroscience (Miller, 2003). One of the consequences of this disciplinary origin was the HUMAN MIND IS COMPUTER metaphor, which was arguably the most frequent and powerful metaphor of mind to arise in the late twentieth century.

Thus it would be beneficial to equip second language learners with a tool to delve into their disciplinary identities. With a concept-based analytic tool, they would be able to analyze some of the dominant metaphors in one's discipline and reflect upon their entailments. It would be also possible to recognize hybridity of metaphors in a discipline, which serves as a foundation for multidisciplinary. This is actually taking place at the present time as Hoon begins to work on a project dealing with the relationship between metaphorical terms and disciplinary identity. Specifically, he is to delineate the scope of a certain discipline by identifying the most frequent terms and metaphors in related journal articles. Following such a procedure learners can expand their understanding of writing from a mainly lexicogrammatical enterprise to a process of reconceptualizing and counter-conceptualizing disciplinary themes through the use of relevant metaphors.

#### **8.4.4. Concerns for authentic use of metaphors**

The participants were particularly interested in using metaphors in their authentic assignments since the study group itself was framed as a venue where they could discuss problems related to their literacy activities and learn useful tools to address those problem while at the same time expanding their semiotic repertoire for writing. Since they showed concern for "recycling" similar expressions, learning new expressions was of the greatest importance for them. This stance was manifest in some of the MWs' annotations.

Some participants made explicit connections to expressions they were already familiar with. For example, *threshold* was associated with *minimum*, *draw a hard line* with *hard line*, *brother* (judge) with *sister* state, tight social *network* with *clan* culture, *layers* of culture with social *layer*. Some participants adopted this strategy even though promoting conscious efforts to relate one expression to another was not part of the design of the pedagogical intervention.

Some of learners also showed sensitivity for linguistic and conceptual issues in using metaphors. For example, some of them mentioned various issues such as collocational patterns in metaphor use (e.g. face crossroads), voice of metaphorical expressions (e.g. distributed leadership - distribute as a passive form), and an unfamiliar part of speech (e.g. place as a verb, right as a verb). They also referred to a rich set of issues including connotations of metaphorical expressions, the intention behind using them, formality of certain expressions, notes for future use, the context in which one encountered a metaphor, and so on. Considering that these annotations were carried out without formal guidance, a more principled approach to mediation may lead to much richer annotation. Garnering the fruits from recent developments in applied cognitive linguistics and analyzing learners' conceptual problems in metaphor use will be a viable step in this direction.

As far as the researcher's knowledge is concerned, there is no research on the effect of intentional compilation and careful annotation of metaphorical expressions on one's vocabulary and writing development. During the first stage of the study group meetings, Seop shared his collection of expressions for writing with other group members. However, his collecting process mainly involved copying useful expressions from commercial textbooks rather than integrating each expression into his existing lexical knowledge. In this regard, it would be revealing to design a pedagogical strategy to engage students in a learning strategy where they keep track of lexical items and annotate on various aspects of those words and expressions while placing them, linguistically as well as visually, within their existing lexical networks.

Young, who was then majoring in TESOL, adopted this approach in a serious manner. Although not exactly the strategy described above, he documented the metaphors he identified and kept track of his use of some of those metaphors in authentic academic assignments, which lasted for approximately 3 months. He evaluated this identifying-documenting-applying sequence as a significant learning tool, in that he could witness the expansion of his metaphorical repertoire

and authentic uses in academic assignments. It is not clear whether this result was mainly due to his major and interest in language, yet it would be valuable to investigate this topic in further research. It would be particularly interesting if the issue of recontextualization, often discussed in a schematic manner in literature, be illuminated with a specific meaning making within a specific sociocultural context in mind, in this case the use of metaphors by multilingual graduate students in their academic composition.

### **8.5. A Synthesis for Praxis: Transforming Writers' Activity Systems**

This final section synthesizes the discussions so far in order to develop a praxis-oriented pedagogical intervention for improving second language learners' writing competence. In performing this task, an activity system narrative is adopted (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). In this method, a narrative is presented based on a detailed activity system analysis of a certain situation or problem. Based on the analysis results reported above, the following section presents a parallel view of the AS-IS activity system and the TO-BE activity system. The former represents the current situation while the latter the transformed one. The researcher is well aware that this type of schematization will necessarily involve a certain degree of essentialization of the highly complex pictures of different participants. Therefore, the schema presented in Table 8.3 should be understood as a proposal for designing a meaning-based curriculum in second language writing pedagogy rather than as a detailed, ethnographic description of each participant's unique situation.

Table 8.3. Activity System Narratives: AS-IS and TO-BE

<b>Component</b>	<b>AS-IS</b>	<b>Mediation</b>	<b>TO-BE</b>
Subject	I am not a capable writer of English. And there is slim chance that I can be a good one. My main role is a researcher, rather than a writer. I cannot spare time for writing other than completing assignments.	Pushing a new conceptualization of writing and the relationship between reading and writing; Enhancing graduate students' identity as a writer; Enhancing their confidence by collaborative dialogues among MWs	I think writing is something that functions as an infrastructure for my work. Reading is an integral part for my writing process. I view myself as a professional writer in my field. I take writing as a crucial part of knowledge creation and transformation.
Mediational means	I use online dictionaries, generic search tools, writing textbooks, journal articles to help my writing. I try to memorize great expressions.	Genre analysis, metaphor analysis, consulting and compiling specialized corpus	I make it a habit to look for metaphors in a text. At the same time, I attend to genre features like nominalization or reporting verbs to make use of them. I recently compiled my own corpus of 50 journal articles, which I can analyze with my concordance software. As a multilingual writer, I think this kind of analytical work is part of writing.
Objective/ Outcome	I write for publishing articles, my thesis, and course assignments. Writing is done when I have to produce something	Understanding the power and historicity of writing; Employing writing as a psychological as well as communicative tool;	I write when I want to think deeply about a certain concept of phenomena. I come to value my thinking, when deepened and

	for presentation or publication.	Appropriating writing as a powerful thinking tool, not an index of social capital	expanded as a result of my writing. Something intangible as thinking processes is as valuable as tangible things like manuscripts. I also want to develop myself as a writing expert, who can provide substantial guidance for my future advisees' dissertation.
Rules	I need to avoid plagiarism and stick to citation styles like APA. I have to produce grammatically correct sentences.	Self-created rules relevant to content as well as to accuracy and copyright issues	I try to reconceptualize or counter-conceptualize one or two things in my critique paper. I contribute new perspectives to the issues I write on.
Community	If I do not participate in term projects or study groups, I have little interaction with people in the community.	Restructuring writing center structure and enhancing ESL curriculum; Introducing basic technological, conceptual tools to every international student; Reconceptualizing academic dialogues as a crucial process for writing	I learned the concept of genre and metaphor analysis when I first got here in the U.S. and I often participate in related workshops. I also engage actively in academic discussions with my colleagues.
Division of labor	I write independently. There are some occasions that I ask my friend to proofread my work or hire a professional editor.	Reconceptualizing the writing process as a social process involving a large network of people.	I frequently let my colleagues review my paper. I also review their papers. This collaboration makes me critically review my own writing while learning a lot from other people's comments.

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The description of the AS-IS situation is based on the results of the activity system analysis discussed in Chapter 4. Most points related to the proposed mediational activities, except for the proposal for ESL and writing center innovations and genre analysis, were emphasized throughout the study group sessions. The TO-BE system is an imagined situation, which these mediational means are designed for. The effect of the current pedagogical intervention for realizing the desired situation was not completely transparent during the study group sessions. The following chapter considers how the participants appropriated these mediational strategies through the narratives they sent to the researcher approximately four to five months after the pedagogical intervention.

## Chapter 9

### **Multilingual Writers' Narratives on Their Experiences in the Writing Study Group and Writing Development**

The study took place during the 2011 Fall academic semester. The subsequent semester the researcher contacted several participants and asked them to write a short narrative describing their experiences in the writing study, its impact on their literacy practices, and their perceptions of their own writing development. Specifically, the prompt given in Figure 9.1 below was sent to them via email.

As you remember, we had gathered for study group sessions last semester. I would like to ask you to write a reflective narrative on your writing development since last semester. There is no fixed format for this narrative. I would like you to reflect upon your own perspective of writing, what you have learned from the study group, what you had wished to have in the group, your subsequent experiences for academic assignments, your identity as a writer, your life as a graduate student, and so on. I would like you to have an opportunity to think about how much you have grown as a writer and student as well as what you think you still need to improve. You can write either in English or in Korean.

Figure 9.1. Prompts for Participants' Narrative

A total of seven participants sent their narratives to the researcher. All of them were written in Korean and translated to English by the researcher. The following section discusses major voices of the participants that emerged from a thematic analysis of the narratives. The



researcher's analysis, however, has been *intentionally minimized* to highlight the participants' perspectives and evaluations of the pedagogical intervention and their own literacy development.

### **9.1. Writing is Still Challenging**

The first theme identified across the learner narratives was their continued emphasis that L2 writing is difficult. This is intertwined with their confidence as graduate students and would-be scholars. In (1) Pil, described the frustration he experiences with regard to his academic life.

(1) Pil

I keep thinking that I am not talented, I do not do well here, I am the only problem. I think that my listening skill is poor, speaking is worse, and I cannot express myself well in English. I also wonder what American students will think of me.

His subsequent email to the researcher showed that he had been at a low point in his academic life for almost one year. He said he “hit bottom” in terms of motivation, and it was difficult to recover and regain confidence in his academic performance. It seems clear that Pil's academic identity was closely intertwined with his perception of his linguistic ability. The respective narratives of Young, Myung, and Hana also discuss the challenges they still face. Both Young and Myung expressed their difficulties in writing quality academic prose, contrasting their L1 writing and L2 writing experiences.

(2) Young

Honestly, to get straight to a conclusion, writing is still difficult. When I write in English, unlike in Korean, it is really difficult to write something in one shot while judging

whether my writing is delivering exact meanings or whether my words are carrying accurate nuances in a sentence within a given context. For one example, it is so clear that it has been a long time since I have written something in Korean, judging just from these swift touches of my fingers typing a Korean essay.

Here Young describes his continued difficulty in writing in L2. He also contrasts his L1 and L2 writing, as he did in his initial interview with the researcher. However, his voice is different from the previous interview in that he is now more concerned about "exact meanings" and "accurate nuances" in a given context. One-and-half semesters early, he had been concerned with his writing ability per se and with a sense of ownership of his own text, saying "I didn't feel it was mine since I would not be able to produce it again if asked to write it one more time."

During his participation in the study group, he was wondering about his ability to "do well" in a PhD in applied linguistics. One of his biggest concerns was his writing ability. He remarked that he really wanted to achieve many things in his new environment and that he also planned to read many texts to prepare for his doctoral study during summer break. By contrast, Myung's story shows that his perception of his own writing has not changed much.

### (3) Myung

Maybe I am lazy. I cannot express my thoughts well in English. I cannot even imagine myself expressing such sophisticated sentences as the ones that I am writing now. But I look up words in dictionaries much, much less frequently than this time last year. Still, I always start writing with a NAVER English dictionary window on my desktop. And I write down whatever comes to my mind. What has slightly changed these days is that I begin writing after establishing the logic of writing. If I write in Korean, I am able to

revise the writing in the middle. In the case of English, it seems to take more time to revise than to write from scratch. So I first set up the skeleton.

Myung continues to consult dictionaries for word meaning, but less frequently than earlier. His opening comment is particularly revealing: "Maybe I am lazy. I cannot express my thoughts well in English. I cannot even imagine myself expressing such sophisticated sentences as the ones that I am writing now." This may be interpreted as a way to take a modest tone in structuring the essay. However, his repeated statements referring to himself as "the poorest performer of English," "the least competent person in the study group," seems to demonstrate that his identity as an incompetent learner has been firmly internalized. Nevertheless, he seems to have developed in that he thinks, compared to last semester, he has a better command of English vocabulary and how to organize his ideas: "look up words in dictionaries much, much less frequently" and "I begin writing after establishing the logic of writing."

Hana's narrative suggests that she feels she has developed in her formulation of propositional sentences yet is having two issues of elaborating her thoughts with concrete examples and delivering meanings with precise connotations.

#### (4) Hana

It brings home that I have to learn more useful expressions. I still feel much burdened when I think I have to write. Specifically, there is physical and psychological stress for having to spend too much time on writing. Now I can deal with propositional statements with little difficulty. But it is still very hard to elaborate my thoughts with concrete examples. It is also difficult to express connotations, for example, those in “이제 조금 쓸 만

한 것 같은데” [now I can deal with propositional statements with little difficulty]. Hana quoted the expression from the preceding sentence - added by the researcher)

Here Hana refers specifically to her physical and mental stress when she must write in English. It is interesting that she used an analogy of comparing writing to delivery in other parts of her narrative. Moreover, "painful" and "real difficulty" were located throughout her narrative. Seop's narrative aligned with the sentiments expressed in Hana's text with regard to the difficulties he continues to experience in English. A slight difference is that he describes the difficulty of learning a second language, rather than how to write academic prose.

#### (5) Seop

I had sometimes thought it is not that difficult to acquire a language of another country. So I plunged into it, thinking I will absorb it all. I now find myself getting lost in the language and realize, "oh, this is not easy." What is difficult for me, in terms of both writing and speaking, is to use appropriate expressions with "their tastes" [with precise meanings and connotations] in a given context, like native speakers do. My concern is to make subtle differences between everyday language and legal language and acquire the language specific to law.

Seop describes his study abroad situation by using the metaphor of "plung[ing] into" the new semiotic environment, only to realize that "absorbing it all" is not possible. This can be related to his emphasis on quality and explicit explanations of linguistic expressions, which will be discussed below. He also described his mission as a writer in the field of law as understanding subtle differences between casual and legal expressions and acquiring the legal language. Seop admitted that using English is still very challenging for him, but, at the same time, he made

explicit his foci for tackling legal English by stating that he is concerned with "mak[ing] subtle differences between everyday language and legal language."

## **9.2. Evaluation of Study Group: "What I Have Learned in the Study Group"**

The participants described their perceptions and evaluations of the study group meetings. The foci of their retrospective comments were on various mediational tools. Pil, in his bullet point list, mentioned corpus tools (COCA and Google scholar) and the mindmap software program, stating that "corpus tools were particularly helpful in resolving my questions about which nouns go with which verbs, and vice versa. Spiderscribe (a tool for mindmapping) was helpful in drawing a big picture for a writing task." He seems to have benefitted from these tools in that the former resolved his questions about collocational patterns, while the latter helped him organize his ideas for writing.

Young, in (6), and Seung, in (7) also thought positively of their learning of corpus tools, which enabled them to check the appropriateness of their expressions.

### (6) Young

The biggest fruit I have acquired from this study is that I now can confirm, confidently and in various ways, whether my expressions will eminently (Young's use of English word - added by the researcher) make sense to native speakers of English.

### (7) Seung

Regarding tools, I think the software for counting word frequency was useful. At that time, I considered using it for my own research. However, as my field requires numerical data rather than word frequency, I had no opportunity to apply the tool to my research. In addition, it was very helpful to have learned how to check some usage, for which I have

weak confidence, using Google and other websites. It was also useful to get to know search tips for synonyms and antonyms in COCA or scholarly articles in Google.

Young's emphasis on the word *eminently* suggests that use of corpus tools represented a small breakthrough for what he had been struggling with: confirmation of accuracy and frequency of certain expressions. This is related to his stance towards native speakers, which is indicated by the phrase, "make sense to native speakers of English." Seung also evaluated positively the various tools covered in the study group. He once consulted with the researcher about some ways to incorporate these tools into his own research, but thought this was not feasible because his field requires "numerical data rather than word frequency."

Hoon also mentioned the usefulness of the tools. He even took the step of integrating the method of corpus analysis of disciplinary terms into his own research. He stated:

(8) Hoon

I started my research by applying one of the tools covered in the study group. I also plan to do research by employing the tool. This one thing alone is such a great fruit I obtained in my participation in the study.

In her narrative, Hana points out the usefulness of a metaphor-based approach to writing in terms of the value of metaphor adaptation and the role of metaphor in visualizing and concretizing her thinking. Now she sometimes takes the bold move in trying out metaphorical expressions in her own English writing. This indicates that some of the metaphors she identified are being used in her authentic writing assignments.

(9) Hana

I learned a lot of useful expressions. It is certain that creating my own examples led to making more use of those expressions. Now I sometimes dare try metaphorical expressions. It seems that metaphorical expressions evokes more sophisticated and richer meanings with images. And if I use metaphors, I can check how I am understanding an object and whether this line of thinking is appropriate. In a word, it concretizes my thoughts.

Her mention of the visualizing function of metaphor was rather surprising given that metaphor's role in facilitating imagistic thinking was not covered in any of the study group meetings. It is not possible to confirm this conjecture, but the fact that she is majoring in music education and interested in aesthetic experiences may have made it possible for her to appropriate the tool for visualizing meanings.

The following excerpts shows Seung's positive opinion that metaphorical understanding of theory was very helpful to him. He mentions, "a broad framework for understanding words," and more applications of the words he had been already acquainted with as some positive results he gained from participating in the study. In addition, he pointed out that some words are used in different meanings across disciplines.

(10) Seung

What I liked about the study is, first of all, that my vocabulary increased with regard to its use in sentences. What I found particularly useful in the process of the study was that it provided me with a broad framework for understanding words rather than with actual memorization of individual words. For example, the comparison between sentence structures and architectural structures was very helpful. I also feel that I can apply the words I already know to a wider context. In addition, it was useful to realize that one

word can be used differently depending on fields of study. For example, in my field, the expression *note* is used for referring to something important. This means *musical note* in music.

Seung's appreciation of interdisciplinary conversation was also found in Seop's narrative. In the following excerpts, Seop shows a positive stance towards learning with other people, paying attention to writing strategies that other members were deploying, along with mediational tools.

(11) Seop

What I found great about the study was that I had opportunities to communicate with and learn from other people. I could learn and follow their strong points, tailoring them to my situation. It was really good to do quick search for words and check their uses through the tools provided by the researcher. I think the study left almost nothing to be desired. It was great to share with each other even within some time constraints.

One of the notable themes in the narratives was the change in the learners' reading habits after the pedagogical intervention. The excerpts from Jun's narrative show this change. His focus in the study group was not on reading but he has subsequently shifted his attitude towards reading.

(12) Jun

Even though it was a study focused on writing, I had an unexpected result in that my attitude towards reading has begun changing. I have come to give one more look at specific expressions and even one verb, rather than taking the information from reading materials. I think about why the author has chosen this particular word, what kind of



worldview has been reflected in that word, and also whether some loss of meanings would happen if I change some words to their synonyms. I don't mean that I think deeply about these issues in every reading, but I am positive that my detection of those expressions has begun increasing dramatically. In other words, overall, I feel that my perspective towards English has deepened and become more serious and I have begun to relate my English reading to writing.

Jun's shift from reading just for content to reading in an analytic way, both with regard to linguistic features as well as ideological orientation, was an "unexpected result" for him. Now he attends to the intentions and worldview of the author of a specific article through a metaphor-analytic eye. In other words, his reading strategies have developed beyond digesting content to associating linguistic elements with the author's intentions and implicit conceptual disposition. In the conclusion of the paragraph, he mentioned that his perspective of English "has deepened and become more serious."

Hoon's narrative suggests that the pedagogical intervention had an impact not just on L2 writing but also on writing in general. Hoon explained this kind of reconceptualization in an explicit way.

(13) Hoon

I think it was a great lesson that I have realized that English writing in general, and specifically L2 academic writing is closely connected with a matter of 'Writing' (capital in original), not just a matter of English. I realized that reading texts, analyzing them, and most of all writing in person are the most important tasks to improve my writing: improving English per se is not the most important priority.

It should be noted that he used the English word "writing" for all the instances in this paragraph, even though his entire narrative was in Korean. What is more interesting is that he used upper case *W* to refer to writing in general (Writing), while using lower case *w* in expressing English composition (writing). This indicates that he now values a translingual concept of writing, which encompasses both Korean and English writing. This reasoning is supported by his last remark: "Improving English per se is not the most important priority." Therefore, he cannot improve his writing just by focusing on general English proficiency; rather, he needs to engage in multiple literacy practices, whether L1 or L2, while employing various activities, such as "reading texts, analyzing them, and most of all writing in person." This shows that Hoon has also changed in terms of his understanding of reading. This kind of shift was also described in Young's narrative.

(14) Young

It was great to learn the origin of metaphorical expressions, how many people use those kinds of expressions, their authentic uses, and what other similar expressions there are. It was very helpful for me to make them my own expressions based on these types of information. As a spinoff of this, I have come to read while thinking deeply about the author's choices of words and expressions. In other words, I do not just focus on structure of a text; rather, I frequently think about how the author structures, and how he puts his core arguments into that structure.

Young states that learning various aspects of metaphors was useful for him, which brought him another benefit: He has "come to read while thinking deeply about the author's choices of words and expressions." This suggests that his experience as an informal metaphor

analyst helped him "read between the lines," attending the author's intentions behind a specific rhetorical structure.

### **9.3. The Writers' Evolving Conceptualizations of Writing**

Some MWs included their evolving conceptualizations of writing in their narrative.

Seung shared his view of writing in relation to what he learned through the study group meetings. He stated that in writing, "a big picture, in other words, the presentation of useful methods or ideas is most important," and suggested that it requires him to invest a certain amount of time into adding details to the big picture in order to improve his writing ability. Hana used an analogy of delivery to describe her notion of writing, which was followed by a description of the tools she uses in her own writing.

(15) Hana

I thought the writing process is similar to a delivery process. Thus, you get through substantial pain; however, if you have gone through it, there is a reward for you. I pay much more attention to how to make my writing flow naturally, how to use connective words appropriately: in a word, I pay careful attention to the development of ideas in a text. I have come to think more about the nuance of a word, along with its context. This in turn makes me more cautious about word choices. In authentic assignments, I use Wordandphrase (a corpus website) and other corpus websites. I also refer to Wordandphrase for reviewing the meanings and nuances of a word or for searching for synonyms. COCA is used to check whether one expression is appropriate or not.

Her narrative shows her conceptualization of writing as a delivery process, which involves both pain and a sense of reward, and this is followed by a description of her actual practices in writing. She now "think[s] more about the nuance of a word, along with its context." This encourages her to be more "cautious about word choices." It is likely that her experiences in metaphor identification, adaptation, and annotation have positively influenced her writing practice, leading to an enhanced awareness of connotations and contexts. This line of internalized psychological mediation is supported by two external mediational tools for corpus consultation: COCA and Wordandphrase.

Hana also described the viewpoint she has adopted of her academic writing as a consequence of the one-and-a-half-semester experience. Her description is revealing in that she has started differentiating her notion of academic writing from flow of consciousness. From a sociocultural perspective, this is a valuable insight in that her conceptualization is made with specific regard to the relationship between thinking and writing, rather than focusing solely on its lexical and structural properties.

(16) Hana

Academic writing is not a reflection of one's flow of consciousness. I mean, everyday conversation is linear while academic writing is a non-linear process. In consciousness, our positions change. We even think of things completely unrelated. However, it seems important to keep one's attitude and position consistent in academic writing while maintaining a clear focus.

She points out that linearity and consistency are important criteria for differentiating our everyday flow of consciousness and academic writing, which is a very conscious manipulation of conceptual and linguistic elements.

The relationship between identity and writing was also an important component of the narratives. While Pil presented himself as a still struggling student as attested above, Jun's story showed a dramatic change in his perspective on writing. A large portion of his narrative is reproduced here as it illustrates a case where a graduate student's identities as a scholar and writer are closely interrelated with his perspective on writing, which may play a crucial role in academic literacy development.

(17) Jun

When I look back at the days several years ago when I made up my mind to advance to a doctoral program, I cannot but smile at my own ignorance at that time. As the saying goes, "ignorance leads one to bravery," I was brave enough to apply to doctoral programs because I didn't know much about them. I was full of the "let-me-do-it-and-see-what-happens" spirit, which is unique to Koreans, and also with the "just-go-and-learn-there" spirit. Due to my adventurous but reckless mindset, I experienced chaos during my first year here, caused by a substantial shift in general life environments, while being surprised with the doctoral program itself and going through culture shocks. Among those were shocks about English and English composition and these had shaken me to the greatest extent.

Actually, I expected to have difficulty with English as it is not my mother tongue, which may make my use of the word "shock" inappropriate. However, the case was different with English composition. It was not a matter of how difficult English writing is or how long it takes to write. To be extremely honest, it is fair to say that I was disappointed with and shocked at myself, who had never thought about the issue of English writing. This was because it was not until I came here that I realized that I had plunged into this field without thinking enough about my identity as a scholar. To

become a PhD and a scholar means, after all, to become a writer. However, I had not thought deeply about this issue.

Even after I opened my eyes to my identity as a scholar, my perspective on English writing was still limited. First, the separate view of reading and writing remained strong. I thought reading had almost the sole purpose of obtaining information and knowledge and didn't even try connecting reading to improving writing, while reading so much material in my coursework. As I was always pressed for time, I moved on to the next reading once I captured the gist of a reading. I was doing a type of study, where I paid no attention to writing itself. I had even the following kind of experience: One day an Indian classmate of mine, amazed by one article we read together, told me how beautiful it was. Regarding his words, I just thought to myself, "It is enough to understand the conclusion, and why is it a big deal whether an article is beautiful or not," while rejecting his admiration of the article.

I was like this. And to comment on the influence of the writing study group on me, I would point out that I experienced a fundamental change in my perspective on English writing. To be honest, I may not remember many if I would try to recollect the expressions we studied in the group. Of course, those expressions have been recorded and organized, which enables me to check them whenever I want to.

However, a more fundamental effect of the study was the shift in my perspective on writing. I started thinking about a type of writing based on expressions made richer and deeper through my understanding of metaphors, rather than seeking the objective of producing correct sentences. Furthermore, I had the opportunity to think more about what it means to write well in English (and even in Korean). I started recognizing subtle differences in nuance between similar expressions and have realized that I need to discern

these subtle differences in my own writing. All of these were something I would never have realized in my entire life if I had not participated in the study.

Jun begins the narration with a recollection of his application to a PhD program, when he had not yet thought about his identity as a scholar. Even after he had developed a sense of scholarship and his role in academia, his understanding of writing remained "limited." "Pressed for time," he focused on reading for information, not for the sake of improving his writing ability. However, after the study group meetings, he began to recognize subtle meaning differences among various expressions and the need to pay more attention to his own choice of words.

It is noteworthy that Jun emphatically stated that "a more fundamental effect of the study was the shift in my perspective on writing." This reconceptualization of writing impacted not only his L2 writing, but also L1 writing. He also recognizes that his participation in the study group was a once-in-a-lifetime experience. It seems that his sense of scholarly identity, enhanced by his new understanding of reading and writing, led to a richer life as a graduate writer.

#### **9.4. Limitation of the Pedagogical Intervention**

Overall, the evaluations of seven participants in the metaphor-based study group meetings were positive. However, the seven participants made a few comments on limitations of the pedagogical intervention. The first was about the researcher's lectures in several of the sessions, where reactions were divided between positive and negative attitudes. On the one hand, some of the participants appreciated the lectures, showing interest in the cognitive linguistic approach to language and various tools for corpus consultation. On the other hand, Seung would have preferred to have more opportunity to share more expressions with other members of the

study group and to talk about their own issues and concerns on writing rather than learning from the researcher.

The other prominent theme that emerged in the writers' narratives was the issue of time for employing metaphor identification, adaptation, and annotation as a learning tool. Specifically, Jun pointed out potential conflicts between the time for making the tool his own and the time needed for completing diverse responsibilities as a doctoral student, while Young discussed in some detail how to use the tool for language learning. Seung mentioned that the method has a disadvantage in that it consumes a large amount of time "as time passes." An excerpt from Seung's narrative illustrates the concern over time among the participants.

(18) Seung

Sharing each other's collection and adaptations of expressions was not effective in maintaining memory. To address the issue, I think it is very important to review them individually and apply previous examples to actual sentences on a regular basis. However, this method has a disadvantage in that it takes more and more time as time passes.

It seems that Seung was dubious about the effectiveness of sharing metaphorical expressions with other group members for memorizing them. This shows Seung's ambivalent stance towards interaction with other members, evidenced by his statement above, "[I] wanted to share more expressions with other members of the study group."

Jun's narrative below emphasized that a large amount of time will be needed to appropriate the tools covered in the study group sessions.

(19) Jun



If someone asks me whether the changes in my understanding of writing is being reflected in my actual writing, I will not be able to say yes in a positive manner. And to be honest, if I have to express my opinion on the effectiveness of this kind of method (metaphor-based approach to writing), I would say that it may be a little bit late for doctoral students. This is certainly a powerful method in that it changes the very framework of thinking, this in turn, paradoxically, requires one to have long-term applications and practices. If someone had taught me this method earlier, say 2-3 years ago, and I had the opportunity to practice for a longer stretch of time, it would have brought better results for me. If that had been the case, my academic writing would have been much easier as well as deeper.

Jun's narrative revolves the theme of time. Metaphor-based learning strategy can be "powerful," but "is a little bit late," especially for "doctoral students." To use it appropriately, he needs to have "long-term applications and practices." The lack of time for applying the tool to the authentic context, coupled with a delay in learning the method, makes it difficult to achieve a "deeper" piece of academic writing in an "easier" way. This evaluation suggests that the pedagogical intervention was useful but its effect may not be realized within the period of his doctoral study.

Young had a slightly different view of the time needed to appropriate the tool for improving one's language ability. It almost seems that he was taking a stance of a usage-based approach to language acquisition in admitting that it is an essential part of language learning to make the effort to imitate and use certain expressions.

How much time and how many uses should be involved until people can use certain expressions? What a foolhardy person I was to jot down those expressions in my notebook several times and with the desire to make them my own! In this vein, identifying metaphors was a great study strategy in that it keeps track of formation of certain expressions and enables me to understand the full meanings of their uses.

Beyond these concerns about time and effort needed for improving one's writing competence, Seop pointed out the limitation of self-directed metaphor identification and adaptation. For improving his writing, he had been paying attention to several aspects of legal written texts, including metaphor. However, some meanings could not be made clear to him, whatever resources or effort he employed.

(21) Seop

One thing I find difficult is that some meanings just cannot be captured for the life of me without explicit explanation, whether they are related to metaphor, punctuation, or sentence structure. In these cases, I think, there's limitation to a perfect understanding. Seop acknowledges that good explanations are necessary for some aspects of language even for a learner like himself, who had been a keen observer of language features throughout the study group sessions. His mention of the limitations of personal effort has an important implication for second language pedagogy: Principled explanations of quality are needed for complex linguistic phenomenon.

Overall, the participants appreciated their experience with other members of the study group. Their narratives exhibited a clear shift in their understanding of the activity of writing, process of language learning, and the usefulness of using metaphor for their own literacy

development. As a spinoff, they transformed their understanding of reading, adopting more analytical strategies. Their appropriation of new mediational tools also positively affected their identities as a writer. Meanwhile, the participants' stances towards the pedagogical tool of metaphor analysis were not uniform: Some of them pointed out the problem of time in appropriating the mediational tool of metaphor identification, annotation, and adaptation, while others valued its power in facilitating thinking and writing processes. The following remark of Myung captures the gist of the participants' evaluations of the metaphor-driven study experiences and development of writing ability.

(22) Myung

What is clear to me is that I remember that I have to pay more attention to each word, as I was on the job training in my first days in company. Even this single thing will be the seed for my development. But, still, for a "left-behind" learner, the road is long.

## Chapter 10

### Conclusion

The current project documented ten international students' literacy practices within an activity systems framework. It also implemented a CL-inspired metaphor-driven pedagogy for second language writing and reported its results. This ethnographic and interventionist endeavor revealed potentials and struggles in the learners' development as graduate writers. This final chapter concludes the project in three parts. The first section offers brief answers to the three research questions raised in the Introduction. The second section discusses implications of the project for second language pedagogy and L2 research in more detail. The third section presents some limitations of the study.

#### 10.1. Revisiting Research Questions

The project undertook to address three research questions. The answers to each question is presented in turn below.

*1. What are the realities and challenges multilingual writers face, in terms of their writing activity systems and literacy activities?*

The participants' realities are characterized with respect to the challenges they need to address in new sociocultural and semiotic environments. They attempted to meet the challenges in an active way, while struggling with the constraint of time in completing their normal

academic assignments. Their habitus in language learning and English composition, along with the time pressure, made it difficult for them to achieve a significant breakthrough in their literacy practices. They predominantly read for content, with little attention to textual, semantic, and conceptual details. They found themselves in a conflictual situation where their respective academic communities expected them to be good writers, yet the learners were aware that they did not meet these expectations. Without explicit support and appropriate mediation to promote their literacy development, these MWs had no option but to press into service the tools and strategies for producing academic texts that they had been using for most of their life as users of another language. Their identities were built on their lives as graduate students and assistants rather than disciplinary writers, and their writing activities target outcomes and requirements rather than valuing writing as an everyday and disciplinary thinking tool. In sum, they expended a great deal of effort to meet the requirements imposed on graduate students but had limited access to explicit communal support and quality mediational means with which to consolidate their understanding and practice of writing as solitary and independent work.

*2. What constitutes the Zone of Proximal Development in second language academic literacy development in terms of metaphorical competence? How do multilingual writers respond to a pedagogical intervention focusing on metaphors?*

The participants' challenge was twofold: On the conceptual level, they needed to redefine the realities and challenges they had to confront with a principled and deeper understanding of literacy. On the activity level, they needed to reorganize their literacy practices with quality mediational tools. These two aspects of literacy development are in a dialectical relationship, influencing, adapting to, and building on each other. The pedagogical intervention aimed to provide the necessary mediation to help them transform their entire writing activity systems through the dialectical nexus of the new literacy practices and the theoretically-valid, practically-

effective conceptual tool, operationalized as metaphor identification, adaptation, and annotation complemented with corpus consultation.

Most of the participants valued their participation in the study group sessions and appreciated the knowledge they acquired with regard to the relevance of metaphor in creating academic texts and the capacity of metaphor analysis to help them develop the ability to produce more sophisticated writing. A detailed analysis of their writing activity systems, patterns of employing mediational means, as well as outcomes from metaphor identification, adaptation, and annotations revealed that the metaphor-driven pedagogy resulted in positive consequences both at the conceptual and practical levels. The participants began to redefine literacy, to shift to an organic, integrative view of reading and writing, and to appreciate the value of analytical reading. They also began applying new mediational tools to their authentic assignments, addressing issues in rhetorical choices. As a result, many of the participants were reinventing themselves as expert writers within their respective disciplines. However, the power of their previously formed L2 writing habitus along with the dearth of communal support constrained the effectiveness of these changes. The MWs continued to manifest low self-esteem as writers with limited access to opportunities for learning how to write, including the paucity of collaborative writing activities with other colleagues and classmates. The issue of time set the tone for the participants' perceptions of, and actions on, all these issues.

It is clear that the participants' zone of proximal development was conditioned by the policies and support from the graduate programs in which they were working and macrocultural forces such as Korean language education policy, which heavily influenced their understanding of literacy. In due course, the success of certain mediational tools are contingent upon the sociocultural environments in which learners are situated, which in turn is built on the foundation of previous educational experiences. In this vein, the locus of responsibility for developing the literacy competence of international students (and indeed with any students) resides not within

the individuals but in fact is shared by the institutional constituents with which they had engaged throughout their lives in the educational system.

The discussion on the locus of responsibility does not mean that each participant would have little contribution to make in changing institutional realities. The participants can initiate change in their communities, sharing their experiences and resources with other students, communicating to faculty members on the importance of quality mediation for literacy development, and persuading language educators in South Korea to develop an ecologically and theoretically valid L2 writing pedagogy, beyond changing their own perceptions and activities. The participants' narratives revealed a budding potential for making an extended effort to transform their communities.

In sum, the pedagogical intervention provided the participants with a conceptual and textual mediational tool, which empowered them to transform their literacy activities and develop metaphorical competence. However, this initiative for change should be matched by innovations in writing pedagogy and institutional support in the Korean educational system and in U.S. higher education in order to achieve a substantial transformation for the literacy ecologies of international students.

*3. What does metaphor-driven second language writing pedagogy tell us about designing and implementing a concept-based, meaning-centered writing curriculum?*

The metaphor-driven L2 writing pedagogy showed its potential in encouraging the participants' cross-linguistic, cross-cultural, and interdisciplinary discussions and providing them with an effective tool for analytical reading. It also mobilized their critical and reflective stances towards their own and other disciplines. These points show that a meaning-centered curriculum is promising for international graduate students and potentially undergraduate students studying abroad.

At the same time, the intervention showed that structural components in L2 writing classrooms need to be addressed effectively within the overarching principles of the centrality of meaning, integration of language and culture, relating disciplinary concepts and linguistic metaphors, and fostering critical and creative minds towards academic discourse. To be specific, it would be necessary to establish a principled procedure in which MWs can read texts in an analytical way and compile a database for adapting metaphors to authentic contexts in a facile way.

## **10.2. Implications**

### **10.2.1. Pedagogical Implications**

The current project showed the potential for using conceptual metaphors as a psychological tool for improving second language writing. In the process of identifying, annotating, and adapting metaphors, the second language writers in the study began to recognize the ubiquity of metaphorical expressions and the value of having a conceptual tool for connecting reading and writing. Now it is necessary to improve and expand this mediational strategy in several ways.

The first step is to more fully integrate the cognitive linguistic approach to second language learning, proposing a principled way to mediate second language writers in their literacy activities. The analysis of the participants' adaptations of metaphorical expressions revealed that recontextualizing metaphors involves a careful comparison of the semantic and linguistic features of the original models with those of the sentences the writers want to create. In other words, writers need to cautiously weigh a set of cognitive and structural constraints in using metaphors in a new context. Here, insights from cognitive linguistic research in second language learning



need to be incorporated. For example, writers can learn the prototypical meanings of prepositions (Tyler & Evans, 2003) or conceptual meanings of particles in phrasal verbs (Lee, 2012) and apply them in adapting metaphors. Even such a modest step can make a significant contribution to designing a metaphor-driven pedagogy for second language writing, while at the same time not losing sight of the other factors that play a role in the creation of quality texts.

Second, the current study suggests that the issue of time should be seriously considered in any ecologically-minded writing research. Throughout the pedagogical intervention and other data collection sessions including writing conferences and interviews, the issue repeatedly and persistently surfaced. This is not a matter which arises from research design and implementation; rather, it should be understood as a determining force in graduate life and the literacy practices of international graduate students.

It is truism that everything is intertwined with time. Every action is constrained by time. Literacy development is no exception. However, it is not desirable and even dangerous to take the tyranny of time for granted. This is especially true for educational enterprise, whose goal is to enable students to appreciate and internalize human culture and knowledge in a condensed amount of time. If writing pedagogy aims to empower learners to experience the stages from novice to expert writer in a relatively short period of time, it cannot leave them to their own devices.

Here emerge two important agenda items for second language writing pedagogy as it relates primarily to graduate students. On the one hand, researchers and teachers should develop mediational strategies with students' time in mind, taking into account international graduate students' literacy practices in local activity systems and the time constraints under which they operate. This means that developing psychological tools for writing development should keep in mind their applicability to the current lives of these students. This reasoning further suggests that

it is crucial to connect reading and writing in a principled way, since reading already forms an essential component of the academic life of most international graduate students.

On the other hand, universities and graduate programs need to reconsider the status of writing in graduate education. The prevalent assumption is that all graduate students need to be able to write strong academic papers when they enter their respective programs. This position seems to be based on a partial understanding of the challenges international students face in graduate school; A more ecological understanding of their writing competence reveals that quality writing should be set as an objective of graduate education, not as a prerequisite. Accordingly graduate programs need to adopt a developmental view of international students' literacy competence, while at the same time finding ways to foster each student's writing ability, rather than assuming that all graduate students already have a high level of writing ability.

As a related point, it seems to be imperative to provide multilingual graduate students with quality mediational tools specific to academic writing. Even though corpus consultation has been widely discussed in the fields of applied linguistics and second language writing, none of the graduate students in the present study was using a corpus for mediating their writing activities. This exposes a clear gap between research and practice in language education. From a Vygotskian perspective, the students' limited access to quality mediational means can be interpreted as a matter of their limited access to the best human cultural assets available. Graduate programs need to take this issue seriously. Universities also need to think deeply about the functions and responsibilities of ESL programs and writing centers. Specifically, they need to restructure writing centers and writing pedagogy so that they can provide international students with effective mediational means, such as genre analysis, corpus consultation, and metaphor analysis, rather than trying to satisfy the students' immediate needs such as proofreading drafts or providing stylistic feedback.

### 10.2.2. Implications for Further Research

The project has identified several areas for further research, which can enrich the sociocultural and cognitive linguistic approach to second language learning and pedagogy. First, it would be necessary to conduct a principled review of widely-used mediational tools from the conceptual metaphorical perspective. One of the important findings relates to online dictionaries, a widely adopted mediational tool among international students and, in particular those from South Korea. As discussed in Chapter 4, some of the metaphors were translated into L1 expressions, which have very different entailments. For example, "to scratch the surface of something" does not necessarily carry a negative connotation of "being superficial." However, one major bilingual dictionary shows that it is translated into Korean as "수박 곁핥기," (to lick the surface of a watermelon), whose connotation is always negative. This suggests a possibility that some metaphorical expressions may have been translated inappropriately. In addition, even though equivalent expressions in the two languages share similar meanings, they frequently have different entailments. In this vein, it would be valuable to explore how mainstream bilingual dictionaries do or do not deal with different cultural connotations of metaphorical expressions.

Second, it would be interesting to explore the relationship between one's academic identity and her appropriation of mediational tools. The MWs' reflective narratives indicated that their identities as writers and readers were intertwined with their degrees of mastery of mediational tools. This implies that patterns and control of mediation can constitute a crucial factor in forming one's identity. Applying this hypothesis to second language literacy development, it would be revealing to trace MWs' academic identity development with specific regard to the relationship between appropriating conceptual and textual tools such as metaphor analysis and corpus consultation. This in turn can be extended to exploring how this change affects their interaction with members of their academic communities.

Third, though not the focus of the current project, the participants' gesture played a crucial role in talking about the meanings of metaphors. Some participants constantly used metaphors with gestures, which sometimes co-occurred with their description of concepts related to the metaphors as well as metacognitive aspects of writing. This suggests that an ecological view of writing should encompass writers' social interactions, mediated by verbal speech and gestures, beyond examining linguistic and conceptual characteristics of learner-produced texts. This will, in turn, contribute to an integrationist understanding of second language learning and development (Weigand, 2009).

Fourth, the project traced a group of students' literacy practices, with a focus on pedagogical intervention. This led to an analysis of each writer's textual practices in terms of metaphorical competence. To capture the uniqueness of each writer's development, a meticulous compilation of writing samples, their multi-dimensional analyses, and triangulation of these analyses would be needed. Considering the traditional analytic approaches to second language writing, it would be necessary to consider how lexical and structural complexities (Lu, 2010) converge with, or diverge from, appropriate and transformative uses of metaphorical expressions. This will contribute to developing a more integrative, balanced view of literacy development.

Lastly, a collaboration model for cross-cultural research and pedagogy needs to be explored. Throughout the research process, the researcher interacted with some expert native writers. It was revealing to discover that the native writers' evaluations of metaphorical expressions diverged from each other. At the same time, the researcher obtained invaluable insights about writing pedagogy from them. This suggests that MWs' perceptions of native speaker intuitions and evaluations of language use may be based on the imagined idealized model of the native speaker (Paikeday, 1985). In other words, many MWs tend to essentialize native speakers' competence without differentiating their strengths and limitations. This observation suggests that teachers highlight the importance of quality mediational tools while promoting

MWs' own conceptualizations and logical thinking in their writing. Although this may complicate the learners' understanding of L2 learning, it offers a more ecologically-valid view of linguistic realities.

### **10.3. Limitations of the Study**

This section discusses several limitations of the research project with regard to its scope and methodology. It will be valuable for future research to investigate how the literacy habitus of MWs is formed both in their L1 and their L2 and to determine how this affects the details of their L2 literacy practices. The pedagogical intervention focused primarily on composing sentences rather than organizing a longer stretch of text. The researcher's limited experience with CL-based language instruction should also be considered in interpreting and applying the results of the study. Each of these limitations is discussed below.

First, data collection for the project lasted for no longer than a year. Considering literacy development and academic socialization is a lengthy process, tracing each learner's development for a year has clear limitations in exploring the richness and complexities of such development. Further research is needed to track MWs' metaphorical development over an extended period of time, preferably over their entire graduate program and perhaps even to the point where they become acknowledged expert writers in their chosen discipline. It is also necessary to investigate the long-term effect of the pedagogical intervention, attending to their publication and teaching experiences in the postdoctoral stage.

Second, the study looked at the dynamics of MWs' activity systems within the university context, not reaching beyond the institution. For example, the participants' networks of friends, former colleagues, and supporting agencies may affect their literacy practices. At the same time, their L1 literacy practices were not incorporated into this study in a significant way, which clearly

limited the view of the construction of multilingual writing practices. Accordingly, further studies should pay more attention to second language learners' L1 literacy practices, noting that understanding academic literacy development requires a closer look at the dialectic relationship of conceptual development and linguistic development, both in the L1 and L2.

Third, the current research aimed to illustrate the relationship between learners' literacy practices and their language learning history, within a broader sociocultural context of the Korean educational system. However, the analysis of these aspects was partial since there was no substantial data based on which such macrocultural analysis could be conducted. It would be necessary to detail how macrocultural factors, such as the current sociopolitical economy based on neoliberalism and its presence in the curriculum in South Korea, have affected the participants' local literacy practices, conceptualizations of writing and reading, perceptions of their own identities, and participation in communities. This will in turn contribute to creating a more powerful mediational means for multilingual literacy development.

Fourth, the current project, as the first attempt to integrate conceptual metaphor theory into second language writing pedagogy, placed its primary emphasis on using metaphors at the sentence level, not dealing with the role of metaphor at the textual level. As conceptual metaphor can frame a specific theory and its linguistic instantiations can play an important role in developing discourse, it would be necessary to mediate MWs to attend to the metaphorical framing and organization of a text. To this effect, fostering MWs' sensitivity to metaphorical themes and improvizations in disciplinary texts would be needed.

Finally, the researcher himself designed and implemented the metaphor-based pedagogical intervention for second language writing for the first time. Even though the researcher made a sincere effort to cover a wide range of readings in designing the curriculum and constantly adjusted his mediational strategies as the group sessions went on, his lack of experience specific to this type of instruction may have influenced the effectiveness of the

pedagogical intervention. Considering that it is of crucial importance for the mediator to embody the principles of cognitive linguistics and the sociocultural approach to pedagogy, this remains a limitation to be addressed in further research.

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## APPENDIX A: STUDY MATERIALS

### *Session 1*

- Drawing one image that represents one's understanding of (second language) writing
- Activity System Analysis based on Yamagata-Lynch, L. C. (2010). *Activity systems analysis methods: Understanding complex learning environments: Understanding complex learning environments*. Boston, MA: Springer.
- SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats) Analysis from Lowy, A., & Hood, P. (2004). *The power of the 2x2 matrix: Using 2x2 thinking to solve business problems and make better decisions*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

### *Session 2*

- Open-ended questions about the gap between comprehension (reading) and production (writing)
- 45 metaphorical expressions selected from Wright, J. (1999). *Idioms Organiser: Organised by Metaphor, Topic, and Key Word*. Language Teaching Publications.

### *Session 3*

- Conceptual metaphors and their linguistic instantiations, excerpted from Lakoff & Johnson (1980)
- Presentation of metaphor identification based on Pragglejaz Group (2007)
- The researcher's own essay on metaphor and language, titled "Language is fundamentally metaphorical"
- Pragglejaz Group. (2007). MIP: A Method for Identifying: Metaphorically Used Words in Discourse. *Metaphor and Symbol*, 22(1), 1–39.

### *Session 4*

- Introduction to Conceptual metaphor and linguistic metaphor (Lecture)

### *Session 5*

- Google search tips - Google (exact phrase, filetype)
- Google Scholar (searching in a certain field, advanced search)

- COCA (<http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/>)
- Google Books Corpus (<http://books.google.com>)
- *Talker's Block* by Seth Gordon  
([http://sethgodin.typepad.com/seths\\_blog/2011/09/talkers-block.html](http://sethgodin.typepad.com/seths_blog/2011/09/talkers-block.html))

#### *Session 6*

- Oral presentation of some metaphors in academic writing such as 'boundary' metaphors in the discourse of interdisciplinarity. Lattuca, L. R. (2001). *Creating interdisciplinarity: Interdisciplinary research and teaching among college and university faculty*. Nashville: Vanderbilt University Press.
- Introduction to Google Books corpus
- Conceptual reading of a text: Hurricane Recovery Is Slower in New York Suburbs  
<http://www.nytimes.com/2011/08/29/nyregion/wind-and-rain-from-hurricane-irene-lash-new-york.html?pagewanted=all> with a teaching material written by the researcher (See Appendix D for details.)

#### *Session 7*

- COCA - Advanced Search features
- Presentation by the researcher: Polysemy and Social Network (or Context)

#### *Session 8*

- Tools for Reading on the Web: Readability & Google Dictionary
- A participant's voluntary presentation on his own reading and writing process

#### *Session 9*

- Organizing ideas for text production: Mindmap software for organizing ideas (Spiderscribe <http://www.spiderscribe.net/>)
- Creating word clouds for text comprehension and presentation (Wordle <http://www.wordle.net>)

#### *Session 10*

- Two abstracts in each participant's field of study Move analysis based on Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge:

Cambridge University Press.

*Session 11*

- Excerpts of a literature review section in one's field of study
- Concordancer for creating word lists from academic texts (AntConc  
<http://www.antlab.sci.waseda.ac.jp/software.html>)

*Session 12*

- CCLB (Conceptually Conspicuous Lexical Bundles)
- Quantifiers and a \* of construction (e.g. a battery of tests, a leap of imagination)

*Session 13*

- Metaphor and Ideology 1 (Metaphors in Education)
- Goatly, A. (2007). *Washing the brain: Metaphor and hidden ideology*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Pub. Co. pp. 206-213.

*Session 14*

- Metaphor and Ideology 2 (Metaphors of Power)
- Goatly, A. (2007). *Washing the brain: Metaphor and hidden ideology*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Pub. Co. pp. 35-41.



**APPENDIX B: RECRUITMENT PROMPT**

The researcher is currently working on a dissertation related to second language writers' development of academic literacy. In the upcoming semester, the researcher wants to form a study group, where you can discuss various issues related to academic writing. If you think you fit one of the following descriptions, you may want to join the study group.

I am

- a graduate student in humanities or social science major.
- a language learner who finds English writing challenging and feel that I use the same set of phrases over and over.
- interested in developing my academic writing in a systematic way.

The study group is going to meet for the entire semester. Possible benefits include your opportunities to reflect critically upon your own writing processes, receive a set of materials from the researcher, share useful expressions with other members of the group, as well as to build reference for your future career including guiding your students' writing.

**APPENDIX C: SENTENCES FOR DISCUSSION OF EVERYDAY METAPHORS**

1. Don't put words into my mouth.
2. They gave us the green light.
3. We just kept our heads above water.
4. You can't take the law into your own hands.
5. He's a big fish in a small pond.
6. You have to stand on your own two feet.
7. We didn't see eye to eye on it.
8. We were bored to death.
9. It's like talking to a brick wall.
10. Don't lose heart.
11. There are problems on the horizon.
12. That was the end of the line for him.
13. Nothing springs to mind.
14. They're neck and neck.
15. I'm the black sheep of the family.
16. She eats like a sparrow.
17. It's on the tip of my tongue.
18. After a lot of hard work she finally rang the bell.
19. He gave me a black look.
20. They poured cold water on my plans.
21. The shop's been dead all day.
22. I don't know the first thing about it.
23. They're in high spirits.
24. She's got a photographic memory.
25. Let's paint the town red.
26. I've got a soft spot for her.
27. My hands are tied.
28. He wants a quick word with you.
29. We'll cross that bridge when we come to it.
30. You should always read the fine print before signing a contract.
31. He's a man after my own heart.

32. Her heart's in the right place.
33. I didn't have the heart to refuse.
34. I learned the poem by heart.
35. I realised in my heart of hearts.
36. I've got your best interests at heart.
37. It broke her heart.
38. It's a subject close to my heart.
39. My heart sank when I saw it.
40. My heart wasn't in it.
41. She set her heart on a new BMW.
42. She's got a heart of gold.
43. Take heart from the news.
44. We had a change of heart.
45. We had a heart-to-heart.

# **CURRICULUM VITA**

## **Sungwoo Kim**

### **A. PERSONAL**

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### **B. FIELDS OF INTEREST**

- Sociocultural Theory
- Cognitive Linguistics
- Corpus Linguistics
- Multilingual Writing
- Technology and Language Learning
- Language and Music

### **C. EDUCATION**

- 2007-2012. Ph.D. Applied Linguistics. The Pennsylvania State University.
- 1999-2003. M.A. Foreign Language Education. Seoul National University.
- 1992-1999. B.A. English Education. Seoul National University. Cum Laude.

### **D. HONORS and AWARDS**

- 2011-2012. Gil Watz Fellowship. Department of Applied Linguistics, The Pennsylvania State University.
- 2009-2010. Gil Watz Award for Outstanding Graduate Student. Department of Applied Linguistics, The Pennsylvania State University.
- 2010. Certificate of Appreciation for Mentoring MA TESL students. Department of Applied Linguistics, The Pennsylvania State University.
- 2008. Honorable Mention, International Photo Contest. The Pennsylvania State University.