EFFECTS OF IMPLICIT AND EXPLICIT FOCUS ON FORM ON L2 ACQUISITION OF THE ENGLISH PASSIVE

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Date _______ 16 October 2019 _________

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education in Teachers College, Columbia University

2019
ABSTRACT

EFFECTS OF IMPLICIT AND EXPLICIT FOCUS ON FORM ON L2 ACQUISITION OF THE ENGLISH PASSIVE

Ji-Yung Jung

Learning a second language (L2) is essential in today’s globalized world. However, learners generally have low sensitivity to grammar, as L2 acquisition proceeds largely through functions. Thus, pedagogical assistance appears to be necessary to trigger learners’ attention to L2 grammar, but research shows no consensus on which type of instruction best promotes it. Moreover, few empirical studies have examined acquisition of target constructions, which entails mappings between form, meaning, and function.

To address this gap, the present study investigated the effects of implicit and explicit instruction on L2 acquisition of the English passive. The passive was chosen as the target construction due to the intricate mappings between form, meaning, and function encompassed in it. The study employed an experimental design including a pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest, with five treatment sessions between the pretest and posttests. Participants were 99 Korean English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) learners, randomly assigned to two experimental groups that received implicit or explicit instruction, respectively, or a control group. Implicit instruction comprised
typographically enhanced passive constructions to increase perceptual saliency; explicit instruction comprised a grammar activity to raise the participants’ consciousness about the passive construction. Five measurement tasks were employed to examine any changes in the participants’ knowledge of, and ability to use, the passive: a grammaticality judgment task (GJT), a sentence pair task, a closed discourse completion task (DCT), and spoken and written production tasks.

Results from quantitative and qualitative analyses of the data yielded three main findings. First, implicit instruction had a more significant, beneficial effect than explicit instruction on the overall mappings between the form, meaning, and function of the passive. Second, the difference appeared to be more salient for meaning and function, whereas both types of instruction had almost equal benefits for form; yet, the production tasks seemed to exhibit a greater score decrease as for meaning and function over time in both treatment conditions. Finally, each type of instruction had similar effects on the performance of high- and low-level learners.

Overall, these findings suggest that both types of instruction are beneficial for L2 acquisition but implicit instruction is more effective than explicit instruction.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation would not have been possible without the support and help of many people. First and foremost, I would like to express my sincere and deep gratitude to Professor ZhaoHong Han, my dissertation sponsor and advisor, for providing constant and generous guidance, feedback, encouragement, and support throughout this journey, and for being such a passionate researcher, educator, and mentor who endlessly inspires her students academically. It has truly been an honor working with her over the several years.

I would also like to express sincere appreciation to the other committee members, Professors Hoa Nguyen, Howard Williams, and Carol Hammer, for carefully reading my dissertation and providing valuable feedback and comments, as well as their kind words of encouragement and support.

I am also profoundly grateful to the EFL students in South Korea who participated in this study, and to their teachers, who facilitated and encouraged their participation. I would like to thank the following teachers, in particular, for making the implementation of the study possible: Principal Ho-Yong Jin, Principal Choong-Sik Cho, Vice Principal Gwang-Jo Goo, and English teachers Yong-Nam Kim, Dong-Bum Hwang, Hyun-Jung Lee, and Hyun-Yong Choi. I also deeply thank the institution for their generous support with classrooms and equipment.

I also wish to express my appreciation to my friends and colleagues who have supported me throughout the doctoral study. I am especially indebted to Dr. Timothy Hall, Dr. Catherine Box, Nancy Boblett, Dr. Sarah Sok, Peter Kim, and Jordan Gonzalez,
who shared thoughtful insights and comments on different parts of the study. In addition, I would like to thank the following people for their friendship, encouragement, and constant support throughout the process: Farah Akbar, Rosette Finneran, Adrienne Wai Man Lew, Dr. Mi Sun Park, Shaoyan Qi, Natalia Sáez, Haimei Sun, and Anny Yayun Sun.

Last but not least, my most heartfelt gratitude goes to my family. My parents, Hyae-Kyung Yoo and Choon-Hoi Jung, have my eternal gratitude for all the financial and emotional support they have given me, and for being the greatest role models in my life. I also thank my baby sister, So-Yung Jung, for having been my social and intellectual icon and a constant source of inspiration. Without your love and support, I would not be where I am today. I love you all!

J-Y.J.
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Chapter I
INTRODUCTION

Language is the “human essence” (Chomsky, 1972, p. 112). Within a few years of birth, people normally acquire their first language (L1), which serves a number of individual, social, and cultural functions, primarily including communication (Jacobson, 1960). However, “to know only one language is abnormal” (Sharwood Smith, 1994, p. 3) in today’s globalized world, where speaking an L2 is often of social and economic importance (Doughty & Long, 2003; Long, 2015). Data abstracted from Ethnologue (2019) show that over 60% of the world population speak at least two languages, including more than 743.5 million who speak English as a lingua franca. In addition, the flows of international capital in recent years have led to a growing number of people who speak L2 Chinese (198.4 million). Indeed, research on economics (Zhang, 2008) indicates that a positive correlation exists between global trade and L2 competence, with the benefits being greater between non-native countries of the L2. In a similar vein, language ability is posited to lie at the core of the “soft power” (Nye, 2004, p. 6) in today’s global society (Hashimoto, 2018; Rose, 2005). For example, with the impact of the “Korean wave,” a surge of Korean culture in the international limelight (Ravina, 2009, p. 3), learning L2 Korean has become popular among young people from a variety of cultural backgrounds (Jang & Paik, 2012; B. Kim, 2015; Obama, 2017).

Despite this global trend, however, the thorny truth with respect to L2 acquisition is that learners, except for 5% “outliers” (Selinker, 1972, p. 212), generally experience
premature cessation of learning. In particular, as L2 acquisition proceeds largely through functions, learners generally exhibit low sensitivity to grammar, even after prolonged exposure to the target input. (Han, 2004; VanPatten, 1996, 2004, 2015).

The EFL students in South Korea are no exception. English proficiency is a high-stakes skill to acquire in today’s South Korea. Every year, over two million Koreans take official English proficiency tests such as Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) and Test of English as Foreign Language (TOEFL), mainly for education and job opportunities (Y. Kim, 2012). Similarly, to prepare for the Korean SAT exam, secondary school students commonly spend many hours studying English in addition to the standard school curricula (Choi & Chung, 2016). However, despite the extensive amount of input they are exposed to, students generally lack grammatical knowledge and have difficulty using the L2 in given communicative contexts.

Thus, pedagogical assistance to facilitate L2 grammar acquisition appears to be necessary (Long, 1990). This raises the crucial question of how best to promote the process and outcome of learning in classroom settings such as the Korean EFL environment (Doughty & Williams, 1998). This question cannot be addressed with a single clear answer, because a variety of factors influence L2 acquisition, including learner-internal (e.g., maturational constraints, previous language experience, memory capacity, and affective factors) as well as learner-external (e.g., quantity and quality of input, opportunities for output production, and instruction) factors. Therefore, any meaningful and effective L2 classroom practice will only be possible when it is firmly rooted in research examining how these different factors interact with one another.
1.1 Background

As a scientific inquiry, second language acquisition (SLA) seeks to explain the “puzzling phenomena” (Popper, 1959, as cited in Hulstijn, 2007, p. 193) observed in the process and outcome of L2 acquisition. One such phenomenon, or a fundamental issue that “spurs the field of SLA into existence” (Han, 2009, p. 137), is the notion of fossilization, which refers to the premature cessation of learning despite rich exposure to input, an adequate motivation to learn, and sufficient opportunities for practice (Han, 2004; Selinker, 1972). Consequently, L2 learners usually fail to reach the target-like level, with the outcome of learning often being incomplete and fragmentary (Long, 2007; Schachter, 1990). Theoretically, these phenomena have been attributed to the biological and cognitive constraints L2 learners have, whereas L1 learners do not have such constraints (e.g., Bley-Vroman, 1989; Gregg, 1996; Han, 2009; Sorace, 1993).

Several researchers (e.g., Berko, 1958; Bley-Vroman, 1989, 1990, 2009; Brown, 1973; Schachter, 1988, 1996) posit that L1 acquisition is guided largely by Universal Grammar (UG), the abstract grammatical rules that span all languages (Chomsky, 1972). Thus, children are capable of acquiring any L1 given exposure to input, by resetting those abstract rules for the specific language being acquired. However, the learning of an L2 often happens after the so-called critical period (i.e., around puberty), after which the innate capacity for language acquisition tapers off drastically (Lenneberg, 1967). As a result, L2 learners often make use of additional learning mechanisms such as consciousness (Schmidt, 1990) and general cognitive abilities (e.g., problem-solving) (e.g., Anderson, 1982; Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998; N. Ellis & Schmidt, 1998). In a similar vein, L2 learners “have already internalized a grammar of a specific natural language”
(Gregg, 1996, p. 57), which functions alongside UG when exposed to the L2 input (e.g., Bley-Vroman, 1989, 1990, 2009; MacWhinney, 2001, 2006; Schachter, 1988). The ultimate success of L2 acquisition is thus likely to be influenced by additional factors such as the typological similarities or dissimilarities between the learners’ L1 and L2 (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Kellerman, 1979).

Due to the aforementioned constraints, L2 learners generally have low sensitivity to input, and hence an attenuated capacity for naturalistic learning (Han, 2004; Schachter, 1990; Sorace, 1993). In particular, learners often fail to notice the linguistic codes embedded in input, because their processing of input is largely – if not solely – oriented to constructing meaning (i.e., comprehension), which is often accomplished by resorting to nonlinguistic cues (e.g., Gass & Selinker, 2008; Lightbown, 2000; Sharwood Smith, 1986; Skehan, 1998; VanPatten, 1990, 1996, 2004). Accordingly, as Han (2008) points out, “simultaneous processing of natural, communicative input for meaning (i.e., semantic information) and form (i.e., linguistic code feature) rarely happens” in L2 acquisition (p. 47).

With a view to mitigating against this tendency, SLA research over the past five decades has set out to identify compensatory strategies that can facilitate the simultaneous processing of form and meaning, by manipulating learners’ attention to linguistic codes. Of particular significance and relevance to the current study is focus on form (FonF), a pedagogical approach that attempts to engage learners’ metalinguistic attention in an otherwise purely meaning-based environment (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Long, 1991; Long & Robinson, 1998). To date, FonF has spawned a greater number of empirical studies than any other approach to L2 instruction, establishing itself
as a leading paradigm for L2 theory and research (R. Ellis, 2002; Han, 2008; Norris & Ortega, 2000). Long (2000) defines FonF as follows:

> [F]ocus on form refers to how attentional resources are allocated and involves briefly drawing students’ attention to linguistic elements … in context as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication. The temporary shifts in focal attention are triggered by students’ problems with comprehension or production. (Long, 2000, p. 185, emphasis added)

This definition of FonF entails two critical characteristics: (1) attention to form occurs in interaction that is primarily meaning-based, and (2) attention to form takes place incidentally and reactively, only in response to a learner’s linguistic problem. Thus, FonF contrasts with the traditional, exclusively form-focused grammar instruction (i.e., focus on forms; FonFS), which aims at teaching a synthesis of isolated linguistic codes irrelevant to the context (Long, 1991). By the same token, FonF does not intend to be exclusively meaning-oriented (i.e., focus on meaning; FonM) by focusing solely on communication or comprehension (Long, 1991). Although comprehension of input is necessary for acquisition (Krashen, 1982), “meaning-based comprehension (i.e., semantic processing) may occur independently of acquisition (i.e., synthetic processing) through the sole use of top-down strategies that draw on learners’ existent linguistic knowledge and contextual information” (Han, 2004, p. 134). Thus, acquisition can be facilitated when meaning-focused pedagogies are augmented by some type of grammar instruction, the idea of which has been crystalized into FonF (Doughty & Williams, 1998; R. Ellis, 2006; Long, 1991; Long & Robinson, 1998).

Put differently, the essence of FonF is a targeted focus of learners’ attention on the L2 grammar embedded in a communicatively meaningful context. More specifically,
Long and Robinson (1998) note that “[t]he intended outcome of focus on form is what Schmidt calls noticing” (p. 24). According to Schmidt’s (1990, 1993, 1994, 1995, 2001, 2010) Noticing Hypothesis, noticing or the conscious registration of the detected stimuli comprises a necessary and sufficient condition for L2 learning to take place. As noted earlier, Long’s (1991, 2000) definition of FonF claims that noticing should only occur incidentally and reactively, in response to a learner’s erroneous utterance. However, Doughty and Williams (1998) propose that noticing of forms can also be triggered intentionally and proactively, with the target constructions predetermined based on the analysis of the learners’ developmental readiness. In parallel with this conceptualization, FonF can be achieved using a variety of pedagogical techniques, ranging from explicit FonF which involves direct attention to form and metalinguistic rules (e.g., processing instruction, consciousness-raising, dictogloss, etc.), to implicit FonF which makes no overt reference to rules or forms (e.g., input enhancement, input flood, recasts, task-essential language, etc.).

Motivated by the distinction between implicit and explicit FonF, several empirical studies have attempted to determine which type of FonF is more effective for L2 acquisition (e.g., Doughty, 1991; Nagata & Swisher, 1995; Norris & Ortega, 2000, 2001; Rosa & O’Neill, 1999; Spada & Lightbown, 1993; Spada & Tomita, 2010). However, the studies have yielded mixed findings, largely due to the number of confounding variables such as the length of treatment and the quantity and quality of input involved (R. Ellis, 2002; VanPatten, 2011). Yet, the findings suggest that both implicit and explicit FonF seem to have their own particular strengths (e.g., Doughty, 2003; Long, 1996; Norris & Ortega, 2000, 2001). For example, explicit FonF appears to be more efficient at
triggering immediate restructuring of mental representations and changes in behavior than implicit FonF (e.g., Norris & Ortega, 2000). In contrast, despite its seemingly tardy effects, implicit FonF appears to be more beneficial for engendering the acquisition of form-meaning mappings than explicit FonF (e.g., Doughty, 2003; Long, 1996).

As several researchers (e.g., Han, 2012; Sorace, 2005; VanPatten, 2011) point out, grammar is “about much more than form” (Larsen-Freeman, 1991, p. 251). More specifically:

Grammar is not merely a collection of forms but rather involves the three dimensions of (morpho)syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. Grammatical structures not only have a morphosyntactic form, they are also used to express meaning (semantics) in context-appropriate use (pragmatics). (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p. 109, emphasis added)

This assertion indicates that the central question about implicit and explicit FonF should not be about the roles of each in SLA in general terms, but instead about “what aspects of language” (VanPatten, 2011, p. 17) can be affected by the different types of FonF. As mentioned earlier, the rationale for FonF is that learning difficulty lies in form, rather than meaning; thus, the surface form is the pedagogical target, while meaning provides it with “the cognitive processing support” (Doughty & Willliams, 1998, p. 3). Yet, meaning has received increasing attention in the L2 literature (Doughty, 2003; Sorace, 2005; VanPatten, 2011) as a potentially greater source of complexity, because the learning of meaning requires “semantic and conceptual restructuring” (Han, 2008, p. 75). According to Sorace’s (2005) Interface Hypothesis, language structures involving an interface between syntax (i.e., form) and other cognitive domains such as semantics (i.e., meaning) and pragmatics (i.e., meaning) (i.e., interface syntax) are less – or possibly never – likely to be acquired completely than structures that do not involve such an
interface (i.e., *narrow syntax*). Furthermore, the syntax-pragmatics interface is posited to be a greater source of complexity than syntax-semantics interface, even for advanced L2 learners (e.g., Iverson & Rothman, 2008; Tsimpli & Sorace, 2006; Valenzuela, 2006).

Nonetheless, complexity in the L2 literature (e.g., Izumi & Lakshmanan, 1998; Spada & Tomita, 2010) has usually been conceptualized as “complexity of form” (e.g., the number of transformations, derivations, movements, etc.), disregarding “complexity of meaning” and/or “complexity of function” (DeKeyser, 2005, p.3) underlying form. In addition, the few previous studies (e.g., Hinkel, 2002; Oshita, 2000; Park, 2015) that investigated interface issues tend to be descriptive in nature. Given that this line of research remains limited in both breadth and depth, more empirical studies are warranted to gain a deeper understanding of the relationships between the effectiveness of implicit/explicit FonF and the complexity of the target constructions.

### 1.2 Focus of the Study

As addressed the previous section, “the amount of L2 research narrowly focused on the implicit-explicit distinction is quite limited, not only in the number of studies, but also in duration and in scope of the learning target” (DeKeyser, 2003, p. 336). To address this gap in the literature (e.g., DeKeyser, 2005; Izumi & Lakshmanan, 1998; Spada & Tomita, 2010), the present study investigated the differential effects of implicit and explicit FonF on Korean EFL learners’ acquisition of the English passive. The passive was defined as a complex target construction due to the intricate mappings between form, meaning, and function encompassed in it. Implicit FonF was operationalized as textual enhancement (TE), which comprised typographically enhanced passive constructions to
increase their perceptual saliency; explicit FonF was operationalized as consciousness-raising (C-R), which comprised a grammar activity to draw learners’ focal attention more directly to passive constructions and additional metalinguistic explanations.

The study conducted finer-grained comparisons of the effects of TE and C-R on the acquisition of the passive in two main ways. First, acquisition was examined on two processing dimensions of knowledge (i.e., mental organization of linguistic knowledge) and use (i.e., control over or access to knowledge) (Bialystok, 1981, 1990; Sharwood Smith, 1985), for the form, meaning, and function of the passive (Han & Lew, 2012; Larsen-Freeman, 1991). Five measurement tasks were created accordingly: (1) a grammaticality judgment task (GJT) to measure the knowledge of form, (2) a sentence pair task to measure the knowledge of meaning, (3) a closed discourse completion task (DCT) to measure the knowledge of function, (4) an oral production task to measure the use for form-meaning-function mappings, and (5) a written production task to measure the use for form-meaning-function mappings, of the passive construction. Second, retention of the gained knowledge and use of the passive was examined by employing an experimental study design including a pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest over a span of 10 weeks.

With these endeavors, it is hoped that the present study contributes to resolving the long-lasting debate regarding implicit/explicit FonF in the field of SLA.

1.3 Definitions of Terms

The study uses a number of key terms, which are defined briefly below. Several of them are more extensively explored in the subsequent chapters.
Acquisition

Acquisition has been defined in various ways in the L2 literature (e.g., Gass & Selinker, 2008; Norris & Ortega, 2003; Spada & Toimta, 2010), depending on what the researcher intends to examine. In the present study, acquisition is defined as entailing two processing dimensions of knowledge (i.e., mental organization of linguistic knowledge) and use (i.e., control over or access to knowledge) (Bialystok, 1981, 1990; Bialystok & Sharwood Smith, 1985) of the target construction, in terms of form, meaning, and function (Han & Lew, 2012; Larsen-Freeman, 2001).

Knowledge and Control

According to Bialystok (1981, 1990) and Bialystok and Sharwood Smith (1985), acquisition consists of two processing dimensions: knowledge and use. Knowledge refers to the level of analysis and mental organization of linguistic information; use, which the researchers originally termed control, refers to the efficiency with which that information can be accessed or retrieved. Unlike L1 speakers, L2 learners often exhibit unequal abilities on these two processing dimensions. For example, a learner may have decent knowledge of the target construction but lack the ability to use that knowledge in spontaneous speech.

Form, Meaning, and Function

To challenge the conventional grammar instruction that focuses only on individual forms (i.e. FonFS), Larsen-Freeman (1991, 2001) seminally proposed that acquisition involves not only form but also meaning and function. Form denotes the morpho-syntactic patterns encompassed in the target construction, and thus pertains to grammatical accuracy. For example, twelve books were translated by the author
exemplifies a correct form of the passive, whereas *twelve books were translating by the author* does not. *Meaning* includes both lexical (semantic) and grammatical meanings. For example, the two sentences *twelve books were translated by the author* and *the author translated twelve books* convey the same lexical meaning, but different grammatical meaning with the focus of the sentences being changed. *Function* concerns the use of the target construction in discourse contexts. The choice of using the active or passive, for instance, is usually determined by the context in which the construction appears, as is described in detail in the next chapter.

*Fossilization*

Being a fundamental issue in the field of SLA, fossilization refers to the premature cessation of learning despite rich exposure to input, an adequate motivation to learn, and sufficient opportunities for practice (e.g., Han, 2009; Selinker, 1972). In contrast to the definition of acquisition presented above, fossilization involves a permanent lack of knowledge, and the ability to use that knowledge, for the form, meaning, and function of the target construction.

*Implicit and Explicit Knowledge/Learning*

According to the literature (e.g., DeKeyser, 2003; N. Ellis, 1994; Gass & Selinker, 2008), implicit knowledge is intuitive knowledge *of* language, and easily accessible through automatic processing; explicit knowledge is knowledge *about* language that learners are consciously aware of, and typically only available through controlled processing. By the same token, implicit learning is “acquisition of knowledge about the underlying structure of a complex stimulus environment by a process which takes place naturally, simply and without conscious operations” (N. Ellis, 1994, p. 1);
explicit learning is “a more conscious operation where the individual makes and tests hypotheses in a search for structure” (N. Ellis, 1994, p. 1).

Focus on Form

As noted earlier, FonF was originally proposed by Long (1991), who asserts that it should only occur incidentally and reactively, in response to learners’ errors. However, the present study adopted Doughty and Williams’ (1998) definition which suggests that FonF can occur intentionally and proactively, with the target construction predetermined based on the analysis of the learners’ developmental readiness. This definition allows a broader scope of pedagogy, including both implicit and explicit FonF techniques. Explicit FonF involves direct attention to form and grammatical rules, using rule explanation and overt correction (e.g., processing instruction, consciousness-raising, dictogloss, etc.), while implicit FonF features the absence thereof (e.g., input enhancement, input flood, recasts, etc.).

Consciousness-raising

In the present study, explicit FonF was operationalized as consciousness-raising (C-R), which refers to an intentional endeavor to draw learners’ attention to specific grammatical elements in order to improve their grammatical competence (Rutherford & Sharwood Smith, 1985). C-R is often realized as a grammar activity which attempts to induce learners’ metalinguistic descriptions of the target construction, followed by additional metalinguistic explanations provided by the instructor (R. Ellis, 1997; Fotos, 1994; Fotos & R. Ellis, 1991; Nassaji & Fotos, 2004). According to R. Ellis (2002b), C-R differs from conventional grammar activities as it is essentially “concept forming” in
orientation, whereas the latter is primarily “behavioral”, requiring repeated production (p. 169).

**Complexity**

The literature (e.g., Gass, Svetics, & Lemelin, 2003; Housen, Pierrard, & Van Daele, 2005; Spada & Tomita, 2010) has provided several definitions of complexity (e.g., linguistic, cognitive, pedagogical, and acquisitional), as is detailed in the next chapter. In the present study, complexity is defined in light of what acquisition entails: form, meaning, and function of the target construction and the mappings between them (i.e., acquisitional complexity; Han & Lew, 2012). In this view, another great source of complexity derives from the relationship between the learners’ L1 and L2 vis-à-vis the target construction.

**Transfer**

As noted earlier, L2 learners have their L1 grammar deeply ingrained in mind (Bley-Vroman, 1989, 1990, 2009; Gregg, 1996). When learners resort to their L1 knowledge in processing and producing L2, *transfer* occurs (e.g., Anderson, 1983; Gass & Selinker, 2008; Kellerman, 1995). According to several researchers (Han & Lew, 2012; Sorace, 2005), transfer is a compelling source of complexity, and is likely to occur most frequently on the syntax-pragmatics (i.e., form-function) interface.

**Developmental Readiness**

The use of intentional and proactive FonF techniques proposed by Doughty and Williams (1998) is premised on the learners’ developmental readiness to learn the target construction. The literature (Meisel, Clahsen, & Pienemann, 1981; Pienemann, 1989)
suggests that learners’ psycholinguistic processing abilities moderate their progress in L2 acquisition, such that the learners cannot move forward to the next developmental stage until they are able to cognitively process the structures at earlier stages. Thus, learning difficulty arises when learners are expected to learn grammatical structures that they are not developmentally ready to learn.

**Interlanguage**

Interlanguage (IL) refers to the knowledge system that an L2 learner creates and the language produced by the learner using that knowledge. Accordingly, IL involves elements from both the learners’ L1 and L2 (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Selinker, 1972).

**The Passive Voice**

As previously mentioned, the target construction of the present study is the English passive voice. In grammar, the voice of a verb describes the relationship between the action or state that the verb expresses and the participants identified by its arguments (i.e., subject and object). The passive is a marked form of voice. In a passive sentence, the grammatical subject expresses the *theme* or *patient* (i.e., the person or thing that undergoes the action or state) of the main verb (e.g., *the tree was pulled down*). This contrasts with an active sentence in which the subject has the agent role (e.g., *someone pulled down the tree*). Thus, voice is a grammatical category that makes it possible to view the action of a sentence in two ways without a change in the facts being reported (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1972).
1.4 Organization

The remaining chapters of this dissertation are organized as follows. In Chapter II, key strands of the literature motivating the present study are reviewed in greater depth and breadth. In particular, the concept of noticing is examined as a theoretical rationale for FonF, along with the related concepts such as attention, awareness, and consciousness. Previous research on implicit and explicit FonF is then reviewed, followed by an overview of the concept of complexity and an analysis of the complexity of the English passive, the target construction of the study.

Chapter III outlines the design and methodological procedures employed in the study. It begins with a discussion of key methodological issues found in previous empirical research and in the pilot study (J. Jung & Han, 2014) on which the current study is based. A description then follows of the design, participants, and treatment procedures of the study, and finally measurement tasks used for data collection.

Chapter IV presents the results of the study. First, the data obtained from the five measurement tasks are analyzed quantitatively. Then, a qualitative, intra-learner analysis of five participants’ performance is presented, followed by the results of the exit questionnaire.

Chapter V discusses the main findings of the study and concludes the dissertation. It first presents a summary of the main findings. Then, each of the two research questions is addressed, followed by a more nuanced discussion of the mappings between the form, meaning, and function of the passive. Next, the limitations of the study are outlined,
which offers some directions for future research. Finally, the chapter ends by discussing pedagogical implications of the findings of the current study.
Chapter II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter reviews four key strands of SLA research that inspired the current study: (1) noticing and related concepts (i.e., attention, awareness, and consciousness), (2) implicit and explicit FonF, (3) the relationship between the effectiveness of FonF and the complexity of target constructions, and (4) the complexity of the English passive, the target construction of the present study. The first section begins by reviewing the concept of noticing (Schmidt, 1990) as a learning mechanism and theoretical principle for FonF (Long, 2000; Long & Robinson, 1998). It also examines some inherently related concepts such as attention, awareness, and consciousness, with awareness being a key notion in distinguishing between implicit and explicit L2 learning and knowledge. This is followed by a review of the hypothetical interfaces between implicit and explicit learning proposed by the literature. The second section overviews the different types of pedagogical techniques of FonF (i.e., implicit and explicit), with a particular emphasis on textual enhancement (TE) and consciousness-raising (C-R), which were employed in the present study as implicit and explicit FonF, respectively. The third section reviews prior empirical research on the relationship between the effectiveness of FonF and the complexity of target constructions. It then examines how complexity has been defined and operationalized in the L2 literature. Finally, in the last section, the complexity of the English passive, the target construction of this study, is analyzed in depth from an acquisitional perspective (Han & Lew, 2012; Sorace, 2005).
2.1 Noticing in L2 Acquisition

As noted in the previous chapter, Long (2000) and Long and Robinson (1998) claim that FonF is largely motivated, albeit not exclusively, by Schmidt’s Noticing Hypothesis (1990). This section examines the role of noticing in L2 acquisition and the related concepts of attention, awareness, and consciousness.

2.1.1 Theoretical Perspectives

The process of L2 acquisition is usually represented as information processing, an approach to the study of human cognition in relation to how computers process information (e.g., Gass & Selinker, 2008; Shannon & Weaver, 1963). The initial stages of the process include input and intake. According to Corder (1967), input refers to “what goes in” and not “what is available for going in” (p. 165). In other words, input is not readily available for internalization by learners via mere exposure to it. Rather, only a subset of input, or intake, is internalized and cognitively registered in the learners’ mind. In view of the model of L2 acquisition (Figure 1), it is the conversion of input to intake (i.e., input processing; VanPatten, 1990, 1996) that triggers further process of learning, such as hypothesis testing, accommodation of the registered knowledge, and restructuring of the existing knowledge.
Several researchers (e.g., Leow, 1993; Schmidt, 1990; VanPatten, 1990, 1996) have attempted to explain the input-intake process from a theoretical standpoint. Of particular interest to the current study is Schmidt’s Noticing Hypothesis (1990, 1993, 1994, 1995, 2001, 2010), which posits that only the information the learner notices can serve as intake, and thus, noticing is a necessary and sufficient condition for L2 learning to take place. More specifically, new linguistic forms and rules can only be used for developing the IL system if a learner can cognitively compare them with the existing IL representations, or notice the gap between these two sets of knowledge (e.g., R. Ellis, 1991a; Gass, 1991; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Schmidt & Frota, 1986).

Schmidt (1994) defines noticing as “registration [detection] of the occurrence of a stimulus in conscious awareness and subsequent storage in long term memory” (Schmidt, 1994, p. 179), and hence a conscious process. He also emphasizes that:

Nothing in target language input becomes intake for language learning other than what learners consciously notice, … there is no such a thing as learning subliminally. (Schmidt, 1988, p. 61)

As illustrated in these accounts, Schmidt (1994) links noticing to awareness, which is defined as the learner’s subjective experience that s/he is detecting a stimulus and the extent to which the learner can verbalize such experience. Furthermore, the
researcher distinguishes between two levels of awareness: (1) awareness at the level of noticing and (2) awareness at the level of understanding. The former refers to a low level of awareness limited to the “elements of the surface structure of utterances in the input” (Schmidt, 2001, p. 5). Conversely, the latter refers to a higher level of awareness involving the “recognition of a general principle, rule, or pattern” underlying the individual exemplars (Schmidt, 1995, p. 29). According to Schmidt (1995), awareness at the level of understanding is not necessary for L2 learning, although it may facilitate the learning process.

Several researchers (e.g., Leow, 1993; Robinson, 2003; Sharwood Smith, 1993; Swain, 1985; VanPatten, 1990, 1996; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993) corroborate the importance of noticing as a learning mechanism for L2 acquisition. Gass (1990), for example, asserts that “nothing in the target language is available for intake into a language learner’s existing system unless it is consciously noticed” (p. 136). Bley-Vroman (1997) also claims that “essentially, noticing is the interface between the input and the developing set of constructions” (p. 15). Similarly, N. Ellis (2004) argues that “the initial registration of a language representation may well require attention [i.e., noticing]” (p. 65).

However, there is no consensus on the issue of whether any level of awareness must be associated with the attentional process in order for input to be converted into intake and subsequently registered in memory. For example, Tomlin and Villa (1994) argue for the dissociation between attention and awareness in L2 learning, which conflicts with the idea of Schmidt’s (1990) Noticing Hypothesis. Based on the work of Posner and Petersen (1990), these researchers describe the construct of attention in terms
of three separable, yet interrelated, dimensions: alertness, orientation, and detection. In their view, alertness and orientation are vital only to the extent that they increase the possibility for detection to occur, but they are not sufficient for learning. Conversely, detection, which refers to the cognitive registration of a stimulus, is the attentional level that is required for acquisition, and according to the researchers, such detection does not require conscious awareness. It is worth noting that Schmidt (2001) agrees with Tomlin and Villa (1994) in that detection is necessary for input-intake conversion, but he suggests using the term to refer to stimuli that are registered without awareness. Put differently, in Schmidt’s (2001) view, only the part of the detected stimuli that is consciously registered will be subject to further processing and potentially lead to learning.

Robinson (1995) has attempted to reconcile the two positions by defining noticing as “detection plus rehearsal in short-term memory, prior to encoding in long-term memory” (p. 296). This conception of noticing is based on the idea that the processing of intake must exceed a certain threshold before it becomes part of awareness. Put differently, noticing is “what is both detected and then further activated following allocation of attentional resources from a central executive” (Robinson, 1995, p. 297). Thus, learning (i.e., detection) can occur without awareness, but the researcher also points out that such subliminal learning is believed to have limited long-term effects.

On the other hand, Simard and Wong (2001) have suggested that alertness, orientation, detection, and awareness should not be viewed as discrete dimensions, but instead as interacting with one another on varying levels, depending on such variables as the nature of the task, the target construction, and individual differences. Thus, instead of
asking whether or not awareness is necessary for L2 acquisition at all, the researchers propose examining the differential impact that different levels of attentional networks and awareness may have on L2 learning.

As reviewed thus far, the role of noticing, attention, awareness, and consciousness in L2 learning has been described in somewhat different ways from a theoretical viewpoint. Inspired by these various accounts, a number of empirical studies (e.g., Alanen, 1995; Jourdenais, Ota, Stauffer, Boyson, & Doughty, 1995; Leow, 1997, 2000; Robinson, 1997; Rosa & O’Neill, 1999) have set out to clarify the role of awareness in L2 learning. Although this line of research has not yielded conclusive findings, it has made a meaningful contribution to the implicit-explicit debate regarding L2 acquisition in that it sought to explain the underlying mechanisms for different types of L2 learning and knowledge.

2.1.2 Types of L2 Learning and Knowledge

This section reviews different types of L2 learning and knowledge (i.e., implicit and explicit), as they are essential for the distinction between implicit and explicit FonF.

Research on cognitive psychology (e.g., Johnson-Laird, 1983; Reber, Kassin, Lewis, & Cantor, 1980) suggests that implicit and explicit learning draw on different mechanisms and that they have their own particular strengths. Implicit learning is viewed as nonconscious generalization from examples and a natural product of attending to structured input (e.g., Hartman, Knopman, & Nissen, 1989; Reber, 1989). The mechanism of implicit learning involves the strengthening and weakening of connections between nodes in complex networks as a result of experience, as illustrated in the parallel
distributed processing (PDP) model, rather than through the unconscious induction of rules abstracted from data (e.g., Reber, 1976; Reber, Allen, & Regan, 1985). Accordingly, implicit learning appears to be superior for the learning of fuzzy patterns based on perceptual similarities and the detection of non-salient covariance between variables (e.g., Hulstijn & De Graaf, 1994). Explicit learning refers to conscious problem-solving, which involves attempts to form mental representations, searching memory for related knowledge, and forming and testing hypotheses (e.g., Mathews, Buss, Stanley, Blanchard-Field, Cho, & Druhan, 1989). Thus, it is likely to be of advantage when a domain contains rules that are based on logical relationships rather than perceptual similarities (e.g., Mathews, et al., 1989).

The literature (e.g., Gass & Selinker, 2008; Hulstijn, 2005) shows that L2 acquisition involves both implicit and explicit learning. According to N. Ellis (1994), implicit learning is the “acquisition of knowledge about the underlying structure of a complex stimulus environment by a process which takes place naturally, simply and without conscious operations” (p. 1). Explicit learning is “a more conscious operation where the individual makes and tests hypotheses in a search for structure” (N. Ellis, 1994, p. 1). Hulstijn (2005) further accounts for the implicit-explicit distinction with reference to input processing (VanPatten, 1990, 1996). From this view, explicit learning is defined as “input processing with the conscious intention to find out whether the input information contains regularities and, if so, to work out the concepts and rules with which these regularities can be captured” (Hulstijn, 2005, p. 131); implicit learning is “input processing without such an intention” (Hulstijn, 2005, p. 131).
Another relevant distinction is that between implicit and explicit L2 knowledge, which is often described in terms of procedural and declarative knowledge (e.g., DeKeyser, 2003; Doughty, 2003; N. Ellis, 2005; R. Ellis, 2005a; R. Ellis & Loewen, 2007; Gass & Selinker, 2008; Isemonger, 2007). Implicit knowledge is procedural and entirely tacit; it refers to intuitive knowledge of language and is easily accessible through automatic processing (e.g., R. Ellis, et al., 2003; Gass & Selinker, 2008). Explicit knowledge is declarative; it is concerned with knowledge about language that learners are consciously aware of and typically only available through controlled processing. Also, explicit knowledge may be linked to metalinguistic labels (e.g., R. Ellis, et al., 2003).

With respect to the role of implicit and explicit knowledge in L2 learning, there seems to be a general consensus among L2 researchers (e.g., Doughty, 2003; Gass & Selinker, 2008) that implicit knowledge is at the core of automated language processing and that the development of this type of mental representation is the ultimate goal of L2 acquisition. However, it has been pointed out that “L2 performance utilizes a combination of implicit and explicit knowledge” (Bialystok, as cited in R. Ellis, 2009a, p. 15), whereas native speakers presumably rely much less on explicit knowledge than on implicit knowledge. Yet, some other researchers (e.g., Hinkel & Fotos, 2002; Johns, 2003; Mitchell, 2000) claim that successful performance in the use of language such as writing normally requires access to explicit knowledge.

Motivated by the aforementioned implicit-explicit distinction, researchers (e.g., DeKeyser, 2003; Krashen, 1982; Schmidt, 1994) have shown great interest in examining the relationships, or interfaces, between implicit and explicit knowledge and their implications for L2 learning.
2.1.3 Interface Positions

Implicit and explicit learning and implicit and explicit knowledge are “related but distinct concepts that need to be separated” (Schmidt, 1994, p. 20). The former refers to the processes involved in learning, whereas the latter concerns the products of learning (R. Ellis, 2009). L2 Research (e.g., Norris & Ortega, 2000; Spada & Tomita, 2010) has examined implicit and explicit learning in reference to the types of knowledge that result from one or the other type of learning. More specifically, this line of research has addressed such issues as to what extent implicit and explicit learning are related and whether explicit knowledge can be converted into implicit knowledge. These issues concern what is known as the interface positions, which reveal three different perspectives: (1) the non-interface position, (2) the strong interface position, and (3) the weak interface position (e.g., R. Ellis, 2006; Hulstijn, 2005).

The non-interface position, influenced by Krashen’s (1982) distinction between acquisition (i.e., subconscious process) and learning (i.e., conscious process), posits that explicit (i.e., learned) and implicit (i.e., acquired) knowledge comprise two separate systems that have distinctive roles. That is, the system that triggers comprehension and production is implicit knowledge, whereas explicit knowledge plays a very limited role in L2 acquisition by serving only as a monitor in output production (i.e., the Monitor Model; Krashen, 1982). This view, however, was initially subjected to fierce criticism on the grounds that the distinction was not falsifiable. McLaughlin (1978), for example, argued that Krashen (1982) failed to provide adequate definitions of what he meant by subconscious and conscious, and “provided no way of independently determining whether a given process involves acquisition or learning” (p. 21). Similarly, Schmidt
(1990, 1994, 2001) highlighted the fact that Krashen’s (1982) distinction was too simplistic as it failed to distinguish consciousness per the sub-components involved in it, such as intentionality, attention, awareness, and control.

In contrast, researchers in the strong interface position (e.g., DeKeyser, 2003, 2009) claim that implicit and explicit knowledge are the extremes of one continuous knowledge system. Furthermore, they argue that implicit knowledge is not entirely dependent on implicit learning but can arise as a product of intentionally practicing linguistic forms that were initially learned explicitly (DeKeyser, 2003). Simply speaking, linguistic knowledge changes in the course of acquisition in such a way that it becomes more available in communicative settings. The Skill Acquisition Theory in cognitive psychology (Fitts & Posner, 1967) suggests that all kinds of learning follow the same sequence, which includes cognitive, associative, and autonomous stages. The cognitive stage is characterized by the learning of specific propositions and exemplars, as well as the use of conscious control strategies. In the associative stage, less cognitive activity is required as the learner associates the information with general procedures to form specific rules. Extensive practice using the rules learned on this stage leads to the autonomous stage, in which the use of the knowledge becomes proceduralized such that little or no cognitive activity is required. In cognitive accounts of language learning, practice takes on a number of forms, but the common ingredient is that the learner interacts with the language in some meaningful, communicative manner (e.g., De Jong, 2005; Gass & Selinker, 2008).

The weak interface position (e.g., Bialystok, 1994; N. Ellis, 2005; R. Ellis, 1994; Schmidt, 1994) reconciles the two preceding positions, by proposing that, although the
nature of knowledge does not change, explicit knowledge can positively affect the implicit learning process on several grounds. For example, explicit knowledge may play a beneficial role in L2 acquisition in that it may accelerate the establishment of links between form and meaning, and thus facilitate the development of implicit knowledge (R. Ellis, 1994). In addition, explicit knowledge seems to have a compensatory role for implicit knowledge in linguistic problem-solving because “when automatic capabilities fail, there follows a call recruiting additional collaborative conscious support” (N. Ellis, 2005, p. 308). Moreover, Schmidt (1994) argues that the development of implicit knowledge involves at least some degree of consciousness, because, as noted in the previous sections, noticing at the level of awareness is a necessary and sufficient condition for learning to take place (Schmidt, 1994).

Bialystok’s (1981, 1990) conception of acquisition (i.e., knowledge and use), which has been adopted in the present study, lends further support for the weak interface position. According to Bialystok’s (1990) later definition, the knowledge dimension is described as analysis, which concerns such things as the extent to which knowledge is structured and differentiated and the extent to which there is organization within the knowledge base. It is assumed that the more interconnections exist between the units of knowledge, the more analyzed the knowledge structure is. In addition, the analysis dimension concerns the extent to which knowledge is represented explicitly, with high levels of analysis being associated with a greater ability to make more complex linguistic judgments, including metalinguistic judgments. Accordingly, high levels of analysis and the ensuing greater explicitness are likely to facilitate more hypothesis testing and restructuring of IL knowledge, and to promote the learner’s awareness of structural
regularities represented in the target input. With regard to the use dimension, the earlier version of the model (Bialystok, 1981; Bialystok & Sharwood Smith, 1985) emphasized fluency and automaticity. However, Bialystok (1990) proposes that the use dimension mainly concerns the processes of accessing information, such as the selection of items of knowledge and the capacity to attend selectively to the items relevant to a particular task, coordinate the selected items of information, and carry out these processes with automaticity. As the emphasis of the framework is on the process of accessing information, fluency becomes merely the consequence of the aforementioned processes operating effectively through repeated practice.

In short, the strong and weak interface positions advocate the usefulness of explicit learning in L2 acquisition. Based on the implicit-explicit distinction reviewed thus far, the next section examines the nature of implicit and explicit FonF, and then describes how the two types of FonF are operationalized in the present study.

2.2 Implicit and Explicit Focus on Form

As previously mentioned, FonF is a pedagogical approach that attempts to draw learners’ attention to forms in an otherwise purely meaning-based environment (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Long, 1991; Long & Robinson, 1998). In theory, FonF is premised on viewing learners as having a limited processing capacity which inevitably includes the competition between the processing of form and the processing of meaning (e.g., Clark & Harrelson, 2002; Huit, 2003; VanPatten, 1990, 1996, 2004). VanPatten (1996, 2004) argues, in his theory of Input Processing, that L2 learners process content words in the input before anything else, and tend to rely on lexical items as opposed to grammatical
forms to understand meaning when both encode the same semantic information (i.e., meaning primacy). In addition, learners are more likely to process meaningful grammatical forms before non-meaningful forms, as well as non-redundant meaningful grammatical forms before redundant meaningful forms. Thus, FonF as a pedagogical intervention seeks to free up the learners’ attentional resources through primary engagement in meaning, and to efficiently reallocate them for the processing of form, facilitating the mapping between form and meaning (e.g., VanPatten, 1990, 1996, 2004; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993).

Doughty and Williams (1998) distinguish FonF interventions that are more apt at directing versus attracting learners’ attention to linguistic codes. According to the researchers, the former process is more likely to induce exemplar-based, experiential, or implicit learning, whereas the latter is more prone to promote rule-based, categorical, or explicit learning. In parallel with this distinction, the researchers conceptualize FonF as a continuum of various pedagogical options including both implicit and explicit techniques (Figure 2).

On the explicit end of the continuum are such techniques as dictogloss (e.g., Swain & Lapkin, 2001), consciousness-raising tasks (e.g., Fotos & R. Ellis, 1991; Fotos, 1993), processing instruction (e.g., VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993; VanPatten & Sanz, 1995), and the Garden Path technique (e.g., Tomasello & Herron, 1998). These techniques attempt to direct learners’ focal attention to form rather obtrusively, and/or exploit metalinguistic information as is necessary. Conversely, on the implicit end of the continuum are unobtrusive, exemplar-based techniques such as recasts (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998; Mackey & Philp, 1997), input enhancement (e.g., Alanen, 1995; Shook,
input flood (e.g., Williams & Evans, 1998). These techniques attempt to
attract learners’ focal attention without overt reference to metalinguistic rules, thereby
minimizing the interruption of the pedagogical intervention on the processing of
meaning.

Figure 2
The Continuum of FonF Techniques (Doughty & Williams, 1998)

The rationale for such conceptualization of FonF is both theoretical and empirical.
As noted previously, due to biological and cognitive constraints, older L2 learners
generally have a weak capacity for implicit learning (e.g., Han, 2004; Schachter, 1990;
Sorace, 1993). Indeed, empirical research (e.g., Han, 2008; Lyster, 1998; Sheen, 2004)
shows that learners often fail to notice recasts, a type of implicit FonF, particularly those
targeting at morpho-syntactic errors. Thus, the use of an explicit FonF technique may be
necessary for morpho-syntactic acquisition (e.g., Hulstijn & Schmidt, 1994; Sharwood
Smith, 1993), but research also reveals that explicit FonF often appears to have a short-
term effect on the acquisition of the target constructions (e.g., Gass & Selinker, 2008).

Furthermore, as suggested by the strong (e.g., DeKeyser, 2003, 2009; Fitts &
Posner, 1967) and weak (e.g., Bialystok, 1994; N. Ellis, 2005; R. Ellis, 1994; Schmidt,
1994) interface positions reviewed earlier, the relationship between implicit/explicit learning and knowledge seems to be dynamic. For example, the acquisition of implicit knowledge, the cognitive resource triggering automatic language processing (e.g., Ellis, et al., 2006; Nassaji & Fotos, 2004), may initially derive from an explicit learning condition. Conversely, it has also been found that implicit FonF such as recasts may result in explicit knowledge which can be verbalized with reference to metalinguistic rules (Long, Inagaki, and Ortega, 1998).

In the present study, implicit and explicit FonF are operationalized as textual enhancement (TE) and consciousness-raising (C-R), respectively, because the two techniques commonly use written texts as a main source of learning but are realized differently based on the degree of explicitness involved in them (Sharwood Smith, 1981, 1991, 1993).

2.2.1 Textual Enhancement

TE, a pedagogical technique on the implicit end of the FonF continuum (Doughty & Williams, 1998), is a visual manipulation of the target constructions using font style, character size, underline, boldface, capital letters, colors, etc. (Sharwood Smith, 1991). Previous L2 research (e.g., Alanen, 1995; Doughty, 1991; Jourdenais, et al., 1995; Shook, 1994; White, 1998) reports a positive role of TE in promoting learners’ attention to form. Furthermore, it is likely to be less burdensome on learners’ attention to meaning than other, more explicit techniques available under the FonF approach (e.g., Doughty & Willaims, 1998; Sharwood Smith, 1981).
As previously mentioned, noticing is a prerequisite for input-intake conversion, which is a necessary and sufficient condition for learning to take place (e.g., Schmidt, 1990, 1993, 1994, 1995, 2001, 2010; Sharwood Smith, 1981). However, L2 learners typically ignore a vast mass of input (e.g., Han, Park, Combs, 2008, Sharwood Smith, 1991, 1993), largely due to their attenuated sensitivity to linguistic codes (e.g., Han, 2004; Schachter, 1990; Sorace, 1993). Yet, the lack of noticing may derive externally, as the linguistic codes in the input which the learners are exposed to are inherently non-salient (e.g., Han, et al., & Combs, 2008; Sharwood Smith, 1991, 1993). In order to make up for such poor characteristics of input (i.e., lack of perceptual saliency) and thus promote noticeability (Schmidt, 1990, 1994, 1995, 2000, 2010), Sharwood Smith (1991, 1993) proposed the use of input enhancement (IE), an operation whereby the saliency of linguistic codes is augmented through TE (e.g., color-coding, boldfacing, underlining, italicizing, capitalizing, etc.) for visual input and phonological manipulations (e.g., stress, intonation, oral repetition, etc.) for aural input.

According to the literature (e.g., Han, et al., 2008; S. Lee, 2007), several factors are likely to influence the success of TE. For example, research examining the relationship between TE and comprehension (e.g., VanPatten, 1996; Wong, 2003) suggests that learners must comprehend what they read before their attention is drawn to form embedded in the input. If this condition is not met, the increased level of noticing due to TE may create a trade-off with comprehension by distracting learners’ attention to meaning. Thus, in order to circumvent such side effects, researchers (e.g., Doughty, 1991; Izumi, 2002; Williams, 1999) propose establishing a meaning-oriented environment before implementing TE by employing comprehension questions,
vocabulary assistance, or recall summaries. In addition, comprehension of meaning can be accelerated by employing a topic that learners are familiar with (S. Lee, 2007; Overstreet, 1998).

Underlying the research procedures proposed above is the assumption that the processing of form and meaning occurs sequentially rather than simultaneously (e.g., Han, et al., 2008). It is posited that L2 learners have limited processing capacity (VanPatten, 1990, 1996), and thus, if the processing of input for meaning happens first, attentional resources could be freed up and reallocated to the processing of form. Consequently, sequential exposure to TE preceded by comprehension activities is more likely to induce intentional than incidental processing of the target constructions. However, most studies on TE (e.g., Alanen, 1995; Shook, 1994) to date have investigated simultaneous processing of form and meaning by providing the participants with an explicit instruction to understand the meaning of the enhanced target constructions while reading the text. Put differently, in these studies, the learners’ focal attention was drawn intentionally to meaning, but incidentally to form.

Although visual or aural manipulations of input are conducted externally by the instructor in the implementation of IE, input saliency can also be generated internally by the learners, based on their own natural learning and processing mechanisms (e.g., Sharwood Smith, 1991, 1993). By the same token, research (e.g., Alanen, 1995; Shook, 1994) reveals that learners’ prior knowledge plays an important role in TE. To begin with, simple enhancement (i.e., TE alone) has been found to be more effective for learners with some prior knowledge of the target construction (e.g., Park, 2004) than for those without prior knowledge (e.g., Alanen, 1995). Second, simple enhancement may
induce noticing (i.e., low-level awareness; Schmidt, 1990) but not understanding (i.e.,
high-level awareness; Schmidt, 1990) in learners with little prior knowledge (e.g., Shook,
1994), while it may trigger understanding as well as noticing in learners with some prior
knowledge (e.g., S. Lee, 2007). Third, compound enhancement (i.e., TE in combination
with different types of enhancement or corrective feedback) appears to be more effective
than simple enhancement in inducing noticing and further processing of the target
construction in both types of learners (e.g., Doughty, 1991; Williams, 1999).

Another characteristic of TE concerns overuse, a common phenomenon observed
in classroom L2 acquisition. As Han et al. (2008) note, most empirical studies on TE
exhibit varying degrees of conflation of TE and input flood (i.e., enrichment of input by
supplying numerous examples of the target form; Sharwood Smith, 1993), the latter being
an additional source for perceptual saliency by virtue of frequency (e.g., Leow, Egi,
Nuevo, & Tsai, 2003; Shook, 1999). Thus, when combined with input flood, TE is likely
to evoke aberrant noticing, resulting in overproduction of the enhanced form (e.g., Han,
ms.; Han et al., 2008). Yet, over-enhancing of the target form alone can be
counterproductive as it may also lead to overuse errors (e.g., Han, et al., 2008; Overstreet,
1998).

2.2.2 Consciousness-Raising

C-R is a pedagogical technique on the explicit end of the FonF continuum
(Doughty & Williams, 1998). Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) define C-R as an
intentional endeavor to draw learners’ attention to specific grammatical elements in order
defines C-R as “a pedagogic activity where the learners are provided with L2 data in
some form and required to perform some operation on or with it, the purpose of which is to arrive at an explicit understanding of some linguistic properties of the target language” (R. Ellis, 1997, p. 160). A typical example of C-R would be L2 learners attempting to induce and formulate grammatical rules from a presented text by interacting and negotiating in small groups. The idea of realizing C-R in the form of communicative activities has been discussed extensively by several other researchers (e.g., Fotos, 1994; Fotos & R. Ellis, 1991; Nassaji & Fotos, 2004). In particular, Fotos and R. Ellis (1991) recommend that a C-R activity should be created such that it provides learners with “grammar problems they must solve interactively” (p. 605). In other words, C-R activities seek to engage learners in thinking and communicating “about” language, and thus, “a language point becomes the topic that is talked about” (R. Ellis, 2005b, p. 47).

Fotos (1993, 1994) and Fotos and R. Ellis (1991) assert that C-R may contribute to L2 acquisition in two ways. First, it may contribute directly by providing opportunities for the kind of communication that is believed to promote the acquisition of implicit knowledge. More specifically, C-R attempts to induce negotiated interactions (Long, 1996) between learners (e.g., Fotos, 1993; Fotos & R. Ellis, 1991; Long, 1983), which are likely to promote comprehension (e.g., Long & Porter, 1985; Pica, Holliday, Lewis, Berducci, & Newman, 1991). Negotiated interactions occurring in C-R also result in adjustments and modifications of language output – a process termed pushed output by Swain (1985) – such that it is more comprehensible and more target-like in grammatical accuracy (e.g., Long & Porter, 1985).

Second, C-R may contribute indirectly by enabling learners to develop explicit knowledge of L2 rules that will later facilitate the acquisition of implicit knowledge (i.e.,
the weak interface position). As noted in the previous sections, Bialystok (1981, 1990) asserts that knowledge representation ensuing greater explicitness is more likely to promote the learner’s awareness (i.e., noticing) of the structural regularities embedded in the target input, facilitating more hypothesis testing and restructuring of the existing L2 knowledge.

Despite its attempt to engage learners’ metalinguistic attention in a relatively obtrusive manner, C-R differs considerably from the conventional grammar activities under the FonFS approach. According to R. Ellis (2002), FonFS is primarily “behavioral,” requiring repeated production of the target construction, but C-R is essentially “concept forming” in orientation, seeking cognitive processes such as noticing of the gap and hypothesis testing (p. 169). Furthermore, by having learners discover grammatical rules on their own based on exemplars, C-R is likely to provide learners with “enjoyable moments of learning a language through discovery learning” (Bankier, 2010, para. 1).

C-R involves a number of key characteristics, such as preselecting a specific linguistic construction for focused attention, providing learners with data illustrating the use of this construction, and, in some cases, an explicit rule describing and explaining its form or use (R. Ellis, 1992, 2003). Other common characteristics of C-R involve highlighting the target construction (i.e., underlining, color-coding, boldfacing, or italicizing), encouraging learners to invest intellectual effort in understanding the target construction, providing learners with clarification in the form of further data and description or explanation related to their misunderstanding of the target construction, and optionally instructing learners to verbalize the rule underlying the use of the target
construction. Put differently, in implementing C-R, learners are expected to engage in the following variety of operations on the language samples provided: identification (e.g. underlining the target form), judgment (e.g. deciding whether the data are correct or appropriate), completion (e.g. filling in blanks in a passage with instances of a particular structure), modification or reconstruction/deconstruction (e.g. reordering or rewriting part of a text), sorting or classifying (e.g. assigning the forms present in the data to different categories), matching (e.g. combining two sets of data according to some stated principle), and rule provision or hypothesis building (e.g. arriving at a verbal or non-verbal generalization) (Willis & Willis, 1996).

### 2.3 Focus on Form and the Complexity of Target Constructions

As previously mentioned, Doughty and Williams’ (1998) distinction between implicit and explicit FonF motivated several empirical studies to determine which type of FonF (i.e., implicit or explicit) best promotes L2 grammar acquisition (e.g., Carroll & Swain, 1993; R. Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Muranoi, 2000; Norris & Ortega, 2000, 2001; Spada & Tomita, 2010). Although these studies yielded mixed findings, they identified several modulating factors that are likely to influence the effectiveness of the different types of FonF (e.g., the target construction, the extent of instruction, outcome measures, research settings, and learner characteristics). Among other things, research has revealed that the effectiveness of a FonF treatment seems to depend largely on the nature, or complexity, of the target construction (e.g., R. Ellis, 2002a; Li, 2010; Spada & Tomita, 2010).

The present section provides an overview of L2 research that examined the relationship between implicit/explicit FonF and complexity. It begins with a review of
previous empirical studies (e.g., De Graaf, 1997; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Spada & Tomita, 2010), which generated disparate findings on the topic. This is followed by an overview of the concept of complexity, focusing on how it has been defined in the L2 literature. Then, the complexity of the English passive, the target construction of the study, is analyzed in depth, considering the multiple elements entailed in the acquisition of the passive (Han & Lew, 2012).

2.3.1 Empirical Research

To date, several empirical studies have been conducted, in laboratory and classroom settings, which directly compare the relative effectiveness of implicit and explicit FonF on L2 grammar acquisition (e.g., Carroll & Swain, 1993; Muranoi, 2000) or examine whether either type of FonF facilitates it (e.g., Han, 2002; Philp, 2003). In addition, several meta-analyses have attempted to aggregate findings from an otherwise wide array of SLA studies (e.g., Brown, 2014; R. Ellis, 2002b; Lee & Hwang, 2008; Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Norris & Ortega, 2000, 2001; Russell & Spada, 2006; Shintani, 2014; Spada & Tomita, 2010). Together, both the primary and the secondary research has yielded mixed findings, which suggest that both types of FonF, explicit and implicit, have their own particular strengths and weaknesses. Also, their effects seem to be modulated by several learner-internal and external variables, including the nature of the target construction, the extent and intensity of instruction, outcome measures, and learner characteristics (e.g., R. Ellis, 2002; Spada & Tomita, 2010).

Previous research has revealed that implicit FonF generally has a positive, albeit tardy, effect on learning (e.g., Leeman, 2003; Mackey & Goo, 2007). More specifically, implicit FonF procedures appear to be more beneficial than explicit procedures in terms
of engendering form-meaning mappings (e.g., Doughty, 2003; Long, 1996). Furthermore, several studies have shown that complex target constructions or those governed by probabilistic rather than categorical rules are better learned implicitly, embedded in a meaning-based environment (e.g., DeKeyser, 1995; Krashen, 1982; Reber, 1989; Sorace, 2005). However, although Doughty (2001) even appraises implicit FonF such as recasts as a “cognitive window” for L2 acquisition, several researchers (e.g., Lyster, 1998; Sheen, 2004) have pointed out that learners often fail to perceive the provision of implicit FonF. Moreover, research on recasts suggests that learners tend to perceive lexical and phonological recasts better than morpho-syntactic recasts, regardless of the abundance of the latter in a communicative environment (e.g., Han, 2008).

Explicit FonF has also been found to be beneficial, sometimes more beneficial than implicit FonF, particularly in triggering immediate restructuring of mental representations and changes in behavior (e.g., Carroll & Swain, 1993; R. Ellis, et al., 2006; Rosa & Leow, 2004). Yet, several researchers (e.g., Spada, Lightbown, & White, 2005; Williams & Evans, 1998) assert that its effects appear to be limited to the learning of simple target constructions or those governed by categorical rules. In addition, it has been noted that explicit FonF tends to fall short of retaining the competence gained (e.g., Gass & Selinker, 2008; Norris & Ortega, 2000).

Implicit FonF has been receiving constant attention from L2 researchers (e.g., Mackey, 2003; Mackey & Goo, 2007) due to its less obtrusive nature. Yet, research appears to underscore the necessity of explicit FonF, as it is capable of efficiently getting L2 learners to drop non-target-like forms and start using target-like forms (e.g., Doughty, 1991; Fotos & R. Ellis, 1991; Spada & Lightbown, 1993). As previously mentioned, the
fundamental argument for explicit FonF is that, L2 learners, due to maturational
costs and L1 influence, generally have a weak capacity for implicit learning (e.g.,
Han, 2004). More specifically, N. Ellis (2008) claims that what can be acquired implicitly
is “typically quite limited” among older L2 learners without “additional resources of
consciousness and explicit learning” (p. 119). Some researchers (e.g., Carroll, Roberge,
& Swain, 1992; De Graaff, 1997; DeKeyser, 1995; Gass, et al., 2003; Hulstijn & De
Graaff, 1994; Schmidt, 1990) have even gone so far as to state that what can be learned
implicitly are simple morpho-syntactic structures, and the learning of complex structures
has to rely on explicit FonF.

As illustrated in the overview thus far, one of the key issues to consider with
respect to the implicit/explicit debate in SLA is the nature, or complexity, of the target
construction. Indeed, there seems to be a general consensus among L2 researchers that
the complexity of the target construction is one of the main variables that are likely to
determine the effectiveness of a FonF treatment (e.g., R. Ellis, 2002b; Spada & Tomita,
2010). Nonetheless, some researchers (e.g., DeKeyser, 1995; Hulstijn & De Graaff, 1994;
Krashen, 1982; Reber, 1989; Spada, et al., 2005) defined complexity in terms of the
nature of the rules involved in the construction (i.e., probabilistic vs. categorical rules),
and some others (e.g., DeKeyser, 1995; Gass, et al., 2003) in view of the linguistic
domains explored (i.e., vocabulary, morphology, syntax, etc.). Based on a select body of
SLA studies, the few subsequent passages examine the relationship between
implicit/explicit FonF and complexity, focusing on how complexity has been
conceptualized and operationalized in the L2 literature. These studies have been chosen
for review because they present clear criteria to determine complexity, whether it
concerns form, meaning, and function of the target constructions (e.g., Gass, et al., 2003; Williams & Evans, 1998).

Experimenting with eXperanto, an artificial language, De Graaff (1997) found a significantly facilitative effect of computer-assisted explicit FonF on the acquisition of complex syntactic, complex morphological, simple syntactic, and simple morphological constructions. Complexity was defined as the number of different grammatical concepts that have to be taken into account for correctly processing or producing the specific structures (e.g., word order, formality, object topicalization, etc.). Where the two syntactic constructions were concerned, explicit instruction seemed more effective for the complex than simple construction, as revealed by the grammaticality judgment, gap-filling, vocabulary translation, and sentence correction tasks.

Similarly, in a lab setting, using a computer to mediate instruction, Robinson (1996) compared the effects of four different learning conditions—implicit, incidental, rule search, and metalinguistic explanation—on the acquisition of English pseudo-clefts and subject-verb inversion. Based on the number of derivations needed to produce a correct form, the former was judged to be a more complex structure than the latter. Measured by the speed and accuracy of grammaticality judgments, the metalinguistic or explicit FonF condition was, reportedly, significantly more conducive to the learning of subject-verb inversion than the other three conditions. It also seemed more facilitative of the learning of pseudo-clefts when compared to the other three conditions, though the difference did not reach significance. Thus, unlike De Graaff’s (1997) study in which explicit FonF emerged as the ideal strategy for teaching complex structures, Robinson (1996) yielded less clear-cut findings, insofar as explicit FonF was seen as beneficial for
the learning of both simple and complex structures, with greater impact on the simple, than complex, structures.

Studies conducted in classroom settings, likewise, display mixed results. Defining complexity in terms of abstractness and the difference between L1 and L2, Gass, et al. (2003) found that explicit FonF, operationalized as rule explanations plus the provision of exemplars, was the most effective for learning Italian question formation, which was considered the most abstract and complex, less effective for Italian pronouns, and least effective for Italian vocabulary items, which was considered the most “isolatable” (p. 508) and least complex. However, the opposite was found in the implicit FonF condition involving only exposure to input: Implicit FonF was most beneficial for the lexicon, the least complex, but least beneficial for syntax, the most complex.

Such, however, was not the finding of another study. Comparing the effects of recasts (i.e., implicit FonF) and metalinguistic explanation (i.e., explicit FonF) on developmentally early and late constructions, Varnosfadrani and Basturkmen (2009) reported that the developmentally early – presumably simple – constructions such as English definite articles, irregular past tense, and plural –s were better learned explicitly, whereas developmentally late – presumably complex – constructions such as English indefinite articles, regular past tense, relative clauses, active/passive voice, and third person singular –s were better learned implicitly.

Complicating the general picture further, in yet another study conducted by Housen, et al. (2005), explicit FonF, operationalized as C-R with additional pedagogical rule explanations, was found to similarly facilitate the learning of both complex (i.e., the French passive) and simple structures (i.e., the French negation). The complexity of the
target structures was determined on the grounds of their structural and psycholinguistic properties. Furthermore, the instructional benefit was more pronounced in the participants’ unplanned than their planned oral production, suggesting, at least, that explicit FonF promoted implicit knowledge as much as explicit knowledge.

Williams and Evans (1998) compared the effects of recasts (i.e., implicit FonF) and metalinguistic rule explanation (i.e., explicit FonF) on the English passive and participial adjectives. Adopting both pedagogic and linguistic definitions of complexity, the English passive was taken to be more complex than participial adjectives. Results showed, overall, no noticeable difference in the effects of implicit versus explicit FonF on the learning of the passive. However, a closer inspection of the results from two of the measurement tasks, open-ended sentence completion and oral narration, revealed that explicit FonF produced substantial, albeit statistically insignificant, variance between the explicit and the implicit groups. On two other tasks, grammaticality judgment and close-ended sentence completion, explicit FonF had a significant effect on participial adjectives, the putatively less complex target construction. Taken at their abstract, these findings directly conflict with those from the Gass et al.’s (2003) study.

In a study involving younger learners, Spada et al. (2005) engaged Francophone children in a variety of games followed by metalinguistic explanation, over four weeks, three times a week. The targeted structures were English third person singular possessive determiners his and her and question formation. The latter was deemed more complex than the former, based on whether, and if so, how much, derivation is involved in each structure, as well as French-English crosslinguistic conceptual differences. From the participants’ overall performance on the grammaticality judgment and oral and written
production tasks, it appeared that the explicit FonF produced slightly better results for the acquisition of possessive determiners than for question formation. Thus, the pendulum swings back to supporting explicit FonF and its effectiveness for simple rather than complex structures (Cf. Gass et al., 2003).

In sum, the empirical studies to date have not yielded conclusive findings regarding the relationship between implicit/explicit FonF and complexity. On the whole, although there have been several studies including a comparison between implicit and explicit FonF (e.g., Carroll & Swain, 1993; R. Ellis, et al., 2006), only a small number of studies have included both simple and complex target construction (e.g., Gass, et al., 2003; Housen, et al., 2005; Williams & Evans, 1998). Besides, as demonstrated in the review, it seems difficult to congregate the findings of the empirical studies, primarily because of the disparities revealed in the ways in which complexity has been conceptualized. An overview of the various perspectives to define complexity follows in the next section.

2.3.2 Definitions of Complexity

It is generally agreed that not all linguistic constructions are equally susceptible to the impact of FonF (e.g., Doughty & Williams, 1998; Leeman, 2000). In other words, the type or nature of the target construction, which is often conceived of in terms of the level of complexity involved in it, is likely a main factor that determines the success of FonF (e.g., R. Ellis, 2002; Spada & Tomita, 2010). As illustrated in the review of empirical research presented in the previous section, however, the existing studies vary considerably in how they define complexity, depending on whether the perspective taken is linguistic, psycholinguistic, or pedagogical. Although these conceptualizations of
complexity are useful to some extent, they appear to have problems associated with each. In particular, these definitions tend to have a partial view of what *acquisition* entails (i.e., form, meaning, and function) (Larsen-Freeman, 2001).

To begin with, the majority of the existing studies (e.g., Gass, et al., 2003; Housen, et al., 2005; Robinson, 1996) have adopted the linguistic conceptualization, in which complexity is viewed as having to do primarily with the formal or structural operations of a given language structure. Put differently, this perspective concerns the extent to which formal properties are manipulated, such as the number of the transformational or derivational rules that need to be applied to arrive at the grammatically correct form (e.g., Spada & Tomita, 2010). Consequently, in these studies (e.g., Gass, et al., 2003; Spada & Tomita, 2010), morphological features or grammatical functors have generally been defined as simple targets, despite the extremely complicated meanings and/or functions underlying them (e.g., English prepositions and in/definite articles [*a, an, and the*]). On the contrary, syntactic structures or constructions which involve transformations, movements, etc. have almost always been described as complex in nature (e.g., Gass, et al., 2003; Robinson, 1996; Spada & Tomita, 2010; Spada, et al., 2005). Following this line of thought, in a well-known meta-analysis conducted by Spada and Tomita (2010), all the morphological features included were categorized as simple target constructions, whereas all the syntactic structures were defined as complex constructions.

It seems clear that this type of conceptualization is problematic. First, as noted previously, grammatical structures are “about much more than form” (Larsen-Freeman, 1991, p. 251) in that they not only have (morphosyntactic) form but are also used to
express meaning (i.e., semantics) in context-appropriate use (i.e., pragmatics). Second, the findings of SLA research propose that it seems to be morphemes – not syntax and semantics – that appear to be the bottleneck of L2 acquisition (i.e., the Bottleneck Hypothesis) (e.g., Slabakova, 2006, 2008, 2013; Slabakova & Gajdos, 2008). According to Reinhart (2006), the language faculty is composed of such domains as lexicon, semantics, phonetics-phonology, and discourse-pragmatics (i.e., context), with morpho-syntax (e.g., functional lexicon) positioned in the center, functioning as a computational system where syntactic operations combine lexical items into phrases. Thus, morphemes are the linguistic elements in which most language variation is encoded (Slabakova, 2013). Similarly, it has been pointed out that grammatical morphemes encoding novel and abstract notions are likely a long-lasting learnability problem for most L2 learners, due to the underlying interference of their L1-based conceptual systems (e.g., Han, 2008; Slabakova, 2006, 2008, 2013), and tend to be “even strongly resistant to instructional treatments” (DeKeyser, 2005, p. 5).

From the psycholinguistic, or cognitive perspective, complexity is often defined in terms of processability constraints that determine the order of acquisition (Pienemann, 1989). The L2 literature suggests that learners go through a series of predictable stages in L2 development, such that they cannot move forward to the next stage until they are developmentally ready (e.g., Lightbown, 1980; Meisel, et al., 1981; Pienemann, 1989; Ravem, 1973; Schumann, 1979). Accordingly, from this perspective, constructions which tend to be acquired early in the developmental process are defined as complex constructions, whereas those which tend to be acquired late are defined as simple
constructions (e.g., R. Ellis, et al., 2006; Housen, et al., 2005; Varnosfadrani & Basturkmen, 2009).

Although L2 acquisition does occur in a relatively fixed, uniform developmental order and sequence (Pienemann, 1989), the psycholinguistic account for complexity is not without limitations. For example, this perspective does not speak to the idiosyncratic characteristics of L2 acquisition – as opposed to L1 acquisition – such as fossilization (e.g., Han, 2004; Selinker, 1972), variable outcomes (e.g., Bley-Vroman, 1989, 2009), incompleteness (e.g., Schachter, 1988), and selectivity (e.g., Hawkins, 2000). Indeed, Bley-Vroman (1989, 2009) asserts that there are fundamental differences between L1 and L2 acquisition, such as those mentioned above (i.e., the Fundamental Difference Hypothesis), but the psycholinguistic perspective does not take these disparities into account.

The pedagogical perspective tends to associate complexity with the perceived ease or difficulty of learning a target construction, and thus, seems to be a rather subjective conceptualization of complexity (e.g., Robinson, 1996; Williams & Evans, 1998). In order to identify pedagogically complex constructions, an error analysis is usually implemented (i.e., a bottom-up procedure to define complexity), and those which learners fail to use accurately in their production are the constructions considered to be difficult for them to learn. Pedagogical complexity may not be seen as an objective mechanism to examine complexity. As Robinson (2001) points out, a learner’s subjective perception or difficulty is different from complexity which refers to the inherent nature of a given target construction.
Following the three perspectives reviewed thus far, a more integral definition of complexity has been offered by Han and Lew (2012), who suggest that the concept should be viewed as determined by “what is or is not ultimately acquirable” (p. 197). The construct of acquisition is, in turn, construed as a multi-dimensional and unitary process entailing form, meaning, and function and the mappings between them (Larsen-Freeman, 2001). Thus, within this theoretical framework, target constructions that involve complicated meanings and/or functions, though seemingly simple form (e.g., functional morphemes), are defined as complex constructions. In contrast, those with less variable mappings between form, meaning, and function are defined as simple constructions, whether they are morphological features or syntactic structures.

By positing an integrative view of form, meaning, and function to define complexity, the acquisitional perspective allows a more granular analysis of the target construction, enabling the very source of complexity encompassed in it to be teased out, rather than simply judging whether the linguistic target is a simple or complex construction. With regard to the relationship between form, meaning, and function, it is conceived that, developmentally, L2 acquisition proceeds from form, to form-meaning, and then to form-meaning-function mapping (e.g., Han & Lew, 2012; VanPatten, 1996; VanPatten, Williams, Rott, & Overstreet, 2004) (Figure 3). Consequently, the acquisition of form is the least complex, and that of form-meaning-function is the most complex, as it requires coordination of different types of knowledge.
Further support for the acquisitional perspective to define complexity comes from generative SLA research, which has investigated the interfaces involved in the L2 acquisition of syntax (e.g., Sorace, 2005; Sorace & Serratrice, 2009; Tsimpli & Sorace, 2006). According to Sorace (2011), the term ‘interface’ refers to:

Syntactic structures that are sensitive to conditions of varying nature […] and] the meaning of the term therefore denotes the fact that these conditions have to be satisfied in order for the structure to be grammatical and/or felicitous. (Sorace, 2011, p. 6)

Thus, the appropriate use of a syntactic structure depends critically on the interface between the structure and other linguistic domains (e.g., semantics, lexicon, pragmatics, etc.) that define the conditions on its grammaticality and/or felicity (e.g., Jackendoff, 2002; Sorace, 2011). According to several researchers (e.g., Platzack, 2001; Montrul, 2004; Müller & Hulk, 2001; Sorace, 2000, 2003, 2004, 2005; Paradis & Navarro, 2003; Valenzuela, 2006), interfaces are particularly vulnerable to attrition (i.e., the erosion of knowledge), fossilization, and incomplete acquisition in bilingual and L2 acquisition. Valenzuela (2006) even argues that interfaces are an unavoidable locus for non-convergence. Similarly, Sorace (2005) contends, in her Interface Hypothesis, that
language structures involving an interface between syntax and other cognitive domains such as semantics and pragmatics (i.e., interface syntax or soft structure) are less – or possibly never – likely to be acquired completely than structures that do not involve such interface (i.e., narrow syntax or hard structure). Moreover, interfaces (e.g., the syntax-semantics, syntax-pragmatics, etc.) are challenging particularly for older learners, and therefore, subject to greater delays, resulting in residual or persistent optionality at particular developmental stages (e.g., Belletti & Leoni, 2004; Fruit, 2006; Sorace & Filiaci, 2006; Tsimpli & Sorace, 2006; Unsworth, 2004; Valenzuela, 2006).

According to the literature (e.g., Tsimpli & Sorace, 2006; Valenzuela, 2006), not all linguistic interfaces pose the same level of complexity in L2 acquisition. Rather, syntax-pragmatics interface seems to be a source for greater L2 non-convergence, optionality, and instability, as compared to the syntax-semantics interface. Iverson and Rothman (2008) assert that this is not necessarily unpredicted in light of the observations from L1 and bilingual acquisition and the nature of the interface where syntax and discourse structure meet. For example, research has revealed L1 developmental delays and adult variability for monolinguals for properties at the so-called C-domain, the highest structural level of syntax where syntactic and pragmatic levels of grammatical representations have to be coordinated (e.g., Platzack, 2001; Rizzi, 2002). In a similar vein, bilingual studies (e.g., Ramchand & Reiss, 2007; Sorace & Serratrice, 2009; Tsimpli & Sorace, 2006) have suggested a split between phenomena that involve internal formal features and operations within syntax (i.e., internal interface) and phenomena that involve external pragmatic conditions of contextual appropriateness (e.g., external interface); greater incidences of cross-linguistic interference, attrition, and variability
have been found at the external interface (e.g., Fruit, 2006; Montrul, 2004; Müller & Hulk, 2001; Paradis & Navarro, 2003; Tsimpi, et al., 2004; Zapata, Sánchez, & Toribio, 2005).

In short, Tsimpi and Sorace (2006) conclude that the syntax-discourse interface is “a higher level of language use” (p. 653), integrating properties of language and pragmatic processing, whereas syntax-semantics involves formal properties of the language system alone. Since semantic knowledge is mediated by the syntax, it is predicted that properties at the syntax-semantics interface would be easier to acquire than those at the syntax-pragmatics interface, but still harder than properties within the narrow syntax, in light of an added layer of complexity (e.g., Coppieters, 1987; Iverson & Rothman, 2008).

As stated earlier, acquisitional complexity is determined by “what is or is not ultimately acquirable” (Han & Lew, 2012, p. 197), and thus, it is inherently intertwined with the notion of fossilization. Theoretically, acquisition – and for that matter, fossilization – refers to an end-state of L2 learning (Han, 2009), and as such, acquisitional complexity is distinct from developmental complexity, which concerns “the capacity to use more advanced language” (R. Ellis, 2009b, p. 475). Han and Lew (2012) describe the differences between the two on a few grounds, which shed significant implications for future research, including the present dissertation.

First, as previously mentioned, the basic unit of acquisitional complexity is a unity of form, meaning, and/or function (e.g., Larsen-Freeman, 2001), whereas developmental complexity, as reviewed earlier in this section, have sought to focus mostly on formal manipulations (e.g., Gass, et al., 2003; Housen, et al., 2005; Spada, et
Thus, the outcome measures employed in intervention studies to evaluate learners’ IL development need to be created to tap into acquisition. In other words, acquisitionally complex L2 constructions can only be truly identified in learners’ spontaneous production, not in “language-like performance” such as testing conditions (Han & Lew, 2012, p. 200).

Second, the researchers point out that, whereas developmental complexity is dynamic, concerned with the transitional features of the developing grammar, acquisitional complexity is static in that it addresses non-target-like features of long-term stabilization in a putative end-state grammar. Thus, acquisitionally complex L2 constructions can be observed after extended and sustained experiences with the L2. Moreover, while developmental complexity can be, and has been, measured in terms of quantity (e.g., T-unit), acquisitional complexity needs to be judged by its temporality (i.e., the relative time it takes to acquire a given target construction) and durability (i.e., persistence of deviance into end-state grammars). By the same token, whereas developmental complexity can be measured at one point in time, acquisitional complexity must be measured over time via longitudinal tracking.

Third, it is stated that acquisition – and fossilization – is an idiosyncratic phenomenon, which means that it affects individual learners differently (e.g., Han, 2004; Han & Lew, 2012; Selinker, 1992). Thus, the construct of acquisitional complexity does not measure up with external, universal yardsticks such as those used for evaluating developmental complexity (e.g., the length of T-unit). Instead, an adequate study considering acquisitional complexity can occur only if it is linked up with the factors
controlling learnability, for example, the quantity and quality of the L2 input and the relationship between the L1 and TL.

With respect to the third point, Han and Lew (2012) propose a theoretical model to analyze acquisitional complexity based on the ideas of Han’s (2009) Selective Fossilization. The literature shows that fossilization is selective, occurring in some, rather than all, subsystems of the IL (e.g., Han, 2004; Hawkins, 2000; Lardiere, 2007; Sorace, 2005). According to Han (2009), such selectivity can largely be predicted, as well as accounted for, in terms of (1) the status of the L1 construction, which can be marked or unmarked (i.e., markedness), and (2) the nature of the L2 input, which can be robust or non-robust (i.e., robustness). The dimension of L1 markedness is conceived of as a composite of two sub-variables, frequency and variability (Panel a in Figure 4). The former simply refers to the number of times that the particular form appears or is used in the L1, hence being a surface and relatively static attribute, whereas the latter refers to the number of variants with which the form may be associated, which can be linked to its distributional patterns in discourse, hence being a deeper attribute. As illustrated in Panel a in Figure 4, a marked L1 construction is one that is infrequent and variable, while an unmarked L1 construction is one that is frequent and consistent. Similarly, L2 input robustness is comprised of two sub-dimensions, frequency and variability (Panel b in Figure 4). High frequency and low variability would render the input robust; conversely, low frequency and high variability would render the input non-robust. However, both dimensions for L2 robustness are different from their counterparts for L1 markedness, since they are meant to apply to the L2 input that the learners are exposed to rather than what is in the L2 in general.
The two broad variables, L1 markedness and L2 input robustness, along with their four sub-variables (i.e., +/- frequency and +/- variability), intersect to create four zones (Panel c in Figure 4), among which there is an acquisition zone (II) and a fossilization zone (IV) (Han, 2009; Han & Lew, 2012). Thus, following these categorizations, predictions can be made about the acquisitional complexity of specific linguistic constructions. Constructions that fall into the fossilization zone (Zone IV) are putatively the most complex; conversely, those in the acquisition zone (Zone II) are the least complex. Constructions falling into the remaining two zones (Zone I and III), on the other hand, can go either way. That is, they are either acquirable or fossilizable depending on the use of pedagogical interventions and individual learner variables such as working memory and sensitivity. At the same time, such analyses of acquisitional complexity allow predictions on differential degrees of complexity vis-à-vis specific linguistic constructions within each of the four zones of complexity, based on the breadth of the concentric circles created on the intersected axes of L1 markedness and L2 robustness.

Figure 4
An Analytic Model of Acquisitional Complexity (Han & Lew, 2012)
Using this analytic model, the next section presents an in-depth analysis of the complexity of the English passive, the target construction of the present study.

2.4 The English Passive

In light of acquisitional complexity described in the previous section, this section analyzes the complexity of the English passive, the target construction of the present study, as acquired by L1 Korean learners. As previously mentioned, the existing studies tend to have equated complexity with “complexity of form” (DeKeyser, 2005, p.3), or the extent to which the morphological or syntactic properties are manipulated (e.g., Gass, et al., 2003; Housen, et al., 2005; Spada & Tomita, 2010). The English passive has not been an exception. To date, several studies (e.g., Izumi & Lakshmanan, 1998; Kuiken & Vedder, 2002; S. Lee, 2007; Mirdamadi & Jong, 2015; Yang, 2011; Yeo, 2002) have acknowledged the challenge involved in the learning of the passive. However, the analysis of the complexity of the passive, and hence the scope of pedagogical treatment and measurement tasks, have been limited to the manipulation of the form of the passive. As a result, Lee (2007) even stated that “constructing the passive voice in English is relatively simple and straightforward” (p. 98).

However, considering what acquisition entails (Han & Lew, 2012) elaborated in the preceding section, the passive appears to be an extremely complex target construction (Hinkel, 2002). Moreover, its complex nature is not derived from the mere formal properties, but from its complex form, meaning, and function and the intricate mappings between them (Han & Lew, 2012; Larsen-Freeman, 2001). The passive encompasses a particularly complex syntax-pragmatics interface, which, according to Sorace (2005), is more vulnerable to fossilization than the syntax-semantics interface or morpho-syntactic
properties, even in advanced L2 learners. Also, the syntax-pragmatics interface is highly vulnerable to transfer, and thus, the typological proximity between Korean and English vis-à-vis the passive is likely to pose even greater challenge for the learners.

To provide an in-depth analysis of the complexity of the passive, this section is organized as follows. It first describes the form, meaning, and function (i.e., acquisition) of the English passive, as well as the linguistic interfaces encompassed in them. Next, the nature of the Korean passive is examined, followed by a description of specific transfer phenomena commonly observed in the L1 Korean learners acquiring the L2 English passive. Then, considering the nature of the passive that has been described, a genre analysis is presented with respect to the use of the passive.

2.4.1 Acquisition

2.4.1.1 Form. In terms of morpho-syntax (i.e., form), passives in English have the passive participle as the core element, and because the participles are not finite verbs, another verb, usually a be-auxiliary, is needed to encode tense and agreement in the clause (e.g., Wanner, 2009). In a similar vein, participles cannot assign case in passive sentences. Accordingly, if there is a noun phrase that depends on the verb to be assigned case (i.e., patient), it will have to move to the subject position (Figure 5), which, in the case of an unaccusative construction, is empty and therefore can be filled by movement (e.g., Burzio, 1986; Carnie, 2007; Haegeman & Guéron, 1999). However, there are instances where movement is not motivated as the subject position can also be filled with a non-thematic element (e.g., it was explained that . . .). The agent, on the other hand, is introduced in a by-phrase, but such a prepositional agent phrase is an optional element in a passive sentence (e.g., Wang, 2010).
Figure 5
Crosswise Realization of Arguments in a Passive Sentence (Quirk, et al., 1985)

Figure 6 presents the distributional categories of the form of the passive targeted in the present study. According to the literature (Dorgeloh & Wanner, 2003; Swale, 1990), passives serve as a useful device to describe “reported events” (Wanner, 2009, p. 172), or factual information about what has been done. Thus, the present study examined three combinations of tense and aspect, including present perfect, past simple, and present simple, with each category constituting about 30% of the treatment materials and measurement tasks. Each combination of tense and aspect was further combined with singular and plural subjects to examine the subject-verb agreement involved in the passive phrases.

In addition, the passive is frequently used as a strategy that allows language users to avoid mentioning the agent (Wanner, 2009). Indeed, several corpus analyses (e.g., Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999; McEnery & Xiao, 2005; Svartvik, 1966) confirm that the majority of passives are short passives without a by-phrase.

Examining the Survey of English Usage which includes 323,000 words of various genres of texts, Svartvik (1966) reports the centrality of the short passives (74%) as opposed to the long passives (26%). Furthermore, Biber, et al. (1999) show that the short form of the be-passive is over eight times as frequent as its long form in the Freiburg-LOB Corpus of British English (FLOB). The contrast is even more clear in McEnery & Xiao’s (2005)
analysis of the British National Corpus (BNC), which reveals that the short form of the be-passive is over 18 times as frequent as their long forms. As illustrated in Figure 6, this distributional pattern of the passives was also reflected in the materials used in the present study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense &amp; Aspect</th>
<th>Present simple (31%)</th>
<th>is pp (23%) &amp; are pp (10%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Past simple (36%)</td>
<td>was pp (32%) &amp; were pp (4%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present perfect (33%)</td>
<td>has been pp (20%) &amp; have been pp (11%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Short vs. Long passives    | Passives without a by-phrase (77%) |
|----------------------------| Passives with a by-phrase (23%)    |

Figure 6
Form of the Passive

2.4.1.2 Meaning. With regard to semantics (i.e., meaning), it is posited that the propositional content of the passive sentence is generally the same as that of the active sentence (e.g., Wanner, 2009). In other words, passivization does not change the aspectual structure of a clause. If the active has an agent, the passive will also have an agent, but in the passive, the external argument is either realized inside a by-phrase or becomes an implicit argument (e.g., Quirk, et al., 1985). For example, the passive sentence in Figure 5 presented above conveys the same semantic message as its active counterpart, and the role of the agent (i.e., John) and patient (i.e., Mary) does not change as a result of passivization.

The passive, just as the active, conveys the lexical meaning derived from the meaning of the verb being used (i.e., past participle). Yet, researchers (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999; Larsen-Freeman, 2001) point out that the passive conveys more important, grammatical meaning, which concerns thematic role prominence. English is a
subject-prominent language in which the grammatical subject denotes the topic of the sentence or what the sentence is about (Li & Thompson, 1976). Accordingly, on the sentential level, the passive voice has the patient or theme of the verb as its topic, whereas the active voice focuses on the agent. Taking an example from the treatment materials used in the study, the following two sentences share the same truth value, such that if sentence (a) is true, then sentence (b) is also true, and vice versa (Quirk, et al., 1985; Wanner, 2009):

a. Present Park Geun-Hye’s mother was killed by a North Korean spy.

b. A North Korean spy killed President Park Geun-Hye’s mother.

However, sentence (a) assigns the prominent thematic role to President Park Geun-Hye (i.e., patient of the verb), whereas sentence (b) assigns it to a North Korean spy (i.e., agent of the verb).

2.4.1.3 Function. Researchers (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999; Wanner, 2009) note that the passive is “a stylistic device” (p. 1) that rearranges the major constituents in a sentence. In other words, the use of the passive is often seen as optional, decided by the context and the relevant communicative function. According to the literature (e.g., Givon, 1979; Jespersen, 1965; Shibatani, 1985), the passive carries three main pragmatic functions (i.e., defocusing of the agent, role prominence of the patient/theme, and topic continuity).

To begin with, Shibatani (1985) claims that “the primary function of the passives is that of agent defocusing” (p. 830, emphasis added). More specifically, passives are used because the agent of an action is unknown, cannot easily be said, or should not be
mentioned, or is not considered important or self-evident from the context. In this case, the *by*-phrase of the passive is preferably deleted, as shown in sentence (c).

c. *People want to be heard.* (FROWN; A13)

On the contrary, several researchers (e.g., W. Jung, 2005; Schachter, 1977; Riddle & Sheintuch, 1983; Wanner, 2009) argue that the passive can be best understood in terms of *role prominence*, which refers to the property associated with the participant(s) that the speaker views as “being at the center of events in the situation being described” (Riddle & Sheintuch, 1983, p. 546). Put differently, there are passives whose main function is to allow the expression of a non-agent sentence topic (i.e., topicalization), such as sentence (d).

d. *The cavalcade had been delayed by the police.* (Thompson, 1987)

In addition, passives are often used to maintain topic continuity or coherence on the contextual level (e.g., Biber, et al., 1999; Givón, 1993; McEnery & Xiao, 2005; Wanner, 2009), as illustrated in sentence (e) and (f). Jespersen (1972) asserts that, by allowing a non-agent to be realized in the unmarked topic position, the passive “may facilitate the connection of one sentence with another” (p. 168). Other researchers (e.g., Biber, et al., 1999; Chafe, 1970) note that the patient of the (short) passive normally conveys “old information,” whereas the agent expressed in the *by*-phrase in the long passive often introduces “new information” (Wanner, 2009, p. 10). According to Biber, et al. (1999), more than 90% of the agent phrases in the passives in corpora bring in new information.
e. *I need your essays by Friday. Late submissions will not be accepted.* (Wanner, 2009)

f. *I was a young Columbia man while I worked in a cafeteria from 6:30 A.M. to 3:00 P.M. I was much respected by the management, even though I drove the people I worked with insane, because I had standards they couldn’t cope with.* (Thompson, 1987)

Despite the distinct accounts presented above, however, it appears to be difficult to conceive of the three functions of the passive completely apart from each other. For example, Shibatani (1985), who asserts that the primary function of the passive is defocusing (of the agent), does not neglect the function of role prominence (of the patient). If a non-agent is to be the topic of the sentence, the agent, the semantically most prominent argument (Grimshaw, 1990), is not to be realized in the syntactically most prominent position. As a result, the less topical agent is moved out of the subject position, or does not need to be realized overtly at all (Van Oosten, 1985).

Considering such ambiguity, the present study attempted to establish a more solid conceptualization of the functions of the passive based on the following logic of thoughts: As pointed out earlier, in English, the subject is typically the topic of the sentence (e.g., Givon, 1979; Jespersen, 1965; Quirk, et al., 1985; Wanner, 2009), in the sense that it is the entity that the sentence is about (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). Thus, passives are used “to code sentences in the context in which the non-agent is more topical” (Givon, 1979), and this function of topicalization is posited to be inherent in every passive construction. Furthermore, the topicalized non-agent connects with the previous sentence and serves “the discourse functions of cohesion and contextual fit” through ordering (i.e., agent and patient/theme) and omission (i.e., *By*-phrases) of
information (Biber, et al., 1999, p. 935). Therefore, passives are costly in terms of sentence comprehension – i.e., they are marked forms (Lambrecht, 1994; Wanner, 2009) – but these costs are balanced out by a better fit between informational or discourse status and syntactic structure (i.e., coherence). Finally, the defocusing function is considered in relation to the distinction between agentless and agented passives, because, whereas the agent in short passives is defocused, the agent in long passives usually carries “non-derivable” information (Wanner, 2009, p. 39).

As demonstrated in Figure 7, this conceptualization resulted in three categories of the functions of the passive: Function 1 (F1) [+Topicalization, – Coherence, +Defocusing], Function 2 (F2) [+Topicalization, + Coherence, +Defocusing], and Function 3 (F3) [+Topicalization, + Coherence, -Defocusing]. Based on the findings of the literature (e.g., Svartvik, 1966) that reveal the predominant use of short passives for the purpose of maintaining coherence (F2) in written English, the passive tokens in the treatment materials and measurement tasks in the present study were created to concern different percentages of the three categories.
2.4.1.4 Linguistic Interfaces. As noted previously, acquisitional complexity posits that acquisition involves the mappings between form, meaning, and function encompassed in the target construction (Han & Lew, 2012; Larsen-Freeman, 2001). This section presents a brief summary of the form-meaning-function mappings involved in the passive targeted in the present study.

In terms of form, the study examined the canonical morpho-syntactic structure of the passive construction (i.e., \textit{BE}-auxiliary + past participle + optional \textit{by}-phrase) used with the three combinations of tense and aspect described in the previous section (i.e., present simple, past simple, and present perfect). Each of the different forms of the passive was posited to include both lexical and grammatical meaning. Lexical meaning is derived from the meaning of the verb used in the passive construction, as well as the relationship between the arguments (i.e., agent and patient) involved in the verb. Grammatical meaning concerns thematic role prominence, whereby the patient or theme of the action becomes the topic of the sentence. With respect to function, the study investigated whether the passive constructions were used appropriately in the given contexts to serve the three aforementioned hierarchical categories of functions (i.e., F1, F2, and F3) comprised of topicalization, coherence, and defocusing.

Based on the ideas of acquisitional complexity (Han & Lew, 2012) and the Interface Hypothesis (Sorace, 2005) that L2 acquisition proceeds from form, to form-meaning, and then to form-meaning-function mapping (Figure 3), it was hypothesized that the form of the passive would be the least complex, and thus most acquirable. In contrast, the mappings between the form, meaning, and function of the passive were thought to be more complex, and thus more likely to be susceptible to fossilization.
In other words, using Sorace’s (2005) terms, the passive is interface syntax (i.e., soft structure) – as opposed to narrow syntax (i.e., hard structure) – that involves interfaces between the domains of morpho-syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. It encompasses a particularly complex syntax-pragmatics interface, as it serves as “a stylistic device” (Wanner, 2009, p. 1) to maintain or change the topic in the given context. As previously mentioned, this interface is likely to pose greater vulnerability to persistent or residual optionality, even in advanced L2 learners (Robertson & Sorace, 1999; Sorace, 1999, 2003; Tsimpli, Sorace, Heycock, Filiaci, & Bouba, 2003).

2.4.2 Acquisitional Complexity

In this section, the complexity of the English passive is examined more systematically through an analytic model of fossilization (Han, 2009). As described previously, selectivity of fossilization is determined by (1) the markedness of the learners’ L1 and (2) the robustness of the L2 input which the learners are exposed to (Han, 2009; Han & Lew, 2012). In turn, each of these two dimensions is described in terms of the two sub-dimensions of frequency and variability.

2.4.2.1 The Korean Passive. Typologically, Korean is categorized as a topic-prominent language, which organizes its syntax to emphasize the distinction between the topic (i.e., theme) and the comment (i.e., what is said about the topic) in the sentence structure (Li & Thompson, 1976). Topic-prominent languages share several common syntactic features. To name a few, they normally allow sentences with double subjects (i.e., a topic plus a subject), and the distinction between the subject and the object is usually not reliably marked. Also, they do not have dummy subjects and articles. In
addition, topic-comment languages tend to downplay the role of the passive voice, because the main idea of passivization is to turn an object into a subject in languages in which the subject is understood to be the topic by default (i.e., subject-prominent languages such as English).

However, SLA researchers who have investigated the L1 Korean learners’ acquisition of the English passive claim that the passive is in fact more pervasive in Korean than in English (e.g., Davison, 1980; W. Jung, 1998, 1999, 2005; Park, 2009). They contend that this is due to the prevalence of the emotional (affective) function of the passive in Korean, as it frequently uses the passive to express emotional (i.e., adversative or sympathetic) connotations even where English uses the active. Moreover, whereas English expresses subjective feelings usually by means of the GET-passive (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1983; Chappell, 1980) – though a few researchers disagree (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002; Villalibre, 2015; Wanner, 2009) – in Korean, any type of passives can be used to express subjective feelings or emotions (e.g., Davison, 1980; W. Jung, 1998, 1999, 2005; C. Lee, 1974).

With regard to formation, passive constructions in Korean include two types: (1) lexical passives and (2) syntactic passives (Chae, 2003; Park, 2009). Lexical passives are formed by adding a passive morpheme (e.g., an affix such as –i, -hi, -li, and –ki) to a verb. On the other hand, syntactic passives are formed by either using an auxiliary verb ci-, or using a verbal noun (VN) or a passive light verb (PLV) (e.g., toy-, pat- and tangha-).

g. be closed            be broken            be watched
   tat-hi-ta              khay-ci-ta            kamsi-toy-ta
According to Davison (1980), lexical passives tend to more consistently convey an adversative or favorable effect. However, the affective function of the passive in Korean is reflected in all types of passives (e.g., Davison, 1980; Park, 2009). Moreover, Jung (1998, 1999) claims that the different types of the passives in Korean express different degrees of adversative connotations. For example, the toy-passive is the least adversative or close to neutral, the tangha-passive the most negative, and the pat-passive in between.

h. *Tom-un hyeppak-toy-essta.
   Tom-TOP threaten-PASS-PAST Tom was threatened.

   Tom-un hyeppak-pat-assta.
   Tom-TOP threaten-PASS-PAST Tom got threatened.

   Tom-un hyeppak-tangha-yssta.
   Tom-TOP threaten-PASS-PAST Tom was threatened against his wishes.

These arguments revealed by the literature (e.g., W. Jung, 1998, 2005; Park, 2009) confirm that the passive in Korean is a frequent construction, used in various forms. Thus, applying this nature ([+frequent, +variable]) to the analytic model of fossilization (Panel a in Figure 8), the passive in Korean appears to be quite unmarked in nature.

2.4.2.2 The English Passive. The robustness of the English passive constructions which the learners were exposed to was examined by analyzing the textbook used in the learners’ regular English classes. Although the textbook may not have been the only source of input for most of the learners, textbooks are still used as a main source of instruction in many EFL classrooms. The textbook (Shin, 2016) comprised seven units, and each unit provided a text for reading comprehension and a script for listening
comprehension as main input. In the entire texts for reading comprehension and scripts for listening comprehension (6743 words in total), only 48 tokens of the passive were found (i.e., a frequency ratio of 1/140). Yet, the passive constructions exhibited relatively high variability in terms of the presence or absence of the BE-auxiliary and the by-phrase, the types of past participles (i.e., regular or irregular), and the combinations of tense and aspect used in them.

Similar observations have been reported by Jung (2007), who sought to analyze the English passive constructions in 30 secondary-level English textbooks published in South Korea. The criteria for the analyses included sufficiency, sequencing, variety, interest, authenticity, and appropriateness. The results revealed that the subtypes of the passive included in the textbooks (e.g., canonical passives, modal passives, progressive passives, present perfect passives, GET-passives, infinitive passives, interrogative passives, etc.) were generally substantial enough to fully understand the nature of the passive, and that the various subtypes of were sequenced reasonably. However, the textbooks were found to contain non-authentic language patterns such as a wrong choice of verb and collocation problems. More importantly, they demonstrated not only heavy reliance on sentence-level mechanical practices, particularly conversion exercises, but a lack of attention paid to function-oriented instruction on the passive. Put differently, the textbooks included various subtypes of the passive construction but an insufficient number of tokens (and meaningful exercises) for each subtype, particularly with reference to the function or use, of the passive.

Based on these findings, the English passive constructions which the learners were exposed to were posited to be sufficient in terms of variability [+variable] but
insufficient in terms of frequency [-frequency]. Thus, applying these estimations to the analytic model of fossilization (Panel b in Figure 8), the passives as target input appear to be non-robust in nature.

The non-robust nature of the target input, together with the quite unmarked nature of the L1, renders the English passive as learned by the Korean EFL learners complex, as it falls in the fossilization zone (Zone IV) in the analytic model of fossilization (Panel c in Figure 8).

![Figure 8](image)  
Acquisitional Complexity of the English Passive (adapted from Han & Lew, 2012)

### 2.4.3 Transfer

This section provides an additional analysis of the complexity of the passive by examining transfer phenomena. As noted previously, linguistic constructions on the syntax-semantics and/or syntax-pragmatics interfaces such as the passive tend to be less acquirable, but more vulnerable to L1 transfer (e.g., Han, 2008; Kellerman, 1995; Sorace, 2005; VanPatten, 1996). Similarly, UG-based studies suggest that there is a greater possibility for transfer if the learners’ L1 (i.e., superset) includes more parameters than the L2 (e.g., subset), and if positive evidence does not suffice to provide adequate information about the L2 (e.g., Eckman, 1977; White, 1991). Korean and English vis-à-
vis the passive construction appear to have such relationships, because, as addressed previously, Korean exhibits greater variability with regard to the formation of the passive (i.e., superset) (e.g., Chae, 2003; Davison, 1980; W. Jung, 1998, 1999; Park, 2009), whereas the English passive constructions which the Korean EFL learners are exposed to tend to be non-robust (e.g., W. Jung, 2007). Thus, an examination of potential transfer phenomena appears to be necessary for understanding the complexity of the passive. This section reviews three phenomena commonly observed in L1 Korean learners’ acquisition of the English passive, including overpassivization, pseudo-passives, and malformed passive constructions.

2.4.3.1 Overpassivization. The literature (e.g., Hwang, 1999; Ju, 2000; J. Lee, 2010; Montrul, 1999; Oshita, 2001; Shin, 2011; Zobl, 1989) shows that L2 learners of English tend to overuse passive structures of intransitive verbs. Among intransitives, learners often overpassivize unaccusative verbs such as *grow* and *happen*, whose subjects lack volition or go through a change (e.g., Van Valin, 1990; Shin, 2011), but not unergative verbs such as *walk* and *talk*, whose subjects take the role of the agent (e.g., Ju, 2000).

Various accounts have been proposed for the overpassivization of unaccusative verbs. According to the Causativization Hypothesis, the most widely accepted position in the field, incorrect lexical causativization is the primary source of overpassivization (e.g., Balcom, 1997; Ju, 2000; Montrul, 1999; Yip, 1995). More specifically, it is posited that L2 learners first create a non-target causative construction with unaccusative verbs by adding a causer of the event, which then is passivized, as illustrated in the following sentences (J. Lee, 2010).
i. Someone *happened* the accident.* (overcausativization)
The accident *was happened* (by someone).* (passivization) (J. Lee, 2010)

Unaccusative verbs describe a spontaneously occurring situation (e.g., Haspelmath, 1993) or internally caused eventuality (e.g., Levin & Rappaport Hovav, 1995). However, L2 learners, in the absence of knowledge on this semantic property of unaccusative verbs, posit an external causer, which results in non-target causative sentences (J. Lee, 2010). Once the causative is generated, the syntactic movement of passivization in itself is legitimate. Thus, according to this logic, unaccusatives with passive morphology is a genuine passive construction and the problem occurs at the lexical level rather than syntactic level (Ju, 2000; J. Lee, 2010; Oshita, 2000; Shin, 2011).

An alternative account for overpassivization is the NP-movement Marker Hypothesis, which proposes that what is overgeneralized is not a lexical causative structure but the passive morphology marking a syntactic movement (e.g., Harakawa, 1995; J. Lee, 2010; Oshita, 2000; Zobl, 1989). According to this view, L2 learners correctly project a single argument of an unaccusative verb in the object position and then move it to the subject position. The problem occurs when the *BE*-auxiliary is added as an indicator of the syntactic movement, probably because of an incorrect analogy with agentless passives which also involves an NP-argument movement from the object to the subject position (J. Lee, 2010). However, the overpassivized sentence is different from a genuine passive in that it does not have any external argument suppressed.

j. Ø *happened* the accident. (target-like argument structure)
The accident *was happened.* (insertion of *be* as a movement marker) (Lee, 2010)
On the other hand, Shin (2011) and Ju (2000) found that learners tend to accept passivized unaccusative verbs involving external causation (i.e., which have the agent or cause available), such as sentence (k), more than those involving internal causation, such as sentence (l). This implies that L2 learners may rely on conceptualizable agents in the discourse, rather than on lexico-semantic or syntactic knowledge, when they overuse the passive.

k. Heavy trucks put more and more pressure on the bridge. (externally caused) It broke/was broken gradually.

l. The wooden bridge was very old. (internally caused) It broke/was broken gradually. (Ju, 2000)

Another source for overpassivization is attributed to the role of animacy in determining the predicate-argument relationship (e.g., Croft, 1990; Hinkel, 2002; Montrul, 1999; Oshita, 2001; Zobl, 1989). According to Croft’s (1990) animacy hierarchy (i.e., human>animate>inanimate>abstract entities), a human agent is the least marked syntactic subject, whereas inanimate or abstract entities, present in unaccusative constructions, are the most marked ones. Therefore, learners often reject non-agent subjects for unaccusatives and show a tendency to passivize the verbs to mark the special status of the inanimate subject (e.g., Montrul, 1999; Oshita, 2001; Zobl, 1989).

Several researchers (e.g., Hinkel, 2002; Master, 1991; Palmer, 1994) claim that speakers of Asian languages may experience particular difficulty with sentences including inanimate subjects and active verbs (e.g., the tree leaf is falling, the coffee spilled, etc.). The reason is that, in these languages, passive verbs are used in sentences in which the subject is usually required to be sentient or occupy a higher position in the
animacy hierarchy. Moreover, Korean requires most unaccusative verbs to be marked by either passive or stative morphemes (e.g., -i, -hi, gi, -u, -gu, -ci, -chu, etc.) (No & Chung, 2006; Park, 2009). Consequently, Korean EFL learners tend to passivize non-alternating unaccusative verbs such as disappear and fall and alternating unaccusative verbs such as break, change, close which inherently include such derivational passive morphemes when translated into Korean (e.g., Ju, 2000; J. Lee, 2007; Shin, 2011).

m. *The coin was disappeared. (J. Lee, 2007)
   Tongcen-i sara-ci-essta

Similarly, Oshita (2000) asserts that passive unaccusative errors are extremely prevalent in speakers of languages without a compound tense and aspect system, a common characteristic of topic-comment languages such as Korean (Li & Thompson, 1976, 1981).

Yet another factor contributing to Korean learners’ overuse of the English passive is the prevalence of affective functions of the Korean passive. As previously mentioned, the literature (e.g., Davison, 1980; W. Jung, 1998, 1999, 2005; C. Lee, 1974) suggests that the passives in Korean express some degree of subjective feeling or emotion. In the following example from Jung (1998), the English sentence Mary caught a cold corresponds to the Korean expression presented below it. This example shows that Korean uses the passive in the case where the emotional (sympathetic) connotation is reflected, even when English uses the active.

n. Mary caught a cold.
   Mary-nun kamki-e kel-li-essta.
   Mary-TOP cold-by catch-PASS-PAST. Mary got caught by a cold.
Moreover, as described previously, in Korean, any type of the passive (i.e., lexical and syntactic) can be used to express subjective feeling or emotion (e.g., Davison, 1980; W. Jung, 1998, 1999). As a result, Korean EFL learners tend to overpassivize a sentence that carries an adversative connotation (e.g., Davison, 1980; W. Jung, 1998, 1999). Jung (2005) proposes that, for L1 Korean learners, emotional functional errors seem to be more predominant than discourse functional errors (e.g., topic continuity or coherence), with the most common case being the passivization of the intransitive verbs happen and occur (W. Jung, 2005).

2.4.3.2 Pseudo-passives. Another transfer phenomenon commonly observed in the acquisition of the English passive is the so-called pseudo-passive, an IL structure the intended form/meaning of which is assumed to be that of the passivized construction in English (Han, 2000; Schachter & Rutherford, 1979; Simargool, 2008; Yip, 1995; Yip & Mathews, 1995).

Several researchers (Han, 2000; Schachter & Rutherford, 1979; Thompson, 1978) claim that the IL pseudo-passive is a carryover of L1 function-form characteristics, and hence, a type of discourse-syntactic transfer. As stated previously, Korean is categorized
typologically as a topic-comment language (Li & Thompson, 1976, 1981), the main characteristics of which include the suppression of the non-essential subject and the deletion of co-referential pronominal topic (e.g., Han, 2000). Also, a topic-comment language is structured in a pragmatic word order (e.g., Simargool, 2008), which allows constituents in a sentence to move relatively freely, whereas a subject-verb language such as English organizes its syntax to emphasize the grammatical subject. Thus, pseudo-passives are produced when Korean EFL learners transfer their L1 discourse structure to L2 English, as demonstrated in the following examples (Yip, 1995; Yip & Mathews, 1995; Simargool, 2008):

q. L1 Topic --- Comment
   L2 NP (topic) --- [null subject] + VP

r. *Most of food which is served in this restaurant have cooked already.
   [TOPIC Most of food which is served in this restaurant], (they) [PRONOUN have cooked already]. (Simargool, 2008)

In terms of syntax, Zobl (1989) points out that such discourse-syntax mapping leads learners to avail themselves of certain L2 syntactic representations such as NP-movement. Also, English passives allow the suppression of the agent NP, which is convenient for the Korean learners to use, because the same is permitted by their L1 discourse syntax. With regard to semantics, passivization affects the usual thematic structure such that the semantic relation between the NP in the subject position and the passive verb becomes “less tight” (i.e., a marked structure as opposed to an active sentence) (Han, 2000, p. 99). This might appear to the learners to resemble the relationship between topic and comment in their L1 (Han, 2000). As for pragmatics, as described previously, the English passive has a thematizing function (i.e., role
prominence) in that it allows the foregrounding of the predicate (i.e., the verb and its internal argument) (Thompson, 1978). Thus, it is “conveniently used for constructions in which the active subject would be an inanimate or inert entity” (Lehmann, 1978, p. 208). This function of the passive appears to be maintained in pseudo-passives, in which the missing subject is interpreted as referring to one or people in general (Yip & Matthews, 1995, p.23).

2.4.3.3 Malformed Passive Constructions. In addition to the over- and underuse errors of the passives described in the previous sections, Korean learners tend to produce a variety of malformed passive constructions. For example, they often omit the BE-auxiliary, fail to mark tense, aspect, and subject-verb agreement correctly (e.g., Kim, 2002; Yeo, 2002), and have difficulty using correct forms of the past participles (e.g., Kim, 2002; S. Lee, 2007; Park, 2009; Yeo, 2002). As indicated previously, Korean, a topic-comment language, tends to lack a compound tense and aspect system comparable to that in English, a subject-verb language (Oshita, 2000). Consequently, Korean learners generally exhibit low sensitivity to the morphological and syntactic elements involved in verb phrases such as those mentioned above, frequently producing malformed passive constructions such as the following:

s. *The dish was broke. (Park, 2009)
*He was offer the job but did not accept it. (S. Lee, 2007)
*Snow boarding considered as the most exciting winter sport among teens. (S. Lee, 2007)

In relation to proficiency levels, Park (2009) notes that Korean EFL learners of lower proficiency tend to produce more pseudo-passives, malformed passives, and overpassivization errors than those of higher proficiency, but that the latter still tend to
produce overpassivization errors. In addition, the L2 literature (e.g., Keatinge, & Keßler, 2009; S. Lee, Miyata, & Ortega, 2008) reveals that the acquisition of the passive voice shows a particular developmental route, starting with the use of the active voice, pseudo-passives, passive voice, overpassivization, and then the mastery of unaccusativity.

2.4.4 Genre-based Analysis

According to Swale (2009), genre plays an important role in L2 instruction because they involve particular communicative purposes to accomplish and outcomes. Based on this suggestion, this section presents a brief analysis of genres in which the passive is used most frequently. Several corpus analyses (e.g., Biber, 1988; Carter & McCarthy, 2004; Xiao, McEnery, & Qian, 2005) reveal that the passives are used more than twice as frequently in written English (e.g., Freiburg-LOB Corpus of British English; FLOB) as in spoken English (e.g., British National Corpus online demo; BNCdemo). More specifically, genres exhibiting high frequency of passives are typically abstract and technical in content, as well as formal in style, the most common examples of which are scientific reports, press reportage, and editorials (e.g., Biber, 1988; Carter & McCarthy, 2004; Xiao, et al., 2005). The focus of these genres is usually on the experiment, news, or issue being described (i.e., patient or theme), not the agent involved in them (e.g., Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999; W. Jung, 2005, 2006; Wanner, 2009). Also, these genres by convention tend to avoid the use of I. Thus, the passive voice is likely to be a useful device in these genres, considering its main pragmatic functions of role prominence (of the patient or theme), coherence, and defocusing (of the agent) described previously.
2.5 General Research Question

With a view to contributing to the long-lasting debate over the relationship between implicit/explicit FonF and complexity, the present study investigated the differential effects of implicit and explicit FonF on L1 Korean learners’ acquisition of the English passive. As noted in the previous sections, in this study, acquisition was operationalized as learners’ knowledge and use of the passive (Bialystok, 1981, 1990; Sharwood Smith, 1985), in terms of form, meaning, and function (Han & Lew, 2012; Larsen-Freeman, 1991). The next chapter presents the research methods employed to probe this topic.
Chapter III  
METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology used in the present study. It begins with an overview of key methodological considerations in exploring the relationship between the effectiveness of implicit/explicit FonF and the complexity of target constructions. Next, the pilot study (J. Jung & Han, 2014) for this dissertation is discussed in detail with a special emphasis on the methodology it employed. After that, the design of the current study is presented, followed by a description of the participants, treatment materials and procedure, and finally, measurement tasks.

3.1 Methodological Issues

As demonstrated in the review of the empirical studies in Chapter II (e.g., Doughty & Williams, 1998; Gass, et al., 2003; Housen, et al., 2005), a number of methodological considerations need to be addressed when designing a study investigating the relationship between the effectiveness of implicit/explicit FonF and complexity of target constructions. In this section, the following methodological issues are considered: (1) the target construction, (2) operationalization of implicit and explicit FonF, (3) intensity of instruction, (4) validity of measurement tasks, (5) researcher settings, and (6) learner internal variables.
3.1.1 The Target Construction

As noted in the previous chapter, there is a general consensus among SLA researchers (e.g., Doughty & Williams, 1998; R. Ellis, 2002b; Spada & Tomita, 2010) that not all linguistic constructions are equally susceptible to the effects of different types of FonF. The nature, or type, of a linguistic construction is usually described in terms of the level of complexity involved in it, but the relationship between implicit/explicit FonF and the complexity of target constructions has not been established yet. There are two reasons for this. First, no consensus is found in the literature (e.g., Doughty & Williams, 1998; Pienemann, 1989; Spada & Tomita, 2010) on how complexity should be conceptualized. Second, the vast majority of the empirical studies (e.g., Doughty & Williams, 1998; S. Lee, 2007; Spada & Tomita, 2010) defined complexity as “complexity of form” (DeKeyser, 2005, p. 3). Consequently, they only examined the effects of implicit/explicit FonF on the formal properties of the target constructions, disregarding meaning and function underlying them (Han & Lew, 2012; Larsen-Freeman, 2001).

To address this gap in the literature, the present study has chosen the English passive as a complex target construction in that the acquisition of the passive entails complex form, meaning, and function, as well as mappings between them (i.e., syntax-semantics and syntax-pragmatics interfaces). Moreover, the acquisition of the passive is likely to be particularly challenging for L1 Korean learners, due to the typological differences between Korean and English vis-à-vis the passive construction (i.e., transfer). Thus, a finer-grained analysis of the complexity of the passive, as conducted in the previous chapter, is deemed essential in exploring the effects of implicit/explicit FonF on the acquisition of the passive.
3.1.2 Operationalization of Implicit and Explicit FonF

The existing empirical studies also differ in how they operationalized FonF (e.g., De Graaff, 1997; Housen, et al., 2005). As previously mentioned, a FonF technique, either implicit or explicit, is premised on prior engagement in meaning (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Long, 1991; Long & Robinson, 1998). In some empirical studies, however, explicit FonF was realized rather like the traditional FonFS approach, without the target constructions presented in a meaningful context. For example, the C-R treatment in Housen, et al. (2005) began with exposing the learners directly to the metalinguistic rules. Although the researchers found that the instructional benefit was more pronounced in the learners’ unplanned than their planned oral production, other studies with a primary emphasis on metalinguistic rules (e.g., Salaberry, 1997; VanPatten & Sanz, 1995) report that such form-focused instruction does not have an impact on unplanned communicative language use.

Similarly, studies utilizing an artificial language (De Graaff, 1997) or a computer-mediated lab setting (Robinson, 1997) generally lack a meaning-based environment. Moreover, in a seminal article investigating the effects of C-R, Yip (1994) did not provide enough descriptions about the experimental procedure, such as how the C-R activities (i.e., cognitive puzzles) were administered and whether the treatment was preceded by comprehension of the meaning of the target construction, ergative verbs. Nevertheless, these studies report a significantly greater benefit of explicit FonF for the learning of complex, than simple, constructions. This finding appears to be a given, considering that the studies adopted a linguistic perspective to define complexity (e.g., the number of transformational and derivational rules needed to produce a correct form),
wherein the categorical nature of rule learning appears to favor the impact of explicit FonF.

### 3.1.3 Intensity of Instruction

According to R. Ellis (2002a), the intensity of instruction, along with the complexity of the target construction, is one of the most important factors influencing the success of FonF. Intensity is related to frequency, which creates saliency (N. Ellis, 2002; Han, 2002). Thus, FonF involving intensive instruction is more likely to succeed in triggering learners’ noticing of the target construction (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998; Han, 2002; Housen, et al., 2005; Williams & Evans, 1998). More specifically, Han (2002) notes that, whereas intensive FonF directed at simple target constructions appears to be most effective, intensive FonF targeting complex target constructions is also likely be successful when other conditions are established, such as the learners’ developmental readiness (Pienemann, 1998), consistent focus, individualized attention, and intensity of the treatment. Similarly, R. Ellis (2002a) asserts that FonF limited to one or two hours or less and directed at complex syntactic constructions seems to have no effect on learners’ free production ability. This is because complex syntactic constructions require more complex processing operations that can only be mastered sequentially over a long period of time (Pinemann, 1989). However, the researcher also points out that limited FonF directed at complex constructions can also be effective, provided that the target constructions are readily available in non-instructional input (e.g., VanPatten & Sanz, 1995; Salaberry, 1997). Yet, it is worth noting that too much frequency or salience may be counterproductive, as it may result in overuse errors (e.g., Han, ms.; Han, et al., 2008; Overstreet, 1998). Moreover, R. Ellis (2002a) claims that limited instruction may be more
successful when the learners are developmentally ready, even if the target construction is complex in nature.

3.1.4 Validity of Measurement Tasks

The measurement task is another methodological issue to consider. As addressed in the previous chapter, complexity from the acquisitional perspective “can only be truly measured in learners’ spontaneous production” (Han & Lew, 2012, p. 200). However, the existing empirical studies are dissimilar as to how they measured the changes in the learners’ performance. For example, some studies used grammaticality judgment or multiple choice questions (e.g., Gass et al., 2003; Robinson, 1996) which examined subjects’ reactions to L2 stimulus, while others (e.g., Han, 2002; Spada et al., 2005; Williams & Evans, 1998) additionally included free production such as oral interview and picture description (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Thus, it seems difficult to grasp to what extent these studies actually measured the acquisition of the target constructions as a result of FonF, even though they reported a positive effect of the pedagogical techniques employed. In fact, most studies that adopted a linguistic definition of complexity tend to have used GJT or controlled, rather than free, production tasks (e.g., Gass et al., 2003; Robinson, 1996). Consequently, their findings for the superior impact of explicit FonF over implicit FonF on the learning of the target constructions may have been inevitable.

3.1.5 Research Settings

The existing empirical studies also vary in their settings (i.e., laboratory or classroom), in which instruction is delivered by a researcher, teacher, or computer. De Graaff (1997, p. 272) states that a laboratory setting provides “well-structured opportunities for hypothesis testing” (p. 272) for SLA research. More specifically, it
ensures that the order and amount of input material, activities, and feedback are equally provided to all participants within groups, and also ascertains exact control of the treatment differences between groups (e.g., De Graaff, 1997; Robinson, 1997). Additionally, the storage and analysis of responses and reaction time measured by computers in a laboratory setting can provide “a scientific insight not only in the product but also in the process of L2 learning” (e.g., De Graaff, 1997, p. 272).

However, as several researchers (e.g., Brewer, 2000; McLaughlin & Harrington, 1989; Throne, 2013) point out, such lab-based experiments lack ecological validity, the idea that the methods, materials, and setting of the study must approximate the real-world being examined. For example, the experiments in which the subjects are to make judgments about an artificial language (De Graaff, 1997) are by no means to reflect the use of an L2 in a real, communicative environment.

### 3.1.6 Learner Internal Variables

An additional issue to consider when examining the effectiveness of FonF in L2 acquisition is the learner-internal variables. As described in the previous chapter, attention or noticing can be derived not only learner-externally (e.g., manipulation of input by the teacher) but also learner-internally, based on the learner’s prior L2 knowledge, L1 background, developmental readiness, etc. Learners tend to process L2 input through the lens of their L1, such that the process often results in transfer (e.g., Anderson, 1983; Gass & Selinker, 2008; Kellerman, 1995). Thus, the (psycho)typological proximity between the two languages plays an important role in L2 acquisition (e.g., Gass & Selinker, 2008; Kellerman, 1979). In addition, according to Pinemann’s (1989) Processability Theory, learners’ psycholinguistic processing abilities
moderate their progress in L2 acquisition, such that the learners cannot move forward to
the next developmental stage until they are ready developmentally. Therefore, creating an
internally valid study design examining the effects of FonF on L2 acquisition is not likely
to be possible without taking these learner-internal variables into account.

Considering the methodological issues presented above, the focus now turns to the
discussion of the pilot study (J. Jung & Han, 2014) of this dissertation.

3.2 The Pilot Study

The purpose of the pilot study (J. Jung & Han, 2014) was to make a preliminary
inquiry into the effects of implicit and explicit FonF on the acquisition of a complex
target construction. To this end, the effect of explicit FonF, operationalized as C-R plus
metalinguistic explanations, was examined on the acquisition of the English passive. The
study was quasi-experimental in that it involved two intact classes of a community
language program in the U.S., one of which was assigned to the control group (N=4) and
the other to the experimental group (N=6). The participants were adult learners of
English-as-a-second-language (ESL) on the lower-advanced level.

The study employed a pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed-posttest design
over a span of five weeks. During the two-week treatment period, the experimental group
participated in eight mini-lessons on the passive construction in which the participants
engaged in C-R activities utilizing short written texts (120-200 words each) and received
additional metalinguistic explanations. In total, the group participated in four C-R
activities, each of which was administered on Mondays and Wednesdays and took about
30 minutes to complete. On Tuesdays and Thursdays, the participants received about 20
minutes of additional metalinguistic rule explanation on either the formation of the
passive construction or the related tense and aspect configuration. On the contrary, the control group received no such instruction during the treatment period.

To measure changes in the participants’ knowledge and use of the passive construction due to the treatment, a battery of measurement tasks were utilized, which consisted of a (untimed) grammaticality judgment task (GJT), a controlled written production task, and a free written production task. The GJT consisted of 10 sentences, each of which was followed by three choices: (1) Grammatical, (2) Ungrammatical, and (3) Not Sure. The controlled written production task was created into a fill-in-the-blank task, which comprised 10 different items. The free written production task included three different versions of a written narrative. In the pretest, participants were asked to write a complaint letter to a wedding specialist about the items that had not been prepared yet. The immediate posttest was a written reconstruction task using an online article about the late Steve Jobs’ stolen iPad (about 250 words), abstracted from NPR. The delayed posttest involved condensing an online New York Times article, Crazy Pills (about 900 words), which reported on the use and regulations of the drug Lariam, into less than 500 words. The accuracy of production was assessed using a target-like use formula (Pica, 1983). The tasks were administered on the first day of the study in order to measure the participants’ initial knowledge of the target construction, immediately after the last treatment session to see if any noticeable changes had occurred in their knowledge and use of the target construction, and two weeks later to see if the changes (or lack thereof) observed on the immediate posttest were retained.

Given the small sample size, two nonparametric tests were run with the treatment as the independent variable and the two posttest scores as the dependent variables. First,
the Friedman Test was run to examine between-group differences. Second, the participants’ scores were compared by the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test to ascertain the significance of the differences before and after the instructional treatment within each of the two groups. Overall, the statistical analyses showed that the treatment induced significantly better performance in the experimental group on all three measurement tasks, and the gain was substantial and lasting. The benefit of the intensive, explicit FonF was most pronounced in the free written production task, in which more accurate production of the target structure and greater within-group homogeneity were observed for the experimental group. In contrast, the performance of the control group, although showing some change in the immediate posttest, regressed significantly in the delayed posttest. Furthermore, the results of the study revealed that the passive constructions produced by the two groups differed not only quantitatively but also qualitatively. For example, whereas the experimental group generally produced lexical and morphological errors (e.g., incorrect use of the past participle as in some travelers have been used this drug), the control group produced both morphological and syntactic errors (e.g., pseudo-passives as in the bad side effects will cause by the drug).

Overall, these results constitute as evidence that the explicit FonF treatment did improve the learners’ knowledge and use of the L2 English passive construction. These positive findings, nevertheless, could only be taken as suggestive, because, although the study was constructed based on the methodological considerations outlined in the previous section, a number of methodological and theoretical limitations remained to its design. First of all, the study included a very small number of participants, which jeopardizes the generalizability of the findings. In addition, when the sample size is
small, individual participants’ performance can easily tip the scale (i.e., Type II Error) (e.g., Banerjee, Chitnis, Jadhav, Bhawalkar, & Chaudhury, 2009; Sheskin, 2004), and this tendency was observed in the controlled production task results. More specifically, the experimental group exhibited relatively weaker performance on this task, seemingly due to two individuals who had a relatively shorter length of residence in the U.S. Perhaps, the treatment took longer to exert an influence on them since their delayed posttest scores from all three measures revealed a substantial gain.

Second, the results demonstrate that the control group also exhibited slight improvement in performance, albeit a much slower rate. Yet, free production was an exception, because the performance of the control group, despite the slight improvement shown on the immediate posttest, regressed on the delayed posttest, which was significantly different from that of the experimental group. Given that the two groups used the same textbook in the regular classes, and that the textbook included several tokens of the passive, the participants in the control group may well have been exposed to some amount of target input during the treatment period, even though they did not receive a FonF treatment. However, as the literature (e.g., Long, 1991; Sharwood Smith, 1993) suggests, exposure to input appears to induce only limited learning “without further explicit instruction” (Winke, 2013, p. 324), although more empirical research is needed to further clarify this argument.

Third, the study employed measurement tasks that may allow more efficient utilization of awareness (i.e., written GJT, gap filling, and written narration), compared, for instance, to oral production tasks. In addition, due to the difficulty in naturally inducing the use of the passive, the free written production task on the immediate and
delayed posttests was designed as a reconstruction/summary task, in which the participants were able to refer to the original texts. Thus, the participants’ use, as opposed to their knowledge, of the passive may not have been measured accurately. At the same time, no distractor was used in the GJT, and no interrater analysis was conducted for the coding and rating of the data, which both weaken the internal validity of the study.

Fourth, the pilot study includes several weaknesses with respect to the analysis of the English passive. As described in the previous chapter, the complexity of the passive derives from the complex form, meaning, and function, as well as the mappings between them. However, as with the prior empirical studies (e.g., Gass, et al., 2003; Housen, et al., 2005; Spada & Tomita, 2010), the study involved a limited analysis of the passive with a particular focus on the formal properties involved in it, which also affected the creation of the treatment materials and measurement tasks. In a similar vein, although passive constructions that were grammatically felicitous but semantically anomalous (e.g., a new miracle has to be developed) were coded as an incorrect production in the written narrative tasks, the coding and analysis of the data in general were still focused on grammatical accuracy. Moreover, whereas complexity appears to be a relative, rather than universal, concept based on the relationship between the learners’ L1 and the L2 (Han & Lew, 2012), such an analysis was provided only for a few participants (e.g., L1 Spanish speakers) whose performance seemed relatively more idiosyncratic.

Finally, the pilot study involves several additional modulating factors. To begin with, given the ESL environment, it was impossible to control for the learners’ exposure to the L2 outside the classroom. By the same token, considering the quasi-experimental design with intact classes in the same institution, it appears to be possible that the
participants in the control group communicated with their peers in the experimental group about the lessons they were receiving. Perhaps, this may account for the fact that the control group produced overuse errors while the experimental group did not on the posttests. Second, the learner characteristics may have played a role as well. Most of the participants in the pilot study had an EFL background, and were used to explicit, metalinguistic L2 instruction. Furthermore, they all had previous knowledge of the passive, albeit variable at the time of the pretest, and the truth of the matter is that they had been taught the construction in secondary schools as an important grammar point. In other words, the learners were developmentally ready to learn the passive, which may also account for the slight gains observed in the control group. Yet another interesting finding from the post-experiment questionnaire is that more than half of the participants in the experimental group, though having significantly improved in performance as a result of the explicit FonF, indicated that they would like to be exposed to more exemplars, instead of metalinguistic explanations, of the passive voice.

The next section describes the methodology used in the present study, in which an attempt is made to circumvent the aforementioned weaknesses as well as to heed the methodological issues revealed by the literature presented in the previous section.

3.3 The Current Study

Motivated by the disparate findings and methodological issues revealed in the L2 literature on the relationship between implicit/explicit FonF and the complexity of target constructions, the present study explored the effects of implicit (i.e., textual enhancement; TE) and explicit (i.e., consciousness-raising; C-R) FonF on L1 Korean
learners’ acquisition of the English passive (i.e., a complex target construction). Specific research questions are presented in the next section.

3.3.1 Research Questions

In order to investigate the effects of implicit and explicit FonF on L2 acquisition of the English passive, the current study addressed the following two research questions:

1. Do implicit and explicit FonF have differential effects on L1 Korean learners’ knowledge and use of the English passive in terms of form, meaning, and function?

2. If so, are the effects durable?

With a view to contributing to the long-lasting debate over implicit and explicit FonF, the current study conducted finer-grained comparisons of the treatment effects in two main ways. First, as previously mentioned, acquisition of the passive was examined on two processing dimensions of knowledge (i.e., mental organization of linguistic knowledge) and use (i.e., control over or access to the knowledge) (Bialystok, 1981, 1990; Sharwood Smith, 1985) for the form, meaning, and function of the passive (Han & Lew, 2012; Larsen-Freeman, 1991). Five measurement tasks were created accordingly: (1) a grammaticality judgment task (GJT) to measure the knowledge of form, (2) a sentence pair task to measure the knowledge of meaning, (3) a closed discourse completion task (DCT) to measure the knowledge of function, (4) an oral production task to measure the use for form-meaning-function mappings, and (5) a written production task to measure the use for form-meaning-function mappings, of the passive construction. In line with the measurement tasks, the treatment materials for both TE and C-R were
created to tap into the form, meaning, and function of the passive, and the mappings between them.

Second, retention of the gained knowledge and use, if any, was examined for the form, meaning, and function of the passive, by employing an experimental study design including a pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest over a span of 10 weeks. A description of the research design follows in the next section.

3.3.2 Research Design

The study employed an experimental design including a pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest over a span of 10 weeks (Figure 9). Participants were 99 Korean EFL learners, who were randomly assigned to one of the following three groups: implicit FonF group (IFG), explicit FonF group (EFG), and a control group. During the treatment period, the IFG and EFG participated in treatment sessions using textual enhancement (TE) and consciousness-raising (C-R), respectively, while the control group received no such instruction.

On the first day of the study (Week 1), all participants took a battery of pretest to display their initial knowledge of the passive. As described earlier, the test comprised five measurement tasks to examine the participants’ knowledge of, and ability to use, the passive in terms of form, meaning, and function: a grammaticality judgment task (GJT), a sentence pair task, a closed discourse completion task (DCT), and spoken and written production tasks. After the pretest, the participants also filled out a background survey (Appendix A) which collected their biographic information. In Week 2, the pretest results were examined, based on which the group assignment was conducted. The pedagogical treatment began in Week 3 and lasted for three weeks. During this period, each
experimental group met up for five treatment sessions, with one session held every three
days and lasting about two hours. In each treatment session, participants in the IFG were
exposed to a written text in which the passive constructions were typographically
enhanced using boldface and color-coding (i.e., TE). In contrast, participants in the EFG
engaged in a grammar activity to raise their consciousness about the passive, and
received additional metalinguistic explanations on the passive construction from the
instructor. On the next day of the last treatment session (Week 6), an immediate posttest
comparable to the pretest was administered to examine any noticeable changes in the
participants’ knowledge and use of the passive in terms of form, meaning, and function.
Four weeks later (Week 10), a delayed posttest comparable to the pretest and immediate
posttest was conducted to examine if the changes (or lack thereof) observed on the
immediate posttest had been retained. On the day of the delayed posttest, an exit
questionnaire was also administered to gather information about the participants’
perception of the FonF treatments.
3.3.3 Participants

The data were collected in an urban senior high school in South Korea. Participants were 99 male students enrolled in the 11th grade, aged between 17 and 18, who had been learning EFL at school for about 10 years. In South Korea, English constitutes an obligatory school subject. As is typical of the Korean EFL context, the participants’ learning of English occurred primarily via four to five hours of formal instruction per week, in classrooms where students’ reading skills were emphasized in preparation for the Korean SAT exam. Class materials largely comprised a textbook designated by the institution and an additional workbook selected by the individual teacher.
The participants were on various levels of English proficiency, ranging from the beginner to advanced levels, as shown by their scores on the regular exams administered by the institution. Similarly, they exhibited various levels of previous knowledge of the passive voice, as measured by the pretest scores. As described earlier, based on the pretest results, the participants were randomly assigned to one of the three groups including IFG (N=33 each), EFG (N=33 each), and a control group (N=33 each). On average, the three groups achieved about 50% of the score on each measurement task, and the Kruskal-Wallis test indicated that the performance of the three groups was comparable (p = .528~.985 at the .05 significance level).

The participants in general were thought to be developmentally ready to learn the passive, albeit to a varying extent. More specifically, all participants exhibited some previous knowledge of the passive on the knowledge dimension, as measured by the GJT, sentence pair task, and closed DCT. On the use dimension, however, measured by the oral and written production tasks, a few participants on the lower proficiency level exhibited no previous knowledge, primarily due to their lack of production skills. As pointed out in the previous chapter, the acquisition of the passive occurs in a developmental sequence including pseudo-passives, overpassivisation, and the mastery of unaccusativity (e.g., Keatinge, & Keßler, 2009; Park, 2009; S. Lee, et al., 2008). In parallel with this claim, lower proficiency level participants produced a noticeably greater number of pseudo-passives on the pretest, indicating a relatively lower developmental readiness to learn the passive than those who produced more overuse errors.
3.3.4 Pedagogical Treatment

Treatment materials of the present study mainly comprised five written texts, each of which was created into two different versions for TE and C-R. More descriptions of the treatment materials follow.

3.3.4.1 Treatment Materials. Treatment materials of the study were selected based on three main findings of the literature described in Chapter II. First, the passive is used more frequently in written than spoken English, particularly in genres that focus on the topic being described rather than the agent (e.g., press reportage) (e.g., Biber, 1988; Carter & McCarthy, 2004; Xiao, et al., 2005). Second, passives serve as a useful device to describe “reported events” (Wanner, 2009, p. 172), or factual information about what has been done (e.g., Biber, et al., 1999; McEnery & Xiao, 2005). Third, a familiar topic, which facilitates the processing of meaning, is likely to promote learners’ noticing of the target construction (Leeser, 2004; S. Lee, 2007; Overstreet, 1998), as the processing of input for form and meaning tends to occur sequentially (Han, 2004; VanPatten, 1990).

Considering these findings, five written texts (approximately 500-1000 words each) were selected from online resources, including two news articles on a former Korean President’s scandal (BBC and New York Times) and three Wikipedia articles on a Korean historical movie, the Korean script, and a Korean traditional birthday party. As described earlier, textual enhancement (TE) and consciousness-raising (C-R) by nature involve different types of input, in that the former only comprises textually enhanced target constructions, whereas the latter comprises both a grammar activity and additional metalinguistic explanations. Thus, to balance out the amount of input provided in TE and C-R in the study, the selected texts were partially modified such that the former included
about twice as long texts, and twice as many tokens of the passive, as the latter. More specifically, each of the five texts created for TE included 700-1000 words, in which 20 tokens of the passive were typographically enhanced using boldfacing and color-coding (i.e., 100 tokens in total) (Appendix B). Each text was then inserted into a task sheet, which presented the same text in four versions, first for comprehension (i.e., an unenhanced text), and then for the noticing of the form, meaning, and function of the passive (i.e., enhanced texts using boldfacing and color-coding). In contrast, each of the five texts created for C-R included 300-500 words, which contained 10 tokens of the passive (i.e., 50 tokens in total) (Appendix C). As with TE, each text was inserted into a task sheet, which engaged the participants first in comprehension, and then in a C-R activity to induce metalinguistic descriptions about the form, meaning, and function of the passive.

Similarly, the passive tokens in the treatment texts were partially modified to exhibit the few categories of the form, meaning, and function of the passive described in the previous chapter. In terms of form, the passive tokens were modified, yet to a minimal extent, to illustrate the three combinations of tense and aspect (i.e., present simple, past simple, and present perfect) targeted in the study, such that each combination comprised about 30% of each text. The original texts included a few tokens of other types of tense and aspect (e.g., present perfect progressive, past perfect, etc.). However, they took up less than 3% of the total number of the passive tokens, and thus, were discarded. With regard to the By-phrase, each text, after the aforementioned modifications, naturally included about 70% short passives and 30% long passives.
As for meaning, each passive token was posited to involve both lexical meaning derived from the meaning of the verb used and grammatical meaning that concerns thematic role prominence for the topic (i.e., patient or theme) being described.

With respect to function, the passive tokens in each treatment text were modified, yet again to a minimal extent, to illustrate the three hierarchical categories of the functions of the passive established for the study. As presented in the previous chapter, these categories included: (1) Function 1 (F1) [+Topic Prominence], [-Coherence] [+Defocusing] (11%), (2) Function 2 (F2) [+Topic Prominence], [+Coherence] [+Defocusing] (64%), and Function 3 (F3) [+Topic Prominence], (3) [+Coherence] [-Defocusing] (25%). To ensure the validity of these categories, the passive tokens in each text were coded by three native speakers, who were asked (1) to decide whether they do prefer the use of the passive voice in the given contexts, and (2) to code each passive token using the categories [+/-Topic Prominence], [+/-Coherence], and [+/-Defocusing]. Based on the results of the coding, tokens that showed disagreement among the three native speakers on either of the two points mentioned above were removed, or the context was modified to better suit either the active or passive voice. After that, the texts were coded again by the native speakers, and the results showed a consensus. Yet, as addressed previously, the three hierarchical categories of functions, F1 (11%), F2 (64%), and F3 (25%), were not assigned an equal number of passive tokens. This decision was based on the findings of the literature (e.g., Svartvik, 1966), which reveal the predominant use of short passives (i.e., +Defocusing), as opposed to long passives (i.e., -Defocusing), for the purpose of maintaining coherence (i.e., +Coherence) in written English.
In addition to the few rounds of modifications, the treatment texts went through two editing procedures to ensure comprehensibility and comparability. First, the vocabulary level of each text was tested using an online software, Compleat Web VP, which indicated that the texts were generally comparable in terms of comprehensibility (Table 1). The vocabulary level of each text was also compared with that of the textbook used in the participants’ regular English classes, which included seven main texts for reading comprehension (approximately 7,000 words in total). The results indicated comparable vocabulary levels between the textbook and the treatment materials. Second, the syntactic complexity of each treatment text was examined by calculating the number of clauses per T-unit. This ratio ranged between 1.19 and 1.25, and was found to be comparable with that of the textbook, which ranged between 1.21 and 1.32.

Table 1
Vocabulary Levels of the Treatment Texts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Textual Enhancement</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Concurrency-raising</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K-1~K3</td>
<td>K4~K6</td>
<td>&gt;K7</td>
<td>Off-List</td>
<td>K-1~K3</td>
<td>K4~K6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbook</td>
<td>89.22~93.73</td>
<td>1~5%</td>
<td>&lt;1%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>89.22~93.73</td>
<td>1~5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment text 1</td>
<td>89.57%</td>
<td>4.73%</td>
<td>&lt;1%</td>
<td>5.16%</td>
<td>88.21%</td>
<td>5.41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment text 2</td>
<td>88.49%</td>
<td>4.95%</td>
<td>&lt;1%</td>
<td>4.40%</td>
<td>88.63%</td>
<td>5.43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment text 3</td>
<td>86.03%</td>
<td>6.81%</td>
<td>&lt;1%</td>
<td>6.62%</td>
<td>87.76%</td>
<td>5.35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment text 4</td>
<td>92.20%</td>
<td>2.29%</td>
<td>&lt;1%</td>
<td>4.17%</td>
<td>92.51%</td>
<td>2.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment text 5</td>
<td>89.01%</td>
<td>4.13%</td>
<td>&lt;1%</td>
<td>5.71%</td>
<td>89.70%</td>
<td>3.04%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The treatment materials were implemented through a sequence of procedures, the description of which follow in the next two sections.
3.3.4.2 Implicit Focus on Form Treatment. As described earlier, each of the five texts created for TE (approximately 700-1000 words including 20 typographically enhanced tokens of the passive) was inserted into a task sheet, which presented the same text in four versions, first for comprehension (i.e., an unenhanced text), and then for the noticing of form, meaning, and function of the passive (i.e., enhanced texts using boldface and color-coding). More specifically, each task sheet was composed of three parts: Part 1 (reading an unenhanced text for comprehension), Part 2 (engaging in reading comprehension check activities), and Part 3 (reading three versions of enhanced texts for the form, meaning, and function of the passive). The five task sheets created were implemented in the implicit FonF group (IFG) over five treatment sessions, with the participants exposed to one task sheet per session.

The specific procedure for each treatment session was as follows, which took about two hours to complete (Appendix B). Participants first received the task sheet and brief descriptions about it. Particularly, they were asked not to move to the next page until the instructor gave the direction to do so. In Part 1 of the task sheet, participants were exposed to an unenhanced version of the treatment text for comprehension. They were also informed that they were going be asked to recall what they had read. Then, participants turned to Part 2 in which they engaged in three reading comprehension check activities. Based on findings of previous research on TE (e.g., Izumi, 2002; Williams, 1999), participants were first asked to write a recall summary of the text in Korean, for as much information as they could remember. Next, they were encouraged to read the unenhanced text in Part 1 again and talk to a peer about any unfamiliar vocabulary. After that, the instructor provided further vocabulary assistance as needed.
In Part 3 of the task sheet, participants read three typographically enhanced versions of the text, which attempted to trigger the participants’ noticing of the form, meaning, and function of the passive. To prevent the participants’ focal attention from being overly drawn to form, the enhanced versions for meaning and function were provided first, and then that for form. More specifically, the first enhanced version of the text concerned thematic role prominence (i.e., meaning), and topicalization and defocusing (i.e., function; F1 and F2). To highlight these (grammatical) meaning and functions of the passive visually, each passive phrase (i.e., BE-auxiliary + past participle) was enhanced using boldface, whereas the non-agent subject for each passive phrase was enhanced using blue boldface, as shown in the following examples.

*South Korea* has been plunged into a political scandal.

*President Park senior* was assassinated by his head of intelligence in 1979.

The second enhanced version illustrated the coherence function of the passive (i.e., F2 and F3). For this purpose, the topic (i.e., patient or theme) of each passive construction, which is usually “old information” (Wanner, 2009, p. 10) that was mentioned in the preceding context, was enhanced using color-coding, along with the part in the preceding context that introduces the topic, which is usually “new information” (Wanner, 2009) in that context. The shift of the local topics was also highlighted, by using two different colors, yellow and green. An example is as follows:

*Like many close friendships, Park and Choi Soon-sil go back a long way. In 1974, Park Geun-hye’s mother* was killed by a North Korean spy who had intended to kill Park’s father, then-military leader Park Chung-hee. Park, then aged 22, became a substitute first lady for her widowed father. It was then she got to know Choi Tae-min, a fake Christian leader who set up a cult called The Church of Eternal Life. He said he was constantly visited by the soul of Park’s late mother...*
Finally, the third enhanced version of the text only involved boldface to highlight the form of the passive, as exemplified by the following sentences:

- South Korea has been plunged into a political scandal.
- President Park senior was assassinated by his head of intelligence in 1979.

### 3.3.4.3 Explicit Focus on Form Treatment.

As with the materials used for TE, each of the five texts created for C-R (approximately 300-500 words including 10 passive tokens) was inserted into a task sheet, which engaged the participants first in comprehension, and then a C-R activity to induce metalinguistic descriptions about the form, meaning, and function of the passive. More specifically, each task sheet was composed of three parts: Part 1 (reading the text for comprehension), Part 2 (engaging in reading comprehension check activities), and Part 3 (engaging in a C-R activity). The five task sheets created were implemented in the explicit FonF group (EFG) over five treatment sessions, with the participants engaging in one task sheet per session.

The specific procedure for each treatment session was as follows, which took about two hours to complete (Appendix C). Participants first received the task sheet and brief descriptions about it. Particularly, they were asked not to move to the next page until the instructor gave the direction to do so. In Part 1 of the task sheet, participants read the given text for comprehension. They were also informed that they were going to be asked to recall what they had read. Then, participants turned to Part 2 in which they engaged in three reading comprehension check activities, which were the same as those used for TE. First, participants were asked to write a recall summary of the text in Korean, for as much information as they could remember. Next, they were encouraged to
read the text in Part 1 again and talk to a peer about any unfamiliar vocabulary. After that, the instructor provided further vocabulary assistance as needed.

In Part 3 of the task sheet, participants engaged in a C-R activity which sought to induce metalinguistic descriptions about the form, meaning, and function of the passive, guided by five questions. As in the materials used for TE, the questions were constructed to address meaning and function first, and then form, of the passive, to prevent the participants’ focal attention from being overly drawn to form. Furthermore, participants were encouraged to solve the questions interactively, with a peer, as suggested by the literature reviewed in the previous chapter (e.g., Fotos, 1994; Fotos & R. Ellis, 1991; Nassaji & Fotos, 2004). For each question, the researcher first read it aloud, and gave the participants about ten minutes to solve it. Then, she asked the participants to share their answers with the class, and provided a correct answer or comment as needed.

More specifically, Question 1 asked the participants to identify the 10 tokens of the passive embedded in the text. It should be noted that, as shown in the following example, the expression ‘passive verbs’ were used to mean ‘passive phrases’ or ‘tokens/exemplars of the passive.’ This paraphrasing was intentional, because the latter terms were rarely used in the English textbooks published in Korea. After all, it appeared that the participants understood the expression ‘passive verbs,’ with no difficulty, to mean ‘passive phrases’ including the *BE*-auxiliary (and a *by*-phrase, if present).

1. The text includes 10 passive verbs. Search them in the text.

   <Example>
   "It was directed by Kim Han-Min"
Question 2 concerned the defocusing function of the passive (F2). Participants were asked to identify the ‘agent’ in each passive phrase searched, and in case of no agent present, they were also asked to explain why. In general, the participants seemed to be aware of the fact that the agent of the passive is indicated in the by-phrase, or may refer to a general or unspecified entity when the passive phrase is not accompanied by a by-phrase.

2. In each passive verb, who or what does the action (i.e., agent)? Can you identify it in each passive verb? If not, why?

Question 3 pertained to thematic role prominence (i.e., meaning) and topicalization (i.e., function; F1). It asked whether using the active voice in place of each passive token searched was likely to make a difference, and if so, what difference it would create. More specifically, participants were asked to compare each passive token with an active counterpart that can be derived from the given passive construction, and to describe the difference between them, as exhibited in the example below. In the first treatment session, it appeared that the participants in general were not aware of the difference, nor the fact that the grammatical subject denotes the topic of the sentence. Instead, they translated the passive and active sentences into Korean, and emphasized that the subject in the passive sentence was being subjected to the action involved in the verb, seemingly against its will, using the Korean passive morphemes toy- and tangha- that usually carry negative connotations (e.g., Davison, 1980; W. Jung, 198, 1999; Park, 2009). This observation coincided with the results of the pretest sentence pair task, which indicated that the participants had little previous knowledge of the meaning of the passive. In the treatment sessions that followed, however, participants were generally
able to verbalize the active-passive difference, remembering what they had learned in the first session.

3. In each passive verb, will using the active voice make a difference? If so, how?

   <Example>
   "It was directed by Kim Han-Min"
   Vs.
   "Kim Han-Min directed it"

   Question 4 addressed the coherence function (i.e., F2 and F3). It asked, based on the answers to Question 3 which concerned thematic role prominence (i.e., meaning) and the topicalization function (i.e., F3), how the participants would decide to use either the active or passive in a given context. As in Question 3, it appeared that the participants initially had little previous knowledge about the coherence function of the passive. However, in the remainder of the treatment sessions, they were generally able to verbalize that the passive seems to be preferred when the patient or theme is the focus of the context.

4. Based on your observations so far, how would you choose to use active or passive voice in a context?

Finally, Question 5 asked the participants to describe what constitutes the form of the passive, used in present simple, past simple, and present perfect. Although the participants were generally able to verbalize the \textit{BE}-auxiliary + past participle + \textit{by}-phrase construction, several participants seemed to have difficulty describing the form of the passive used in present perfect. They were generally able to verbalize it in the sessions that followed, but a few participants still seemed to have difficulty, usually omitting the auxiliaries (i.e., \textit{have}/\textit{has} and the \textit{BE}-auxiliary) involved in the construction.
5. Based on the passive verbs in the text, describe the form of the passive voice.

After the C-R activity, participants received brief metalinguistic explanations, using PPT slides, about the form, meaning, and function of the passive. The metalinguistic explanations included the following points: First, in English, the subject of a sentence is what the sentence is about (i.e., topic, focus, etc.). Thus, the focus of an active sentence is on the agent of the verb. In contrast, the passive voice is a strategy to focus on the patient/theme of the verb, by placing it in the subject position, and to defocus the agent of the verb, by placing it in a by-phrase (e.g., President Park senior was assassinated by his head of intelligence in 1979). However, the by-phrase can be omitted when the agent is not known or not necessary to be mentioned (e.g., South Korea has been plunged into a political scandal). Second, related to the previous point, the passive is often used to maintain coherence, by placing the topic (i.e., patient or theme) which was mentioned in the preceding context in the subject of the sentence. For example, the first treatment text starts by mentioning Park Geun-hye, a former Korean President, and her relationships with those involved in the scandal, including her mother and father, as shown in In 1974, Park Geun-hye’s mother was killed by a North Korean spy. In other words, the focus of this context is on Park Geun-hye and her acquaintances. Thus, using the active voice in this sentence and staring it with a North Korean spy is likely to intervene the coherence of the text. Third, the passive voice is composed of a BE-auxiliary + a past participle, which is followed by an optional by-phrase. When used with the present perfect, the passive is composed of have/has been + past participle, followed by an optional By-phrase.
3.3.5 Measurement Tasks

As described previously, acquisition in the current study is viewed as entailing two processing dimensions of knowledge (i.e., the level of analysis and mental organization of linguistic information) and use (i.e., efficiency with which that information can be accessed) for the form, meaning, and function of the target construction. Accordingly, to measure any changes in the participants’ knowledge and use of the passive in terms of form, meaning, and function, five measurement tasks were employed in the study: (1) a grammaticality judgment task (GJT) to measure the knowledge of form, (2) a sentence pair task to measure the knowledge of meaning, (3) a closed discourse completion task (DCT) to measure the knowledge of function, (4) an oral production task to measure the use for form-meaning-function mappings, and (5) a written production task to measure the use for form-meaning-function mappings, of the passive construction.

3.3.5.1 Grammaticality Judgment Task. The GJT was employed to measure the participants’ knowledge of the passive construction. SLA researchers (e.g., Adjemian, 1976; Gass & Selinker, 2008) generally agree that this type of measurement task has the capacity to tap into learners’ knowledge of what is grammatical and ungrammatical. According to R. Ellis (1991b), some L2 phenomena are simply “not accessible to investigation via production data because they occur either rarely or not at all” (p. 163). One such example appears to be the passive voice, because its semantic meaning, if not grammatical meaning, can be conveyed by the active voice. Similarly, learners may avoid using the passive as they find it difficult (Schachter, 1974), in which case the examination of their knowledge of, and ability to use, the passive construction would be challenging.
Thus, three versions of an untimed GJT were created for the pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest of the study (Appendix D). Each test comprised 25 items, adapted from online ESL resources, textbooks, and reference books published in the U.S. and South Korea. The 25 items included 20 items on the passive construction and five distractors. In each item, participants were asked to decide whether the underlined part was grammatically correct or incorrect, and to circle the answer. In case of choosing ‘incorrect,’ they were also required to correct the perceived error(s). A sample GJT item was as follows:

1. The Okavango Delta in Africa is call “the river that never finds the sea.”

   CORRECT / INCORRECT  
   Correction: ________________________________

Figure 10
Sample GJT Item

Items on each test were created to exhibit the few categories of tense, aspect, and S-V agreement, and the short and long passives presented in Chapter II. Out of the 20 items on the passive construction, seven items involved present perfect (four items including has been pp and three items including have been pp); seven items involved past simple (five items including was pp and two items including were pp); and six items involved present simple (four items including is pp and two items including are pp). At the same time, 15 out of the 20 items involved short passives without a by-phrase, while the remaining five items involved long passives with a by-phrase.

To ensure the comprehensibility and comparability of the three tests of GJT, the syntactic and semantic complexity of the created items was examined. First, the items
were generally simple in terms of syntactic complexity, in that each item comprised a single sentence (i.e., independent clause) including 11 to 14 words. Second, the vocabulary level of the items was examined using an online software, Compleat Web VP, and found to be comparable with that of the textbook used in the participants’ regular English classes. More specifically, each test included about 92% words between K-1 and K-3 levels; about 3% words between K-4 and K-6 levels; less than 1% words over K-7 level; about 5% off-list words.

The three tests of GJT were piloted with three native speakers and 25 Korean EFL learners from the participant sample. Based on their responses, a coding scheme was developed (Table 2). Overall, a full score of two points was awarded to a correct answer including a successful correction of the error(s); a partial score of one point was assigned to an incorrect answer with partial morphological errors (e.g., an incorrect/no BE-auxiliary used with a correct past participle); 0 points were given to an incorrect answer exhibiting errors on the overall morphemes involved. A correct answer with no correction provided also received 0 points. Each test had a maximum score of 40 points.

Table 2
Coding Scheme for GJT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammaticality</th>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical</td>
<td>Correct</td>
<td>2 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E.g., <em>The celebrity was caught by paparazzi last week.</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Incorrect</td>
<td>1 point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Change to passive phrases with morpheme misformation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E.g., <em>The celebrity was catched by paparazzi last week.</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>The celebrity caught by last week</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Change to a seemingly active sentence or pseudo-passive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E.g., <em>The celebrity caught paparazzi last week.</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ungrammatical Events</td>
<td>Corrected Forms</td>
<td>Points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change to overall erroneous form</td>
<td>E.g., <em>The celebrity were catch paparazzi last week.</em></td>
<td>0 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No correction</td>
<td></td>
<td>0 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.g., <em>The celebrity caught by paparazzi last week.</em></td>
<td>1 point</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Incorrect**

- Change to correct passive form | 2 points |
  - E.g., *The celebrity was caught by paparazzi last week.* |
- Change to passive phrases with morpheme misformation | 1 point |
  - E.g., *The celebrity were caught by paparazzi last week.*
  *The celebrity was catched by paparazzi last week.*
  *The celebrity was caught to paparazzi last week.*

- Change to a seemingly active sentence or pseudo-passive | 0 points |
  - E.g., *The celebrity caught paparazzi last week.* |
- Change to overall erroneous form | 0 points |
  - E.g., *The celebrity were catch paparazzi last week.* |
- No correction | 0 points |
  - E.g., *The celebrity is catch by paparazzi last week.* |

The results of the pilot test with 25 learners confirmed that the three tests of GJT were comparable in terms of the difficulty level. On average, the learners achieved about
30% of the maximum score on each test (13.60 points (34%), 13.20 points (33%), and 13.50 points (34%)).

GJT data collected on the pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest were coded by the researcher, three times, and an inter-rater from a similar academic background. Both the intra- and inter-rater reliability ranged between 97% and 99%, indicating a high level of consistency between the raters. The few percent of inconsistencies were reconciled through a follow-up communication.

3.3.5.2 Sentence Pair Task. The sentence pair task was created to measure the participants’ knowledge of the meaning of the passive. As with the GJT, three versions of the task were developed for the pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest. In each test, participants were exposed to five pairs of active and passive sentences, as well as two distractors, and were asked to describe the difference of the meanings of the two sentences given in each pair (Appendix E). More specifically, one sentence pair included an active and a passive sentence which had the same propositional content but different focus (i.e., thematic role prominence), as shown in the following example:

Steven Spielberg directed the movie.

The movie was directed by Steven Spielberg.

In three sentence pairs, a similar active-passive sentence pair was presented but the passive sentence did not reveal the agent of the action (i.e., by-phrase). An example was as follows:

I broke the glasses.

The glasses were broken.
The other sentence pair intended to examine whether the participants were able to distinguish the relationship between the agent and patient regardless of animacy. This was motivated by the results of a pilot test conducted with 25 EFL learners, which, in line with the findings of the literature reviewed in the previous chapter (e.g., Croft, 1990; Hinkel, 2002; Montrul, 1999; Oshita, 2001; Zobl, 1989), suggested that the learners seemed to rely, quite heavily, on animacy to determine the agent-patient relationship involved in the passive, as well as the active, constructions. An example of this sentence pair was as follows:

A ball hit the boy.
A ball was hit by the boy.

As with the GJT, the syntactic and semantic complexity of the sentence pairs was examined to ensure comprehensibility and comparability. In terms of syntactic complexity, all sentences in the task were independent clauses including between six and eight words. As for semantic complexity, the vocabulary level of the three tests was examined using Compleat Web VP, and found to be comparable with that of the textbook used in the participants’ regular English classes. More specifically, each test included about 93% words between K-1 and K3 levels; about 3% words between K-4 and K6 levels; about 4% off-list words.

The task was piloted with three native speakers and 25 Korean EFL learners from the participant sample. Based on their responses, a simple coding scheme was developed (Table 3): If the participant’s answer described the grammatical meaning of the given passive sentence (i.e., thematic role prominence), comparing it successfully with that of the active counterpart, a full score of two points were awarded; if the answer only
provided the lexical meaning of the two sentences (i.e., correct literal translations into Korean), with no description of the difference between them, a partial score of one point was assigned; any irrelevant or no answer was given 0 points. Each test had a maximum score of 10 points.

Table 3
Coding Scheme for Sentence Pair Task

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical meaning</td>
<td>The focus is different</td>
<td>2 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E.g., Bill Gates is the focus vs. Microsoft if the focus.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The patients (i.e., experiencer)/agents (i.e., doer) are different</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E.g., It is the ball that hit vs. It is the boy who hit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The agent is identifiable vs. unidentifiable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E.g., It is me who broke the glass vs. We don’t know who did</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lexical meaning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Simple translation into Korean</td>
<td>1 point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>There is no difference/ No answer</td>
<td>0 points</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sentence pair data collected on the pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest were coded by the researcher, three times, and an inter-rater from a similar academic background. Both the intra- and inter-rater reliability ranged between 98% and 99%, indicating a high level of consistency between the raters. The few percent of inconsistencies were reconciled through a follow-up communication.

3.3.5.3 Closed Discourse Completion Task. The closed DCT was constructed to measure the participants’ knowledge of the function of the passive (Appendix F). Three versions of the task was created for the pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest. Each test included a written passage (approximately 700 words) which contained 20 blanks that could be filled with either an active or passive verb phrase. For each blank,
active-passive alternatives were provided, and the participants were asked to indicate which would make a better fit in the blank in the given context (Figure 11). In line with the distribution of the functions of the passive established in the study, the 20 active-passive alternatives were created such that 10% of them exemplified F1 ( [+Topic Prominence] [-Coherence] [+Defocusing]), 70% exemplified F2 ( [+Topic Prominence] [+Coherence] [+Defocusing]), and 20% exemplified F3 ( [+Topic Prominence] [+Coherence] [-Defocusing]). Each test also included five distractors.

Figure 11
Sample Closed DCT Items

The creation of the closed DCT was done with particular care. The original versions of the task were each constructed to include more than 20 blanks to be filled
with either the passive or active, and then piloted with five native speakers. Based on their responses, blanks that exhibited a clear preference for active or passive were kept. Each version included three to five blanks in which the native speakers exhibited disparate preferences. For these blanks, the following two procedures were employed: First, if three out of the five native speakers preferred passive while the other two preferred active, or vice versa, the blank was discarded. Second, if four preferred passive while only one preferred active, or vice versa, the blank was kept and the local text was revised to better suit either the active or passive voice.

Items created through this process were then piloted with 25 Korean EFL learners from the participant sample. As mentioned earlier, the results of the pilot test revealed the leaners’ heavy reliance on animacy in deciding on the use of the active versus passive (e.g., Croft, 1990; Hinkel, 2002; Montrul, 1999; Oshita, 2001; Zobl, 1989). For example, if the sentence including the blank had an animate subject and an inanimate object, participants generally preferred the active voice regardless of the context. Thus, the items were modified again such that a more number of them included both animate or both inanimate entities in the argument structure. The final versions of the task were piloted again with the five native speakers, whose responses showed a general consensus on the preference for the active or passive voice in each item.

As with the GJT and sentence pair task, the comprehensibility and comparability of the three tests of closed DCT was examined by calculating the syntactic and semantic complexity of the texts used in the task. First, the number of clauses per T-unit was calculated, and the ratios were comparable across the three test sets (about 1.19, 1.25, and 1.21). Second, the vocabulary level was examined by running Compleat Web VP, and
found to be comparable with that of the textbook used in the participants’ regular English classes. More specifically, each test included about 91% words between K-1 and K-3 levels; about 2% words between K-4 and K-6 levels; less than 1% words over K-7 level; about 6% off-list words.

The coding of the data was simple in that a correct answer was assigned one point, whereas an incorrect answer was given 0 points. Each test had a maximum score of 20 points.

The results of the pilot test with 25 learners confirmed that the three tests of closed DCT were comparable in terms of the difficulty level. On average, the learners achieved about 30% of the maximum score on each test (12.31 points (31%), 13.25 points (33%), and 13.38 points (33%)).

Closed DCT data collected on the pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest were coded by the researcher, three times, and an inter-rater from a similar academic background. Both the intra- and inter-rater reliability ranged between 98% and 99%, indicating a high level of consistency between the raters. The few percent of inconsistencies were reconciled through a follow-up communication.

3.3.5.4 Oral and Written Production Tasks. The oral and written production tasks sought to measure the participants’ use of the passive for form, meaning, and function and the mappings between them. The production tasks were designed as reconstruction tasks in which the participants first listened to a short story (approximately 170 words) about the history of a specific type of food (i.e., ice cream, chocolate, and coffee) and then reconstructed it in both oral and written modes (Appendix G). There were two reasons for this design of the tasks. First, as stated in the previous chapter, the
processing of form and meaning occurs sequentially rather than simultaneously (e.g., Han, et al., 2008; VanPatten, 1990). Thus, it was posited that the tasks, by asking the participants to reconstruct the same story in two different modes, would induce more accurate use of the passive constructions. Second, as Bardovi-Harlig (2000) claims, some L2 learners produce more developed language in writing than they would orally, which is especially common in EFL learners such as the participants in the present study.

To this end, three versions of reconstruction tasks were created for the pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest. The prompts used for the three tests are provided below. Each prompt (approximately 170 words) included 10 tokens of the passive. In line with the distribution of the functions of the passive established in the study, 10% of the tokens exemplified F1 ( [+Topic Prominence] [-Coherence] [+Defocusing]); 70% exemplified F2 ( [+Topic Prominence] [+Coherence] [+Defocusing]); 20% exemplified T3 ( [+Topic Prominence] [+Coherence] [-Defocusing]). However, due to the limited context result from the short length of the prompt, the various combinations of tense, aspect, and S-V agreement examined in the study could not be reflected to a full extent.

**The History of Ice Cream**

Ice cream is one of the most popular desserts in the world. In fact, it is the most favorite dessert in summer. Ice cream has 2000 years of history. The first ice cream was made in ancient times. But its earliest form was very different from today's ice cream. Back then, ice cream was made with snow and ice. Only rich and powerful people such as King Alexander and Queen Cleopatra enjoyed it. The history of ice cream is even written in the bible. For example, in ancient times, ice was harvested from nearby mountains and held deep in the ground.

Real ice cream is made with milk, and it was produced the first time in the 17th century by Gerald Tissain, a French chef. In the 18th century, ice cream was sold only at luxurious cafes in Europe. However, it was introduced to the public when an American
businessman opened the first ice cream factory. Yet, the Italians **have been regarded** as the greatest ice cream makers. For example, in the 19th century, there were as many as 30,000 Italian ice cream makers in Europe. Others have learned the Italian method since those days, and so today, excellent ice cream is **enjoyed** all over the world.

**The History of Chocolate**

If you can't imagine life without chocolate, you're lucky you weren't born before the 16th century. Chocolate is one of the most popular desserts in the world for its sweet taste. Until then, chocolate existed in a form quite different from what we know.

Chocolate has 3000 years of history. In ancient times, its form was quite different from what we know today. chocolate **was used** to make alcoholic drinks. It **was also used** as medicine because of its bitter taste. Chocolate is **made** from cocoa beans. The beans had so much value in ancient times that they **were even used** as money. In one record, it is even described as "food of the Gods.". Cocoa trees grow in a limited geographical zone. Today, nearly 70% of the world crop today is **harvested** in West Africa.

In Europe in the 16th century, sugar **was added** to chocolate and it became popular because of the sweet taste. In fact, the chocolate sold today often contains more sugar than cocoa. In 1780, chocolate **was produced** by machines for the first time.

Chocolate has become one of the most popular foods in the world, and a number of food products **have been created** with chocolate. Also, chocolate is **used** in hot or cold drinks such as chocolate milk and hot chocolate.

**The History of Coffee**

Coffee is one of the most popular drinks today. In fact, you may know that around the world more people drink coffee than tea. Originally, coffee **was discovered** by an Ethiopian boy named Kaldi in the 9th century. One day, he was surprised to see that his goats were jumping around, almost dancing, after eating coffee berries. He tried some himself, and felt like dancing, too!

At first, coffee **was used** as food, not as drink. For example, monks ate coffee berries to stay awake during long hours of prayer. Also, in Arabia, it **was considered** as a medicine. In the 11th century, the first hot drink **was developed**. In the 18th century, it **was introduced** in Europe and America and became very popular. In a French document, coffee is even **described** as "magical beverage."

However, modern coffee **was invented** only in the 19th century. Sugar and cream **were added** to coffee, and different types of coffee **have been made** such as espresso and latte.

Coffee **tree grow** in specific weather condition. Today, about one third of coffee in the world **is harvested** in Brazil. Coffee has become so popular that many countries even celebrate an International Coffee Day on September 29th.
The audio prompt for each reconstruction was created by recording a native speaker’s narration reading the written prompts presented above. The native speaker was asked to read the prompts as clearly and slowly as possible to ensure comprehensibility. In implementing the task, the audio files were played using an MP3 player. Before listening to the story, participants were told to focus on the content of story as the purpose of the task was to examine how much information they could comprehend and recall. In order to minimize memory effects, participants listened to two stories, including the target story, without knowing which they would be asked to reconstruct. In addition, five minutes of an interval was inserted after listening to the stories and before conducting the reconstruction. Notetaking was allowed while listening to the stories. After the five-minute interval, participants were asked to reconstruct the target story, recording their speeches using their smartphones, and to share the created MP3 files with the researcher immediately after the completion of the task. Then, they were asked to reconstruct the story again in the written mode.

As with the previous tasks, the comprehensibility and comparability of the production tasks was examined in terms of syntactic and semantic complexity. First, the sentence complexity of the three reconstruction tasks was examined by calculating the number of clauses per T-unit. The results showed that the ratios were comparable across the three tasks (1.07, 1.09, and 1.06). Second, the vocabulary level of the three tasks was examined using Compleat Web VP, and found to be comparable with that of the textbook used in the participants’ regular English classes. More specifically, each task included about 92% words between K-1 and K-3 levels; about 2% words between K-4 and K-6 levels; less than 1% words over K-7 level; about 5% off-list words. Similarly, an analysis
of the 11 oral narratives (approximately 150 words each) in the participants’ textbook revealed about 93% words between K-1 and K-3 levels; about 2% words between K-4 and K-6 levels; less than 1% words over K-7 level; about 5% off-list words.

With regard to coding, each token of the passive produced by the participants received up to six points, with a maximum of two points assigned each for form, meaning, and function. In terms of form, a grammatically correct token of the passive was awarded two points; a token with a partial morphological error (e.g., a correct past participle with an incorrect/no *BE*-auxiliary) was given one point; a token including an error in the overall morphemes involved in it or a pseudo-passive received 0 points (Table 4).

As for meaning, a token of the passive was awarded two points if it was used where the non-agent topic (i.e., patient) needed to be focused; a token was given one point if it conveyed the lexical meaning or if the learner’s intended meaning was conveyed, even if the passive form was not present (e.g., pseudo-passive or the active voice); a token received 0 points if it exhibited a reverse agent-patient relationship (Table 4).

With respect to function, a token of the passive was awarded two points if it was used in an appropriate context, serving the three functions established in the study (i.e., F1, F2, and F3); if the passive was not used in a context which preferred the passive over the active, the token received 0 points (Table 4). In addition, every token of overpassivization was given 0 points, for form, meaning, and function.
The scores assigned to individual tokens of the passive were then tallied using the target-like use formula presented below, for form, meaning, and function, respectively (e.g., Gass & Selinker, 2008; Pica, 1983):

\[
\frac{\text{number of correct suppliance in obligatory contexts}}{\text{number of obligatory contexts} + \text{number of suppliance in nonobligatory contexts}}
\]

Table 4
Coding Scheme for Oral and Written Production Tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coding Scheme</th>
<th>Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. A full score is provided to a correct passive form in terms of the \textit{BE}-auxiliary (i.e., tense, aspect, S-V agreement), past participle (pp), and the preposition \textit{By}:</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{E.g.}, The criminal was caught by police yesterday.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{Many babies have been saved over 10 years.}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{Coffee is harvested in many countries.}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. A partial score is provided to an incorrect passive form if it suffices one of the following conditions:</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) The form includes a correct pp (but with no or incorrect \textit{BE}-auxiliary), as the pp is the core element of the passive (e.g., Wanner, 2009).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{E.g.}, \textit{This piece understood as art.}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{An important meeting is held yesterday.}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) The form includes the syntactic structure of \textit{BE}-auxiliary + pp (but with incorrect morphology)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{E.g.}, \textit{This piece has been understanded as art.}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{An important meeting was hold yesterday.}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) The form is correct in terms of the syntactic structure and morphology, but includes an incorrect preposition (i.e., \textit{by} vs. other prepositions)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{E.g.}, \textit{Ice cream is made by milk.}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{The decision has been made from the court.}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. No score is provided to an incorrect form that does not suffice any of the aforementioned conditions AND an overpassivized token.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{E.g.}, \textit{An important meeting was holding yesterday.}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{A businessman was opened the factory.}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{Ice cream makes milk.}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Meaning

1. A full score is provided if the token includes correct grammatical AND lexical meanings.
   *E.g.*, The first ice cream was made in the 17C.
   Real ice cream is made from milk.
   Real ice cream are made from milk.

2. A partial score is provided if the sentence conveyed the lexical meaning but lacks the grammatical meaning of the passive (e.g., pseudo-passives).
   *E.g.*, Chocolate makes many different kinds of food.
   . . . The history of ice cream . . . Machines produced ice cream for the first time in 18C.

3. No score is provided to an overpassivized token and a token with seemingly erroneous semantic meaning.
   *E.g.*, A businessman was opened the factory.
   Ice cream makes milk.
   Coffee is drunk/eaten more than tea.

Function

1. A full score is provided if the token serves one of the three categories of functions of the passive (F1, F2, and F3) established in the study. In other words, a full score is provided if the token has been produced in a context in which the passive IS preferred.
   *E.g.*, . . . The history of ice cream . . . Ice cream was produced by machines for the first time in 18C.

2. No score is provided if the token does not serve one of the three aforementioned categories of functions of the passive. Also, no score is provided to an overpassivized token and pseudo-passive.
   *E.g.*, . . . The history of ice cream . . . Machines produced ice cream for the first time in 18C.
   A businessman was opened the factory.
   Ice cream makes milk.
   Coffee is drunk/eaten more than tea.

The three reconstruction tasks were piloted with three native speakers, who did indicate a preference for the passive over the active in all tokens of the passive embedded in the stories. Furthermore, this preference was consistent in their oral and written reconstructions. However, another pilot test was conducted with 25 EFL learners from the participant sample, and the results revealed a slight difference in performance.
depending on the two modes of reconstruction. The learners exhibited more use of the passive, as well as slightly higher scores of the use of the passive, in the written, than in the oral, mode. Nonetheless, the three tasks were found to be comparable in the difficulty level ($p > .05$).

Production data collected on the pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest were coded by the researcher, three times, and an inter-rater from a similar academic background. Both the intra- and inter-rater reliability ranged between 95% and 99%, indicating a high level of consistency between the raters. The few percent of inconsistencies were reconciled through a follow-up communication.

### 3.3.6 Exit Questionnaire

In order to obtain information about the participants’ perception of the FonF treatments they received, a written questionnaire (Appendix H) was distributed after the administration of the delayed posttest. The items in the questionnaire concerned whether the participants found the treatment they experienced helpful (if yes, why), whether they thought they learned something from the treatment (if yes, what it is), and what kind of grammar instruction they would like to receive in the future. Also, one item inquired whether the participants spent extra time studying the passive voice over the three-week treatment period, so that those who answered positively to this item would be eliminated from data analysis.
Chapter IV
RESULTS

This chapter reports the results of the current study. First, data from the five measurement tasks (i.e., GJT, sentence pair task, closed DCT, and oral and written production tasks) are analyzed quantitatively to examine the effects of textual enhancement (TE) and consciousness-raising (C-R) on the participants’ acquisition of the passive and the durability of the treatment effects. For each measurement task, descriptive statistics are presented, followed by the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test and the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test. For a more nuanced understanding of the results, each dataset is also analyzed based on the participants’ proficiency levels. Then, data from five individual learners are examined at a more granular level, focusing on their performance on the oral and written production tasks. Finally, the results of the exit questionnaire are reported.

4.1 Quantitative Analyses

Quantitative analyses of the data were conducted using two nonparametric tests, the Kruskal-Wallis test and the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test, as some of the data sets exhibited a skewed distribution. First, to examine whether TE and C-R had any significant effects on the participants’ performance on the five measurement tasks, the Kruskal-Wallis test was run with the two experimental conditions as the independent variables and the immediate and delayed posttest scores as the dependent variables. Second, in each group, the participants’ scores on the pretest and two posttests were
compared by the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test to determine the significance of the differences in their performance before and after the treatments. An additional within-group analysis was then conducted based on the learners’ proficiency levels, motivated by the assertion that the acquisition of the syntax-pragmatics interface appears to be more challenging, even for advanced L2 learners, than the formal properties or syntax-semantics interface (Han & Lew, 2012; Sorace, 2005). All statistical analyses were carried out using SPSS version 25.0.

As indicated earlier, the results of the study are presented focusing on the performance of the participants in the three groups. To briefly summarize the groups and the pedagogical treatment they received in the study, during the treatment period, the implicit FonF group (IFG) engaged in textual enhancement (TE); the explicit FonF group (EFG) engaged in consciousness-raising (C-R); the control group received no treatment.

4.1.1. Grammaticality Judgment

Table 5 presents the descriptive statistics for the participants’ scores on the GJT, a task administered to measure their knowledge of the form of the passive. The results are also illustrated visually in Figure 12. The experimental groups both showed considerable growth from the pretest to the immediate posttest, with the implicit FonF group (IFG) \((M=30.27)\) slightly outperforming the explicit FonF group (EFG) \((M=29.67)\). By contrast, the mean score of the control group remained stable \((M=21.42)\). The Kruskal-Wallis test indicated that the difference across the three groups was statistically significant at the .05 significance level: \(X^2(2)=33.916, p=.000\). A Bonferroni post hoc analysis was then conducted to examine the source of significance among the multiple between-group comparisons. The results showed a statistically significant difference
between the experimental groups and the control group \((p= .000)\), but not between the two experimental groups \((p=1.000)\).

The delayed posttest scores exhibited similar patterns in that the IFG \((M=29.21)\) and EFG \((M=28.39)\) still achieved significantly higher mean scores than the control group \((M=21.52)\): \(X^2(2)=23.903, p= .000\). As with the immediate posttest, however, no substantial difference was found between the two experimental groups \((p=1.000)\).

Table 5
Descriptive Statistics for GJT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20.94</td>
<td>5.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20.58</td>
<td>5.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20.48</td>
<td>5.44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 40 points.

Figure 12
Visual Comparison for GJT Scores

Within-group pairwise comparisons with the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test (Table 6) confirmed that the score increase after the FonF treatment was statistically significant
in each treatment condition \((p=.000)\), at the adjusted .025 significance level.

Furthermore, both the IFG \((p=.244)\) and EFC \((p=.085)\) maintained their respective mean gains after the four-week time interval. On the contrary, no noticeable change was observed within the control group over the two posttests \((p=.051\) and \(p=.909)\).

Table 6
Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test for GJT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>(N)</th>
<th>Mean Gain</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>(P)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest-Immediate Posttest</td>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>9.33</td>
<td>5.14</td>
<td>-4.806</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>9.09</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>-5.024</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>-1.950</td>
<td>.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest-Delayed Posttest</td>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>-1.06</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>-1.164</td>
<td>.244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>-1.27</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>-1.723</td>
<td>.085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>-.114</td>
<td>.909</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to obtain a more nuanced understanding of the treatment effects, an additional within-group analysis was conducted based on the participants’ proficiency levels. In each group, participants were divided into two subgroups of high and low proficiency levels based on their average pretest scores. However, not many participants exhibited scores consistent over the five measurement tasks. For example, several participants assigned to the high proficiency level subgroup had performed below average on one to two measurement tasks; similarly, those assigned to the low proficiency level subgroup had usually performed above average on one to two measurement tasks. To make more valid comparisons based on the proficiency levels, these participants were removed from the analyses. As a result, each subgroup included only a few participants who achieved high, or low, scores on all five measurement tasks. Table 7 and Figure 13 present the results. Overall, the subgroups exhibited patterns similar to those in Figure 12. However, on the delayed posttest, the high-level learners in
the IFG showed another slight mean score gain ($MG = .67$), while the low-level learners revealed a decrease ($MG = -4.00$). In contrast, in the EFG, the high-level learners showed a slight mean score decrease ($MG = -2.75$), while the low-level learners maintained their immediate posttest score ($MG = .00$). There was no considerable change in the performance of the control group, even though both high- and low-level learners revealed a meager score gain ($MG = 2.50$ and $MG = .40$, respectively) on the delayed posttest.

Table 7
Descriptive Statistics for GJT Based on Proficiency Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Proficiency Level</th>
<th>Pretest $Mean$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>Pretest $Mean Gain$</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest $Mean$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest $Mean Gain$</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest $Mean$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>Low ($N=8$)</td>
<td>14.88</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>12.88</td>
<td>27.75</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>-4.00</td>
<td>23.75</td>
<td>3.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High ($N=6$)</td>
<td>28.00</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>7.17</td>
<td>35.17</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>35.83</td>
<td>3.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>Low ($N=5$)</td>
<td>16.00</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>9.40</td>
<td>25.40</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>25.40</td>
<td>5.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High ($N=4$)</td>
<td>24.50</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>9.25</td>
<td>33.75</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>-2.75</td>
<td>31.00</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Low ($N=5$)</td>
<td>15.80</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>15.80</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>16.20</td>
<td>4.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High ($N=4$)</td>
<td>27.00</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
<td>26.00</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>28.50</td>
<td>4.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 40 points.

Figure 13
Visual Comparison for GJT Scores Based on Proficiency Levels
Additionally, the GJT data were analyzed focusing on the three combinations of tense and aspect examined in the study (i.e., present simple, past simple, and present perfect). Each combination comprised about 30% of the items on each GJT. Participants’ GJT scores per the three combinations of tense and aspect are presented in Table 8. At the outset of the study, the three groups showed similar mean scores, except that the control group had a lower score for the present simple ($M=23$) than the IFG ($M=31.17$) and EFG ($M=32$). Immediately after the pedagogical treatment, both experimental groups achieved considerably higher mean scores for all three combinations of tense and aspect. On the contrary, the control group experienced a score gain only for the present simple, exhibiting a slight U-shaped pattern for the past simple, and no noticeable gain for the present perfect.

Table 8
GJT Scores Based on Tense and Aspect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Tense &amp; Aspect</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>Present Simple</td>
<td>$M=31.17$</td>
<td>$M=55.71$</td>
<td>$M=48.43$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Past Simple</td>
<td>$M=41.57$</td>
<td>$M=48$</td>
<td>$M=54.43$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Present Perfect</td>
<td>$M=30.43$</td>
<td>$M=45.5$</td>
<td>$M=40.67$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>Present Simple</td>
<td>$M=32$</td>
<td>$M=56.57$</td>
<td>$M=45.29$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Past Simple</td>
<td>$M=41.86$</td>
<td>$M=45.43$</td>
<td>$M=51.29$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Present Perfect</td>
<td>$M=27.71$</td>
<td>$M=44.17$</td>
<td>$M=38.5$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Present Simple</td>
<td>$M=23$</td>
<td>$M=46.43$</td>
<td>$M=33.43$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Past Simple</td>
<td>$M=42.43$</td>
<td>$M=30.86$</td>
<td>$M=43.57$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Present Perfect</td>
<td>$M=27$</td>
<td>$M=27.67$</td>
<td>$M=28.83$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.1.2 Sentence Pair

Table 9 provides the descriptive statistics for the participants’ scores on the sentence pair task, which measured their knowledge of the meaning of the passive. Figure 14 illustrates the results for a visual comparison. The immediate posttest mean scores for
the three groups varied from one another quite noticeably. Although both experimental
groups outperformed the control group \((M=5.39)\), the IFG \((M=8.15)\) displayed a
substantially greater improvement than the EFG \((M=6.79)\). The Kruskal-Wallis test
revealed that differences across the three groups were statistically significant at the .05
significance level: \(X^2(2)=23.201, p=.000\). More specifically, a Bonferroni post hoc
analysis indicated a significant difference between the IFG and the control group
\((p=.000)\), as well as between the EFG and the control group \((p=.039)\). No statistical
significance was found between the two experimental groups, but the \(p\)-value was close
to the significance level \((p=.059)\).

The delayed posttest showed similar patterns. Both the IFG \((M=8.24)\) and EFG
\((M=6.91)\) performed significantly better than the control group \((M=5.52)\),
\(X^2(2)=31.821, p=.000\), with the IFG outperforming the EFG at a statistically significant
level \((p=.018)\).

Table 9
Descriptive Statistics for Sentence Pair Task

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>(N)</th>
<th>Pretest Mean</th>
<th>Pretest SD</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest Mean</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest SD</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest Mean</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6.30</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>8.15</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>8.24</td>
<td>1.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6.18</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>6.79</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>6.91</td>
<td>1.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>5.39</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 10 points.
As the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test results (Table 10) demonstrate, the change in the mean scores from the pretest to the immediate posttest was statistically significant in the IFG \( (p=.000) \) and the control group \( (p=.011) \), but not in the EFG \( (p=.036) \), at the adjusted .025 significance level. However, none of the three groups exhibited a significant score change from the immediate posttest to the delayed posttest \( (p=\text{between } .541 \text{ and } .685) \).

Table 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Gain</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pretest-Immediate</strong> Posttest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>-3.965</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>-2.102</td>
<td>.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-.85</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>-2.528</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Posttest-Delayed</strong> Posttest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>-.405</td>
<td>.685</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>-.612</td>
<td>.541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>-.548</td>
<td>.584</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As with the GJT data, an additional within-group analysis was conducted to examine any differences in the treatment effects depending on the participants’ proficiency levels. The results are presented in Table 11 and Figure 15. In the IFG, the high- and low-level learners exhibited a similar, constant improvement over the two posttests ($MG=$between .33 and 1.67), which resembled the pattern observed on the group level (Figure 14). In the EFG, however, the high-level learners showed a slight decrease of the mean score on the delayed posttest ($MG=$-1.00), whereas the low-level learners displayed another small increase ($MG=$.80). Conversely, both high- and low-level learners in the control group experienced a seemingly constant score decrease over the course of the experiment ($MG=$between -.25 and -1.25), despite the meager gain shown by the low-level learners on the delayed posttest ($MG=$.20).

Table 11
Descriptive Statistics for the Sentence Pair Task Based on Proficiency Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Proficiency Level</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean GAIN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>Low (N=8)</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=6)</td>
<td>7.67</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>Low (N=5)</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=4)</td>
<td>7.75</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Low (N=5)</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>-0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=4)</td>
<td>7.75</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>-1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 10 points.
4.1.3 Closed Discourse Completion

Table 12 displays the descriptive statistics for the participants’ scores on the closed DCT, which examined their knowledge of the function of the passive. Figure 16 provides a visual comparison of the results. As with the GJT and sentence pair task, the IFG ($M=15.33$) achieved the greatest mean score immediately after the treatment sessions, followed by the EFG ($M=12.58$), and the control group ($M=11.61$). Data calculated with the Kruskal-Wallis test indicated a statistically significant difference across the three mean scores at the .05 significance level: $X^2(2)=20.251$, $p=.000$. According to a Bonferroni post hoc analysis, however, only the IFG significantly outperformed both the control group ($p=.000$) and the EFG ($p=.004$), with no significant difference observed between the latter two groups ($p=.732$).

On the delayed posttest, the immediate posttest scores were largely maintained. Despite a small decrease of scores, the IFG attained a significantly greater mean ($M=14.85$) than both the EFG ($M=12.55, p=.005$) and the control group ($M=10.85$, $p=.004$).
\( p = .000 \): \( \chi^2(2) = 24.025, p = .000 \). However, the performance of the EFG was not significantly different from that of the control group (\( p = .063 \)).

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics for Closed DCT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>11.94</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>15.33</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>14.85</td>
<td>2.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>11.12</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>12.58</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>12.55</td>
<td>3.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>11.45</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>11.61</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>10.85</td>
<td>2.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 20 points.*

Figure 16

Visual Comparison for Closed DCT Scores

The Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test of the data (Table 13) confirmed that the mean scores before and after the pedagogical treatment differed significantly in the IFG (\( p = .000 \)), at the adjusted .025 significance level. However, no statistical significance was observed in the EFG (\( p = .049 \)) and the control group (\( p = .425 \)). Both the IFG (\( p = .482 \))
and the EFG \((p=.894)\) also maintained their respective mean score gains on the delayed posttest, but no notable change was found in the control group \((p=.061)\).

Table 13
Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test for Closed DCT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>(N)</th>
<th>Mean Gain</th>
<th>(SD)</th>
<th>(Z)</th>
<th>(P)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest-Immediate Posttest</td>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>-4.083</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>-1.965</td>
<td>.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>-.798</td>
<td>.425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest-Delayed Posttest</td>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-.48</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>-.704</td>
<td>.482</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>-.133</td>
<td>.894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-.76</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>-1.872</td>
<td>.061</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For a more granular understanding of the data, an additional within-group analysis based on the participants’ proficiency levels was conducted. The results are presented in Table 14 and Figure 17. In each experimental group, the high- and low-level learners exhibited similar patterns of change. However, similar to the group-level results presented in Figure 15, the subgroups in the IFG showed considerably greater mean gains \((MG=.99 \text{ and } MG=2.28)\) than those in the EFG \((MG=1.20 \text{ and } MG=1.25)\) immediately after the pedagogical treatment. In the control group, the high- and low-level learners demonstrated a slight score decrease \((MG=-1.25)\) and increase \((MG=1.00)\), respectively, on the immediate posttest, but no noticeable change was observed over the course of the experiment.
Table 14

Descriptive Statistics for the Closed DCT Based on Proficiency Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Proficiency Level</th>
<th>Pretest Mean</th>
<th>Pretest SD</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest Mean</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest SD</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest Mean</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>Low (N=8)</td>
<td>9.88</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>13.63</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>13.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=6)</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>17.67</td>
<td>-.50</td>
<td>17.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>Low (N=5)</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>11.20</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>-1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=4)</td>
<td>13.25</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>14.50</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>13.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Low (N=5)</td>
<td>10.20</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>11.20</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=4)</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>-1.25</td>
<td>12.75</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 20 points.

Figure 17

Visual Comparison for Closed DCT Based on Proficiency Levels

4.1.4 Oral Production

Data from the oral production task were analyzed to examine the participants’ use of the passive in terms of form, meaning, and function and the mappings between them.

4.1.4.1 Form. Table 15 shows the descriptive statistics for the participants’ oral production task scores for the use of the passive in terms of form. The results are also illustrated visually in Figure 18. On the immediate posttest, participants in both
experimental groups performed noticeably better than the control group ($M=34.78$), with the IFG ($M=62.63$) scoring higher than the EFG ($M=57.41$). According to the Kruskal-Wallis test, the mean scores of the three groups were significantly different from one another: $X^2(2)=19.496, p= .000$. More specifically, a Bonferroni post hoc analysis revealed that both the IFG ($p=.000$) and EFG ($p=.002$) achieved significantly higher mean scores than the control group, but there was no statistically significant difference between the two experimental groups ($p=1.000$).

The delayed posttest data showed similar patterns. Although the score gains partially disappeared in both experimental groups, the IFG ($M=60.20$) and EFG ($M=53.50$) significantly outperformed the control group ($M=35.73$): $X^2(2)=20.156, p= .000$. However, no statistical significance was found between the two experimental groups ($p= .746$).

Table 15
Descriptive Statistics for Oral Production Task (Form)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>$N$</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>$SD$</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>39.77</td>
<td>26.37</td>
<td>62.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>40.86</td>
<td>24.78</td>
<td>57.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>35.23</td>
<td>14.77</td>
<td>34.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 100 (%).
Figure 18
Visual Comparison for Oral Production Task Scores (Form)

As indicated by the results of the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test (Table 16), the mean score gains in both the IFG and EFG were statistically significant immediately after the treatment sessions \( (p = .000) \), at the adjusted .025 significance level. Also, the respective gains were maintained on the delayed posttest in both the IFG \( (p = .246) \) and EFG \( (p = .107) \). Conversely, the mean scores of the control group remained stable from the pretest to the two posttests \( (p = .854 \text{ and } p = .791) \).

Table 16
Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test for Oral Production Task (Form)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Gain</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest-Immediate</td>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>22.86</td>
<td>18.54</td>
<td>-4.731</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>16.55</td>
<td>13.10</td>
<td>-4.547</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-.45</td>
<td>9.54</td>
<td>-.184</td>
<td>.854</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest-Delayed</td>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-2.43</td>
<td>14.30</td>
<td>-1.159</td>
<td>.246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-3.91</td>
<td>13.02</td>
<td>-1.611</td>
<td>.107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>13.83</td>
<td>-.265</td>
<td>.791</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As with the GJT, sentence pair task, and closed DCT, an additional within-group analysis was conducted based on the participants’ proficiency levels to obtain a more nuanced understanding of the treatment effects. Table 17 and Figure 19 present the results. In general, the subgroups in each experimental group exhibited similar patterns of change over the two posttests, except that the high-level learners in the EFG showed a slight, but constant, score gain ($MG=5.45$ and $MG=5.34$). In the control group, the low-level learners displayed a slight U-shaped pattern ($MG=-4.47$ and $MG=7.02$) over the course of the experiment, while the high-level learners experienced a noticeable score decrease on the delayed posttest ($MG=-11.18$).

Table 17
Descriptive Statistics for Oral Production Task (Form) Based on Proficiency Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Proficiency Level</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>Low ($N=8$)</td>
<td>10.04</td>
<td>6.64</td>
<td>21.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High ($N=6$)</td>
<td>73.14</td>
<td>18.59</td>
<td>16.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>Low ($N=5$)</td>
<td>14.16</td>
<td>11.88</td>
<td>17.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High ($N=4$)</td>
<td>71.82</td>
<td>11.40</td>
<td>5.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Low ($N=5$)</td>
<td>16.41</td>
<td>5.14</td>
<td>-4.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High ($N=4$)</td>
<td>58.07</td>
<td>6.75</td>
<td>3.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 100 (%).
4.1.4.2 Meaning. Table 18 provides the descriptive statistics for the participants’ oral production task scores for the use of the passive in terms of meaning. Figure 20 illustrates the results visually. Immediately after the treatment sessions, the IFG ($M=87.32$) and EFG ($M=86.29$) achieved greater mean scores than the control group ($M=65.97$). Calculations with the Kruskal-Wallis test suggested that the mean scores were statistically significantly different across the three groups, at the .05 significance level: $X^2(2)=29.397$, $p=.000$. A closer examination of the results with a Bonferroni post hoc analysis indicated that a statistical significance existed between the experimental groups and the control group ($p=.000$), but not between the IFG and EFG ($p=1.000$).

Similar results were obtained from the delayed posttest data. Although the mean scores slightly decreased in both IFG ($M=82.01$) and EFG ($M=80.68$) on the delayed posttest, participants in the two experimental groups still performed significantly better than those in the control group ($M=64.29$): $X^2(2)=18.249$, $p=.000$. 

Figure 19
Visual Comparison for Oral Production Task Scores (Form) Based on Proficiency Levels
Table 18

Descriptive Statistics for Oral Production Task (Meaning)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pretest Mean</th>
<th>Pretest SD</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest Mean</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest SD</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest Mean</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>71.12</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>87.32</td>
<td>16.00</td>
<td>82.01</td>
<td>16.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>68.52</td>
<td>15.64</td>
<td>86.29</td>
<td>13.57</td>
<td>80.68</td>
<td>15.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>66.68</td>
<td>16.03</td>
<td>65.97</td>
<td>17.62</td>
<td>64.29</td>
<td>17.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 100 (%).

Figure 20

Visual Comparison for Oral Production Task Scores (Meaning)

The Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test (Table 19) confirmed that the mean score gains in both experimental groups were statistically significant ($p = .000$), at the adjusted .025 significance level. However, the decrease of the gained mean scores on the delayed posttest was also significant in both the IFG ($p = .005$) and EFG ($p = .007$). In contrast, the control group showed a constant score decrease along the two posttests, even though it was not substantial ($p=.943$ and $p = .645$).
For a more granular understanding of the data, an additional within-group analysis based on the learners’ proficiency levels were conducted. The results are displayed in Table 20 and Figure 21. Overall, the subgroups in the two experimental groups demonstrated patterns similar to those on the group level shown in Figure 20. However, as with form, the high-level learners in the EFG exhibited a slight, but constant, mean score gain over the two posttests ($MG=3.07$ and $MG=4.43$). The low-level learners in the control group also showed a slight gain ($MG=1.89$ and $MG=1.52$) over the course of the experiment, whereas the high-level learners revealed a slight decrease ($MG=-2.20$ and $MG=-8.75$).

Table 20
Descriptive Statistics for Oral Production Task (Meaning) Based on Proficiency Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Proficiency Level</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean Gain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>Low ($N=8$)</td>
<td>52.34</td>
<td>10.17</td>
<td>17.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High ($N=6$)</td>
<td>89.86</td>
<td>8.71</td>
<td>7.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>Low ($N=5$)</td>
<td>52.49</td>
<td>7.76</td>
<td>23.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High ($N=4$)</td>
<td>87.84</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>3.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Low ($N=5$)</td>
<td>41.55</td>
<td>11.95</td>
<td>1.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High ($N=4$)</td>
<td>88.79</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>-2.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 100 (%).
4.1.4.3 Function. The results of the analysis of the oral production data for the participants’ use of the passive in terms of function are presented in Table 21 and Figure 22. The posttest data revealed noticeably greater mean scores for the IFG (M=79.90) and EFG (M=78.73) than the control group (M=57.99). Calculated by the Kruskal-Wallis test, the three mean scores varied from one another statistically significantly, at the .05 significance level: $X^2(2)=18.210, p=.000$. A Bonferroni post hoc analysis further demonstrated that the mean scores of the IFG and EFG were comparable with each other ($p=1.000$) but significantly higher than that of the control group ($p=.000$ and $p=.001$, respectively).

A similar pattern was observed in the delayed posttest data. The two experimental groups still exhibited higher mean scores than the control group (M=54.20), with the IFG (M=75.11) performing better than the EFG (M=71.35): $X^2(2)=15.251, p=.000$. Yet, there was no noticeable difference between the two experimental groups ($p=1.000$).
Table 21
Descriptive Statistics for Oral Production Task (Function)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>56.82</td>
<td>28.74</td>
<td>79.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>58.06</td>
<td>27.69</td>
<td>78.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>71.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>57.67</td>
<td>20.50</td>
<td>57.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>54.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 100 (%).

Figure 22
Visual Comparison of Oral Production Task Scores (Function)

Additionally, the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test of the data (Table 22) showed that the score increase observed in each experimental group immediately after the treatment sessions was statistically meaningful ($p = .000$), at the adjusted .025 significance level. However, the seemingly small score decrease on the delayed posttest was also significant in both the IFG ($p = .035$) and EFG ($p = .006$). As for the control group, no statistical significance was found over the course of the experiment ($p = .710$ and $p = .362$).
Table 22
Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test for Oral Production Task (Function)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Gain</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest-Immediate</td>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>23.07</td>
<td>17.82</td>
<td>-4.763</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20.68</td>
<td>14.44</td>
<td>-4.350</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>15.38</td>
<td>-.372</td>
<td>.710</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delayed Posttest</td>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-4.78</td>
<td>12.20</td>
<td>-2.107</td>
<td>.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-7.38</td>
<td>14.44</td>
<td>-2.743</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-3.80</td>
<td>21.40</td>
<td>-.911</td>
<td>.362</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Yet another round of analysis of the data was conducted based on the participants’ proficiency levels. Table 23 and Figure 23 present the results. Similar to the results obtained with respect to form and meaning, the subgroups in each experimental group generally exhibited similar patterns of performance. However, the high-level learners in the EFG revealed a slight, but constant, mean score gain along the two posttests ($MG=.91$ and $MG=4.32$). In addition, in both the IFG and EFG, the low-level learners achieved greater mean score gains ($MG=28.07$ and $MG=30.67$) on the immediate posttest, as well as greater mean score decreases ($MG=-5.39$ and $MG=-12.34$) on the delayed posttest, than the high-level learners ($MG=8.27$ and $MG=.91$; $MG=-6.84$ and $MG=4.32$, respectively). In the control group, whereas the low-level learners showed a slight gain ($MG=1.88$ and $MG=3.34$), the higher-level learners revealed a slight decrease ($MG=-2.20$ and $MG=-8.75$), over the two posttests.
Table 23

Descriptive Statistics for Oral Production Task (Function) Based on Proficiency Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Proficiency Level</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>Low (N=8)</td>
<td>22.44</td>
<td>16.61</td>
<td>50.51</td>
<td>26.93</td>
<td>-5.39</td>
<td>45.12</td>
<td>26.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=6)</td>
<td>90.07</td>
<td>98.33</td>
<td>98.33</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>-6.84</td>
<td>91.50</td>
<td>9.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>Low (N=5)</td>
<td>28.70</td>
<td>20.73</td>
<td>59.37</td>
<td>35.96</td>
<td>-12.34</td>
<td>47.03</td>
<td>30.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=4)</td>
<td>87.73</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>88.64</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>92.95</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Low (N=5)</td>
<td>29.62</td>
<td>12.86</td>
<td>31.50</td>
<td>7.86</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>34.84</td>
<td>5.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=4)</td>
<td>91.06</td>
<td>6.85</td>
<td>88.98</td>
<td>10.35</td>
<td>-15.51</td>
<td>73.47</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 100 (%).

Figure 23

Visual Comparison for Oral Production Task Scores (Function) Based on Proficiency Levels

4.1.5 Written Production

As with the oral production data, the written production data were analyzed to examine the participants’ use of the passive in terms of form, meaning, and function and the mappings between them.

4.1.5.1 Form. The descriptive statistics for the participants’ use of the passive in terms of form are displayed in Table 24. They are also illustrated visually in Figure 24.
Immediately after the treatment sessions, the IFG ($M=72.35$) and EFG ($M=67.69$) were found to outperform the control group considerably ($M=42.59$). The Kruskal-Wallis test indicated a statistically significant difference in performance across the three groups, at the .05 significance level: $X^2(2)=25.273, p=.000$. According to a Bonferroni post hoc analysis, the mean scores of the two experimental groups were statistically significantly higher than that of the control group ($p=.000$), but no substantial difference was found between the two experimental groups ($p=1.000$).

Similarly, on the delayed posttest, both the IFG ($M=66.33$) and EFG ($M=67.07$) exhibited significantly higher mean scores than the control group ($M=45.14$): $X^2(2)=20.535, p=.000$. However, there was no significant difference between the two experimental groups ($p=1.000$).

Table 24
Descriptive Statistics for Written Production Task (Form)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>$N$</th>
<th>Pretest Mean</th>
<th>Pretest SD</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest Mean</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest SD</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest Mean</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>44.46</td>
<td>24.26</td>
<td>72.35</td>
<td>22.96</td>
<td>66.33</td>
<td>21.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>47.65</td>
<td>24.41</td>
<td>67.69</td>
<td>24.61</td>
<td>67.07</td>
<td>23.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>44.61</td>
<td>19.76</td>
<td>42.59</td>
<td>22.63</td>
<td>45.14</td>
<td>17.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 100 (%).
The Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test (Table 25) confirmed that the participants’ performance in each experimental group changed significantly immediately after the treatment sessions \( (p = .000) \), at the adjusted .025 significance level. The score gains were also maintained on the delayed posttest in both the IFG \( (p = .042) \) and EFG \( (p = .918) \). In contrast, the control group showed a slight U-shaped pattern over the two posttests, even though the change was not statistically significant \( (p = .607 \text{ and } p = .557) \).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 25</th>
<th>Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test for Written Production Task (Form)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest-Immediate Posttest</td>
<td>IFG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EFG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest-Delayed Posttest</td>
<td>IFG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EFG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 24
Visual Comparison of Written Production Task Scores (Form)
As with the previous datasets, an additional within-group analysis was conducted based on the participants' proficiency levels. Table 26 and Figure 25 display the results, which were slightly different from those for the oral production tasks. The subgroups in the two experimental groups exhibited a similar, constant score increase over the two posttests ($MG=$between 1.04 and 13.89), except that the low-level learners in the IFG showed a slight decrease from the immediate to delayed posttests ($MG=$-10.39). In contrast, in the control group, the high-level learners experienced a constant score decrease ($MG=$-3.09 and $MG=$-1.16), while the low-level learners revealed a slight U-shaped pattern ($MG=$-7.71 and $MG=$12.90).

Table 26

Descriptive Statistics for Written Production Task (Form) Based on Proficiency Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Proficiency Level</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>Low (N=8)</td>
<td>19.26</td>
<td>12.83</td>
<td>33.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=6)</td>
<td>74.54</td>
<td>11.11</td>
<td>13.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>Low (N=5)</td>
<td>19.43</td>
<td>11.98</td>
<td>22.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=4)</td>
<td>75.34</td>
<td>13.89</td>
<td>13.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Low (N=5)</td>
<td>19.74</td>
<td>5.66</td>
<td>-7.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=4)</td>
<td>63.69</td>
<td>11.18</td>
<td>-3.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 100 (%).
4.1.5.2 Meaning. Table 27 presents the descriptive statistics for the written production data for the participants’ use of the passive in terms of meaning. The results are also illustrated visually in Figure 26. On the immediate posttest, participants in both the IFG (M=93.08) and EFG (M=91.25) attained noticeably higher mean scores than the control group (M=73.58). Calculations with the Kruskal-Wallis test showed that the difference across the three groups was statistically significant at the .05 significance level: $X^2(2)=26.089, p=.000$. A Bonferroni post hoc test confirmed that the mean scores of the two experimental groups, which were comparable with each other ($p=1.000$), varied significantly from that of the control group ($p=.000$).

Similar patterns were observed on the delayed posttest in that the participants in the two experimental conditions achieved comparable mean scores ($p=1.000$), which were significantly higher than that of the control group: $X^2(2)=20.469, p=.000$. 

Figure 25
Visual Comparison for Written Production Task Scores (Form) Based on Proficiency Levels
Table 27
Descriptive Statistics for Written Production Task (Meaning)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pretest Mean</th>
<th>Pretest SD</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest Mean</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest SD</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest Mean</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>72.59</td>
<td>16.83</td>
<td>93.08</td>
<td>9.27</td>
<td>85.35</td>
<td>13.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>73.80</td>
<td>14.45</td>
<td>91.25</td>
<td>11.16</td>
<td>86.43</td>
<td>14.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>73.43</td>
<td>15.54</td>
<td>73.58</td>
<td>19.98</td>
<td>71.07</td>
<td>2.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 100 (%).

Figure 26
Visual Comparison of Written Production Task Scores (Meaning)

The Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test of the data (Table 28) provided further analysis of the score changes in each group. Both experimental groups displayed a statistically significant progress from the pretest to the immediate posttest ($p = .000$). However, on the delayed posttest, neither the IFG ($p = .000$) nor the EFG ($p = .008$) maintained their respective score gains. Conversely, the mean scores of the control group remained stable over the two posttests ($p = .881$ and $p = .335$).
Table 28
Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test for Written Production Task (Meaning)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Gain</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest-Immediate</td>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20.49</td>
<td>11.99</td>
<td>-4.937</td>
<td>&lt;.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>17.45</td>
<td>11.61</td>
<td>-4.744</td>
<td>&lt;.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>13.89</td>
<td>-.150</td>
<td>.881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest-Delayed</td>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-7.73</td>
<td>10.43</td>
<td>-3.761</td>
<td>&lt;.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-4.82</td>
<td>10.16</td>
<td>-2.643</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-2.51</td>
<td>13.76</td>
<td>-.965</td>
<td>.335</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An additional within-group analysis was conducted based on the participants’ proficiency levels. The results are displayed in Table 29 and Figure 27. Similar to what was observed in the oral production data, the subgroups in the two experimental groups showed similar patterns, but the high-level learners in the EFG achieved a slight, but constant, score gain over the two posttests ($MG=5.00$ and $MG=1.14$). Also, in both the IFG and EFG, the low-level learners achieved greater mean gains ($MG=30.28$ and $MG=23.14$) on the immediate posttest, as well as greater mean decreases on the delayed posttest ($MG=-11.95$ and $MG=-9.80$), than the high-level learners ($MG=7.00$ and $MG=5.00$; $MG=-2.35$ and $MG=1.14$, respectively). In the control group, the high-level learners exhibited a pattern of change similar to that on the group level (Figure 25), whereas the low-level learners revealed a slight U-shaped pattern ($MG=-6.53$ and $MG=4.36$).
### Table 29
Descriptive Statistics for Written Production Task (Meaning) Based on Proficiency Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Proficiency Level</th>
<th>Pretest Mean</th>
<th>Pretest SD</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest Mean</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest SD</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest Mean</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>Low (N=8)</td>
<td>53.08</td>
<td>13.62</td>
<td>30.28</td>
<td>83.36</td>
<td>12.05</td>
<td>-11.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=6)</td>
<td>90.64</td>
<td>7.01</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>97.64</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>-2.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>Low (N=5)</td>
<td>58.87</td>
<td>9.02</td>
<td>23.14</td>
<td>82.02</td>
<td>15.34</td>
<td>-9.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=4)</td>
<td>91.59</td>
<td>7.14</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>96.59</td>
<td>6.82</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Low (N=5)</td>
<td>50.58</td>
<td>9.89</td>
<td>-6.53</td>
<td>44.05</td>
<td>10.06</td>
<td>4.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=4)</td>
<td>89.72</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>91.25</td>
<td>9.04</td>
<td>-8.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 100 (%).

![Figure 27]

Visual Comparison for Written Production Task Scores (Meaning) Based on Proficiency Levels

#### 4.1.5.3 Function.
The descriptive statistics for the participants’ use of the passive in terms of function are shown in Table 30. They are illustrated visually in Figure 28. As with meaning, both the IFG ($M=88.63$) and EFG $M=(84.76)$ noticeably outperformed the control group ($M=66.66$) immediately after the treatment sessions. The Kruskal-Wallis test suggested that the difference across the three groups was statistically significant at the .05 significance level: $\chi^2(2)=20.239, p=.000$. According to the
Bonferroni post hoc test, the mean scores of both the IFG \((p = .000)\) and EFG \((p = .001)\) were significantly higher than that of the control group. However, the mean scores of the two experimental groups did not vary significantly from each other \((p = 1.000)\).

The delayed posttest data demonstrated similar patterns. After the four-week time interval, participants in the IFG \((p = .002)\) and EFG \((p = .001)\) still performed significantly better than the control group: \(X^2(2) = 17.212, p = .000\). However, the mean scores of the two experimental groups were comparable with each other \((p = 1.000)\).

Table 30
Descriptive Statistics for Written Production Task (Function)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pretest Mean</th>
<th>Pretest SD</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest Mean</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest SD</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest Mean</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>62.66</td>
<td>26.78</td>
<td>88.63</td>
<td>15.52</td>
<td>80.40</td>
<td>17.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>64.73</td>
<td>25.46</td>
<td>84.76</td>
<td>21.16</td>
<td>81.34</td>
<td>21.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>67.07</td>
<td>21.83</td>
<td>66.66</td>
<td>23.25</td>
<td>63.49</td>
<td>19.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 100 (%).

Figure 28
Visual Comparison for Written Production Task Scores (Function)
The Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test (Table 31) indicated that the mean score gain on the immediate posttest in each treatment condition was statistically significant at the adjusted .025 significance level \((p = .000)\). However, the IFG did not maintain the score gain on the delayed posttest \((p = .003)\), whereas the score decrease in the EFG was not statistically significant \((p = .057)\). In contrast, the control group showed a constant, albeit not substantial, score decrease over the course of the experiment \((p = .903\) and \(p = .334)\).

Table 31
Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test for Written Production Task (Function)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Gain</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest-Immediate Posttest</td>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>25.96</td>
<td>18.55</td>
<td>-4.743</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20.03</td>
<td>17.34</td>
<td>-4.519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-.41</td>
<td>15.72</td>
<td>-.122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest-Delayed Posttest</td>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-8.22</td>
<td>14.64</td>
<td>-2.945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-3.42</td>
<td>11.31</td>
<td>-1.904</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-3.17</td>
<td>16.22</td>
<td>-.967</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As with the previous datasets, an additional within-group analysis was conducted based on the participants’ proficiency levels. Table 32 and Figure 29 demonstrate the results. Similar to meaning, the subgroups in the two experimental groups exhibited similar patterns, but the high-level learners in the EFG achieved a slight, but constant, score gain over the two posttests \((MG=5.23\) and \(MG=1.02)\). Also, in both IFG and EFG, the low-level learners achieved greater mean gains \((MG=44.39\) and \(MG=28.36)\) on the immediate posttest, as well as greater mean decreases \((MG=-14.15\) and \(MG=-7.64)\) on the delayed posttest, than the high-level learners \((MG=10.79\) and \(MG=8.18; \ MG=.03\) and \(MG=1.02,\) respectively). In the control group, the high-level learners revealed a pattern of change similar to that on the group level (Figure 28), but the low-level learners showed a slight U-shaped pattern \((MG=-6.58\) and \(MG=5.08)\).
Table 32
Descriptive Statistics for Written Production Task (Function) Based on Proficiency Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Proficiency Level</th>
<th>Pretest Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mean Gain</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mean Gain</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFG</td>
<td>Low (N=8)</td>
<td>30.19</td>
<td>17.64</td>
<td>44.39</td>
<td>74.58</td>
<td>21.51</td>
<td>-14.15</td>
<td>60.44</td>
<td>14.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=6)</td>
<td>90.35</td>
<td>10.79</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>95.28</td>
<td>8.19</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>95.30</td>
<td>5.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFG</td>
<td>Low (N=5)</td>
<td>39.16</td>
<td>24.98</td>
<td>28.36</td>
<td>67.52</td>
<td>33.54</td>
<td>-7.64</td>
<td>59.88</td>
<td>31.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=4)</td>
<td>90.23</td>
<td>8.18</td>
<td>5.23</td>
<td>95.45</td>
<td>9.09</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>96.48</td>
<td>4.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Low (N=5)</td>
<td>39.23</td>
<td>10.09</td>
<td>-6.58</td>
<td>32.65</td>
<td>6.88</td>
<td>5.08</td>
<td>37.73</td>
<td>8.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (N=4)</td>
<td>92.92</td>
<td>9.46</td>
<td>-3.75</td>
<td>89.17</td>
<td>10.41</td>
<td>-9.53</td>
<td>79.63</td>
<td>6.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The maximum score was 100 (%).

Figure 29
Visual Comparison for Written Production Task Scores (Function) Based on Proficiency Levels

4.2 Qualitative Analysis

The analyses presented in the previous sections highlighted the major between- and within-group differences TE and C-R induced in the participants’ knowledge and use of the passive. In order to provide yet another view on the effects of the two types of FonF on the participants’ acquisition of the passive, this section examines intra-learner
changes that occurred over the course of the experiment. With this goal in mind, data collected from five participants are analyzed in detail. These participants were selected as they exhibited developmental routes that were noticeably diverging from that of the other participants. For all participants, pseudo-names are used.

### 4.2.1 Implicit FonF Group: HongGi

HongGi, from the implicit FonF group (IFG), had been studying English for eight years at the beginning of the experiment, mainly through school classes and private institutions. In terms of the mappings between the form, meaning, and function of the passive, he generally exhibited a remarkable development from the pretest to the two posttests (Table 33).

On the pretest, HongGi achieved about 50% of the score on each outcome measure, representing the average performance of the IFG. As for the form of the passive, his judgments on the GJT showed some ability to recognize and correct ungrammatical passive sentences, but at the same time, resulted in various types of malformed passive construction. More specifically, his GJT data demonstrated two tokens of the passive with a present participle used in place of a past participle, three tokens of pseudo-passives, and eight tokens of the passive including an incorrect past participle, *BE*-auxiliary (or omission), and/or preposition. On the sentence pair task, he generally provided only lexical meaning for the active-passive sentence pairs, literally translating them into Korean. Yet, the translations showed that he understood the agent-patient relationships in the given passive sentences correctly. On the closed DCT, his performance revealed no particular tendency towards either overuse or underuse of the passive, which suggested that the consistency of his answers were not above chance.
Considering these observations altogether, his knowledge of the passive, in terms of the form-meaning-function mappings, appeared to be unstable at the onset of the study.

The participant’s performance on the pretest oral and written production tasks revealed a similar degree of form-meaning-function mappings in the use of the passive, but slightly less control over the knowledge in oral production. He produced similar types of form errors as mentioned above, except the use of a present participle, but created more pseudo-passives on both the oral and written production tasks (36% and 27%, respectively) than on the GJT. The pseudo-passives failed to convey the grammatical meaning of the passive, and thus resulted in considerable score deduction as for meaning as well as function:

*Pretest Oral Production:*

Coffee is one of most famous drinks. In fact, we drinks coffee more, much than tea. Originally, coffee is discovered by Ethiopia boys Kaldi in nine century. One day he saw that goat are dancing, were dancing after eating coffee berry. And he was surprised. And he ate himself, he wants to dance. At first, coffee is used to not only drinks but also foods. For example, monks ate coffee berry to wake, to be waked for long wish time. Also, coffee was considered by medicine in Arabia. First coffee drink develop in eleven century. It is introduced to Europe and America in 18 century, and then it, it has been very famous. Following one record of France, coffee describe by magic drinks. But modern coffee is developed in nineteen century. Sugar and cream added in coffee. Different coffees make like espresso and latte. Coffee is grow, growed, coffee tree grow in special weather. Today world coffee one of three harvest in Brazil. Coffee has been very famous, many country celebrate coffee, day of coffee in September 29 day.

*Pretest Written Production:*

Coffee is one of most famous drinks. In fact, we know that we drink coffee much than tea in world. Originally, coffee is discovered by Ethiopia boys calld Kaldi in 9 century. One day, He saw that goats are dancing after eating coffee seeds and he was surprised. And he ate it himself. He wanted to dance. At first, coffee was used to not only drink but also food. For example, monks ate it to be waked for long wish time. Also, coffee was considered by medicine in Arabia. Hot coffee was developed in 11 century. It is introduced to Europe and America in 18 century, and the it has been very famous. In one record of France, coffee describe
by magic drinks. But modern coffee is developed in 19 century. Sugar and cream added in coffee. Different kinds of coffees make like espresso and latte. Coffee tree grow in special weather. Today one third world coffee harvest in Brazil. Coffee has been very famous. Many country celebrate day of coffee in 9/29 day.

Another interesting observation in HongGi’s pretest production data concerned the use of the prepositions in the passive phrases. As shown in the phrases coffee was considered by medicine in Arabia and coffee describe by magic drink, he appeared to overuse the preposition by, even where the prepositional object preceded by it was not the agent of the action involved in the verb. In fact, this tendency was frequently observed in the pretest data from the three groups of participants. Presumably, the participants collocated a passive construction with a default preposition by, by rote memory, due to their previous learning experience in which the formation of the passive had usually been taught as a formula including a BE-auxiliary, past participle, and the preposition by. Yet, the pretest data from the three groups also exhibited frequent use of the preposition to where inappropriate, as exemplified in HongGi’s production of coffee was used to not only drink but also food presented above. This appears to be a transfer phenomenon in that the literal translation of to in Korean is –ro/lo, a particle which has several meanings that correspond to as, as of, with, to, etc. in English.
Table 33
HongGi’s Scores by Task and Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GJT</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence Pair Task</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closed DCT</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free Oral Production Task</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form</td>
<td>31.82</td>
<td>59.09</td>
<td>76.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>81.82</td>
<td>90.91</td>
<td>92.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>63.64</td>
<td>81.82</td>
<td>92.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free Written Production Task</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form</td>
<td>45.45</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>86.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>86.36</td>
<td>95.83</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>72.73</td>
<td>91.67</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The scores for the GJT, sentence pair task, and closed DCT were converted into percentage.

After the five sessions of TE, HongGi exhibited remarkably increased knowledge of, and ability to use, the passive in terms of form, meaning, and function. To begin with, he achieved a score close to 100% on the immediate posttest GJT, with no single token of pseudo-passives and present participles produced, and the gained knowledge was maintained throughout the delayed posttest. Similarly, his scores on both the sentence pair task and closed DCT soared immediately after the treatment sessions, which indicated that TE led to considerably greater knowledge of the form-meaning-function mappings for the passive construction.

Yet, the pedagogical treatment seemed to have a relatively slower impact on the participant’s use of the passive, as demonstrated by the participant’s oral production data. This may be attributed to the generally low oral proficiency of the Korean EFL students, who usually exhibit greater reading comprehension skills. On the immediate posttest oral production task, HongGi still produced a pseudo-passive (*it introduce to people*) and an
active sentence in a context that appeared to prefer the use of the passive voice (it is the
dessert that people prefer in summer). However, no such token was found in the
participant’s delayed posttest oral production data. After all, as indicated earlier, these
form errors negatively influenced the scores for meaning and function as well:

Immediate Posttest Oral Production:

Ice cream is one of the most popular dessert. In fact, it is dessert that people prefer
in summer. History, history of ice cream is nearly two thousand years. First ice
cream was made in ancient time. But earlier form was different to the today ice
cream. Then ice cream was made with snow and ice. Rich and strong people such
as King Alexander and Queen Cleopatra can, can, only can enjoy the ice cream.
History of ice cream is written in Bible. For example, in ancient time, ice was
collected in nearby mountain, and keep, and is keeped in deep ground. Real ice
cream is made with milk in seventeen century. It was produce by French chef
Gerald Tissain. In eighteen century, ice cream was selled in luxury café in
Europe. But one American business person… it introduce to people. But Italy
people is considered to most skillful ice cream productor. For example, in
nineteen century, Italy ice cream productor 30,000 was in Europe. After, other
people learned Italy skill. So we can enjoy the ice cream, excellent ice cream in
today.

Immediate Posttest Written Production:

Ice cream is one of the most popular dessert in the world. In fact, it is dessert that
people prefer in summer. The history of ice cream is nearly 2,000 years. First ice
cream was made in ancient times. But, earlier form was different to the today’s
ice cream Because ice cream was made with snow and ice in ancient times. Only
rich and strong people such as King, Alexander and Queen, Cleopatra can taste
ice cream. History of ice cream is recorded in Bible. For example, ice was
harvested in nearby mountain and kept in deep underground. Real ice cream is
made with milk. In 17 century, it was produced by French chef, Gerald Tissain. In
18 century, it was sold only in luxurious café of Europe. But, one American
businessman opened first ice cream plant in America, so it is introduced to public.
However, Italy people is considered to the most ice cream productor. For
example, in 19 century, there was 30,000 productor of ice cream from Italy. After
this time, other people learned Italy skill. So excellent ice cream is tasted in the
world.

Except on the immediate posttest oral production task, HongGi exhibited slightly
better use of the passive in terms of meaning and function than form. In other words, he
used the passive in the contexts where it was deemed appropriate, but with slightly lower formal accuracy. The data also revealed, however, that TE had a less favorable effect on the participant’s IL. On the delayed posttest oral production task, the participant produced an overpassivization error (*the chocolate bought, sold today is included mush more sugar*), which was not present in his pretest and immediate posttest oral production data. Yet, he produced the correct form without the passive in written production:

**Delayed Posttest Oral Production:**

If you can’t imagine the life without chocolate, it is fortune that you didn’t born in sixteen century. Until then, chocolate existed, until then, chocolate existed different form, form what we know. Chocolate has thirty thousand years long history. In ancient time, chocolate was used to make alcohol drinks. Also it, it used medicine, because of bitter taste. Chocolate is made from, is made from cacao beans. In ancient times, cacao beans has so many values, so it used by money. According one of ancient records, it is described even food of God. Cacao trees grow in specific weather. Today the seventy percent of cacao is harvested in West Africa. In sixteen century, sugar added, sugar is added in chocolate in Europe and it is popular, it was being popular because of taste, sweet taste. Actually, the chocolate bought, sold today is included much more sugar. In 1780 years, chocolate is produced, chocolate was produced by machine first time. Chocolate is one of the most popular foods in the world. And many foods is made by chocolate. Also chocolate is used to not only hot chocolate drinks, or but also cold drinks. Ah, no, also, chocolate is used to make not only chocolate milk but also hot drinks or cold drinks.

**Delayed Posttest Written Production:**

If you can’t imagine the life without chocolate, it is fortune that you didn’t born before the 16 century. Until then, chocolate existed, until then, chocolate existed as different form what we know. The chocolate has 3,000 years history. In ancient times, it was used to make alcoholic drinks. Also it, it is used by medicine, because of its bitter taste. In ancient times, cacao beans were used as money because it had so much value. In the one ancient record, it was even described as ‘food of God.’ Cacao tree grow in specific weather. Today, 70% if cacao of the world is harvested in West Africa. In the 16 century, sugar added, sugar was added in chocolate, it had been popular because of its sweet taste. Actually, the chocolate which is sold today include sugar than cacao. In 1780 years, chocolate was produced by machine first time. Chocolate has been one of the most popular foods and many foods are made by chocolate. Also chocolate is used to make not only chocolate milk but also hot chocolate and cold drinks.
4.2.2 Implicit FonF Group: JaeYoung

JaeYoung was also a participant in the IFG. Just as HongGi, he had been studying English for eight years in the beginning of the study, but only through regular school classes. According to his pretest scores, he was on the lowest proficiency-level with respect to the passive voice. His ability to use the passive barely changed over the course of the experiment, as measured by the oral and written production tasks, as with the other participants on the low proficiency level in general. However, after the five sessions of TE, he exhibited a noticeable increase of the knowledge of the passive, particularly with respect to meaning and function, as revealed by his scores on the immediate sentence pair task and closed DCT (Table 34). These scores were also maintained on the delayed posttest. Interestingly, JaeYoung was the only participant in the study who showed this pattern, because the participants in the experimental groups generally achieved higher scores on the GJT, than on the aforementioned two tasks, on the immediate posttest. Moreover, a few of them even revealed a slight U-shaped pattern, and a constant score decrease, on the closed DCT, over the two posttests.

On the pretest, JaeYoung achieved between 0% and 50% of the score on each measurement task. On the pretest GJT, he fell short of recognizing and correcting ungrammatical passive constructions. He received a maximum two points (per item) only for four out of the 20 items on the task, which only involved identifying a correct passive form with no need for correction. Similar to HongGi, he produced several types of form errors including the use of present participles, pseudo-passives, and incorrect BE-auxiliaries and prepositions. On the sentence pair task, the participant provided a correct answer only for one out of the five active-passive sentence pairs. Otherwise, his answers
in general were not relevant to voice at all, frequently addressing the issues about tense (e.g., past tense versus past perfect). JaeYoung’s answers on the closed DCT exhibited similar percentages of the active and passive voice, indicating seemingly random decisions for about half of the items on the task. Yet, he seemed to have slightly better knowledge of the function, than the form and meaning, of the passive, as revealed by his scores on the pretest GJT, sentence pair task, and closed DCT.

Table 34
JaeYoung’s Scores by Task and Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GJT</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence Pair Task</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closed DCT</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free Oral Production Task</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>50.00</td>
<td>58.88</td>
<td>45.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free Written Production Task</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>22.73</td>
<td>18.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>50.00</td>
<td>68.18</td>
<td>59.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>45.45</td>
<td>36.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The scores for the GJT, sentence pair task, and closed DCT were converted into percentage.

As described earlier, JaeYoung’s performance on the production tasks suggested that his ability to use the passive seemed extremely limited. More specifically, on the pretest, he only produced either active sentences or pseudo-passives in both oral and written production, and received partial scores for the lexical meaning they conveyed:

**Pretest Oral Production:**

Coffee is most popular drink. People drink more coffee in the world. Ethiopia boy Kaldi find coffee in nine century. First coffee use food, not drink. Arabia use coffee medicine. Eleven century, first hot coffee drink develop. Eighteen century, coffee introduce Europe and America. France one record, coffee describe magic
drink. But today coffee make in nineteen century. Sugar and cream add, many kind coffee make. Today world coffee three to one produce in Brazil.

Pretest Written Production:

Coffee is most popular drink today. You know people drink more coffee in the world. Ethiopia boy Kaldi find coffee in 9C. First coffee use food, not drink. In Arabia, coffee use medicine. Eleven century, first hot coffee drink develop. Eighteen century, coffee introduce Europe and America. In one France record, coffee describe magic drink. Modern coffee make in nineteen century. Sugar and cream add, many kind coffee drink make. Today world coffee 1/3 produce in Brazil.

In other words, JaeYoung produced no passive construction on the pretest production tasks, which showed that he was less ready developmentally to learn the target construction than HongGi. After the five sessions of TE, he began to produce a few malformed passive constructions, each of which comprised only of a past participle, with the BE-auxiliary omitted. Nonetheless, the tokens in his immediate and delayed posttest data were predominantly pseudo-passives and active sentences, which failed to deliver the passive meaning. In short, unlike HongGi, who produced an overuse error on the delayed posttest oral production task, JaeYoung constantly exhibited underuse of the passive through the experiment:

Immediate Posttest Oral Production:

Ice cream is a most famous dessert in the world. Really it is a most famous dessert in summer. Ice cream’s history 2,000 years. The first ice cream make a, make in ancient. But first shape different. Back then, ice cream made snow and ice. King Alexander, Cleopatra, Queen Cleopatra, rich and stronger enjoy ice cream. Ice cream’s history record in Bible. For example, ice harvest about, around the mountain. And under the ground, it hold… Original ice cream makes milk. Seventeen century Gerald Tissan produce first. Eighteen century, ice cream sell Europe… luxurious café. Yet one USA businessman… first ice cream factory make, ice cream introduce people. But Italian people most ice cream maker. For example, nineteen Europe, 30,000 Italy ice cream maker. After, another people learn Italy recipe. Today good taste ice cream enjoyed all over the world.
Immediate Posttest Written Production:

Ice cream is a most famous dessert in the world. Really, it a most famous dessert in summer. Ice cream’s history 2,000 years. A first ice cream made in ancient. But first shape different today. Back then, ice cream made snow and ice. It’s like that King Alexander and Queen Cleopatra, rich and stronger enjoyed ice cream. The history ice cream record in Bible. For example, ancient ice harvested around mountain and keep under the ground. Real ice cream makes milk. Franch chef Gerald Tissan produce first in 17C. 18C, ice cream sells luxurious café in Europe. Yet, one U.S.A businessman introduce public that first ice cream, factory open. But Italian people is a most famous ice -cream maker. After, people learn Italian recipe, today taste good ice-cream enjoyed all over the world.

In contrast, no single token of pseudo-passives was found in JaeYoung’s immediate posttest GJT data, even though the participant still had difficulty in distinguishing between present and past participles. He appeared to have learned, as a result of the pedagogical treatment, that he needed to mark the verbs for voice, but again, the knowledge gained seemed insufficient. Yet, the moderate increase of the score, along with the types of errors, shown in his immediate posttest GJT data were maintained on the delayed posttest.

As for the meaning of the passive, JaeYoung’s performance on the two posttest sentence pair tasks revealed a considerable increase of knowledge after the pedagogical treatment. Furthermore, on the immediate posttest closed DCT, the participant achieved a score noticeably higher than the group average, which suggested a noticeable growth of knowledge of the function of the passive. However, due to his low English proficiency, the knowledge did not appear to be accessible as efficiently in oral and written production. Nevertheless, JaeYoung’s progress on the closed DCT was remarkable, because not all participants in the experimental groups showed improvement on this task, even after the pedagogical treatment, as is exemplified by the other three participants examined in the next sections.
Delayed Posttest Oral Production:

If nothing no chocolate life, you born, you not born lucky at sixteen century. Then, we know, chocolate is we know different. Chocolate has 3,000 years of history. Ancient chocolate is… alcohol drink make. Also, bitter taste, chocolate use medicine. Chocolate makes cacao bean. Ancient, cacao bean is so many value, use money. One ancient record, chocolate describe food of God. Cacao tree grow special weather. Today world cacao seventy percent harvest in West Africa. Sixteen century, Europe, chocolate plus sugar, sweet taste, chocolate popular. Really, today sell chocolate is more sugar, cacao. 1780 years, first machine produce chocolate. Chocolate most popular food. Many food make chocolate. Also, chocolate use chocolate milk or hot chocolate, hot and cold drink.

Delayed Posttest Written Production:

If not think no chocolate life, you not born lucky at 16C. until then, chocolate exist different now we know. Chocolate has 3,000 years of history. Ancient times, chocolate used to make alcoholic drink. And used to medicine because of bitter taste. Chocolate makes coco bean. Ancient times, cacao bean much value, used to money. Ancient times record, chocolate describe ‘food of the god’. Cacao trees grow special weather. Today world cacao 70% grow West Africa. 16C Europe, chocolate plus sugar, popular because sweet taste. Today sell chocolate more sugar. 1780 year, first produced chocolate for machine. Chocolate is most popular food, make foods with chocolate. Also, chocolate used to hot or cold drink then like chocolate milk, hot chocolate.

4.2.3 Explicit FonF Group: SeokMin

SeokMin was a participant in the EFG, and had been learning English for eight years at school and private institutions. He was also on the lowest proficiency-level with regard to the passive voice, as shown in his data, particularly those from the production tasks (Table 35). As opposed to JaeYoung, however, the participant exhibited a considerable increase of score on the GJT, but not so much on the other measurement tasks. This pattern of performance was observed in a few other participants in the experimental groups on the low proficiency-level.
Table 35
SeokMin’s Scores by Task and Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GJT</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>77.5</td>
<td>52.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence Pair Task</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closed DCT</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free Oral Production Task</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9.10</td>
<td>5.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>40.91</td>
<td>72.73</td>
<td>55.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>45.45</td>
<td>11.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free Written Production Task</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>13.64</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>45.45</td>
<td>63.64</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>9.10</td>
<td>27.27</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The scores for the GJT, sentence pair task, and closed DCT were converted into percentage.

While SeokMin’s pretest GJT data were characterized by various types of form errors similar to those produced by HongGi and JaeYoung (e.g., present participles, pseudo-passives, and incorrect BE- auxiliaries and preposition), the majority of the errors concerned the incorrect use (or omission) of the BE-auxiliary and wrong past participle forms, including the use of present participles. The participant’s immediate posttest GJT data suggested that the C-R treatment positively influenced his knowledge of the passive, but the treatment effect disappeared, partially, after a four-week time interval. As with JaeYoung, SeokMin generally exhibited undersupply of the passive through the experiment, mainly due to the use of present participles where past participles should have been used.

On the other measurement tasks, the amount of growth SeokMin exhibited appeared to be small. His scores on the sentence pair task and closed DCT generally remained constant over the course of the experiment, which indicated little change of the
knowledge of the meaning and function of the passive. The change in the participant’s use of the passive was also found to be limited, but a sign of qualitative change was observed in the participant’s production data. As shown in the excerpts presented below, his pretest production data generally comprised of pseudo-passives:

*Pretest Oral Production:*

Coffee’s today popular drinks. Actually, worldwide, than tea, coffee more drink. Originally, coffee is… 9 century, Kaldi, Ethiopia boy found coffee. One day, he… his sheep eat coffee, coffee berry, dancing and he surprised. The… he eat something, also dancing. First coffee use not drink and food. For example, monk eat coffee, coffee berry during long pray time. Also, Arabia consider coffee medicine. 11 century, first coffee drinks develop. 18 century, Europe and America… coffee introduce, and very popular. France… recorder, record, coffee describe magic drink. But modern coffee invent… 19 century. Coffee… salt… no, no, sugar and cream add. Espresso or latte, kind of coffee make. Today, global coffee… global coffee one third grow in Brazil. Coffee is very popular. Many country, every year, celebration global coffee day, September 29.

*Pretest Written Production:*

Today coffee is very popular of drink. Actually, around the world, drink coffee more than tea. Coffee is founded Kaldi, Ethiopia boy, 9 century. One day he’s sheep eat coffee berries, dance, running. He see, surprise. He eat some, he want dancing. First time coffee use not drink food. For example, monk wake up during a long time, eat coffee berries. Also, Arabia considered coffee as medicine. 11 century, first hot coffee drink develop. 18 century, Europe and America, coffee introduce. But modern coffee invent in 19 century. Coffee add sugar and cream, and espresso and latte, what kind of coffee make. Coffee tree grow up specific weather. Today, around the world, coffee 1/3 harvest Brazil. Every year, many country celebration global coffee day 9/29.

Immediately after the pedagogical treatment, the *BE*-auxiliaries emerged in the data, even though they were accompanied by bare verbs. In the written production data, tokens of a correct past participle were also observed, as well as a token of the preposition *by*:
Immediate Posttest Oral Production:

Ice cream is popularity of dessert on the world. In fact, summer best… summer favorite dessert. Ice cream is 2000 years of history. First ice cream is make… make ancient. But first ice cream is different today ice cream. At that time, ice cream is make snow and ice. Alexander king and Cleopatra Queen is rich, enjoy the ice cream. Ice cream history record in Bible. For example, ancient ice harvest near mountain, keep deep. Real ice cream is make milk. 17 century, ice cream first produce by Gerald Tissain, France chef. 18 century, ice cream is sell luxury café. But a America CEO… a America businessman open first ice cream factory, and public know ice cream. But Italy people regard very great ice cream producer. For example, 19 century Europe, 30,000 Italy ice cream producer. After, other people learn Italy way. And today, tasty ice cream is enjoy on the world.

Immediate Posttest Written Production:

Ice cream is popularity of dessert on the world. In fact, favorite summer dessert. Ice cream history 2000 years. The first ice cream make ancient. But first ice cream is different today ice cream. At time, ice cream make snow and ice. Alexander King and Cleopatra Queen, like rich man and woman enjoy the ice cream. Ice cream history recorded by Bible. For example, ancient ice harvest near mountain and keep. Real ice cream make by milk. 17 century, ice cream was produced by Gerald Tissain, by France chef. 18 century, ice cream sell Europe luxury café. But a America businessman opened first ice cream factory and ice cream introduce public. But Italy people regarded great ice cream producer. For example, 19 century Europe, 30,000 Italian ice cream producer. After, other people learned Italy way. So today taste ice cream enjoy on the world.

After a four-week time interval, however, the use of the BE-auxiliaries disappeared, and the participant’s production data resembled those on the pretest.

Delayed Posttest Oral Production:

If you can’t imagine without chocolate, you not before 16 century is lucky. Until, chocolate another form now we know. Chocolate 3,000 years history… has history. At first, chocolate make alcohol drink. Also, because bitter taste, chocolate use medicine. Chocolate made cacao seed. Ancient cacao seed is… a lot of value, and use money. One ancient record, even, coffee describe God’s food. Cacao tree grow… appoint treatment(?). Today world cacao 17… 70% grow Brazil. 16 century Europe add chocolate sugar. Sugar taste, coffee is popular. In fact, today sell chocolate is… but cacao, also sugar. 1780, first machine make chocolate. Chocolate is on world popular dessert. Chocolate use another juice, also chocolate milk and hot chocolate like hot and cold drink.
Delayed Posttest Written Production:

If you can’t imagine without chocolate, before you 16 century can’t born is lucky. Until, chocolate exist another form now we know. Chocolate has 3000 of history. Ancient chocolate make alcohol drink. Also, because bitter, chocolate used medicine. Chocolate make cacao seed. In ancient times, cacao seed was so valuable that it was used as money. On ancient record, chocolate is describe even ‘God food.’ Cacao tree grow at point treatment(?) . Today, on world, cacao 70 percent grow West Africa. 16 century Europe, chocolate add sugar, because sweet taste, popularity. In fact, today sell chocolate had not only cacao but also sugar. 1780, first machine make chocolate. Chocolate use chocolate milk and hot chocolate like drink.

4.2.4 Explicit FonF Group: GyeonWoo

GyeonWoo from the EFG was on the highest proficiency-level in the study as for the passive voice. At the onset of the study, he exhibited a considerable amount of previous knowledge of the passive, and the ability to use that knowledge, as demonstrated by his scores on the overall measurement tasks on the pretest (Table 36). These scores were generally maintained over the course of the experiment. However, his performance on the closed DCT was an exception in that he achieved about the group average on the pretest, indicating a relatively smaller amount of previous knowledge of the function of the passive. Moreover, he exhibited a noticeable decrease of score after the five sessions of C-R, which suggested that the pedagogical treatment appeared to have a negative effect on his knowledge.
Table 36

GyeonWoo’s Scores by Task and Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GJT</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence Pair Task</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closed DCT</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free Oral Production Task</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free Written Production Task</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Form</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The scores for the GJT, sentence pair task, and closed DCT were converted into percentage.

On the pretest GJT, GyeonWoo provided a fully correct answer for 15 out of the 20 items on the task. The other five, partially incorrect answers involved an incorrect BE-auxiliary. In general, the higher proficiency-level learners in the study were found to make more errors concerning the BE-auxiliary, by either omitting it or using an incorrect form, than those concerning past participles, while the lower proficiency-level learners were found to make both types of errors. In terms of tense and aspect, the omission of the BE-auxiliary occurred more frequently in the presence of present perfect, than present simple or present past. As for the latter two, higher-level learners generally succeeded in producing the BE-auxiliary, but in an incorrect form (e.g., incorrect marking for tense and S-V agreement).

On the pretest sentence pair task, GyeonWoo achieved 100% of the score, which indicated that he was fully aware of the grammatical meaning of the passive on the sentential level. However, he seemed to have difficulty in applying that knowledge on the
contextual level. His answers on the pretest closed DCT were correct only about 50%, and did not exhibit particular preference for either the passive or the active. Thus, the consistency of his answers on this task did not appear to be above chance.

Yet, the participant showed almost intact performance on the pretest production tasks. He used the passive successfully in the appropriate contexts, exhibiting, as in the GJT, only a few form errors with regard to the BE-auxiliary. His performance on the oral and written production tasks was almost identical, and thus, only an excerpt of his pretest written production data is presented below:

**Pretest Written Production Task:**

Coffee is one of the most popular drinks today. In fact, most people drink, more peoples drink coffee than tea. Originally, coffee was discovered by Ethiopian boy named Kaldi in 9th century. One day, he was surprised to see his sheep dancing after eating coffee berries. He tried some and he felt like dancing. Coffee used to, used as food, not a drink. For example, monks ate coffee berries to stay awake during a long pray time. Also, coffee was regarded as a medicine in Arabia. In 11th century, hot coffee drink was made. In 18th century, it was introduced to Europe and America, and it became very popular. In France, it was described as a magic drink. However, modern coffee was… modern coffee was made in 19th century. Sugar and cream was added to coffee, and many other coffees was made, such as espresso and latte. Coffee tree grows in a special climate. Today one of third, one-third coffee is made in Brazil. Coffee became so popular, that many country celebrate international coffee day in September 29th.

Over the immediate and delayed posttests, his performance was quite consistent in general. On the GJT, he gained a few points of score, attaining 95% of the score on the delayed posttest, which indicates that the C-R treatment has a positive impact on the restructuring of his knowledge of the form of the passive. The few errors found in his delayed posttest GJT data only included an incorrect preposition, which was observed in the posttest data of a few other participants in the experimental groups on the higher proficiency-level.
However, as pointed out earlier, the participant revealed a notable decrease of knowledge on the immediate and delayed posttest closed DCTs. Group-level data from the closed DCT show that the pedagogical treatment, either TE or C-R, caused no change, whether positive or negative, in the performance of a few participants, or caused a slight U-shaped pattern in that of a few other participants. In addition, it appeared to have a negative impact on two participants in the study, who showed a constant decrease of scores along the two posttests. GyeonWoo was one of them, and, interestingly, the other participant was also from the EFG and on the high proficiency-level.

4.2.5 Explicit FonF Group: MinHo

Minho, from the EFG, was on the intermediate proficiency-level as for the knowledge and use of the passive. His performance through the experiment generally resembled the group average, showing a substantial improvement with regard to the form of the passive. Yet, his performance on the production tasks displayed a somewhat different pattern from that observed in the four other participants described earlier.

Whereas JaeYoung’s and SeokMin’s output was characterized mainly by the use of pseudo-passives, MinHo was prone to the overuse of the passive, even on the pretest oral and written production tasks:

*Pretest Oral Production Task:*

Coffee is one of the most popular drink today. Truly we know, internationally that coffee is more drinken than tea. Originally, coffee is discovered by Kaldi, who Ethiopian boys at 9 century. One day he surprised by sheep dancing after eating coffee berry. He eat some and like to dance, too. At first, coffee is used... used of... used food... coffee is used not drink but food. For example, monks to stay up during, while long pray time, eat... monks eat coffee berry to stay up while long pray time. Also, Arabia... coffee is thinked... thinken... coffee is thought medicine. Hot coffee is developed... the first hot coffee drink was... was developed at 11 century. Coffee is... coffee introduce, very popularly... coffee is very populared at 11 century. Coffee describe one of the list... a France list,
coffee describe magic of drink… drink of… magic of drink. But modern coffee is invented at 19 century. Coffee is pulsed sugar and cream, and… other kind coffee is made… that espresso and latte. Coffee tree is grown… where certain weather. Today world coffee is grewed, grown by Brazil. Coffee is very populared, because coffee is very populared, many country was congratulated when… at September 29th world coffee’s day.

**Pretest Written Production Task:**

Coffee is one of the most popular drink today. Truly coffee is discovered by Kaldi who Ethiopian boys at 9C. One day he surprised by seeing that after sheeps eat coffee, they run like dancing. He eat a few and like to dance, too. At first, coffee is used not drink but food. For example, monks eat to stay up while long pray time. Also, coffee is thought medicine in Arabia. The first hot coffee is developed when 11C. Coffee introduce to Europe, America, become very popularly when 18C but modern coffee is thought at 19C. Coffee is pulsed sugar and cream and other kind coffee is made that espresso and latte. Coffee tree is grown where certain weather. Today world coffee is grown by Brazil. Coffee is very populared, many country was congratulated world coffee’s day at September 29th.

Immediately after the five sessions of C-R, the participant produced a considerably smaller number of overpassivized tokens. Instead, the majority of the errors in his data involved an incorrect *BE*-auxiliary:

**Immediate Posttest Oral Production Task:**

Ice cream is one of the most popular dessert in the world. In fact, it is preferred when summer. Ice cream has 2000 history. First ice cream is made ancient age, but first forms of ice cream is different, different… today ice cream. At that time, ice cream is made snow and ice. Powerful and rich people can enjoy like King Alexander and Queen Cleopatra. Ice cream’s history is written in Bible. For example, ancient age, when, in ancient age, ice is harvest near forest and stored in deep, deep soil. Real ice cream is made milk. In 17 century, ice cream… it is produced by France chef Gerald Tissain. In 18 century, ice cream is sold where… luxury café in Europe. But one businessman introduce… ice cream is introduced by one businessman open the first ice cream factory. Nevertheless, Italian people is… is regarded the best ice cream producer. For example, in 19 century, Europe has ice cream producer… 30,000 ice cream producer from Italian. After, other people is learned Italian way, so delicious ice cream is enjoyed in the world today.
Immediate Posttest Written Production Task:

Ice cream is one of the most popular dessert. In fact, it is favored when summer. Ice cream has 2000 history. First ice cream is made in ancient age, but first forms of ice cream is different from today’s ice cream. At that time, ice cream is made with snow and ice. Rich and powerful people can enjoy ice cream like King Alexander and Queen Cleopatra. Ice cream’s history is written in Bible. For example, ancient age ice is harvest near forest and stored in the ground. Real ice cream is made milk. It is produced by French chef Gerald Tissain. In 18 century, ice cream is sold luxurious café in Europe. But one businessman introduce as one business man open the factory. Nevertheless, Italian people is regarded best ice cream producer. For example, in 19 century, Europe has ice cream producer 30,000 from Italian. After, other people is learned Italian way, so delicious ice cream is enjoyed in the world today.

On the delayed posttest production tasks, MinHo achieved similar scores as those on the immediate posttest. However, a few tokens of overuse errors reappeared in his oral production data, although his written production data did not vary as much from that on the immediate posttest. Thus, it appeared that the impact of the C-R treatment on the participant’s ability to use the passive in a more spontaneous environment partially disappeared after a four-week time interval.

Delayed Posttest Oral Production Task:

If you can’t imagine without chocolate life, you are lucky that you birth before 16 century. Until then, chocolate is… chocolate exist different form from we know that. Chocolate has 3000 history. Ancient time, chocolate is used to make alcohol drink. Also, it, it is also… also, it is used medicine because of bitter taste. Chocolate is made cacao bean. Ancient time cacao bean is used, used money, because it has much value. In ancient time record, it is described even God’s food. Cacao tree is grow, grown… cacao bean is grown special climate. Today 70% cacao of world is harvested… harvested West Africa. Chocolate is added sugar in Europe… 16 century chocolate is added sugar in Europe. It became famous… it is became famous because of sweet taste. Today chocolate is included more sugar than cacao. 1780 year first chocolate is made by machine. Chocolate is became food, chocolate is became one of the food among favorite… best, much popular food. And chocolate… many food is made. Also, chocolate is used hot and cold drink like chocolate milk and hot chocolate.
Delayed Posttest Written Production Task:

If you can’t imagine without chocolate life, you are lucky that you don’t birth before 16 century. Until then, chocolate exist different form than the thing we know that. Chocolate has 3000 history. Ancient times, chocolate is used to make alcohol drink and it is used medicine because of bitter taste. Chocolate is made cacao bean. Ancient times, cacao bean is used money because it has much value. In one ancient record, it is described as “God’s food.” Cacao tree is grown in special climate. Today 70% of cacao in the world is harvested in West Africa. Sugar was added in chocolate in 16C, it became famous because of sweet taste. In fact, chocolate sold today include more sugar than cacao. In 1780 years first chocolate was made by machine at first. Chocolate became one of the most popular food. Many food is made with chocolate. Also, chocolate is used for hot or cold drinks.

Table 37

Minho’s Scores by Task and Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Immediate Posttest</th>
<th>Delayed Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GJT</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>82.5</td>
<td>62.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence Pair Task</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closed DCT</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free Oral Production Task</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form</td>
<td>32.14</td>
<td>57.69</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>57.14</td>
<td>92.31</td>
<td>66.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>57.14</td>
<td>92.31</td>
<td>66.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free Written Production Task</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form</td>
<td>28.57</td>
<td>58.33</td>
<td>72.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>67.86</td>
<td>91.67</td>
<td>90.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>57.14</td>
<td>91.67</td>
<td>90.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The scores for the GJT, sentence pair task, and closed DCT were converted into percentage.

4.3 Responses to the Exit Questionnaire

This section presents the data obtained from the exit questionnaire, the purpose of which was to investigate the participants’ perceptions about the pedagogical treatment they had received. In order to make between- as well as within-group comparisons possible, a percentage was calculated for each response category for each group by dividing the number of participants who provided a particular response by the number of
respondents in the group. The participants were allowed to respond in Korean so that they would be able to express themselves clearly.

As previously mentioned, the questionnaire comprised of four questions. In order to collect retrospective information about the participants’ perception of the effects of TE and C-R, the first question asked whether the respective treatment helped to learn the English passive and the reason for the answer. In the IFG, all 33 participants indicated that the treatment sessions using TE were helpful. Out of the 22 participants who also provided reasons, the majority (70%) mentioned that the enhanced texts, along with the extensive examples of the passive provided in them, helped them pay attention to the passive constructions. A few concrete answers from the respondents were as follows, translated into English as literally as possible:

(1) I was able to know what was being emphasized.
(2) I was able to memorize the sentences through repetition.
(3) It was convenient because I was able to see the passive form and examples at a glance.
(4) The different colors grabbed my attention and were helpful.
(5) I was able to understand the difference between the present and past participles.

The other respondents (30%) stated that the treatment gave them an opportunity for learning new expressions and improving reading comprehension skills.

The 33 participants in the EFG also indicated that the treatment sessions using C-R had positive effects on the learning of the passive. As for the reasons, however, unlike the intention of the treatment, about a half (43%) of the respondents addressed the abundant examples of the passive provided in the materials, just as the respondents in the
IFG. A few concrete answers from the respondents were as follows, translated into English as literally as possible:

(1) I was able to learn a lot from the examples.
(2) The multiple examples of the passive were very helpful.
(3) I was able to get used to the passive through the examples.

These results suggest that, despite the half amount of the tokens of the passive (i.e., 50 tokens) compared to those used in TE (i.e., 100 tokens), a considerable number of participants who engaged in C-R perceived the input quite extensive, and appreciated the given exemplars of the passive. The other respondents mentioned the usefulness of the researcher’s metalinguistic explanations about the passive (26%) and learning opportunities aside from the regular school curriculum including a variety of materials (31%). Two students specifically noted that what they had learned previously about the passive in school seemed to have been limited in scope.

The second question intended to examine the participants’ subjective perception, or difficulty – as opposed to complexity, as described previously – of the learning of the passive (Robinson, 1996). More specifically, it asked the participants to indicate the easiest part about the learning of the passive, among form, meaning, and function. The results showed that the participants in the IFG perceived the meaning of the passive as the easiest (86%), followed by form (10%), and then function (4%). Those in the EFG revealed similar results, in that they perceived the meaning of the passive as the easiest (76%), followed by form (17%), and then function (7%). Apparently, the meaning of the passive, measured by the sentential level comparisons between the active and passive voice, appeared to be perceived as the easiest by both experimental groups. Also, it is noteworthy that a few more respondents in the EFG (17%) than in the IFG (10%)
indicated that the form of the passive was the easiest to learn. This result could be attributed to the nature of the C-R treatment that the EFG engaged in, which involved explicit, categorical rule explanations about the formation of the passive.

The third question was a reverse version of the second question, asking which part of the passive was the most difficult to learn. It meant to confirm the students’ perception measured on the second question. The participants in the IFG indicated that they perceived the function of the passive as the most difficult (59%), followed by form (41%), and then meaning (0%). Similarly, those in the EFG responded that they perceived the function of the passive as the most difficult (72%), followed by form (27%), and then meaning (1%). Thus, it appears that the greatest challenge for the learning of the passive, from the participants’ perspective, was the function of the passive. In addition, there were a few more participants in the EFG (72%) than in the IFG (59%) who indicated function as the most difficult part about the learning of the passive. This results seem to be in line with the relatively lower scores the EFG attained on the immediate and delayed posttest closed DCTs. Conversely, several more participants in the IFG (41%) than in the EFG (27%) perceived the form of the passive as the most difficult, presumably due to the implicit nature of the treatment they received, which lacked categorial rule explanations.

Finally, the fourth question asked the participants to state which type of grammar instruction they would like to receive in the future, between explicit rule explanation and exposure to authentic examples of the target construction. About 90% of the respondents in both the IFG (82%) and EFG (88%) chose the latter. Such preference, if present even before the experiment, may have conducd to the findings of the current study which
revealed a more significant effect of TE than C-R on the participants’ knowledge and use of the passive.
Chapter V
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this final chapter, the results of the current study are discussed as they relate to the two research questions presented in Chapter III. The chapter first reports a summary of the results. Next, each of the two research questions is addressed, and some additional findings are considered. A discussion then follows of the pedagogical implications of the findings. Finally, the chapter concludes with the limitations of the study and some possible directions for future research.

5.1 Summary of Results

The previous chapter investigated, quantitatively, how textual enhancement (TE) (i.e., implicit FonF) and consciousness-raising (C-R) (i.e., explicit FonF) influenced the participants’ knowledge of, and ability to use, the passive in terms of form, meaning, and function. In addition, it conducted a qualitative analysis of intra-learner variation and the participants’ perception of the FonF treatment they had received. In this section, the results of the study are summarized as they relate to the two research questions presented in Chapter III.

Research Question 1: Do implicit and explicit FonF have differential effects on L1 Korean learners’ knowledge and use of the English passive in terms of form, meaning, and function?
The results of the five measurement tasks revealed that implicit FonF (i.e., TE) had more beneficial effects than explicit FonF (i.e., C-R) on the participants’ knowledge and use of the passive, in terms of form, meaning, and function. The difference between the treatment effects was most salient as for the knowledge of the meaning ($p=.059$) and function ($p=.004$) of the passive, as measured by the sentence pair task and closed DCT, respectively. With regard to the knowledge of form and the use dimension for form-meaning-function mappings, TE and C-R had a similar impact ($p=1.000$), but the former generally resulted in greater mean scores than the latter.

As shown by the participants’ scores on the immediate posttest GJT, both TE and C-R resulted in a statistically significant increase of mean score as for the knowledge of the form of the passive ($M=9.33$, $p=.000$, and $M=9.09$, $p=.000$, respectively) at the .05 significance level. Although TE exhibited a slightly greater benefit than C-R, no significant difference was found between the two treatment conditions ($p=1.000$). In contrast, the control group ($p=.051$) showed no substantial change in performance, at the adjusted .025 adjusted significance level. With regard to the three combinations of tense and aspect examined in the study (i.e., present simple, past simple, and present perfect), participants in both treatment conditions exhibited lower mean scores as for the present perfect ($M=45.5$ and $44.17$, respectively) than present simple ($M=55.71$ and $56.57$, respectively) and past simple ($M=48$ and $45.43$, respectively).

On the immediate posttest sentence pair task, both TE and C-R were again found to be beneficial, leading to significantly increased mean scores as for the knowledge of the meaning of the passive ($M=8.15$, $p=.000$, and $6.79$, $p=.039$, respectively) at the .05 significance level. Although no significant difference was found between the two
treatment conditions ($p= .059$), the $p$-value was close to the significance level. Conversely, the control group exhibited a significant decrease of score ($p= .011$) at the adjusted .025 significance level.

The differential effects of TE and C-R were most prominent on the immediate posttest closed DCT, which intended to measure the participants’ knowledge of the function of the passive. The results of the task revealed that the participants who engaged in TE ($M=15.33$) performed significantly better than those in the control group ($M=11.61$) ($p= .000$), at the .05 significance level. However, those who engaged in C-R ($M=12.58$) exhibited little difference from those in the control group ($p=.732$). As with the immediate posttest sentence pair task, a slight score decrease was observed in the control group, even though it was not significant ($p= .425$) at the adjusted .025 significance level.

The results of the oral and written production tasks on the immediate posttest displayed less clear-cut patterns, in that both TE and C-R had similar effects on the participants’ use of the passive in terms of form, meaning, and function. Yet, TE consistently led to relatively higher mean scores than C-R. As for form, TE and C-R had a similar, significant benefit ($M=62.63$, $p=.000$ and $M=57.41$, $p=.002$, respectively) at the .05 significance level, but the mean scores were generally lower than those on the immediate posttest GJT ($M= 9.33$ and $M=9.09$). In terms of meaning, however, both TE ($M=87.32$) and C-R ($M=86.29$) had significant benefits ($p=.000$), which were noticeably greater than those on the immediate posttest sentence pair task. In a similar vein, TE and C-R both had a statistically significant impact on function ($M=79.90$, $p=.000$ and $M=78.73$, $p=.001$, respectively), yielding considerably higher mean scores than those on
the closed DCT. Conversely, the control group generally exhibited a small score decrease for form \( (p = .854) \), meaning \( (p = .943) \), and function \( (p = .710) \), even though it was not significant at the adjusted .025 significance level.

Research Question 2: If so (implicit and explicit FonF have differential effects on L1 Korean learners’ knowledge and use of the passive in terms of its form, meaning, and function), are the effects durable?

The effects of TE and C-R were found to be durable, in that the mean score gains observed on the immediate posttest were largely maintained on the delayed posttest administered in a four-week time interval. Although both TE and C-R generally exhibited a slight score decrease from the immediate to delayed posttests, the amount of decrease was generally negligible \( (p = \text{between .000 and .918}) \) at the adjusted .025 significance level. Yet, the score decrease turned out to be greater on the oral and written production tasks than on the GJT, sentence pair task, and closed DCT. Furthermore, on the delayed posttest oral production task, the score decrease in both TE and C-R was greater for meaning \( (MG = -5.31, p = .005 \text{ and } MG = -5.61, p = .007, \text{ respectively}) \) and function \( (MG = -4.78, p = .035 \text{ and } MG = -7.38, p = .006, \text{ respectively}) \) than form \( (MG = -2.43, p = .246 \text{ and } MG = -3.91, p = .107, \text{ respectively}) \), at the adjusted .025 significance level. The delayed posttest written production task revealed similar results, in that TE and C-R both involved a greater score decrease as for meaning \( (MG = -7.73, p = .000 \text{ and } MG = -4.82, p = .008) \) and function \( (MG = -8.22, p = .003 \text{ and } MG = -3.42, p = .057, \text{ respectively}) \) than form \( (MG = -6.01, p = .042 \text{ and } MG = -.62, p = .918, \text{ respectively}) \).

Despite the group-level differences presented above, the analyses of the five individual participants’ performance suggested that the effects of TE and C-R may vary
with a learner. In a similar vein, data analyses in the previous chapter presented some additional findings that deserve attention. First, TE and C-R appeared to have similar effects on high- and low-level participants. Second, the results of the exit questionnaire demonstrated that the participants generally had a positive perception of both TE and C-R. Participants also indicated that the function of the passive was the most difficult to learn, whereas the form of the passive was the least difficult. In addition, about 50% of the participants who received the C-R treatment perceived the tokens of the passive in the treatment materials as useful, rather than the grammar activity or metalinguistic explanations they had engaged in.

The subsequent sections discuss these results more in depth as they relate to each of the two research questions.

5.2 Effects of Implicit and Explicit FonF on the English Passive

The first research question sought to investigate the differential effects of implicit (i.e., TE) and explicit (i.e., C-R) FonF, if any, on L1 Korean learners’ knowledge and use of the passive, in terms of form, meaning, and function. To address this question, the findings from the immediate posttest data are discussed in depth in light of the form, meaning, and function of the passive.

5.2.1 Form

The participants’ scores on the immediate posttest GJT revealed that TE and C-R had almost equal benefits for their knowledge of the form of the passive. These results confirm the findings of previous L2 research (e.g., Fotos, 1993; Fotos & Ellis, 1991; Han, et al., 2008; S. Lee, 2007; Williams & Evans, 1998) which propose that engaging in
implicit and explicit FonF can both lead to considerable gains as to formal accuracy. As described previously, the passive construction is governed by complex grammatical rules, both transformational (i.e., NP-movement) and derivational (i.e., \textit{BE}-auxiliary, past participles, prepositions, etc.) (e.g., Wanner, 2009). Yet, these rules tend to be categorical in nature, which, according to several researchers (e.g., Dekeyser, 1995; Hulstijn & De Graff, 1994), tend to be more amenable to an explicit learning condition. Indeed, the categorical nature of the passive may well have been subjected to the efficacy of C-R in the present study which involved explicit metalinguistic rule explanations. Furthermore, the C-R activity had been designed such that the participants were first exposed to the exemplars of the passive embedded in contexts. Explicit instruction starting with rule explanations with no contextual support (i.e., FonFS) may not have brought about similar effects, as implied by the participants’ responses on the exit questionnaire indicating that they would like more exemplars of language than metalinguistic explanations (Long, 1991).

Unlike the general consensus in the field that explicit FonF has a more efficient and immediate impact on formal accuracy (e.g., Doughty, 1991; Fotos & Ellis, 1991; Spada & Lightbown, 1993, Spada, et al., 2005), TE in the present study was found to have a slightly greater benefit than C-R immediately after the treatment. Two explanations are possible for this finding. First, it appears that the enhanced saliency of the formal properties of the passive was sufficient to trigger the participants’ noticing (Schmidt, 1990), so that the noticed linguistic codes were registered in the learners’ mind (e.g., Han, et al., 2008; S. Lee, 2007). Second, the frequency of the tokens of the passive (i.e., 100 tokens in total) may have facilitated this inductive learning process. The
connectionist model posits that L2 learning takes place based on the extraction of regularities from the input, and that these regularities or patterns are strengthened as they are used repeatedly (N. Ellis, 2002). In line with this view, it is likely that TE in the current study created ample opportunities for L2 development, through extensive exposure to as many as 100 tokens of the passive. Furthermore, the bottom-up process of deriving connections between the given exemplars may have been expedited due to the categorical nature of the passive noted earlier. As several researchers (e.g., Han, et al., 2008; Leow, et al., 2003; Shook, 1999) point out, this latter account may allude to conflated effects of TE and input flood, but it does not disservice the implicit nature of the treatment intended in the study.

Despite the different learning mechanisms involved, the difference between the treatment effects of TE and C-R as for the form of the passive was not substantial. Two external conditions seem to have contributed to these positive results. First, both TE and C-R were delivered in a consistent manner (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Han, 2002), which probably made the intervention more salient and thus more likely to trigger the participants’ focal attention to the target construction (Ellis & Sheen, 2006). Second, TE and C-R each involved five treatment sessions, which were more likely to induce change in the learners’ knowledge and use of the passive construction, as well as the retention of that change, than a one-shot treatment (e.g., Ellis, 2002; Long, 2007).

Albeit facilitative, these external factors in and of themselves would by no means have been sufficient to ensure the effectiveness of either TE or C-R. Several learner-internal variables are likely to have played an equally, if not an even more, important role in the learning process. First, the participants of the study were EFL learners, who,
considering the typical classroom practice in this environment, were quite used to metalinguistic explanations. This may have rendered the formal properties of the passive more effectively amenable to the effects of C-R. For the same reason, however, the use of the various types of TE (i.e., boldface, color-coding, and shading) may have had a novelty effect, triggering a higher level of motivation and interest in the learners. In fact, this speculation coincided with the participants’ positive attitudes towards the materials through the treatment sessions of TE.

Second, the topic familiarity of the treatment materials is likely to have contributed to the learning process. As previously mentioned, a text with a familiar topic involves less processing demand for comprehension than that with an unfamiliar topic, so that the learners can efficiently notice the form (Han, et al., 2008; S. Lee, 2007; Overstreet, 1998; VanPatten, 1996, 2002). The positive results of the GJT, as well as the participants’ positive reactions to the treatment texts, appear to support this proposition, though the validation of which needs additional comparison groups exposed to texts with unfamiliar topics (S. Lee, 2007).

Third, the participants’ previous knowledge of the passive is another important factor to consider, because, as suggested by the literature (Sharwood Smith, 1991, 1993), it results in internally generated saliency. Although the participants’ knowledge of the form of the passive appeared to be unstable as measured on the pretest, the truth of the matter is that the passive voice had been taught to them since a relatively early stage of their learning and presented repeatedly as an important grammar point in English. In South Korea, the passive is first introduced, usually with explicit rule explanations, in eighth-grade school textbooks (S. Lee, 2007). As Jourdenais (1998) puts it, a FonF
treatment is “more likely to be beneficial to the learners who already had some initial awareness of the forms and their use” (p. 92).

Fourth, the participants’ developmental readiness also needs to be considered. As generally acknowledged by SLA researchers (e.g., Gass & Selinker, 2008; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Pinemann, 1998; Philp, 2003), FonF targeting constructions that are far beyond the learners’ current processing ability are unlikely to affect L2 learning. Correspondingly, if the participants of the current study had not been developmentally ready to acquire the passive, the FonF treatments, most probably, would not have led to such noticeable gains.

Fifth, considering the usual classroom practice in the EFL environment pointed out earlier, the participants’ previous knowledge of the passive was most likely to be explicit in nature at the onset of the study. Consequently, the exposure to TE might have exerted the effects of combined FonF, a pedagogical technique that employs both implicit and explicit treatments (Doughty & Williams, 1998), having an amplified impact on the restructuring of the participants’ existing knowledge as for the form of the passive.

Lastly, the participants’ predisposition towards language as an object may also have facilitated the efficacy of the FonF treatments. Without exception, the participants in the present study were attending English classes where a fair amount of emphasis was placed on explicit grammar instruction. Such classroom settings are claimed to encourage an inclination to pay attention to form at the expense of meaning and function, and thus, to increase the likelihood that the intent of the instruction and the target of the instruction are noticed (e.g., Ellis, et al., 2001; Loewen, 2004; Ellis & Sheen, 2006).
Turning to the subtle grammatical elements encompassed in the passive, the core morphological constituent of the passive construction is, as noted previously, the past participle (Wanner, 2009). On the pretest, several participants exhibited a lack of knowledge of correct past participle forms. Some added a regular past participle suffix (-ed) to an irregular past participle; some inflected a regular past participle into a non-existing irregular form. According to the dual-system models (e.g., Pinker, 1999; Pliatsikas & Marinis, 2013; Ullman, 2001), these inflections involve different processing. Past tense forms of regular verbs are constructed with the automatic application of a general rule, with instructs the addition of the –ed suffix to the verb stem (i.e., rule-based processing). Clahsen and Felser (2006) and Ullman (2004) argue that this rule application can be automatized by L2 learners with experience. Conversely, irregular past tense forms are directly retrieved from memory, as they occupy separate lexical entries than their stems (i.e., exemplar-based processing).

However, the GJT data obtained in the present study indicated that the regular and irregular past participles were both affected positively by TE and C-R. Yet, these results may be attributed to the participants’ previous knowledge. More specifically, irregular past participles, being separate lexis from their stems, usually exhibit arbitrary mappings in relation to their bare verb forms (Aitchison, 2012). Thus, learning the array of irregular past participle forms employed on the GJT would not have been possible only by resorting to the metalinguistic explanations or small amount of input provided in the C-R treatment.

With regard to the three combinations of tense and aspect (i.e., present simple, past simple, and present perfect), it was no surprise that passive constructions with
present perfect consistently posed greater challenge for the participants, even though those who engaged in TE and C-R both exhibited noticeable progress. In contrast, the control group showed a meager score gain only with respect to the passives with present simple, experiencing a slight or main score decrease as to those with past simple and present perfect. Obviously, passive constructions with present perfect involves a greater number of morphological derivations (i.e., have/has + been + past participle), and hence a greater level of “complexity of form” (DeKeyser, 2005, p. 3), than those with simple past (i.e., was/were + past participle) and simple present (i.e., is/are/am + past participle). Thus, even though the formation of the passive can be described efficiently by means of categorical rules, it does not appear to be as “simple and straightforward” in nature (S. Lee, 2007, p. 8).

Another account for these findings comes from the typological differences between the participants’ L1 and L2. As described previously, Korean is a topic-prominent language, which tends to lack a compound tense and aspect system comparable with that in English (i.e., present/past simple/progressive/perfect, etc.) (Oshita, 2000). Put differently, English is more marked than Korean in terms of the tense and aspect system. According to the Markedness Differential Hypothesis (Eckman, 1977), learners whose L1 includes a more marked structure vis-à-vis the target construction are expected to have easier time learning the L2 structure, whereas those whose L1 is less marked are likely to produce errors (Dinssen & Eckman, 1975). This hypothesis was born out in the present study, as demonstrated by the particular difficulty posed by the passives with present perfect, which is not a commonly used combination of tense and aspect in Korean.
Similarly, a more subtle examination of the GJT data revealed that the omission of the *BE*-auxiliary was found most frequently in the passives with present perfect (e.g., *the username and password have taken by another use, in the last fifteen years, 10,000 elephants have killed by illegal hunters*, etc.). This type of an error was observed even in the participants on the highest proficiency-level. On the contrary, they generally produced a *BE*-auxiliary in passives with present and past simple, but in an erroneous form (e.g., *in the past, detergents was of various plants and oil, the musician Philippe Rameau are also known as one of the best organists in France*, etc.). These findings may indicate potential processing constraints as for the form of the passive, which may be ascribed to the participants’ L1 (Hulstijn & Hulstijn, 1984). More specifically, the lack of a compound tense and aspect system in Korean may have constrained the processability of the formal properties of the passive, such that the participants exhibited a tendency to allow one morphological element between the subject and the past participle in the passive constructions.

In parallel with the findings of prior L2 research (e.g., Gass & Selinker, 2008; Han & Lew, 2012; Williams & Evans, 1998), both TE and C-R led to slightly smaller score gains as for the form of the passive on the use dimension, as measured by the immediate posttest oral and written production tasks. In addition, the production data exhibited a greater percentage of pseudo-passives, which, as described previously, are usually produced in the early developmental stage of the passive (e.g., Keatinge, & Keßler, 2009; S. Lee, et al., 2008). These findings suggest that the knowledge of the form of the passive gained through TE and C-R was not fully accessible through automatic processing (e.g., R. Ellis, et al., 2003; Gass & Selinker, 2008). In other words, it appears
that the knowledge gained in both learning conditions was quite explicit or declarative in nature. Presumably, access to this type of knowledge would have operated more efficiently through more practice, as proposed by the Skill Acquisition Theory (Bialystok, 1981; Bialystok & Sharwood Smith, 1985; Fitts & Posner, 1967), although five sessions of treatment were deemed quite intensive in nature.

5.2.2 Meaning

The participants’ scores on the immediate posttest sentence pair task revealed that both TE and C-R induced a significant increase of knowledge of the meaning of the passive. However, as with the results of the immediate posttest GJT, TE had a greater benefit than C-R, and the difference between the two treatment conditions was close to the significance level \( p = .059 \). These findings lend support for the general presumption found in the L2 literature (e.g., Doughty, 2003; Long, 1996) that form-meaning mappings are engendered more effectively in an implicit, than explicit, learning condition.

Yet, caution is needed in interpreting these findings because, as in the GJT data, there appear to be several modulating variables, including both learner-internal and learner-external, which may have influenced them. To begin with, it seems possible that the participants, particularly those who engaged in C-R, interpreted the term ‘meaning’ indicated in the instruction on the sentence pair task as referring to the semantic, or lexical, meaning of the given pair of active and passive sentences. In fact, participants in each of the three groups only provided the lexical meaning of the passive sentences, translating them literally into Korean, in about 50% of the items on the pretest sentence pair task. This may simply have been a result of the participants’ lack of knowledge of the ‘grammatical’ meaning of the passive at the onset of the study. However, this could
also be attributed to the participants’ previous EFL learning experience, in which they were often encouraged to translate English sentences into Korean for reading comprehension.

Immediately after the treatment sessions of TE and C-R, the percentage of the answers providing only the lexical meaning of the passive dropped to 20% and 35%, respectively, with the former resulting in a remarkably greater increase of knowledge of the ‘grammatical’ meaning of the passive than the latter. This seems to be an interesting finding, because the C-R treatment involved explicit instruction on the grammatical meaning of the passive using similar active-passive sentence pairs as those on the sentence pair task. Presumably, C-R directed the participants’ focal attention more efficiently to the form, than the meaning, of the passive, even though the treatment had been designed to tap into the form, meaning, and function involved in it (VanPatten, 1990, 1996, 2004).

In contrast, it appears that TE induced effective mappings between the form and meaning of the passive, by attracting, rather than directing, the participants’ focal attention to form, without depleting the cognitive capacity for meaning (Doughty & Williams, 1998). In addition, Han (2007) claims that, in terms of triggering semantic and conceptual restructuring, FonF would be better off if it targets “a cohort of interlanguage constructions which represent various grammaticized ways of encoding the abstract notion” (p. 75). In line with this thought, TE in the present study seems to have induced greater awareness of the form-meaning connections linked to the passive, through a greater number of passive constructions used in various contexts and various combinations of tense and aspect.
As for the meaning of the passive, participants who engaged in TE and C-R exhibited greater score gains on the oral and written production tasks than on the sentence pair task, immediately after the treatment sessions. These results contradict the earlier discussion of form, which showed a relatively greater difficulty of performance on the production tasks than on the GJT (e.g., Gass & Selinker, 2008; Han & Lew, 2012; Williams & Evans, 1998). It could be argued that the knowledge gained through TE and C-R allowed more efficient control or access as for the meaning, than the form, of the passive. However, the nature of the measurement tasks employed in the study is also likely to have played a role.

First, the reconstruction tasks involved free production – if not completely free, as is discussed later – of the L2, in which the participants had more freedom to create their own semantic context than on the sentence pair task. Accordingly, in the coding of the data, efforts were made to accommodate the learners’ intended meaning, whether their output included the passive construction or not. For example, as presented in Chapter III, active sentences and pseudo-passives which ought to have been used in the passive form received a partial score, as long as they conveyed the correct lexical meaning (e.g., *machines produced chocolate first, first hot coffee make in 17C, etc.*). In a similar vein, several participants rephrased the passive constructions in the original stories into more simple statements without the passive voice (e.g., *but Italy people are still [considered] best ice cream makers*). In this case, the token was not relevant to the passive anymore, and was excluded from coding. The latter example may have been a sign of avoidance, a phenomenon frequently observed in L2 acquisition, in which learners avoid using the target construction due to lack of knowledge or confidence (Dagut & Laufer, 1985;
Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; Laufer & Eliasson, 1993; Schachter, 1974). However, it also seemed to suggest that the participants were paying attention to meaning, rather than form, when they were listening to the stories to be reconstructed (VanPatten, 1990, 1996, 2004), which indicated that the participants’ output did involve spontaneity. Thus, no deduction of score was conducted. As a result, such procedure of coding might have inflated the participants’ scores on the production tasks with respect to the meaning of the passive.

Second, the even greater score gains observed on the written, than the oral, production tasks as for the meaning of the passive could be attributed to practice effects, because the former was administered following the latter. Put differently, the oral reconstruction was likely to serve as a planning stage (Robinson, 1996, 1997, 2001, 2003) for the written reconstruction, despite the five-minute interval between the two, resulting in more efficient access to the knowledge base.

5.2.3 Function

Similar to the results of the immediate posttest GJT and sentence pair task, the results of the immediate posttest closed DCT indicated that TE had a significantly greater benefit than C-R for the participants’ knowledge of the function of the passive. C-R also resulted in a significantly higher mean score than that of the control group, but the change of the score was not substantial within the group. These results are in line with the findings of previous L2 research which suggest that implicit learning is as good as, or often more effective than, explicit learning for prototype rules (DeKeyser, 1995; Hulstijn & De Graaff, 1994).
As described previously, the passive functions as a “stylistic device” (Wanner, 2009, p. 1), which concerns how speakers make use of the options that it provides in the given context. As Larsen-Freeman (1991) asserts, context could go beyond a linguistic discourse context (i.e., the language that precedes or follows a particular structure in the discourse or how a particular genre or register of discourse affects the use of a structure) to involve a social context (i.e., a context created by interlocutors, their relationship to one another, the setting, etc.), as well as the presuppositions one has about the contexts. Accordingly, the rules applied for the use of the passive may well be probabilistic, unreliable, and fuzzy in nature (Hulstijn & De Graaff, 1994), which may not interact optimally with an explicit FonF treatment using categorical rule explanations. Rather, they are likely to be learned better experientially, by gaining knowledge of ‘prototypes’ (N. Ellis, 2002) derived from individual exemplars embedded in a variety of meaningful contexts.

As previously mentioned, the current study examined three prototypical functions of the passive: topicalization, coherence, and defocusing. According to Witte and Faigley (1981), topicalization concerns cohesion, which refers to “explicit mechanisms in a text that tie its sentences together”, whereas coherence allows “a text to be understood in a real-world setting” (p. 199). The passive constructions in the closed DCT were created to reflect both cohesion (i.e., topicalization) and coherence, and were validated through extensive piloting with three native speakers. Yet, native speakers may have different conceptions about the ‘real-world setting.’ For example, it is generally acknowledged that some native speakers almost always prefer the active voice, because the passive voice supposedly produces unclear, wordy sentences (e.g., Sigel, 2009). In addition, research
on corpus analyses (e.g., Banks, 2017; Seoane, 2006; Seoane & Loureiro-Porto, 2005; Seoane & Williams, 2006) reveals that the use of the passive voice in scientific writing has declined over the last few years. After all, the use of the passive pertains to preference (Wanner, 2009), rather than obligatory use, which appears to serve as the greatest source of challenge in the learning of the passive voice.

As with meaning, a greater gain of knowledge as for the function of the passive were observed on the immediate posttest production tasks, than on the closed DCT, in both TE and C-R. There was no substantial difference between the treatment effects. These findings can be attributed to several factors, including the characteristics of the measurement tasks discussed earlier with regard to meaning.

First and foremost, the stories to be reconstructed on the production tasks were much shorter in length (approximately 300 words) than the written texts used in the closed DCT (approximately 700 words). Also, whereas the latter involved multiple sub-themes and local contextual shifts – e.g., the pretest closed DCT addressed the founding of the Joseon dynasty, palace life, education system, the life of the prince, etc. – the former focused on the main theme of the story (i.e., coffee, ice cream, and chocolate on each test, respectively). Consequently, the contexts involved in the production tasks might have been perceived as more coherent, and even easier to follow, by the participants, even though the prompts used in the reconstruction tasks and closed DCT had been synchronized in terms of comprehensibility (i.e., vocabulary levels and syntactic complexity), as described in Chapter III.

Second, as noted earlier, the production tasks involved learner-generated contexts. Thus, the learners’ intended meanings were accommodated, even where active sentences
or pseudo-passives were used. Among the active sentences produced by the participants, some did comprise obligatory contexts for the passive voice with regard to topicalization, coherence, and/or defocusing (e.g., … the history of chocolate … machines produced chocolate in 1780 vs. chocolate was produced by machines in 1780). However, others appeared to be a matter of preference based on the context or register of the language produced by the participant (e.g., … the history of ice cream … we can enjoy delicious ice cream all over the world vs. delicious ice cream is enjoyed all over the world). Thus, active sentences of the latter type were excluded from coding, with no deduction of score. Yet, the participants’ written reconstruction on the immediate posttest production tasks exhibited a slightly greater number of tokens of the passive used in appropriate contexts, because, as pointed out earlier, it was administered after the oral reconstruction, which is likely to have served as a planning stage (Robinson, 1996, 1997, 2001, 2003).

5.3 Durability of the Treatment Effects

The second research question addressed whether the differential effects of implicit (i.e., TE) and explicit (i.e., C-R) FonF, if any, would be durable. To answer this question, the findings from the delayed posttest are discussed thoroughly.

The delayed posttest data obtained on the five measurement tasks revealed that the effects TE and C-R were generally maintained in a four-week interval from the treatment sessions. More specifically, TE and C-R both exhibited a slight decrease of mean scores on the overall measurement tasks from the immediate to delayed posttests, but the amount of decrease was generally not substantial. These positive findings are ascribed to a variety of factors including those discussed earlier, such as the intensity of instruction (i.e., five treatment sessions as opposed to a one-shot treatment) (R. Ellis,
2002; Long, 2007), the participants’ previous knowledge of the passive (Sharwood Smith, 1991, 1993), and the learner-created contexts involved in the production tasks.

Yet, the data revealed a few exceptions to the aforementioned results. For example, in both TE and C-R, the scores on the sentence pair task showed another slight increase from the immediate to delayed posttests. Apparently, this task was the most simple among the five measurement tasks employed in the study, in terms of format and length. Moreover, the sentential-level understanding of the meaning of the passive was presumably less complex than the contextual-level understanding of the functions of the passive; the latter concerns preference or prototypes, as discussed earlier, whereas the former does not (DeKeyser, 1995; Hulstijn & De Graaff, 1994; Wanner, 2009). The seemingly less complex nature of the sentence pair task is also corroborated by the participants’ responses on the exit questionnaire, which indicated that the learning of the meaning of the passive was perceptually easier, or less difficult, than that of its form and function.

With respect to form, meaning, and function, the decrease of scores from the immediate to delayed posttests was greater on the production tasks than on the GJT, sentence pair task, and closed DCT. This finding appears to verify the relatively greater difficulty associated with the use, than knowledge, of the passive construction, in accordance with the findings of the previous L2 research (e.g., Bialystok, 1981, 1990; Bialystok & Sharwood Smith, 1985; Gass & Selinker, 2008; Han & Lew, 2012; Williams & Evans, 1998). Similarly, even though the characteristics of the measurement tasks discussed earlier (e.g., text lengths, the number of sub-themes, etc.) might have inflated the immediate posttest scores as for meaning and function, the gained ability to use the
passive as for meaning and function seemed to disappear at a higher rate than that as for form, suggesting a potentially greater challenge for acquisition (Han & Lew, 2012).

5.4 Mappings between Form, Meaning, and Function

The findings of the present study generally support the predictions made by the acquisitional perspective of complexity (Han & Lew, 2012) that the acquisition of form is the least complex, while that of the form-meaning-function mappings is the most complex (e.g., Sorace, 2005; VanPatten, 1996; VanPatten, et al., 2004). The results of the two posttest GJTs demonstrated that TE and C-R had almost equally significant benefits for the learning of the formal properties of the passive. Furthermore, a closer examination of the data revealed that both TE and C-R influenced every participant positively, albeit to various degrees.

Considering these results in relation to those of the sentence pair task, however, TE had a considerably greater benefit for the form-meaning mappings of the passive than C-R. The latter also had a facilitative impact, but the change of the participants’ performance before and after the treatment was not substantial. In addition, the difference between the effects of TE and C-R was close to the significance level over the course of the experiment.

Similarly, TE was found to have a more significant, beneficial effect on the form-meaning-function mappings of the passive than C-R. More specifically, TE seemed to have afforded opportunities for balanced form-meaning-function mappings (N. Ellis, 2002) of the passive on the knowledge dimension, as indicated by the comparable mean scores on the immediate posttest GJT ($M=30.27$; 76% when converted into percentage),
sentence pair task ($M=8.15; 82\%$), and closed DCT ($M=15.33; 77\%$). In contrast, C-R resulted in relatively dissimilar mean scores on the immediate posttest GJT ($M=29.67; 74\%$), sentence pair task ($M=6.79; 68\%$), and closed DCT ($M=12.58; 63\%$). As described in the previous chapter, these mean scores were largely maintained on the delayed posttest.

It is important to note, however, that TE did not affect every individual learner as for the function of the passive. Immediately after the treatment sessions, only about 70\% of the participants who engaged in TE gained scores on the closed DCT, with the other 30\% exhibiting either no difference in performance or even a slight U-shaped pattern over the two posttests. In the latter case, it is likely that the learners underwent some hypothesis testing, such that their knowledge measured on the delayed posttest may have been qualitatively different from that measured on the pretest, despite the seemingly similar scores achieved on the two posttests (Lightbown, 1983). In a similar vein, only about 50\% of the participants who engaged in C-R showed either score gains or a U-shaped pattern, with the other 50\% showing no difference in performance over the two posttests. Moreover, as noted in the qualitative analysis for intra-learner variation, two participants in this group even exhibited a constant score decrease over the two posttest closed DCTs, while consistently achieving high scores on the other measurement tasks. However, no participant in the study exhibited a reverse pattern, indicating that the impact of TE and C-R was not as reliable on the function, as on the meaning and form, of the passive.

As presented in the previous chapter, the difference between the effects of TE and C-R on the form-meaning-function mappings of the passive was less clear on the use
dimension, as revealed by the production tasks. TE and C-R resulted in similar mean score gains for form, meaning, and function, but neither treatment led to comparable mappings between them. Moreover, unlike the immediate posttest GJT, sentence pair task, and closed DCT, the immediate posttest oral production task exhibited noticeably lower mean scores as for form as a result of both TE (\(M=62.63\%\)) and C-R (\(M=57.41\%\)), than meaning (\(M=87.32\%\) and \(M=86.29\%,\) respectively) and function (\(M=79.90\%\) and \(M=78.73\%,\) respectively). The immediate posttest written production task produced similar results, and the scores were largely maintained on the delayed posttest production tasks. However, considering the aforementioned modulating variables involved in the production tasks (i.e., text lengths, the number of sub-themes, coding of pseudo-passives and active sentences, etc.), the scores for meaning and function may have been inflated. Therefore, the results of the production tasks could be interpreted such that both TE and C-R had a positive impact on the balanced form-meaning-function mappings of the passive on the use dimension, similar to the results of the GJT, sentence pair, and closed DCT.

Yet, the qualitative differences between the data obtained from the GJT, sentence pair, and closed DCT, and those obtained from the production tasks also need to be considered. Despite the seemingly similar benefits of TE and C-R for the form of the passive on both knowledge and use dimensions, the oral and written production data revealed a greater number of pseudo-passives, which received partial scores for the lexical meaning they conveyed; no such token was observed in the GJT data immediately after the TE and C-R treatments. Similarly, the production data exhibited errors concerning an incorrect agent-patient relationship, with the arguments of the verb...
positioned in an inverse order (e.g., milk is made of ice cream). These tokens received partial scores for the grammatically correct form despite the erroneous meaning and function; no such error was found in the sentence pair data over the course of the experiment.

The analyses based on the participants’ proficiency levels generally revealed similar findings to those discussed above. In particular, on the closed DCT, both high- and low-level learners in each experimental group exhibited a pattern of development almost identical to that on the group level. That is, as for the knowledge of the function of the passive, TE brought about a similarly considerable amount of progress for both high- and low-level learners, whereas the benefit of C-R was not noticeable for either high- or low-level learners. These findings are in line with Bresnan’s (as cited in N. Ellis, 2002) claim that L2 acquisition in the early stages is primarily a matter of extracting formulas and low-scope patterns from the input, because it is often “easier to look something up than to compute it” (p. 156). Perhaps, this assertion could be extended to advanced L2 learners as for the function of the passive, because the use of the passive, due to its optional nature, may not be something that can be computed. As discussed earlier, the passive concerns how speakers make use of the options it provides in the given context (Wanner, 2009). DeKeyser (2005) offers more specific accounts for such optionality in light of form-meaning mappings. He argues that optionality, such as that involved in the use of the passive, makes it difficult to establish a form-meaning mapping due to its alternating presence or absence in the presence of the same lexical meaning; the optional nature of a linguistic construction makes it even harder to acquire its correlation with abstract semantic elements that favor its appearance. These accounts seem to suggest a
greater need of a FonF treatment for the meaning (and function) of the passive, particularly a treatment that can illustrate, sufficiently, the distributional patterns of such alternating presence or absence of the given target construction.

Another finding to discuss with respect to form-meaning-function mappings is the performance of the control group. Over the two posttest GJT, the control group showed a slight, albeit not significant, increase of knowledge of the form of the passive. It is possible that, through the repeated measurement tasks, the participants in this group became aware that they were being tested for the passive, and attempted some hypothesis testing based on their previous knowledge. This process appeared to be successful to a small degree. However, in terms of the mappings between form, meaning, and function on both knowledge and use dimensions, the group exhibited little change, or even a constant decrease, over the course of the experiment. According to N. Ellis (2002), FonF has a role to play in forcing learners to attend to the structure of ambiguous sequences and can “narrow their hypothesis space” (MacWhinney, 1997, p. 175). In this view, hypothesis testing on the ambiguous or optional nature involved in the passive was less likely to be successful without TE or C-R.

The discussion now turns to more granular analyses of the form-meaning-function mapping issues observed in the data. First, the GJT data revealed a potential form-meaning mapping issue derived from the meaning of the verbs used. It appeared that form errors involving a present participle in place of a past participle occurred more frequently with less dynamic verbs (e.g., *guests are treating with great service in our hotel, information is sharing fast these days, many books have been translating by the author, dogs and cats are keeping separate*). The L1 literature shows that young children
produce and comprehend passives based on actions better than those based on states (Maratsos, Fox, Becker, & Chalkley, 1985), and have difficulty passivizing verbs in which the realization of agent and patient is non-canonical (Pinker, Lebeaux, & Frost, 1987). Although the verbs presented in the aforementioned examples are not stative verbs (i.e., keeping, sharing, translating, etc.), the participants seemed to have difficulty comprehending the correct agent-patient relationships surrounding them. This processing difficulty may have been amplified by the animate subjects (e.g., guests, dogs and cats, etc.), which are less marked or more canonical entities that can occur in the subject position than their inanimate counterparts (e.g., Croft, 1990; Hinkel, 2002; Montrul, 1999; Oshita, 2001; Zobl, 1989).

Second, although TE and C-R were found to have more reliable effects on the form, than meaning and function, of the passive, it appears that the “complexity of form” (DeKeyser, 2005, p. 3) cannot be ignored. As discussed previously, all three groups in the present study exhibited noticeably lower grammatical accuracy and a greater variety of form errors on the production tasks than on the GJT. Moreover, on the two posttest GJTs, the three groups attained considerably lower mean scores for the passives with present perfect but higher scores for those with present simple. Yet, the relatively greater complexity of the passives with present perfect may also represent a greater complexity of form-meaning mappings encompassed in them. Robinson (1996, 1997, 2001, 2003) argues that events that occurred in the past and elsewhere (i.e., [There-and-Then]) add to the cognitive demands for L2 learners than those happening now, in a mutually shared context (i.e., [Here-and-Now]). Accordingly, the processing of the meaning of the present perfect, used in combination with the passive constructions, may have afforded less
cognitive resources for noticing of form (Schmidt, 1990) than that of the present and past simple.

Third, despite the three categories of the functions of the passive addressed in the present study (i.e., topicalization, coherence, and defocusing), the use of the passive in reality often appears to require mappings between a variety of semantic and pragmatic cues embedded in the context. For example, the delayed posttest closed DCT included the passive phrase *are/is owned* in two different local contexts. In both contexts, the passive phrase introduced the main topic of the passage, *the Tripitaka Koreana*. The first token appeared at the beginning of the passage:

The Flawless Tripitaka Koreana

What is the Tripitaka? It is a collection of Buddhist teachings. Literally meaning “three baskets” in Sanskrit, Tripitaka consists of three books on the discipline, dialogue, and higher knowledge of Buddha. Although

(1) __________________ the Tripitaka Koreana is Goryeo’s huge-scale version of the Tripitaka from the 13th century. Since its creation,

(1) many countries have their own Buddhist writings / Buddhist writings are of course owned by many countries

The second token was presented in the middle of the passage:
Given the topicalization and coherence functions of the passive, it appears to be possible that both items #1 and #18 could be filled with the passive option provided. However, all five native speaker participants in the study chose the active option in item #1, because the verb own implies ownership and the passive option seems to make the sentence less neutral in meaning. The passive sentence Buddhist writings are of course owned by many countries had originally been conceived because the verb have present in the active sentence in the pair never occurs in the passive voice. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) state that the subject of a passive sentence “needs to be somehow affected by the action of the verb” (p. 356). Therefore, certain transitive verbs such as have, resemble, and belong are not likely to occur in the passive voice when used statively. Nevertheless, several participants in the experimental groups chose the passive option in item #1, seemingly to maintain cohesion by beginning the sentence with Buddhist writings, which had been mentioned in the preceding context, while those in the control group generally chose the active option. These findings seem to suggest that
overuse errors as a result of FonF treatments (Lightbown, 1983) can occur not only on the level of form but also on the level of form-meaning-function mappings.

Participants’ data revealed a few more issues of form-meaning-function mappings that can be discussed in light of transfer. As previously mentioned, the syntax-pragmatics interface appears to be more vulnerable to transfer than the syntax-semantics interface or syntactic properties alone (Han & Lew, 2012; Sorace, 2005). The current study presented pseudo-passives and overpassivized unaccusatives as the main L1-influenced errors observed in the Korean EFL learners’ acquisition of the passive. As reviewed in Chapter II, pseudo-passives represent the learners’ L1 discourse structure such that the NP serves as the topic of the sentence with the grammatical subject (i.e., one, people, etc.) missing. It is noteworthy that, in most examples of pseudo-passives found in the literature (Han, 2000; Schachter & Rutherford, 1979; Yip, 1995; Yip & Mathews, 1995), the topic is interpreted as the object of the verb when mapped onto the corresponding structure in English (e.g., new cars must keep inside, Marty’s food could make in his house, etc.). By contrast, the production data of the present study revealed a few pseudo-passives of which the subject (i.e., the topic in the learners’ IL) seemingly functions as a complement of the predicate when mapped onto the structure in English, a common sentence structure in a topic-comment language such as Korean. On the delayed posttest written reconstruction task, for instance, a lower-level participant produced the following pseudo-passive in the context of introducing the history of chocolate:

t. Chocolate is very popular in the world, and [with] chocolate [they] makes many kinds of food.
L1 Topic ---------------- Comment
L2 NP (topic) --------- [null subject] + VP
The original context and prompts to be reconstructed were *chocolate has become one of the most popular foods in the world, and a number of food products have been created with chocolate*. However, this learner chose to maintain the topic of the sentence by starting the second clause with *chocolate* as well, mapping his L1 discourse structure onto the L2 grammatical structure, in which case *chocolate* functions as the complement of the intended predicate in terms of meaning (i.e., *they make many kinds of food with chocolate*). Apparently, this appears to be different in nature from the pseudo-passive in sentence (u) below produced by another participant on the lower proficiency-level:

u. *Chocolate is most popular now days, and many foods [they] makes by chocolate.*

In this example, the participant decided to focus on *many foods*, as opposed to in sentence (t), and the topic of the pseudo-passive functions as the object of the predicate in the mapped English structure (i.e., *they make many foods with chocolate*). Despite these differences, both pseudo-passives exemplify the common topic-comment structure used in Korean. Thus, these examples confirm the findings of previous L2 research that the intended structure of the pseudo-passive is the surface structure of the English passive, and that the intended function (i.e., topic-comment) remains the same through both the pseudo-passive and the passive (Han, 2000; Schachter & Rutherford, 1979; Yip, 1995; Yip & Mathews, 1995).

Additionally, the production data revealed three categories of overpassivization errors with regard to form-meaning-function mappings. First, the majority of overuse errors simply concerned form. That is, they included the correct, but overused, form of
BE-auxiliary + past participle, which produced erroneous meaning and function (e.g., monks were eaten coffee fruits to wake up, Kaldi was discovered coffee berries, other people was learned Italian way, chocolate is contained/included sugar more than cacao, etc.). Most verbs used in these examples were action verbs with canonical agent-patient relationships (Pinker, et al., 1987), but it appears that the learners’ focal attention was drawn so overly to form that they overpassivized the verbs in a rote fashion.

Second, several overuse errors concerned the unaccusativity issue described in Chapter II (e.g., until then chocolate was existed different for we know, it is became famous because of sweet taste, etc.). One explanation for these errors is that the grammatical subject (i.e., chocolate, it which refers to chocolate, etc.) is quite marked – as opposed to human or animate subjects – and the learners attempted to indicate it in the predicate by overpassivizing the verb (Croft, 1990). Another explanation pertains to the semantic meaning of the verbs. As discussed earlier with regard to the GJT data, it is likely that the participants had difficulty processing passive sentences featuring verbs that are less dynamic (e.g., exist, become, etc.) (Maratsos, et al., 1985). To date, this account of overpassivization has not been addressed as much in the L2 literature.

Third, a handful of overpassivized tokens revealed an attempted form-function mapping but with erroneous semantic meaning. For example, several higher-level learners produced tokens of the passive such as the following, even on the pretest:

v.  *Coffee is one of the most popular drink today. Actually, coffee is eaten more than tea.*
These sentences constituted the beginning of the reconstructed text, and the original prompt for them was *coffee is one of the most popular drinks today. In fact, you may know that around the world more people drink coffee than tea.* However, the learners chose to maintain topic continuity, starting the second sentence with *coffee* again. This decision was most probably an unconscious process, based on the learners’ L1 discourse structure described earlier. Yet, the process involved an additional L1 influence as to the verb *eat,* because the corresponding verb in Korean (i.e., *meok-da*) is collocated with both solid and liquid food. In fact, a few other participants produced *coffee is consumed more than tea,* which conveys the correct semantic meaning, as well as correct form and function. Again, these errors suggest that the use of the passive in authentic contexts requires various mappings between form, meaning, and function.

Whereas the aforementioned errors involve overt marking of the topic, several other errors were found in the production data which showed the opposite, involving a covert topic when it was represented as a pronoun. As a common parameter of topic-comment languages, pronoun-dropping is a phenomenon in which certain classes of pronouns are omitted when they are pragmatically or grammatically inferable (Chomsky, 1981; Li & Thompson, 1976). Interestingly, in the present data, these tokens occurred only in a subordinate clause preceded by the matrix clause, and generally included an intact predicate in terms of morpho-syntax. However, the ‘null subject’ often led to incorrect inferring of the patient (i.e., semantic/pragmatic topic vs. grammatical subject) of the passive construction. For example, the following sentences were produced in the context of introducing the history of *ice cream*:
In 18C the ice cream was only sold at luxurious café in Europe. But one American businessman opened the first ice cream factory and [ice cream] was introduced to people.

Based on the context that preceded the null subject, ice cream was already set as the topic of the text; it was old information (e.g., Biber, et al., 1999; Chafe, 1970; Wanner, 2009), which may have made the L1 topic-comment language speakers pay more attention to the new information presented in the predicate. In addition, the presence of other pieces of new information in the matrix clause, one American businessman and ice cream, may have combined with the syntactic subordination to add to the processing demand (Ai & Lu, 2013; Lu, 2010, 2011; Lu & Ai, 2015). Even if the learner intended to refer to one American businessman or the ice cream factory by the null subject, it is most likely to be interpreted, syntactically, as one American businessman, projecting a mismatch between the form, meaning, and function of the passive construction.

5.5 Limitations and Future Research Directions

There are a number of limitations to this study that need to be acknowledged and considered in future research. The most notable ones are outlined herein. First, a major weakness resides in the fact that the study only investigated the effects of implicit and explicit FonF on a single target construction, the passive. Thus, the results may not be generalized to other linguistic constructions. As the L2 literature (e.g., R. Ellis, 2002a; Williams & Evans, 1998) suggests, not all grammatical constructions serve as equal candidates for the effects of a FonF treatment. Therefore, replicating the study with other linguistic targets, particularly morphological features, would be desirable, given that
morphemes tend to involve more fuzzy rules than syntax, such that they are even considered as the “bottleneck” to L2 acquisition (Slabakova, 2013, p. 23)

Second, the study may not have been inclusive enough in analyzing the complexity of the target construction. The passive is a notoriously variable structure, which can be used with multiple combinations of tense and aspect (Wanner, 2009). However, only three combinations of tense and aspect (i.e., present simple, past simple, and present perfect) were examined in the study, based on the nature of the treatment texts employed. In a similar vein, the passive can be used to convey a variety of subtle pragmatic functions, such as politeness and avoidance of responsibility. However, the study adopted a top-down approach, by examining the literature (e.g., Givon, 1979; Jespersen, 1965; Shibatani, 1985), to concentrate on three main pragmatic functions of the passive including topicalization, coherence, and defocusing. Moreover, the native speakers who participated in the creation of the treatment materials and the coding of the data had been primed with the three functions. This procedure might have obscured valid decisions on the functions of the given passive constructions, particularly the learners’ intended functions underlying the use of the passive on the oral and written production tasks. Yet, a defense against this limitation is that the functions of the passive, including the three adopted in the present study, are not completely independent of each other. As described in Chapter II, foregrounding a non-topic argument in a sentence naturally entails backgrounding the topic argument. This was why the topicalization, coherence, and defocusing functions of the passive in the present study were categorized hierarchically, rather than being treated as discrete functions.
Third, the closed DCT, which intended to measure the participants’ knowledge of the function of the passive, reveals a similar limitation. As noted previously, the difficulty of the passive comes from the optionality involved in it (DeKeyser, 2005). To ensure the validity of the use of the passive versus active voice in the given contexts on the closed DCT, the study examined the performance of a group of native English speakers on the task. Although this was a necessary procedure to create the task, it may have involved a bias in the choice of the native speakers. More specifically, all five participants in the native speaker comparison group had similar academic background of applied linguistics, who were also language teachers. Thus, it seems plausible that native speakers who are less familiar with the formal register of English might have exhibited different performance on the task. It is noteworthy, however, that the passive is a marked form of voice that entails processing costs (e.g., Lambrecht, 1994; Wanner, 2009), and more likely to be used in formal, written texts such as academic articles (e.g., Biber, 1988; Carter & McCarthy, 2004; Xiao, et al., 2005). It is admitted that even highly educated native speakers may have different opinions about the use of the passive, based on their learning experience and the type of input they had been exposed to (e.g., Banks, 2017; Seoane, 2006; Seoane & Loureiro-Porto, 2005; Seoane & Williams, 2006; Sigel, 2009); after all, the lexical meaning of a passive sentence can be conveyed through an active sentence, as they share the same truth value (e.g., Quirk, et al., 1985; Wanner, 2009). Yet, the use of the passive can provide a better fit between discourse and syntax (e.g., Lambrecht, 1994; Wanner, 2009), assisting the speakers to be more logical, persuasive, and functional. Considering this nature of the passive, the choice of the native speakers in the study was deemed appropriate, if not ideal.
Fourth, the closed DCT was created through multiple pilot tests with the native speaker comparison group, such that only the items that exhibited consensus for either the passive or the active were included. This procedure was intended to increase the internal validity of the task. However, the passive constructions created through this procedure might have lost their fuzzy or ambiguous nature (N. Ellis, 2002; Hulstijn & De Graaff, 1994), which could jeopardize the validity of the task. For the same reason, the study may be characterized as another piece of research on accuracy. Additionally, the native speakers reported that the task was not easy, even on the final pilot test, in that it required a lot of thinking as for the context and local topics involved in it. This may raise another issue of whether the usage of the passive concerns L2 acquisition in general or higher levels of literacy skills (Freire & Macedo, 1987).

Fifth, the oral and written production tasks seem to include several limitations. As noted previously, the stories to be reconstructed were considerably shorter in length, and more simple in terms of the number of the sub-themes addressed, than the texts used on the closed DCT, even though they had been synchronized in terms of syntactic complexity and vocabulary levels. This may have inflated the participants’ scores on the two posttest production tasks for meaning and function. In addition, operationalized as story reconstruction, the production tasks are not likely to have induced free or spontaneous use of the passive. However, it is expected that memory effects, if any, were minimized, because the tasks were designed such that the participants listened to two stories, without knowing which they were going to reconstruct, with a 10-minute interval before the reconstruction. Data collected suggested that the tasks did involve spontaneity, in that the participants rephrased several passive constructions in the prompts into a
number of pseudo-passives, active sentences, and more simple statements without the passive voice.

Sixth, the results of the study may have been affected by the learner characteristics. All participants of the study had partial knowledge of the passive from the previous learning experiences. Considering the typical classroom practice in the EFL environment, their previous knowledge was likely to be quite explicit in nature. Consequently, it is possible that TE employed in the present study exerted effects of combined FonF, including both implicit and explicit techniques, which may have resulted in an amplified impact on the form-meaning-function mappings of the passive (e.g., Doughty & Williams, 1998).

Seventh, as an experimental study conducted in a secondary school, the study inevitably included several learner-external variables that were difficult to be controlled. Among others, even though the EFL environment is usually characterized by a limited amount input, the treatment sessions may not have been the only source of input for the participants over the course of the experiment. Some participants were going to private academic institutions, and some others had private tutors, to study English. Thus, although all participants indicated on the exit questionnaires that they had spent no extra time studying the passive aside from the treatment sessions, it seems possible that they were exposed to extra input of the passive constructions, while being unaware of the experience.

Finally, the current study relied largely on numeric data and group-level, quantitative analyses, showing a relative deficiency in raw linguistic data and individual-level, qualitative analyses. Given the descriptive analysis on five individual learners, the
group-level statistical analyses employed herein may have failed to provide an accurate account of the differential effects of TE and C-R on the acquisition of the passive. Also, without further qualitative data, it is not certain whether TE indeed triggered *implicit learning*, by ‘attracting’ the learners’ attention to form, while C-R triggered *explicit learning*, by ‘directing’ their attention to form (Doughty & Williams, 1998). According to the literature (e.g., R. Ellis, 2009; Schmidt, 1993, 1994), it may not follow that implicit instruction results in implicit learning or, conversely, that explicit instruction leads to explicit learning, because learners “may follow their own inclinations, irrespective of the nature of the instruction they receive” (Allwright, 1984, as cited in R. Ellis, 2009a, p. 6). Although the retrospective questionnaire intended to examine the participants’ perceived effects of TE and C-R, it only provided limited insights on these processes. Therefore, future research that incorporates both quantitative and qualitative methods is crucial in advancing the current understanding of the role of different types of FonF in L2 acquisition.

Despite the aforementioned limitations, the findings of the current study suggest that there could be an alternative to the conventional grammar instruction used in the EFL environment. After all, grammar has multifaceted nature (Larsen-Freeman, 1991), and it is not likely that a particular type of instruction has an equal impact on different grammatical constructions (e.g., R. Ellis, 2002a; Williams & Evans, 1998). Thus, an important direction for future research entails exploring the relationships between additional FonF techniques and a more variety of target constructions, based, of course, on a finer-grained analysis of their complexity. Hopefully, this line of research will contribute to narrowing down the long-lasting gap between the L2 theory and practice.
5.6 Pedagogical Implications

The results of the present study may not be directly applicable to the L2 classroom, due to the variety of modulating variables discussed in the previous section. With this caveat in mind, it is worth considering some pedagogical implications that follow from the results of this experiment. To begin with, the findings, along with those of previous research, suggest that implicit FonF such as TE, when provided in an intensive manner, can constitute an effective way to attract L2 learners’ attention to form, engendering mappings between form, meaning, and function. Explicit FonF such as C-R also appears to have a positive impact on form, but its impact on form-meaning-function mappings may be relatively smaller than that of implicit FonF. Another important pedagogical implication of the study is that fuzzy rules, or those which involve optionality, can be learned better in an implicit learning condition. However, as shown in the analyses for intra-learner variation, the benefit of the instruction may not be guaranteed.
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Appendix A

Background Survey

Background Survey

Answer the following questions. You can choose more than one answer.

1. How long have you been learning English? __________ years

2. Where have you been learning English? □ School □ Academy □ Private Tutor
   □ Abroad □ Other________________________

3. How many hours do you study English per day? ________ hours

4. Which is your most competent English skill?
   □ Listening □ Reading □ Grammar □ Speaking □ Writing

5. Which is your least competent English skill?
   □ Listening □ Reading □ Grammar □ Speaking □ Writing

6. What is your learning style?
   □ I try to learn English naturally by listening and reading a lot.
   □ I try to use English a lot by speaking and writing it.
   □ I try to memorize many examples.
   □ I try to memorize grammar explanations.
   □ Other ________________________________
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Adapted from BBC NEWS
December 9, 2016

South Korea has been plunged into a political scandal surrounding the presidency of Park Geun-hye. Park has been impeached by parliament and the case now goes before the constitutional court, which has 180 days to rule. The scandal, which has generated huge protests, centers on her relationship with an old friend, and has brought claims of cult activities, abuse of authority, and leaks of classified information.

What is the relationship at the heart of the scandal?

Like many close friendships, Park and Choi Soon-sil go back a long way. In 1974, Park Geun-hye's mother was killed by a North Korean spy who had intended to kill Park's father, then-military leader Park Chung-hee. Park, then aged 22, became a substitute first lady for her widowed father.

It was then she got to know Choi Tae-min, a fake Christian leader who set up a cult called The Church of Eternal Life. He said he was constantly visited by the soul of Park's late mother who asked him to guide her. He became Park's mentor, while also gathering considerable wealth and power.

When President Park senior was assassinated by his head of intelligence in 1979, there was speculation that it was because the spy chief was worried the president was manipulated by the man nicknamed "the Korean Rasputin". By this point Park was firm friends with Choi Tae-min's daughter, Choi Soon-sil. Their critics believe Choi maintained her father's habits.

Why has the friendship become problematic?

On November 20, Choi was charged with various offences, including abuse of power and bribery. Few claims have been subject to restriction in the
media coverage, with some reports going as far as suggesting the president is a puppet who hosted a shamanist rituals at the presidential compound. But many of the claims are open to question.

Choi is accused of using her presidential connection to pressure companies for millions of dollars in donation to two non-profit foundations she controlled. The claims have even involved Samsung in the investigation. Jay Y. Lee, vice chairman of Samsung, has been accused of approving the millions in bribes to Choi.

Choi has also been indicted for having received large numbers of confidential government documents from Park, via an aide. These allegedly included information about ministerial candidates and North Korea. There are even claims Choi took advantage of the president's wardrobe budget, buying cheap outfits and keeping the change. Choi has been detained on the charges.

Two of Park's former aides also face criminal charges.

President Park is suspected of having been personally involved, instructing Choi and the two presidential aides to collect money for Choi's foundations, according to prosecution documents submitted to the court.

What do the two women say?

Choi, when she was first questioned in October, said she had committed an "unpardonable crime", though her lawyer said this was not a legal admission of guilt.

President Park has herself admitted some lapses. She says she did consult Choi for advice, and that she helped her edit her speeches, but that this stopped once she had a team of advisers in place.

Witnesses have claimed that Choi received briefings and official papers long after that occurred. Prosecutors discovered related documents on an unsecured tablet computer in an old office of Choi's.

But the tone of the president's pronouncements has changed over time. She began with opaque apologies: "Regardless of what the reason may be, I am sorry that the scandal has caused national concern and I humbly apologize to the people."

But she has moved on to "heartbroken" public confessions of innocence: "Sad thoughts trouble my sleep at night. I realize that whatever I do, it will be difficult to heal the hearts of the people, and then I feel a sense of shame."

She had said she was willing to cooperate with prosecutors, but has so far resisted their attempts to speak to her. Her spokesman said the prosecutors' allegation that she conspired with Choi was "deeply regrettable".

Is anyone else involved?

Several former presidential aides have been investigated in connection with the case, with two of them charged. Ahn Chong-bum, Park's former senior secretary for policy co-ordination, has been charged with abuse of authority,
and Jung Ho-sung is accused of passing classified presidential documents to Choi.

Local media have also been busy finding colorful associates of Choi who were close to the president, including various celebrities and her personal trainer, who Park had appointed as a presidential aide.

Does the impeachment vote end Park’s career?

Not quite. The vote was overwhelming – 234 members of parliament voted to impeach her in a secret ballot, with only 56 standing by her, meaning some members of her ruling Saenuri party voted in favor on the motion. The Constitutional Court will not rule on the matter. If six of the nine judges support the parliamentary vote, she will have to leave office.

Park is not the first South Korean leader to have been impeached by the national assembly. The liberal president, Roh Moo-hyun, was impeached by parliament and forced out of office for two months in 2004. But he was reinstated two months later after the constitutional court said claims of minor election law violations and incompetence did not justify his removal.

Meanwhile, Hwang Kyo-ahn, the country’s prime minister, is serving as interim president. If the judges rule against Park, there will be a new presidential election within 60 days.
Part II. Reading Comprehension Check

In a group of two, complete the following tasks.

1. Without looking back at the previous page, write in Korean all the information you can remember from the article that you just read. After completing the task, compare your recall with your peer's and check if you understood all the important information.

2. Go back to the article and see if there is any vocabulary you are not familiar with. In a group of two, try to guess its meaning based on the context.

3. Ask the instructor any vocabulary you are still not familiar with. 😊
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Part III. Noticing Task (2)

Read the article again, while paying attention to the highlighted parts.

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Ousted South Korean President Park Geun-Hye Jailed

Adapted from New York Times
March 31, 2017

Just three weeks after her removal from power, South Korean President Park Geun-hye has been arrested for her role in the scandal that led to her impeachment. She has been taken to the same detention center where the vice chairman of Samsung, Jay Y. Lee, has also been held in connection to the same corruption scandal. Worth some $6 billion, Lee has been accused of approving the millions in bribes to Choi.

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On Friday, Park was required to remove the hairpins she uses to maintain that style before entering the jail where she now resides. Inmates at the Seoul Detention Center cannot have metal hairpins, because they could use them to hurt themselves, officials said.
Park, who was jailed before dawn Friday on charges stemming from the corruption scandal that ended her presidency three weeks ago, now lives alone in a cell, eating $1.30 meals, washing her own tray and sleeping on a foldable mattress on the floor.

If convicted of the charges on which she was arrested Friday, including bribery, Park would face between 10 years and life in prison.

Because of her father, many South Koreans long derided Ms. Park as a princess. She is notorious for being fastidious; when she once visited the port city of Incheon as president, officials had to install a new toilet specifically for her, according to a former mayor of the city.

Many South Koreans stayed up late to watch the live coverage of prosecutors escorting Park to the detention center in Uiwang, south of Seoul. She was the most prominent inmate to arrive at the center since at least 1995, when Roh Tae-woo, a former military dictator, was detained there.

Hundreds of her supporters chanted “Park Geun-hye, our president!” as her motorcade pulled in. But others celebrated her arrival. “It’s time to pay dearly for what you have done!” one woman shouted as Park’s car passed through the steel gate.

At the gate, Park’s government-provided bodyguards, the only official privilege she still enjoyed, turned around. Once inside the detention center, Park changed into a pea-green jumpsuit required for all inmates and was assigned an inmate number, according to jail officials who briefed reporters on procedures at the center. Her photograph was taken, she underwent a quick medical checkup, and she was taken to a solitary cell, of a kind used to hold prominent politicians and business tycoons, to ensure their safety. Most inmates are held in 129-square-foot cells, with six inmates to each.

Detention center officials would not reveal the size of Ms. Park’s cell but said the usual solitary cell was 71 square feet. Each cell has a TV set, a sink, a small cupboard and a reading desk that doubles as a dinner table, officials said. The TVs show only programs that have been authorized by the Justice Ministry.

On Friday, Park would have been served bread, ketchup, cheese, soup, salad, and soybean milk for breakfast, according to the jail menu for the day. Lunch was to be a bone-marrow and vegetable stew with rice, bean sprouts, kimchi and seaweed.

Park will have access to none of the stylists, personal chefs, plastic surgeons, skin-care specialists or physical therapists who used to visit her regularly at the Blue House, prosecutors said.
Park knows a number of inmates at the center, including her former chief of staff and several other senior aides who have been indicted in connection with the scandal that brought her down. But officials said it was unlikely Park would interact with any of her former associates in jail. Male and female inmates are segregated, and inmates involved in related legal cases are kept separate.
Part II. Reading Comprehension Check

In a group of two, complete the following tasks.

1. Without looking back at the previous page, write in Korean all the information you can remember from the article that you just read. After completing the task, compare your recall with your peer's and check if you understood all the important information.

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Ousted South Korean President Park Geun-Hye Jailed

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Part III. Noticing Task (3)

Read the article again, while paying attention to the highlighted parts.

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March 31, 2017

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Session 3

Part I. Reading Comprehension

Read the following article through so that you can understand the information presented. You will be asked to recall the information from the article.

The Admiral: Roaring Currents

Adapted from Wikipedia

The Admiral: Roaring Currents is a 2014 South Korean war film. It was directed and written by Kim Han-min, a Korean director who produced another well-known historical Korean movie, War of the Arrows. The film describes the Battle of Myeongnyang (1597), one of the legendary Joseon admiral Yi Sun-sin’s most remarkable victories.

Plot

At the onset of the battle, at their base in Haenam, the Japanese invaders under Tōdō Takatora are confident that their planned expedition to Hanyang to capture King Seonjo will meet with success. They remain calm over the news that Joseon’s greatest admiral, Yi Sun-sin, has been restored to his former command following the disaster at Chilcheollyang, which has reduced the Korean navy to a mere dozen battle-ready ships.

In the meantime, Yi Sun-sin is facing the despair rising among his officers and troops.

Facing an enemy force far outnumbering them, and seeing no reasonable chance of success in the inevitable battle with one single turtle ship remaining, many considered the fight lost before it has even started. Even worse, General Bae Seol, who fled from the Chilcheollyang battle, burns the turtle ship and attempts to kill Yi. Although Yi escapes and Bae is killed for his act of treachery, there is no turtle ship left, boosting confidence among the Japanese.

The next morning, Yi’s fleet arrives in the strait and is shortly met by the Japanese, who are using the morning tide to move into the channel, with Kurushima leading the force. Yi engages Kurushima’s fleet in battle, but as the other Korean commanders are still hesitant to involve themselves, Yi’s flagship is quickly surrounded and attacked by boarding parties. In this apparently hopeless situation, Yi commands to fire cannons from the lower deck, using the blast to move the ship away from the Japanese vessel. As Yi has hoped, this bold act of survival inspires the rest of his countrymen to take the fight to the enemy.
When the tide turns and forms a whirlpool in the middle of the channel, thus beginning to solidify Yi's defensive position, Kurushima orders an all-out attack with the rest of his ships. Despite the efforts of Haru and a ship loaded with black powder charges, the renewed courage of the Koreans gets stronger. Kurushima's now desperate situation is observed by Todo, who merely laughs at Katō's suggestion of reinforcing him. Kurushima, realizing that he is now on his own, boards the Korean flagship, but is decapitated by Yi after taking several arrows from Korean archers, and his head is hung from the tip of the ship's mast. When Yi's ship itself is caught in the whirlpool, his civilian navy servants and local fishermen courageously drag the vessel back to safety. Joined by the rest of the fleet, Yi leads a counterattack, forcing them into retreat and leaving the Koreans triumphant. The film ends with the onset of a later naval engagement, in which the horrified Japanese witness the turtle ship's return to the battlefield.

_Historical Background_

In the 16th century, a general called Toyotomi Hideyoshi unified Japan and the long civil war in Japan ended. At that time, most Koreans didn't think about any possibility of invasion from Japan and ignored the war-readiness of Japan. Therefore, the army and Korean Navy except for the admiral Yi Sun-Sin were not prepared for any invasion from Japan. Only admiral Yi Sun-Sin prepared for a war against Japan by building up ships and developing weapons.

However in 1597, due to a Japanese spy and political conspiracy in the Korean royal court, Admiral Yi Sun-Sin was imprisoned by the Korean government, and another admiral, Won Gyun, was appointed to command the Korean navy. Admiral Won, in his first and last naval engagement, attacked the Japanese navy but was seriously defeated by Japan and lost most of the warships (more than 200 warships). Won was killed in action. After this defeat, the Korean government released admiral Yi and put him back in the position of admiral, but the fleet consisted of only 13 warships due to the serious defeat. The Korean government suggested that admiral Yi give up sea battles and join any ground battle. But Admiral Yi insisted that he should prevent the Japanese navy from advancing via sea route. In October 1597, a Japanese fleet of 330 ships tried to attack the small Korean fleet of 13 ships.

As the Japanese moved toward the Korean fleet, Admiral Yi drew the Japanese fleet to a long and narrow strait which has fast and strong wave-flow, and he stopped the Japanese fleet's navigating by blocking the strait with steel chains. The cannons on Korean warships outside the strait bombarded the Japanese ships. The Japanese fleet, having lost more than 31 warships, retreated to the east and they finally gave up advancing toward the west by sea.

Yi kept a careful record of daily events in his diary, and it is from these entries, along with the reports he sent to the throne during the war, that much
about him has been learned. Also, much information about the turtle ships are written in his diaries. These works have been published as *Nanjung Ilgi: War Diary of Admiral Yi Sun-sin*.

In Korea, Admiral Yi is also for his last words before his death. He told his nephew to wear his armor and to hide his death until the battle is over to avoid demoralizing his men in the middle of battle. His last words were "Do not let my death be known." Yi’s life has been depicted in two motion pictures, both entitled *Seong-ung Yi Sun-sin* ("The Saintly Hero Yi Sun-sin"). The first is a 1962 black-and-white movie, and the second, based upon his war diaries, was made in color in 1971.

Recently, prominent statues of Admiral Yi have been erected in the middle of central Seoul (the Statue of Admiral Yi Sun-sin) and Busan.
Part II. Reading Comprehension Check

In a group of two, complete the following tasks.

1. Without looking back at the previous page, write in Korean all the information you can remember from the article that you just read. After completing the task, compare your recall with your peer's and check if you understood all the important information.

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3. Ask the instructor any vocabulary you are still not familiar with. 😊
Part III. Noticing Task (1)

Read the article again, while paying attention to the highlighted parts.

The Admiral: Roaring Currents

Adapted from Wikipedia

The Admiral: Roaring Currents is a 2014 South Korean war film. It was directed and written by Kim Han-min, a Korean director who produced another well-known historical Korean movie, War of the Arrows. The film describes the Battle of Myeongnyang (1597), one of the legendary Joseon admiral Yi Sun-sin’s most remarkable victories.

Plot
At the onset of the battle, at their base in Haenam, the Japanese invaders under Tōdō Takatora are confident that their planned expedition to Hanyang to capture King Seonjo will meet with success. They remain calm over the news that Joseon’s greatest admiral, Yi Sun-sin, has been restored to his former command following the disaster at Chilcheollyang, which has reduced the Korean navy to a mere dozen battle-ready ships.

In the meantime, Yi Sun-sin is facing the despair rising among his officers and troops. Facing an enemy force far outnumbering them, and seeing no reasonable chance of success in the inevitable battle with one single turtle ship remaining, many considered the fight lost before it has even started. Even worse, General Bae Seol, who fled from the Chilcheollyang battle, burns the turtle ship and attempts to kill Yi. Although Yi escapes and Bae is killed for his act of treachery, there is no turtle ship left, boosting confidence among the Japanese.

The next morning, Yi’s fleet arrives in the strait and is shortly met by the Japanese, who are using the morning tide to move into the channel, with Kurushima leading the force. Yi engages Kurushima’s fleet in battle, but as the other Korean commanders are still hesitant to involve themselves, Yi’s flagship is quickly surrounded and attacked by boarding parties. In this apparently hopeless situation, Yi commands to fire cannons from the lower deck, using the blast to move the ship away from the Japanese vessel. As Yi has hoped, this bold act of survival inspires the rest of his countrymen to take the fight to the enemy.

When the tide turns and forms a whirlpool in the middle of the channel, thus beginning to solidify Yi’s defensive position, Kurushima orders an all-out attack...
with the rest of his ships. Despite the efforts of Haru and a ship loaded with black powder charges, the renewed courage of the Koreans gets stronger. **Kurushima’s now desperate situation is observed** by Todo, who merely laughs at Kato’s suggestion of reinforcing him. Kurushima, realizing that he is now on his own, boards the Korean flagship, but is decapitated by Yi after taking several arrows from Korean archers, and his head is hung from the tip of the ship’s mast. When Yi’s ship itself is caught in the whirlpool, his civilian navy servants and local fishermen courageously drag the vessel back to safety. Joined by the rest of the fleet, Yi leads a counterattack, forcing them into retreat and leaving the Koreans triumphant. The film ends with the onset of a later naval engagement, in which the horrified Japanese witness the turtle ship’s return to the battlefield.

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**Historical Background**

In the 16th century, a general called Toyotomi Hideyoshi unified Japan and the long civil war in Japan ended. At that time, most Koreans didn’t think about any possibility of invasion from Japan and ignored the war-readiness of Japan. Therefore, the army and Korean Navy except for the admiral Yi Sun-Sin were not prepared for any invasion from Japan. Only admiral Yi Sun-Sin prepared for a war against Japan by building up ships and developing weapons. However in 1597, due to a Japanese spy and political conspiracy in the Korean royal court, Admiral Yi Sun-Sin was imprisoned by the Korean government, and another admiral, Won Gyun, was appointed to command the Korean navy. Admiral Won, in his first and last naval engagement, attacked the Japanese navy but was seriously defeated by Japan and lost most of the warships (more than 200 warships). Won was killed in action. After this defeat, the Korean government released admiral Yi and put him back in the position of admiral, but the fleet consisted of only 13 warships due to the serious defeat. The Korean government suggested that admiral Yi give up sea battles and join any ground battle. But Admiral Yi insisted that he should prevent the Japanese navy from advancing via sea route. In October 1597, a Japanese fleet of 330 ships tried to attack the small Korean fleet of 13 ships.

As the Japanese moved toward the Korean fleet, Admiral Yi drew the Japanese fleet to a long and narrow strait which has fast and strong wave-flow, and he stopped the Japanese fleet’s navigating by blocking the strait with steel chains. The cannons on Korean warships outside the strait bombarded the Japanese ships. The Japanese fleet, having lost more than 31 warships, retreated to the east and they finally gave up advancing toward the west by sea.

Yi kept a careful record of daily events in his diary, and it is from these entries, along with the reports he sent to the throne during the war, that much about him has been learned. Also, much information about the turtle ships are
written in his diaries. These works have been published as *Nanjung Ilgi: War Diary of Admiral Yi Sun-sin*.

In Korea, Admiral Yi is also for his last words before his death. He told his nephew to wear his armor and to hide his death until the battle is over to avoid demoralizing his men in the middle of battle. His last words were "Do not let my death be known." Yi's life has been depicted in two motion pictures, both entitled *Seong-ung Yi Sun-sin* ("The Saintly Hero Yi Sun-sin"). The first is a 1962 black-and-white movie, and the second, based upon his war diaries, was made in color in 1971.

Recently, prominent statues of Admiral Yi have been erected in the middle of central Seoul (the Statue of Admiral Yi Sun-sin) and Busan.
Part III. Noticing Task (3)

Read the article again, while paying attention to the highlighted parts.

The Admiral: Roaring Currents

Adapted from Wikipedia

The Admiral: Roaring Currents is a 2014 South Korean war film. It was directed and written by Kim Han-min, a Korean director who produced another well-known historical Korean movie, War of the Arrows. The film describes the Battle of Myeongnyang (1597), one of the legendary Joseon admiral Yi Sun-sin’s most remarkable victories.

Plot

At the onset of the battle, at their base in Haenam, the Japanese invaders under Tōdō Takatora are confident that their planned expedition to Hanyang to capture King Seonjo will meet with success. They remain calm over the news that Joseon’s greatest admiral, Yi Sun-sin, has been restored to his former command following the disaster at Chilcheollyang, which has reduced the Korean navy to a mere dozen battle-ready ships.

In the meantime, Yi Sun-sin is facing the despair rising among his officers and troops. Facing an enemy force far outnumbering them, and seeing no reasonable chance of success in the inevitable battle with one single turtle ship remaining, many considered the fight lost before it has even started. Even worse, General Bae Seol, who fled from the Chilcheollyang battle, burns the turtle ship and attempts to kill Yi. Although Yi escapes and Bae is killed for his act of treachery, there is no turtle ship left, boosting confidence among the Japanese.

The next morning, Yi’s fleet arrives in the strait and is shortly met by the Japanese, who are using the morning tide to move into the channel, with Kurushima leading the force. Yi engages Kurushima’s fleet in battle, but as the other Korean commanders are still hesitant to involve themselves, Yi’s flagship is quickly surrounded and attacked by boarding parties. In this apparently hopeless situation, Yi commands to fire cannons from the lower deck, using the blast to move the ship away from the Japanese vessel. As Yi has hoped, this bold act of survival inspires the rest of his countrymen to take the fight to the enemy.

When the tide turns and forms a whirlpool in the middle of the channel, thus beginning to solidify Yi’s defensive position, Kurushima orders an all-out attack.
with the rest of his ships. Despite the efforts of Haru and a ship loaded with black powder charges, the renewed courage of the Koreans gets stronger. Kurushima’s now desperate situation is observed by Todo, who merely laughs at Katō’s suggestion of reinforcing him. Kurushima, realizing that he is now on his own, boards the Korean flagship, but is decapitated by Yi after taking several arrows from Korean archers, and his head is hung from the tip of the ship’s mast. When Yi’s ship itself is caught in the whirlpool, his civilian navy servants and local fishermen courageously drag the vessel back to safety. Joined by the rest of the fleet, Yi leads a counterattack, forcing them into retreat and leaving the Koreans triumphant. The film ends with the onset of a later naval engagement, in which the horrified Japanese witness the turtle ship’s return to the battlefield.

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Recently, prominent statues of Admiral Yi have been erected in the middle of central Seoul (the Statue of Admiral Yi Sun-sin) and Busan.
Every birthday is special to Koreans, but certain birthdays are more than special. Traditionally, several special milestone birthday parties are held in Korea for children and older people, such as baek-il, dol, hwan-gap, and go-hee.

Baek-il is celebrated on the 100th day after a child's birth. Long ago in Korea, childhood diseases were common and the survival rate for children was very low. In particular, the first 100 days of a child's life were considered the most fragile, and during this period, parents refrained from taking the baby outdoors.

It was not until baek-il that parents introduced the baby to neighbors, friends and relatives. One of the baek-il's special events is the parents providing rice cakes, called baekseolgi, to at least 100 people. They believe this event helps to protect the child’s life. They also pray for the child's continued good health.

Dol is probably one of the best-known of the Korean birthday celebrations. Dol is celebrated for the first birthday of a child. When Korea had little medicinal knowledge, many newborns would die from childhood diseases or because of Korea's seasonal temperature differences. For this reason, a dol feast was regarded even more important.

The first part of the dol celebration is prayer, in which the mother of the child honored Samshin Halmoni (the birth goddess) with offerings of rice and soup (miyeok-guk). Also, to prevent disaster and to bring the child luck and happiness, layered red bean cakes called Samshin siru were usually placed at every corner within the house. Traditionally, the rice cakes were not shared outside the family because it was believed that sharing this particular item with people outside the family would bring bad luck to the child. After everything on the praying table was ready the mother (or grandmother) of the child would pray to Samshin, asking for her child’s longevity and give thanks to the birth goddess. Traditionally, women were the only ones allowed to participate in this ceremony; men could not take part in the praying. In modern times, due to the improvements in medicine, the influence of Western culture, and modern
industrialization, the Shamanistic reasons for the Dol celebration have been reduced.

The highlight of this celebration is doljabee, a ritual in which the child symbolically foretells its future. For this ritual, the child is dressed in colorful, ornate traditional Korean clothes. Then the child is seated before a table on which various items have been placed for the child to pick from, such as thread, books, notebooks, pencils, and money, which have been offered by friends and relatives. The child is encouraged to pick up an object that attracts him or her, and it is believed that the object foretells the child's future. For example, if the child picks up thread, it is believed that s/he will live a long life. A child who picks up a book or pencil is forecast to be a good scholar. A child who picks the rice or money will become rich. In the modern era, people often prepare modern objects such as sports equipment, a microphone, a stethoscope or a computer mouse, to symbolize modern talents.

When Koreans attend to the 'dol feast,' they usually present a gold ring to the parents. Friends and relatives collect money to buy the gold ring. However, it is not for the child's finger but for the benefit of the child in times of need in the future.

The hwan-gap, or 60th birthday, has also been considered especially important birthday celebration. That's because few people lived to be 60 before the advent of modern medicine. According to the lunar calendar, there are 60 names for years and once you hit 60, the calendar goes back to your birth year and the cycle starts over. At hwan-gap feast, the parents are seated at the main table and their sons and daughters bow and offer wine to them. The family members and relatives indulge in various activities to make the parents feel young. In the past, years after the 60th birthday were regarded as extra years.

Nowadays, people are enjoying healthier and longer lives due to improved living conditions, and hwan-gap is not as significant as before. Today, Koreans are more likely to celebrate Go-hee, or their 70th birthday. Many Koreans celebrate both birthdays more lavishly than normal birthday parties. More guests are invited, a special party location is selected, family pictures are taken, and songs and dances are performed.
Part II. Reading Comprehension Check

In a group of two, complete the following tasks.

1. Without looking back at the previous page, write in Korean all the information you can remember from the article that you just read. After completing the task, compare your recall with your peer's and check if you understood all the important information.

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2. Go back to the article and see if there is any vocabulary you are not familiar with. In a group of two, try to guess its meaning based on the context.

3. Ask the instructor any vocabulary you are still not familiar with. 😊
Part III. Noticing Task (1)

Read the article again, while paying attention to the highlighted parts.

Birthday Celebrations in Korea

Adapted from Wikipedia

Every birthday is special to Koreans, but certain birthdays are more than special. Traditionally, several special milestone birthday parties are held in Korea for children and older people, such as baek-il, dol, hwan-gap, and go-hee.

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Part III. Noticing Task (2)

Read the article again, while paying attention to the highlighted parts.

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The Korean Alphabet: Hunminjeongeum

Adapted from Wikipedia

**Hunminjeongeum** (The Correct/Proper Sounds for the Instruction of the People) is a document describing an entirely new and native script for the Korean language. The script was initially named after the publication, but has later been known as Hangul. It was created so that the common people illiterate in Hanja could accurately and easily read and write the Korean language. It was announced in Volume 102 of the Annals of King Sejong, and its formal supposed publication date, October 9, 1446, is now Hangul Day in South Korea.

The publication is written in Classical Chinese and contains a preface, the alphabet letters (jamo), and brief descriptions of their corresponding sounds. It is later supplemented by a longer document called Hunminjeongeum Haerye that has been designated as a national treasure No. 70. To distinguish it from its supplement, Hunminjeongeum is sometimes called the "Samples and Significance Edition of Hunminjeongeum."

The Classical Chinese of the *Hunminjeongeum* has been partly translated into Middle Korean. This translation has also been found in Worinseokbo, and is called the *Hunminjeongeum Eonhaebon*. The first paragraph of the document reveals King Sejong’s motivation for creating Hangul:

**Translation (metaphrase):**

"Because the speech of this country is different from that of China, it [the spoken language] does not match the [Chinese] letters. Therefore, even if the ignorant want to communicate, many of them in the end cannot state their concerns. Saddened by this, I have [had] 28 letters newly made. It is my wish that all the people may easily learn these letters and that [they] be convenient for daily use."
Translation (paraphrase):

"The language of [our] people is different from that of the nation of China and thus is not expressed well by the written language of Chinese people. Because of this reason, the cries of illiterate peasants are not properly understood by the many [in the position of privilege]. I [feel the plight of the peasants and the difficulties faced by the public servants and] feel sad about the situation.

Therefore, twenty eight [written] characters have been newly created. [My desire is] such that, each [Korean] person may become familiar [with the newly created written language of Korean] and use them daily in an intuitive way."

In the 1440s, Hangul faced opposition by the literary elite, such as Choe Manri and other Korean Confucian scholars, who believed Hanja to be the only legitimate writing system, and perhaps saw Hangul as a threat to their status. However, it entered popular culture as Sejong had intended and was widely used especially by women and writers of popular fiction. It was effective enough at disseminating information among the uneducated that Yeonsangun, the paranoid tenth king, forbade the study or use of Hangul and banned Hangul documents in 1504. In 1506, King Jungjong even abolished the Ministry of Eonmun, governmental institution related to Hangul research. The late 16th century, however, saw a revival of Hangul, with gasa literature and later sijo flourishing. In the 17th century, Hangul novels became a major genre.

The first book using Hangul in the West was brought to Europe by Isaac Titsingh in 1796. His small library included Sangoku Tsūran Zusetsu (An Illustrated Description of Three Countries) by Hayashi Shihei. This book, which was published in Japan in 1785, described the Joseon Kingdom and Hangul.

The modern name Hangul was coined by Ju Sigyeong in 1912. Han means "great" in Korean, and Geul is the native Korean word for "script." Taken together, then, the meaning is "great script." In its classical and modern forms, the Korean alphabet has 19 consonant and 21 vowel letters. Unlike Latin alphabets, Hangul letters are grouped into blocks, such as 한 han, each of which transcribes a syllable. That is, although the syllable 한 may look like a single character, it consists of three letters: ㅎ h, ㅏ a, and ㄴ n. Each syllabic block consists of two to six letters, including at least one consonant and one vowel. These blocks are then arranged horizontally from left to right or vertically from top to bottom. Each Korean word consists of one or more syllables, hence one or more blocks. The number
of mathematically possible distinct blocks is 11,172, though there are far fewer possible syllables allowed by Korean sound system, and not all phonetically possible syllables occur in actual Korean words. Of the 11,172 possible Hangul syllables, the most frequent 256 have a cumulative frequency of 88.2%, with the top 512, it reaches 99.9%. 
Part II. Reading Comprehension Check

In a group of two, complete the following tasks.

1. Without looking back at the previous page, write in Korean all the information you can remember from the article that you just read. After completing the task, compare your recall with your peer's and check if you understood all the important information.

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The modern name Hangul was coined by Ju Sigyeong in 1912. Han means "great" in Korean, and Geul is the native Korean word for "script." Taken together, then, the meaning is "great script." In its classical and modern forms, the Korean alphabet has 19 consonant and 21 vowel letters. Unlike Latin alphabets, Hangul letters are grouped into blocks, such as 한 han, each of which transcribes a syllable. That is, although the syllable 한 han may look like a single character, it consists of three letters: 꾹 h,ㅏ a, and 냥 n. Each syllabic block consists of two to six letters, including at least one consonant and one vowel. These blocks are then arranged horizontally from left to right or vertically from top to bottom. Each Korean word consists of one or more syllables, hence one or more blocks. The number of mathematically possible distinct blocks is 11,172, though there are far fewer possible syllables allowed by Korean sound system, and not all phonetically possible syllables occur in actual Korean words. Of the 11,172 possible Hangul syllables, the most frequent 256 have a cumulative frequency of 88.2%; with the top 512, it reaches 99.9%.
Part III. Noticing Task (2)

Read the article again, while paying attention to the highlighted parts.

The Korean Alphabet: Hunminjeongeum

Adapted from Wikipedia

Hunminjeongeum (The Correct/Proper Sounds for the Instruction of the People) is a document describing an entirely new and native script for the Korean language. The script was initially named after the publication, but has later been known as Hangul. It was created so that the common people illiterate in Hanja could accurately and easily read and write the Korean language. It was announced in Volume 102 of the Annals of King Sejong, and its formal supposed publication date, October 9, 1446, is now Hangul Day in South Korea.

The publication is written in Classical Chinese and contains a preface, the alphabet letters (jamo), and brief descriptions of their corresponding sounds. It is later supplemented by a longer document called Hunminjeongeum Haerye that has been designated as a national treasure No. 70. To distinguish it from its supplement, Hunminjeongeum is sometimes called the "Samples and Significance Edition of Hunminjeongeum."

The Classical Chinese of the Hunminjeongeum has been partly translated into Middle Korean. This translation has also been found in Worinseokbo, and is called the Hunminjeongeum Eonhaebon. The first paragraph of the document reveals King Sejong’s motivation for creating Hangul:

Translation (metaphrase):

“Because the speech of this country is different from that of China, it [the spoken language] does not match the [Chinese] letters. Therefore, even if the ignorant want to communicate, many of them in the end cannot state their concerns. Saddened by this, I have [had] 28 letters newly made. It is my wish that all the people may easily learn these letters and that [they] be convenient for daily use.”

Translation (paraphrase):

“The language of [our] people is different from that of the nation of China and thus is not expressed well by the written language of Chinese
people. Because of this reason, the cries of illiterate peasants are not properly understood by the many [in the position of privilege]. I [feel the plight of the peasants and the difficulties faced by the public servants and] feel sad about the situation.

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Part III. Noticing Task (3)

Read the article again, while paying attention to the highlighted parts.

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Hunminjeongeum (*The Correct/Proper Sounds for the Instruction of the People*) is a document describing an entirely new and native script for the Korean language. The script was initially named after the publication, but has later been known as Hangul. It was created so that the common people illiterate in Hanja could accurately and easily read and write the Korean language. It was announced in Volume 102 of the *Annals of King Sejong*, and its formal supposed publication date, October 9, 1446, is now Hangul Day in South Korea.

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Translation (paraphrase):

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the plight of the peasants and the difficulties faced by the public servants and] feel sad about the situation.

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Session 1

Part I. Reading Comprehension

Read the following article through so that you can understand the information presented. You will be asked to recall the information from the article.

South Korea's Presidential Scandal
Adapted from BBC NEWS
December 9, 2016

South Korea has been plunged into a political scandal surrounding the presidency of Park Geun-hye. Park has been impeached by parliament and the case now goes before the constitutional court, which has 180 days to rule.

The scandal, which has generated huge protests, centers on her relationship with an old friend, and has brought claims of cult activities, abuse of authority, and leaks of classified information.

What is the relationship at the heart of the scandal?

Like many close friendships, Park and Choi Soon-sil go back a long way. In 1974, Park Geun-hye's mother was killed by a North Korean spy who had intended to kill Park's father, then-military leader Park Chung-hee. Park, then aged 22, became a substitute first lady for her widowed father.

It was then she got to know Choi Tae-min, a fake Christian leader who set up a cult called The Church of Eternal Life. He said he was constantly visited by the soul of Park's late mother who asked him to guide her. He became Park's mentor, while also gathering considerable wealth and power. By this point Park was firm friends with Choi Tae-min's daughter, Choi Soon-sil. Their critics believe Choi maintained her father's habits.

Why has the friendship become problematic?

On November 20, Choi was charged with various offences, including abuse of power and bribery. Few claims have been subject to restrictions in the media coverage, with some reports going as far as suggesting the president is a puppet who hosted a shamanist rituals at the presidential compound. But many of the claims are open to question.
Choi is accused of using her presidential connection to pressure companies for millions of dollars in donation to two non-profit foundations she controlled. The claims have even involved Samsung in the investigation. Jay Y. Lee, vice chairman of Samsung, has been accused of approving the millions in bribes to Choi.

Choi has also been indicted for having received large numbers of confidential government documents from Park, via an aide. These allegedly included information about ministerial candidates and North Korea. There are even claims Choi took advantage of the president’s wardrobe budget, buying cheap outfits and keeping the change.

Choi has been detained on the charges. Two of Park’s former aides also face criminal charges. President Park is suspected of having been personally involved, instructing Choi and the two presidential aides to collect money for Choi’s foundations, according to prosecution documents submitted to the court.
Part II. Reading Comprehension Check

In a group of two, complete the following tasks.

1. Without looking back at the previous page, write in Korean all the information you can remember from the article that you just read. After completing the task, compare your recall with your peer's and check if you understood all the important information.

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2. Go back to the article and see if there is any vocabulary you are not familiar with. In a group of two, try to guess its meaning based on the context.

3. Ask the instructor any vocabulary you are still not familiar with. 😊
Part III. Grammar Task

In a group of two, answer the following questions.

1. The text includes 10 passive verbs. Search them in the text.
   
   <Example>
   "Park Geun-hye's mother was killed by a North Korean spy"

2. In each passive verb, who or what does the action (i.e., agent)? Can you identify it in each passive verb? If not, why?

3. In each passive verb, will using the active voice make a difference? If so, how?
   
   <Example>
   "Park Geun-Hye's mother was killed by a North Korean spy"
   Vs.
   "A North Korean spy killed Park Geun-Hye's mother"

4. Based on your observations so far, how would you choose to use active or passive voice in a context?

5. Based on the passive verbs in the text, describe the form of the passive voice.

Good job! Now pay attention to a brief lesson on the passive voice. 😊
Ousted South Korean President Park Geun-Hye Jailed

Adapted from New York Times
March 31, 2017

Just three weeks after her removal from power, South Korean President Park Geun-hye has been arrested for her role in the scandal that led to her impeachment. She has been taken to the same detention center where the vice chairman of Samsung, Jay Y. Lee, has also been held in connection to the same corruption scandal. Worth some $6 billion, Lee has been accused of approving the millions in bribes to Choi.

Park has been accused of giving major Korean companies "favors" in exchanges for donations to organizations controlled by one of her confidants.

On March 10th, the chief justice, Lee Jung-mi delivered the ruling against Park live on television. The president's action had "seriously impaired the spirit of ... democracy and the rule of law," she said. "President Park Geun-hye ... has been dismissed. Her actions betrayed the people's confidence. They are a grave, intolerable violation of law."

As president of South Korea, Park never appeared in public until stylists had arranged her hair in the trademark updo of her mother, a popular first lady who was killed by an assassin in 1974.

On Friday, Park was required to remove the hairpins she uses to maintain that style before entering the jail where she now resides. Inmates at the Seoul Detention Center cannot have metal hairpins, because they could use them to hurt themselves, officials said.

Park, who was jailed before dawn Friday on charges stemming from the corruption scandal that ended her presidency three weeks ago, now lives alone in a cell, eating $1.30 meals, washing her own tray and sleeping on a foldable mattress on the floor.

Because of her father, many South Koreans long derided Ms. Park as a princess. She is notorious for being fastidious; when she once visited the port city of Incheon as
president, officials had to install a new toilet specifically for her, according to a former mayor of the city.

Many South Koreans stayed up late to watch the live coverage of prosecutors escorting Park to the detention center in Uiwang, south of Seoul. She was the most prominent inmate to arrive at the center since at least 1995, when Roh Tae-woo, a former military dictator, was detained there.

If convicted of the charges on which she was arrested Friday, including bribery, Park would face between 10 years and life in prison.
Part II. Reading Comprehension Check

In a group of two, complete the following tasks.

1. Without looking back at the previous page, write in Korean all the information you can remember from the article that you just read. After completing the task, compare your recall with your peer's and check if you understood all the important information.

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4. Go back to the article and see if there is any vocabulary you are not familiar with. In a group of two, try to guess its meaning based on the context.

5. Ask the instructor any vocabulary you are still not familiar with. 😊
Part III. Grammar Task

In a group of two, answer the following questions.

1. The text includes 10 passive verbs. Search them in the text.
   
   <Example>
   "She has been taken to the same detention center"

2. In each passive verb, who or what does the action (i.e., agent)? Can you identify it in each passive verb? If not, why?

3. In each passive verb, will using the active voice make a difference? If so, how?
   
   <Example>
   "She has been taken to the same detention center"
   Vs.
   "- - - has taken her to the same detention center"

4. Based on your observations so far, how would you choose to use active or passive voice in a context?

5. Based on the passive verbs in the text, describe the form of the passive voice.

Good job! Now pay attention to a brief lesson on the passive voice. 😊
The Admiral: Roaring Currents

The Admiral: Roaring Currents is a 2014 South Korean war film. It was directed by Kim Han-min, a Korean director who produced another well-known historical Korean movie, War of the Arrows. The film describes the Battle of Myeongnyang (1597), one of the legendary Joseon admiral Yi Sun-sin’s most remarkable victories.

At the onset of the battle, at their base in Haenam, the Japanese invaders under Tōdō Takatora are confident that their planned expedition to Hanyang to capture King Seonjo will meet with success. They remain calm over the news that Joseon’s greatest admiral, Yi Sun-sin, has been restored to his former command following the disaster at Chilcheolgyang, which has reduced the Korean navy to a mere dozen battle-ready ships.

In the meantime, Yi Sun-sin is facing the despair rising among his officers and troops. Facing an enemy force far outnumbering them, and seeing no reasonable chance of success in the inevitable battle with one single turtle ship remaining, many considered the fight lost before it has even started. Even worse, General Bae Seol, who fled from the Chilcheolgyang battle, burns the turtle ship and attempts to kill Yi. Although Yi escapes and Bae is killed for his act of treachery, there is no turtle ship left, boosting confidence among the Japanese.

The next morning, Yi’s fleet arrives in the strait and is shortly met by the Japanese, who are using the morning tide to move into the channel, with Kurushima leading the force. Yi engages Kurushima’s fleet in battle, but as the other Korean commanders are still hesitant to involve themselves, Yi’s flagship is quickly attacked by boarding parties. In this apparently hopeless situation, Yi commands to fire cannons from the lower deck, using the blast to move the ship away from the Japanese vessel. As Yi has hoped, this bold act of survival inspires the rest of his countrymen to take the fight to the enemy.

When the tide turns and forms a whirlpool in the middle of the channel, thus beginning to solidify Yi’s defensive position, Kurushima orders an all-out attack with the rest of his ships. Despite the efforts of Haru and a ship loaded with black powder charges, the renewed courage of the Koreans gets stronger. Kurushima’s
now desperate situation is observed by Todo, who merely laughs at Katō’s suggestion of reinforcing him. Kurushima, realizing that he is now on his own, boards the Korean flagship, but is decapitated by Yi after taking several arrows from Korean archers, and his head is hung from the tip of the ship’s mast. When Yi’s ship itself is on the verge of sinking in the whirlpool, his civilian navy servants and local fishermen courageously drag the vessel back to safety. Joined by the rest of the fleet, Yi leads a counterattack, forcing them into retreat and leaving the Koreans triumphant. The film ends with the onset of a later naval engagement, in which the horrified Japanese witness the turtle ship’s return to the battlefield.

In history, Yi kept a careful record of daily events in his diary, and it is from these entries, along with the reports he sent to the throne during the war, that much about him has been learned. These works have been published as Nanjung Ilgi: War Diary of Admiral Yi Sun-sin.
Part II. Reading Comprehension Check

Instruction: In a group of two, complete the following tasks.

1. Without looking back at the previous page, write in Korean all the information you can remember from the article that you just read. After completing the task, compare your recall with your peer's and check if you understood all the important information.

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2. Go back to the article and see if there is any vocabulary you are not familiar with. In a group of two, try to guess its meaning based on the context.

3. Ask the instructor any vocabulary you are still not familiar with.
Part III. Grammar Task

In a group of two, answer the following questions.

1. The text includes 10 passive verbs. Search them in the text.

   <Example>
   "It was directed by Kim Han-Min"

2. In each passive verb, who or what does the action (i.e., agent)? Can you identify it in each passive verb? If not, why?

3. In each passive verb, will using the active voice make a difference? If so, how?

   <Example>
   "It was directed by Kim Han-Min"
   Vs.
   "Kim Han-Min directed it"

4. Based on your observations so far, how would you choose to use active or passive voice in a context?

5. Based on the passive verbs in the text, describe the form of the passive voice.

Good job! Now pay attention to a brief lesson on the passive voice. 😊
Session 4

Part I. Reading Comprehension

Read the following article through so that you can understand the information presented. You will be asked to recall the information from the article.

Birthday Celebrations in Korea

Adapted from Wikipedia

Every birthday is special to Koreans, but certain birthdays are more than special. Dol is probably one of the best-known of the Korean birthday celebrations. Dol is celebrated for the first birthday of a child. When Korea had little medicinal knowledge, many newborns would die from childhood diseases or because of Korea's seasonal temperature differences. For this reason, a dol feast was regarded even more important.

The first part of the dol celebration is prayer, in which the mother of the child honored Samshin Halmoni (the birth goddess) with offerings of rice and soup (miyeok-guk). Also, to prevent disaster and to bring the child luck and happiness, layered red bean cakes called Samshin siru were usually placed at every corner within the house. After everything on the praying table was ready the mother (or grandmother) of the child would pray to Samshin, asking for her child's longevity and give thanks to the birth goddess. Traditionally, women were the only ones allowed to participate in this ceremony; men could not take part in the praying.

The highlight of this celebration is doljabee, a ritual in which the child symbolically foretells its future. For this ritual, the child is dressed in colorful, ornate traditional Korean clothes. Then the child is seated before a table on which various items have been placed for the child to pick from, such as thread, books, notebooks, pencils, and money, which have been offered by friends and relatives. The child is encouraged to pick up an object that attracts him or her, and it is believed that the object foretells the child's future. For example, if the child picks up thread, s/he would live a long life. A child who picks up a book or pencil is forecast to be a good scholar. A child who picks the rice or money will become rich. In the modern era, people often prepare modern objects such as sports equipment, a microphone, a stethoscope or a computer mouse, to symbolize modern talents.

When Koreans attend to the 'dol feast,' they usually present a gold ring to the parents. Friends and relatives collect money to buy the gold ring. However, it is not for the child's finger but for the benefit of the child in times of need in the future.
Part II. Reading Comprehension Check

Instruction: In a group of two, complete the following tasks.

1. Without looking back at the previous page, write in Korean all the information you can remember from the article that you just read. After completing the task, compare your recall with your peer's and check if you understood all the important information.

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3. Ask the instructor any vocabulary you are still not familiar with. 😊
Part III. Grammar Task

In a group of two, answer the following questions.

1. The text includes 10 passive verbs. Search them in the text.

   <Example>
   "Dol is celebrated for the first birthday of a child"

2. In each passive verb, who or what does the action (i.e., agent)? Can you identify it in each passive verb? If not, why?

3. In each passive verb, will using the active voice make a difference? If so, how?

   <Example>
   "Dol is celebrated for the first birthday of a child"
   Vs.
   "- - - celebrates Dol for the first birthday of a child"

4. Based on your observations so far, how would you choose to use active or passive voice in a context?

5. Based on the passive verbs in the text, describe the form of the passive voice.

   Good job! Now pay attention to a brief lesson on the passive voice.
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Hunminjeongeum (The Correct/Proper Sounds for the Instruction of the People) is a document describing an entirely new and native script for the Korean language. The script was initially named after the publication, but has later been known as Hangul. It was created so that the common people illiterate in Hanja could accurately and easily read and write the Korean language. It was announced in Volume 102 of the Annals of King Sejong, and its formal supposed publication date, October 9, 1446, is now Hangul Day in South Korea.

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Translation (metaphrase):

"Because the speech of this country is different from that of China, it [the spoken language] does not match the [Chinese] letters. Therefore, even if the ignorant want to communicate, many of them in the end cannot state their concerns. Saddened by this, I have [had] 28 letters newly made. It is my wish that all the people may easily learn these letters and that [they] be convenient for daily use."

Translation (paraphrase):

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Part III. Grammar Task

In a group of two, answer the following questions.

1. The text includes 10 passive verbs. Search them in the text.
   <Example>
   "The script was initially named after the publication"

2. In each passive verb, who or what does the action (i.e., agent)? Can you identify it in each passive verb? If not, why?

3. In each passive verb, will using the active voice make a difference? If so, how?
   <Example>
   "The script was initially named after the publication"
   Vs.
   "- - - initially named the script after the publication"

4. Based on your observations so far, how would you choose to use active or passive voice in a context?

5. Based on the passive verbs in the text, describe the form of the passive voice.

Good job! Now pay attention to a brief lesson on the passive voice. 😊
Appendix D
Grammaticality Judgment Task

GRAMMAR

In each question, decide whether the underlined part sounds CORRECT or INCORRECT. Circle your choice. If you circle INCORRECT, correct the underlined part.

<Example> Mt. Baekdusan is the higher mountain on the Korean Peninsula.
CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________ the highest

1. Recently, much emphasis have placed on students' reading abilities.
   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

2. The disease was too bad that it wiped out the species.
   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

3. Last month, the document was kept by the company's CEO for safety.
   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

4. Guests treating with great hospitality in our hotel every day.
   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

5. This piece of art has being understand as a history painting.
   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

6. Most of their time are spending right here in the gym, six days a week.
   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

7. No thank you, I need neither your help or your compassion.
   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________
8. Yesterday, a Columbia male, 17, **have been charged** with motor vehicle theft.

   **CORRECT / INCORRECT**  
   Correction: ____________________________

9. In the past, a wedding ceremony **was arranged** by the couple’s parents.

   **CORRECT / INCORRECT**  
   Correction: ____________________________

10. The presentation **give**s to about 50 people including high school students.

    **CORRECT / INCORRECT**  
    Correction: ____________________________

11. A dozen novels **has translating into** English by the author Ursula Le Guin.

    **CORRECT / INCORRECT**  
    Correction: ____________________________

12. Don’t **forget to return** this book to the school library tomorrow.

    **CORRECT / INCORRECT**  
    Correction: ____________________________

13. Ten students **are chose** each year from the applications submitted.

    **CORRECT / INCORRECT**  
    Correction: ____________________________

14. Cesaria Evora **was raised by** her aunt after her father died.

    **CORRECT / INCORRECT**  
    Correction: ____________________________

15. The lyrics of the new song **was wrote from** a female composer.

    **CORRECT / INCORRECT**  
    Correction: ____________________________

16. The criminal **have investigate by** police for his drug use.

    **CORRECT / INCORRECT**  
    Correction: ____________________________

17. Steps **have been took to** protect the environment from bio-fuels.

    **CORRECT / INCORRECT**  
    Correction: ____________________________
18. Just like white wine, champagne is made by white grapes.

CORRECT / INCORRECT  Correction: ________________________________

19. Until 2014, taxi drivers was paying less than the state’s minimum wage.

CORRECT / INCORRECT  Correction: ________________________________

20. We can avoid to catch a cold by keeping the air moist enough.

CORRECT / INCORRECT  Correction: ________________________________

21. The road was covered with mud after the heavy rain.

CORRECT / INCORRECT  Correction: ________________________________

22. An important meeting has be holding to prepare for the ceremony.

CORRECT / INCORRECT  Correction: ________________________________

23. I look forward to try all kinds of Korean food on this trip!

CORRECT / INCORRECT  Correction: ________________________________

24. The thief were catched last night after a long chase.

CORRECT / INCORRECT  Correction: ________________________________

25. Coffee is harvested in more than 50 countries in the world.

CORRECT / INCORRECT  Correction: ________________________________
GRAMMAR

In each question, decide whether the underlined part sounds CORRECT or INCORRECT. Circle your answer. If you circle INCORRECT, correct the underlined part.

<Example> Mt. Baekdusan is the higher mountain on the Korean Peninsula.
CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: the highest

1. The Okavango Delta in Africa is call "the river that never finds the sea."
   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ____________________________

2. The students should hurry if they haven't booked the tickets yet.
   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ____________________________

3. Most of our knowledge has been learning by watching the television.
   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ____________________________

4. Since 2000, men and women paid equally in most companies in my country.
   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: have been paid

5. The lyrics of the new song was wrote from a female composer.
   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ____________________________

6. If I were rich, I would have traveled around the world.
   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ____________________________

7. The Super Bowl is holded every year in the first week of February.
   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ____________________________

8. The Syrian refugees have been allowed to settle in the U.S. since 2011.
   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ____________________________
9. The historic site visited from as many as 20,000 tourists every week.
   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

10. In the past, the seeds was carry by birds, wind, and some animals.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

11. Michael Jackson is known by one of the greatest pop singers.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

12. The thief is caught early this morning after a long chase.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

13. The police identified the murderer whose fingerprints were on the knife.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

14. The method have find to be effective in improving reading skills.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

15. The list of the patients were kept by the nurse for safety reasons.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

16. Philippe Rameau is considered one of the top French composers today.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

17. Susan B. Anthony have been arrested for voting in a national election.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

18. People are losing their hearing at very younger ages than before.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________
19. Last semester, I was given another chance to take the exam.
   
   CORRECT / INCORRECT  
   Correction: ____________________________

20. The sailors was attacked from killer whales and sea leopards unexpectedly.
   
   CORRECT / INCORRECT  
   Correction: ____________________________

21. About 2,500 types of the apples are harvest in the United States.
   
   CORRECT / INCORRECT  
   Correction: ______ are harvested ________________

22. You should apologize for what you have done, shouldn't you?
   
   CORRECT / INCORRECT  
   Correction: ____________________________

23. After the battle, the general was bringing back to his country.
   
   CORRECT / INCORRECT  
   Correction: ____________________________

24. This wine is made with the best grapes in the United States.
   
   CORRECT / INCORRECT  
   Correction: ____________________________

25. Unfortunately, the username and password have took by another user.
   
   CORRECT / INCORRECT  
   Correction: ____________________________
GRAMMAR

In each question, decide whether the underlined part sounds CORRECT or INCORRECT. Circle your answer. If you circle INCORRECT, correct the underlined part.

<Example> Mt. Baekdusan is the higher mountain on the Korean Peninsula.

CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: highest

1. I wish that I had studied harder for the exam.

   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

2. In the last fifteen years, 100,000 elephants have kill by illegal hunters.

   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

3. Today, information is sharing very quickly through the Internet.

   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

4. He was carry to the hospital immediately after the accident.

   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

5. Recently, the new teaching method has brought to the U.S. classrooms.

   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

6. At school, a junior class assembly is held every semester.

   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

7. Would it ever be possible to bring dinosaurs back to life?

   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

8. Normally, a high school student is gave one hour to complete the exam.

   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________
9. The celebrity caught by the paparazzi in New York last week.
   CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

10. The London accent have been chosen as the most attractive by most Americans.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

11. I haven't done the homework, and my brother hasn't either.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

12. He was removed from the list because of his laziness.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

13. The punishment has decided from the Supreme Court of New York.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

14. The manager of the new restaurant is paying every two weeks.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

15. My encounter with Gimchi allowed me to appreciate its cultural role.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

16. Some religious traditions were restored by the Roman Catholic Church.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

17. About 60% of newborn babies has being saved with the medicine.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________

18. The musician Philippe Rameau are also known by one of the best organists in France.
    CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ________________________________
19. The unemployment in France was reduced by almost half a million.

CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ____________________________

20. Dogs and cats are keeping separately in the farm for safety.

CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ____________________________

21. Yesterday Jason wanted to know who gave me the laptop.

CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ____________________________

22. More than 7,500 types of apples are harvested worldwide.

CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ____________________________

23. In the past, detergents was made by various plants and oil.

CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ____________________________

24. Unfortunately, this password has been took to another user.

CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ____________________________

25. The Old Man and the Sea was wrote by Earnest Hemingway.

CORRECT / INCORRECT Correction: ____________________________
Appendix E
Sentence Pair Task

SENTENCE

In each question, explain the difference of the meaning of the two sentences.

<Example> It is going to rain today. ⟹ 비가 올것이라는 기정 사실
It may rain today. ⟹ 비가 올수도 있다는 가능성

1. Bill Gates created Microsoft.
   Microsoft was created by Bill Gates.

2. There is little money in the box.
   There is a little money in the box.

3. The bike hit the dog.
   The bike was hit by the dog.

4. Police has found the missing boy.
   The missing boy has been found.

5. I will let you go to sleep.
   I will make you go to sleep.

6. I broke the dish.
   The dish was broken.

7. The technician fixed the cell phone.
   The cell phone is fixed.
In each question, explain the difference of the meaning of the two sentences.

1. Mr. Johnson made this violin.
   This violin was made by Mr. Johnson.

2. There is little water in the bottle.
   There is a little water in the bottle.

3. The ball hit the boy.
   The ball was hit by the boy.

4. I broke the window.
   The window was broken.

5. I will let you go there.
   I will make you go there.

6. He wrote the book in English.
   The book is written in English.

7. The police has investigated the case.
   The case has been investigated.
In each question, explain the difference of the meaning of the two sentences.

Example: It is going to rain today. → 비가 올것이라는 기정 사실
It may rain today. → 비가 올 수도 있다는 가능성

1. Steven Spielberg directed the movie.
   The movie was directed by Steven Spielberg.

2. There are few students in the classroom.
   There are a few students in the classroom.

3. A bike hit the boy.
   A bike was hit by the boy.

4. I broke the glasses.
   The glasses were broken.

5. The postman has delivered the letter.
   The letter has been delivered.

6. I will let you go to the class.
   I will make you go to the class.

7. The mechanic repaired the car.
   The car is repaired.
Appendix F

Closed Discourse Completion Task

CONTEXT

Between the two options provided in each blank, choose one that sounds better in the context.

Education of the Crown Prince in the Joseon Dynasty

(1) He moved the capital to Hanyang (now Seoul), and allied with a group of reform-minded Confucian scholars, who reorganized Korean society using the teachings of Confucius as their guiding principles. (2)

At the end of the Goryeo Dynasty, (3) . Instead, Neo-Confucianism became the official philosophy of the dynasty. (4) , with research institutes such as Jiphyeonjeon, Hongmungwan, and Gyujanggak growing under royal sponsorship.

In order to rule as the ideal Confucian monarch, (5) to engage in the lifelong pursuit of scholarship. Formal education started in early childhood. As early as the age of five, the crown prince received instruction from the best scholars in the country three times a day: morning, afternoon, and evening.

Options

(1) The powerful Goryeo general Yi Seong-Gye founded the Joseon Dynasty/
The Joseon Dynasty was founded by the powerful Goryeo general Yi Seong-Gye

(2) These teachings emphasized order and peace based on civil rule / Order and peace based on civil rule were emphasized by these teachings

(3) Buddhism began to lose political influence / Buddhism began losing political influence

(4) People back then thus respected and supported scholarship most/ Scholarship was thus respected and supported the most

(5) scholars rigorously educated Joseon kings and expected them/ Joseon kings were rigorously educated and expected
The institute responsible for the young crown prince's education was the Boyangcheong. Once
the young prince learned to read, (6)__________________________ so that it guided him on
every step of his learning process. The teachers usually involved ministers, high-ranking government
officials, or renowned Confucian scholars. The education emphasized such things as proper etiquette
before a teacher, morning and evening greeting to parents, examination of the parents' meals, and
ways of caring for their parents in times of illness. The main textbook for the crown prince was the
Thousand Character Classic 天자문 and the Elementary Learning 소학, a Confucian treatise on the
education of young children.

When the crown prince reached the ages between 8 and 10, (7)__________________________ to
the Seonggyungwan National Academy. But his entrance was more symbolic than substantial. Most
students there were at least 10 years older than the crown prince. In fact, the actual education of
the crown prince occurred at the Crown Prince Tutorial Office or Sigangwon.
(8)__________________________ the Spring Palace, likening him to spring awaiting for a rich harvest
in autumn, or the East Palace according to the principle of the Five Elements. Similarly,
(9)__________________________ Spring Quarters as the preparatory institute for cultivating the
future king.

During the lessons, the crown prince needed to lower himself and show respect to his
teachers. (10)__________________________ when he entered the Seonggyungwan National
Academy, and he had to take off his royal clothes to show utmost modesty.
(11)__________________________ to have a desk, so he kneeled on the ground during the lessons.

Options

(6) the institute established a lecture department called Ganghakcheong /
a lecture department called Ganghakcheong was established by the institute

(7) scholars of the country admitted him/ he was admitted

(8) People called the crown prince/ The crown prince was called

(9) People nicknamed the Sigangwon/ The Sigangwon was nicknamed

(10) A guard did not accompany him/ He was not accompanied by a guard

(11) Teachers did not even allow him/ He was not even allowed
Furthermore, there were frequent oral exams called Heogang to test the crown prince’s understanding of the lessons, in the presence of his teacher and government officials. Hoegang was a serious session that. This tradition, which began during the reign of King Sejong the Great, was one of the main events for evaluating the academic level of the crown prince.

However, the high expectations and heavy amount of study materials for a young prince. In Korean historical movies and dramas, kings even remove crown princes/ crown princes are even removed. One of the reasons is that he is lazy at studying. Similarly, in a recently released movie Sado (2014), as insane in many records, examining his short life, it is more complicated than a list of acts of madness. Lately, numerous times in the media.

Options

(12) These tests occurred two times per month / These tests occurred two times every month

(13) the king sometimes observed / was sometimes observed by the king

(14) must have been a huge burden / should have been a huge burden

(15) kings even remove crown princes/ crown princes are even removed

(16) Prince Chungnyeong, a younger brother, replaces Prince Yangnyeong/ Prince Yangnyeong is replaced by his younger brother, Prince Chungnyeong

(17) The king removes Crown Prince Sado/ Crown Prince Sado is removed

(18) people have described Prince Sado/ Prince Sado has been described

(19) people have reinterpreted Prince Sado/ Prince Sado has been reinterpreted
According to a Korean historian, Shin Myeong-Ho, the education of the crown princes also has to do with the way (20)________________________. For example, despite his traumatic childhood including his father, Crown Prince Sado, King Jeongjo became (21)________________________ of the late Joseon Dynasty in the 18th century who brought about a cultural renaissance. The historian says that this was largely thanks to the wise way (22)________________________. When her husband, Crown Prince Sado died, she remained calm and wise for her son, so that he would be grateful for King Yeongjo's favor.

Education continued even after the crown prince became a king. Each morning, the king had discussions on the classics with respected scholars. (23)________________________ Gyeongyeon. While the crown prince's reading session had an educational function, the king's lecture session often covered current issues that ultimately had a political impact. Both systems aimed at cultivating the king into a sagely monarch who realized the ideals of Confucian rulership.

It is said that Sejong the Great liked learning so much that he held as many as 1898 sessions of Gyeongyeon. Also, although (24)________________________ to be a crown prince, he became one of the greatest kings in the late Joseon Dynasty thorough the continued Gyeongyeon. On the contrary, King Seonjo, who neglected learning and the advice of his teachers, is well-known for his incompetent leadership and political chaos (25)________________________.

Options

(20) how mothers raise their children / the children are raised by their mothers
(21) one of the greatest kings / one of the greater kings
(22) his mother, Crown Princess Hong of Hyegyeong, educated him / he was educated by his mother, Crown Princess Hong of Hyegyeong
(23) People called the process of discussion/ The process of discussion was called
(24) scholars did not teach King Yeongjo/ King Yeongjo was not taught
(25) for the Japanese invasions of Korea/ during the Japanese invasions of Korea
Hwaseong Fortress: Ahead of Its Time

Hwaseong Fortress is a wall surrounding the center of Suwon, Gyeonggi Province, South Korea. Designated a UNESCO World Heritage Site in 1997, the name Hwaseong means “brilliant castle.” (1) ________to honor the tragic death of his father, Prince Sado. Thus, (2) ________, and so it has spiritual and philosophical value, in addition to cultural one.

A recent Korean movie Sado (2014) depicts the tragedy in detail. Prince Sado is the youngest Crown Prince in the history of Joseon and becomes a formal heir when he is merely two years old. Although (3) ________as a bright child, he is extremely careful and fearful of his father, King Yeongjo. His fear of his own father makes it hard for him to show his real abilities. For example, (4) ________Yeongjo’s questions, afraid that Yeongjo would consider his replies unworthy. He feels extremely pressured with all the expectations of his father, and the pressure leads to mental problems. Whenever King Yeongjo scolds him, (5) ________in the palace to relieve the stress. This makes King Yeongjo more furious and provides an excuse to put his son to death. By the rule, King Yeongjo can’t execute Prince Sado by his own hand. So (6) ________to climb into a large wooden rice chest on a hot July day in 1762. Eight days later, the 27-year-old prince dies of hunger in the rice chest.

Options

(1) King Jeongjo of the Joseon Dynasty built this Korean fortress from 1794 to 1796 / This Korean fortress was built from 1794 to 1796 by King Jeongjo of the Joseon Dynasty

(2) the fortress symbolizes filial piety / Filial piety is symbolized by the fortress

(3) Prince Sado shows great potential / great potential is shown by Prince Sado

(4) he often hesitates to answer / he often hesitates answering

(5) Prince Sado beats or kills people / people are beat or killed by Prince Sado

(6) he orders Prince Sado / Prince Sado is ordered by him
Historical records show that this happened when King Jeongjo was only 11 years old. It came as a huge shock to young King Jeongjo. During the 19th century, there were rumors that Prince Sado has not been mentally ill, but that he was the victim of conspiracy by his political opponents. However, his wife Lady Hyegyeong contradicts these rumors in Hanjungrok. Even though some regard the record as Lady Hyegyeong’s way to justify that her own family had nothing to do with Sado’s death, it is valuable since all records of Sado’s illness have been removed by Jeongjo’s request in order to protect his late father’s image. Today, the reason for Prince Sado’s death still remains an issue of debate.

After the painful childhood experience, King Jeongjo moved his father’s tomb to Mount Hwasan in Suwon and began plans to create his new capital. Under a movement called Silhak, which means practical learning, King Jeongjo wanted to build a strong fortress that showed this value. Under the guidance of Jeong Yak-Yong, who later became a well-known leader of the Silhak movement, and Jeong Yak-Yong incorporated fortress designs from Korea and China along with contemporary science into his plan. Based on the advances in western technology, he invented Geojunggi, which used Hwalcha, or a pulley, to lift up heavy building materials.

Options

(7) Prince Sado has not been/ Prince Sado had not been mentally ill, but that he was the victim of conspiracy by his political opponents.

(8) his wife Lady Hyegyeong contradicts these rumors/ these rumors are contradicted by his wife Lady Hyegyeong.

(9) Jeongjo’s request has removed all records of Sado’s illness/ all records of Sado’s illness have been removed by Jeongjo’s request.

(10) After the painful childhood experience/ While the painful childhood experience

(11) Architects constructed Hwaseong Fortress/ Hwaseong Fortress was constructed

(12) Silhak encouraged the use of science and technology/ the use of science and technology was encouraged by Silhak

(13) This machine greatly reduced the construction time/ The construction time was greatly reduced by this machine.
The construction management techniques were (14) another unique aspect of this project. A well organized and detailed plan enabled the construction of the fortress to be completed in only two and a half years. In addition to detailed plans, (15) the names of the construction designers were carved on the main gate in order to prevent faulty construction and to clarify their responsibilities. Still another aspect of improved construction management was the decision to pay the workers out of the national treasury, another sign of Silhak influence. On the contrary, (16) government work was usually carried out by compulsory labor in the past. The Fortress took 700,000 man-hours to build and 1,500 sacks of rice to pay the workers.

Hwaseong consists of a defensive fortress and a wall that is 5.74 km long and 4-6 meter high. Since the time of construction, (17) the center of Suwon has been surrounded and protected by the wall. Located in the center of Suwon, Hwaseong Fortress includes King Jeongjo’s palace Haenggung. Apparently, King Jeongju built this fortress to move the capital from Hanyang to Suwon, a city that connected Hanyang with the West Sea and China. He wanted to pursue reforms and believed that Suwon had the potential to be a new and prosperous capital. Unfortunately, however, King Jeongjo died only four years after the completion of the fortress.

Construction of the Fortress was also a response to the breakdown of the Korean front line during the Imjin War. At the time, the common model for building fortresses was to make a simple wall and a separate mountain fortress for evacuation in times of war. However, (18) professional architects built Hwaseong Fortress. Hwaseong Fortress was built to include elements of military technology. For example, the Northeastern Watchtower stands 13m high with holes on its walls, designed for shooting guns and arrows. (19) The circular shape gave soldiers many places to hide. It even included Ondol, or underfloor heating, and soldiers could stay warm while watching the enemies.

Options

(14) another unique aspect of this project / the other unique aspect of this project

(15) workers carved the names of the construction designers /
the names of the construction designers were carved

(16) compulsory labor usually carried out government work /
government work was usually carried out by compulsory labor

(17) the wall has surrounded and protected the center of Suwon /
the center of Suwon has been surrounded and protected by the wall

(18) professional architects built Hwaseong Fortress / Hwaseong Fortress was built

(19) The circular shape gave soldiers many places to hide /
soldiers were given many places to hide by the circular shape
In 1801, (20) ancestors published a report for the building of Hwaseong Fortress, which provided the details about its design and construction process such as engineering methods, materials, workforce, budget, timetable, and so forth. It proved invaluable for the reconstruction effort in 1970 after (21) battles severely damaged the fortress during the Korean War. In 1898, (22) Henry Chevalier, consul of France, published a French translation of the report.

The fortress is in good condition, but its conservation requires special skills. (23) The greatest risk to Hwaseong is fire, which could damage the wooden components of its architecture. In fact, the Fortress has faced a few crises recently. For example, in 2006, an arsonist attacked Hwaseong Fortress, damaging the Sojangdae Watchtower. The arsonist reportedly caused the fire by lighting his clothes and underwear with a cigarette lighter. (24) The fire caused about one billion won of damage, including the upper floor of the watchtower.

With regard to conservation, (25) specialists have preserved no other fortress in South Korea, including Hwaseong. At the national level, the Cultural Heritage Administration is responsible for establishing policies for the protection of Hwaseong and the surrounding areas. The Suwon Hwaseong Management Foundation, established under the authority of the Suwon City, is responsible for operating the Fortress facilities.
The Flawless Tripitaka Koreana

What is the Tripitaka? It is a collection of Buddhist teachings. Literally meaning "three baskets" in Sanskrit, Tripitaka consists of three books on the discipline, dialogue, and higher knowledge of Buddha. Although (1) many countries have their own Buddhist writings / Buddhist writings are of course owned by many countries, the Tripitaka Koreana is Goryeo’s huge-scale version of the Tripitaka from the 13th century. Since its creation, (2) scholars have used the Tripitaka / the Tripitaka has been used by scholars as the authority of Buddhism, and (3) it has shaped the religion / the religion has been shaped by it for nearly 1,000 years. Its Korean name is Palman Daejanggyeong because it includes 81,258 wooden printing blocks. According to the record, the wooden printing blocks are one of the most complete and oldest collections of the Tripitaka in the world.

(4) Buddhists scholars around the world have recognized the wooden blocks / The wooden blocks have been recognized by Buddhist scholars around the world for their excellent quality. Every wooden block contains 23 lines of text with 14 Chinese characters per line. Therefore, each block, counting both sides, contains a total of 644 characters. Amazingly, (5) craftsmen carved over 52 million characters / over 52 million characters are carved on the blocks without even a single error! Each block weighs about 3.2 kg, combining together at over 260,000 kg. (6) Wood was used from Korea’s southern coast, and it had to go through a special process of spending three years soaked in sea water, and drying, boiling, and then drying again before (7) it was ready for carving / it was ready to carve.
The woodblocks are also valuable for the delicate carvings of the Chinese characters. They are so regular as to suggest that they are the work of a single hand! In addition, as the printing blocks can even now print sharp, complete copies of the Tripitaka, 760 years after its creation.

Work on the first Tripitaka Koreana began in 1011 when the Khitan 거란 invaded the country. The act of carving was a way of praying for the Buddha’s help. However, during the Mongol invasions in 1232, when the capital moved to Ganghwa Island. Yet, scattered parts of its prints still remain. After that, to pray for the help of Buddha once again in the battle against the Mongol threat, the carving took 16 years, from 1236 to 1251, with support from several scholars and Buddhist monks. This second version is 

According to an American Buddhist scholar, the production of the Tripitaka Koreana was an enormous national commitment of money and manpower, perhaps comparable to the U.S. mission to the Moon in the 1960s.

Options

(8) Korean people have proven their excellent durability well/their excellent durability has been proven well

(9) fire destroyed the original set of wooden blocks/the original set of wooden blocks was destroyed by fire

(10) King Gojong ordered the re-creation of the Tripitaka/the re-creation of the Tripitaka was ordered by King Gojong

(11) what the Tripitaka Koreana usually refers to/which the Tripitaka Koreana usually refers to

(12) This massive project employed thousands of craftsmen/Thousands of craftsmen were employed by this massive project
Ancestors stored the Tripitaka Koreana. The Tripitaka Koreana is stored in Haeinsa, a temple in Mount Gayasan. The temple is well-known for its scientific design to best store the wooden blocks and designated one of the UNESCO World Heritage Sites. The UNESCO Committee describes the Tripitaka as "one of the most important and most complete records of Buddhist philosophy in the world." Specifically to house the blocks. As the most important structures at Haeinsa, the buildings are at a higher level than the hall that houses the temple’s Buddha. Typical in the customary style of the early Joseon Dynasty, the scientific design of the temple buildings, which provides natural temperature and humidity control, has resulted from the protection of the woodblocks for 760 years from extreme weather. The entire area of Mount Gayasan surrounding the temple is under the protection of the Natural Parks Act. At the national level, the Cultural Heritage Administration is responsible for the protection of the temple area. Haeinsa Temple is in charge of the day-to-day management and provides information on the woodblocks through its website. The environment of the temple and various documentary projects.

Options

(13) Ancestors stored the Tripitaka Koreana. The Tripitaka Koreana is stored.
(14) The UNESCO Committee describes the Tripitaka. The Tripitaka is described by the UNESCO Committee.
(15) Architects built the buildings of Janggyeong Panjeon. The buildings of Janggyeong Panjeon were built.
(16) Simple details such as harmony distinguish their design. Their design is distinguished by simple details such as harmony.
(17) Has resulted in the protection. Has resulted from the protection.
(18) The Korean Buddhist Jogye Order owns Haeinsa Temple. Haeinsa Temple is owned by the Korean Buddhist Jogye Order.
(19) Responsible for establishing policies. Responsible to establish policies.
(20) General conservation focuses on protecting. General conservation focuses to protect.
(21) Professional Cultural Heritage Specialists conduct the conservation work. Conservation work is conducted by professional Cultural Heritage Specialists.
The Haeinsa temple buildings, individual structures, and wooden blocks maintain high degree of originality. The temple continues to house the 80,000 wooden blocks of the Tripitaka Koreana and maintains both their original form and function. The 80,000 wooden blocks are in their original condition, even though more than 760 years ago. From the size, scale, and care of these blocks, we can see the energy and passion of our ancestors.

After defending against an invasion from the north, the people of Goryeo created the wooden blocks to seek Buddha’s favor in restoring peace to their land.

Recently, many countries have started to computerize various editions of Buddhist texts. In Korea, relying on the Tripitaka Koreana. In 2000, after nine long years of research, According to the Research Institute of Tripitaka Koreana, it will serve as an efficient tool for studies such as Buddhist studies, education, and social sciences. Nevertheless, many people point out that so far, Yet, the Tripitaka Koreana is a shining example of both the culture of Goryeo Dynasty and Buddhist history.

Options

(22) Goryeo craftsmen created them/ they were created

(23) Software programmers first computerized a complete Chinese translation/ A complete Chinese translation was first computerized

(24) programmers also put the Tripitaka Koreana into digital form/ the Tripitaka Koreana was also put into digital form

(25) Western scholarship has ignored the Tripitaka Koreana/ the Tripitaka Koreana has been ignored by Western scholarship
Appendix G

Oral and Written Production Tasks

SPARKING & WRITING

The following is a speaking and writing reconstruction task.

1. First, listen to two short stories.

2. Now, retell the story the researcher chooses. Please record your speech using the voice recorder on your Smartphone and send the audio file to jj2260@tc.columbia.edu.

3. Next, reconstruct the story in writing.

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Appendix H

Exit Questionnaire

Exit Questionnaire

Answer the following questions. You can choose more than one answer.

1. You participated in five class sessions to learn the English passive. Were the activities helpful? If yes, which part was the most helpful?

2. You learned the form, meaning, and function of the passive.

Which was the easiest part?

☐ Form (Grammar)  ☐ Meaning (Passive vs. Active)  ☐ Function (Usage in the Context)

Which was the most difficult part?

☐ Form (Grammar)  ☐ Meaning (Passive vs. Active)  ☐ Function (Usage in the Context)

3. Did you study the English passive on your own while participating in the research? If yes, how many hours? ________________

4. What kind of grammar instruction do you want to receive in the future?

☐ I want to receive more grammar explanations.

☐ I want to see more examples that show how the grammar is actually used.