Korea TESOL Journal

Volume 16, Number 1
2020

KOTESOL
대한영어교육학회

Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

Korea TESOL Journal

Volume 16, Number 1

KOREA TESOL

KOTESOL

Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

Korea TESOL Journal

Volume 16, Number 1
The Official Journal of
Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
(Korea TESOL / KOTESOL)

ISSN: 1598-0464

Production Layout: Media Station, Seoul
Printing: Myeongjinsa, Seoul

About Korea TESOL

Korea TESOL (KOTESOL; Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) is a professional organization of teachers of English whose main goal is to assist its members in their self-development and to contribute to the improvement of English language teaching (ELT) in Korea. Korea TESOL also serves as a network for teachers to connect with others in the ELT community and as a source of information for ELT resource materials and events in Korea and abroad.

Korea TESOL is proud to be an Affiliate of TESOL (TESOL International Association), an international education association of almost 12,000 members with headquarters in Alexandria, Virginia, USA, as well as an Associate of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language), an international education association of over 4,000 members with headquarters in Canterbury, Kent, UK.

Korea TESOL had its beginnings in October 1992, when the Association of English Teachers in Korea (AETK) and the Korea Association of Teachers of English (KATE) agreed to unite. Korea TESOL is a not-for-profit organization established to promote scholarship, disseminate information, and facilitate cross-cultural understanding among persons associated with the teaching and learning of English in Korea. In pursuing these goals, Korea TESOL seeks to cooperate with other groups having similar concerns.

Korea TESOL is an independent national affiliate of a growing international movement of teachers, closely associated with not only TESOL and IATEFL but also with PAC (Pan-Asian Consortium of Language Teaching Societies), consisting of JALT (Japan Association for Language Teaching), ThaiTESOL (Thailand TESOL), ETA-ROC (English Teachers Association of the Republic of China/Taiwan), FEELTA (Far Eastern English Language Teachers' Association, Russia), and PALT (Philippine Association for Language Teaching, Inc.). Korea TESOL is also associated with MELTA (Malaysian English Language Teaching Association), TEFLIN (Indonesia), CamTESOL (Cambodia), ACTA (Australian Council of TESOL Associations), and most recently with ELTAM/Mongolia TESOL, MAAL (Macau), HAAL (Hong Kong), and ELTAI (India). Korea TESOL also has partnership arrangements with numerous domestic ELT associations.

The membership of Korea TESOL includes elementary school, middle school, high school, and university-level English teachers as well as teachers-in-training, administrators, researchers, materials writers, curriculum developers, and other interested individuals.

Korea TESOL has nine active chapters throughout the nation: Members of Korea TESOL are from all parts of Korea and many parts of the world, thus providing Korea TESOL members the benefits of a multicultural membership.

Korea TESOL holds an annual international conference, a national conference, workshops, and other professional development events, while its chapters hold monthly workshops, annual conferences, symposia, and networking events. Also organized within Korea TESOL are various SIGs (special interest groups) – e.g., Reflective Practice, Social Justice, Christian Teachers, Research, Women and Gender Equality, People-of-Color Teachers – which hold their own meetings and events.

Visit *https://koreatesol.org/join-kotesol* for membership information.

KOREA TESOL
KOTESOL

Table of Contents

Research Papers

Brief Reports

Book Reviews

Appendices

Korea TESOL National Council 2019-20

Korea TESOL Journal

The *Korea TESOL Journal* is a peer-reviewed journal, welcoming previously unpublished practical and scholarly articles on topics of significance to individuals concerned with the teaching of English as a foreign language. The Journal focuses on articles that are relevant and applicable to the Korean EFL context. Two issues of the Journal are published annually.

As the Journal is committed to publishing manuscripts that contribute to the application of theory to practice in our profession, submissions reporting relevant research and addressing implications and applications of this research to teaching in the Korean setting are particularly welcomed.

The Journal is also committed to the fostering of scholarship among Korea TESOL members and throughout Korea. As such, classroom-based papers, i.e., articles arising from genuine issues of the English language teaching classroom, are welcomed. The Journal aims to support all scholars by welcoming research from early-career researchers to senior academics.

Areas of interest include, but are by no means limited to, the following:

Classroom-Centered Research
Teacher Training
Teaching Methodologies
Cross-cultural Studies
Curriculum and Course Design
Assessment
Technology in Language Learning
Language Learner Needs

For call-for-papers information and additional information on the *Korea TESOL Journal*, visit our website:

https://koreatesol.org/content/call-papers-korea-tesol-journal

KOREA TESOL
KOTESOL

Research Papers

What Native and Nonnative Teachers Report About Their Pragmatics Instruction

Andrew D. Cohen
Oakland, California, USA

While many English instructors identify themselves as native (NTs) or nonnative teachers (NNTs), others would place themselves along a multidimensional continuum from NNT to NT. An international survey was conducted to investigate the viability of the distinction between NTs and NNTs. Before considering the survey results, a case is made that there are advantages both to having learned English natively as well as to having learned it as a nonnative speaker (NNS). Examples of possible advantages for both NTs and NNTs are provided. Responses to a 19-item questionnaire were obtained from 113 participants, the aim being to gain information as to how the level of target-language (TL) ability may impact pragmatics instruction. The study generated numerous suggestions for ways that NTs and NNTs can compensate for areas in which they might feel that they lack the knowledge to provide accurate instruction in certain areas of TL pragmatics.

Keywords: target language, native- and nonnative-speaking teachers, pragmatic ability

INTRODUCTION

The focus of this article is on how prospective and practicing teachers who are native speakers (NSs) or nonnative speakers (NNSs) of the TL deal with pragmatics in the classroom. Especially with the upsurge of focus on multilingualism and World Englishes, the research literature with respect to pragmatics has appeared to downplay the significance of whether teachers are NTs or NNTs of the TL. Whereas numerous studies comparing NTs and NNTs of English do not focus on the intersection of language and culture (e.g., Walkinshaw & Oanh, 2014), a recent study by Huang (2018) on EFL student and NT/NNT perceptions acknowledged perceived differences in NT/NTT classroom instructional behavior, but did not go into the details regarding pragmatics. Rather, references were simply made to differences in the handling of "culture" − an amorphous term covering many areas. Huang's conclusion was that NTs of English were reported to deal with culture implicitly and NTTs more explicitly. In their volume focusing expressly on second language (L2) pragmatics, Taguchi and Roever (2017) did not mention this distinction among teachers at all, but rather focused on lingua franca pragmatics (pp. 252–256).

Yet, the reality is that there are issues here worth discussing that could benefit all players involved. In the same way that there are advantages to being an NS despite numerous issues surrounding how to define native speaker status, there are also advantages to being an NNS with regard to teaching TL pragmatics. Examples of both NTs and NNTs will be provided, drawing largely on an international survey of both groups of teachers. Examples are provided of how it may be advantageous in the teaching of pragmatics in the classroom to be either an NT or an NNT. The article ends with numerous suggestions as to how NTs and NNTs could compensate for areas in which they feel that they lack the knowledge to teach their learners the specifics about pragmatic performance in some specific TL area, such as in how to criticize, how to be funny, or how to be sarcastic.

Defining Terms

Comparing the NT with the NNT

The difficulty in defining what *native speaker* means (see Davies, 2003) carries over to attempts at describing the nativeness of language teachers since there can be differences among so-called NTs and NNTs. Undoubtedly, the case can be made for how language proficiency level and teaching competency may interact in ways that all but preclude the possibility of making dichotomous distinctions. In other words, the characteristics of NTs and NNTs could be more properly viewed as being along a multidimensional continuum, with a variety of different tracks so that instructors do not develop their ability to teach pragmatics in linear fashion from less to more proficiency in the TL.

Consider the case of the NT who may have been exposed to several languages from birth and consequently is a fluent speaker of other languages as well, and consequently also highly knowledgeable about the pragmatics in those other languages. Then there are NTs with varying amounts of contact with their L1, which they are teaching. While some may never leave the L1 community, others are living in another speech community where their use of the L1 is affected by the use of one or more other languages. There can also be NTs who have lost contact with certain aspects of their L1 and so could be considered more like heritage language users. Then we must add to the mix the number of years that they have been teaching their L1 since this could have an impact on their facility with the language in the various skill areas. In addition, some NTs are more natural teachers than others, and some are more knowledgeable about the pragmatics in their L1 than are others. Consequently, it can be rather a challenge to locate a given NT along a unidimensional continuum.

Just as with NTs, there are numerous possible sources of difference among NNTs. NNTs can have differing exposure to the TL, not just by virtue of time spent living in a community where it is spoken as the dominant language but also as a result of their own personal contact with that language. Having the language available in the community does not necessarily mean that the NNTs develop native-like ability in its pragmatics. Then there are NNTs who do achieve an exceptionally high level of competence in that language − especially when that language is English, which is currently enjoying a lingua franca status in the world. Where do they fit along a continuum?

In addition, NNTs are likely to differ with respect to how proficient they actually become in the TL, with some becoming better at certain skill areas in the TL than others (strong in teaching the pragmatics of aural/oral communication but less so in teaching the literacy skill). This may be a function of how many other languages they have studied or their language aptitude and language strategy repertoire, along with both their knowledge of linguistics and their ability to make practical use of this knowledge. Furthermore, NNTs may differ not only with respect to their knowledge base regarding pragmatics in the TL but also with respect to their ability to perform this knowledge in a pragmatically appropriate way in a given situation.

Although these are valid concerns that could render NT−NNT comparisons too simplistic, the approach taken in this article is to leave the question of just how simplistic the distinction is as an open, empirical question for each English teacher to investigate personally. The purpose of the workshop at the KOTESOL Conference in Seoul in October 2019, upon which this article is based, was more to raise awareness of possible issues than to make definitive statements as to their reality in the given instructional context, with the given teachers, the given resources, and their specific learners. So, in this article when mention is made of the NT–NNT distinction, the assumption will be that a comparison is being made between teachers at two ends of the continuum, rather than those that fall somewhere along this multidimensional continuum.

Describing Pragmatic Ability

Pragmatic ability is the ability to deal with meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader), and to interpret people's intended meanings, their assumptions, their purposes or goals, and the kinds of actions (e.g., making a request) that they are performing when they speak or write (Yule, 1996, pp. 3–4). Taguchi and Roever (2017, p. 2) would add to this that "while definitions of pragmatics may vary, several elements stand out as common features: language, meaning, context, and action ... pragmatics involves a complex interplay between linguistic forms, context of use, and social actions."

There are numerous areas in which a person's pragmatic ability may be called for (for extensive coverage of the field, see a recent definitive volume edited by Taguchi, 2019). For example, it may be crucial for NNSs to have at least a modicum of control over just how polite or impolite they are sounding – whether orally or in writing. NNSs may not be aware, for example, of how bossy they might come across in an email when they use "please" followed by what can be interpreted as an order. Not only is delivering a polite-sounding request challenging at times, but so is the appropriate delivery of other speech acts as well, such as greetings, thanks, compliments, apologies, complaints, criticism, teasing, and cursing. Aside from being aware of politeness issues in the performance of speech acts, there is likely to be a need to have a sense as to acceptable conversational patterns within the speech community. For instance, it may be necessary to learn about how the local speech community deals with turn-taking – such as the amount of wait time to allow the interlocutor, ways to break into a conversation – as well as knowing how to deal with silence.

Other issues in pragmatics include knowing what is funny and what is not − both in terms of interpreting jokes correctly and in terms of being able to intentionally produce humor. A related issue that can be most challenging for nonnatives is correctly perceiving sarcasm and being able to generate it appropriately if necessary. Both of these areas touch on what is referred to in the literature as *conversational implicature* − which involves interpreting that which is implied. So, for example, if a friend's reply to a question "How was the show?" is "The seats were comfortable," then the implication is that the show was not very good.

Performing pragmatics may be challenging even for an NS when, for example, it comes to certain speech acts, such as issuing an appropriate apology. That being the case, how much more challenging it is likely to be for an NNS. Learners need to determine the *situationally appropriate utterances:* what can be said, to whom, where, when, and how. There is a powerful influence working *against* the appropriate use of the TL − namely, how it is done in the native language (L1) or dominant language. It is not enough just to know the vocabulary and the grammar (e.g., the verb forms). It may also be that the pragmatically acceptable grammatical form in the given local case may diverge from the textbook form. So, for example, it may be appropriate in a given speech community to use "ain't" as opposed to "isn't" or "aren't."

I have studied 12 languages beyond English L1 over the course of my lifetime. While I have achieved relative pragmatic control in, say, four of these, I have the sense that even with these languages I am capable of pragmatic failure (see Cohen, 1997, 2001). It is more my pragmatic failures than my pragmatic successes that have made me acutely aware that pragmatic performance benefits from explicit instruction − that learners tend not to acquire rules for pragmatic appropriateness simply through osmosis.

The Effect of NS or NNS Status on ESL/EFL Pragmatics Instruction

In the last few years, there have appeared some excellent volumes dealing with research on TL pragmatics. The two previously cited books by Taguchi and Roever (2017) and by Taguchi (2019) have covered a myriad of topics relating to pragmatics, but neither has dealt even tangentially with the issue of concern in this paper: the similarities and differences between NTs and NNTs in the handling of pragmatics. It would appear that the literature making such comparisons has been sparse (e.g., Rose, 1997). Part of the explanation would be that whether a teacher is an NT or an NNT is often seen as a lesser issue in effective pragmatic instruction than is demonstrable linguistic and pragmatic competence, along with appropriate professional development (Akikawa, 2010). The argument follows that critical awareness of pragmatic diversity allows teachers to support their students in developing cultural sensitivity about TL norms and in making their own pragmatic choices (Akikawa, 2010; Ishihara, 2008, 2010).

Especially with regard to the pragmatics of English, it has even been considered a myth that NTs may have certain advantages over NNTs (see Mahboob, 2010). Recent volumes promote World Englishes (Matsuda, 2012; Marlina & Giri, 2014) and question norms for pragmatic behavior. In support of this position, one could argue that NNTs would have certain advantages over NTs in some areas such as TL grammar, given that they might well have studied the language formally. Furthermore, an NNT’s years of experience teaching pragmatics might actually make this teacher more effective in teaching TL pragmatics than the NT who relies solely on intuition. In addition, the NNTs’ multicultural background may provide them advantages in teaching TL pragmatics − especially local varieties. On the other hand, however, it could be argued that NTs may well have advantages over NNTs by virtue of their exposure to the language from birth. This advantage could show up in subtle areas such as the use of sarcasm and ways to criticize behavior effectively, even after one takes into account the multidimensional variables that could play a role in the development of NNTs as language instructors.

METHOD

An interest in exploring both the similarities and differences between NTs and NNTs with regard to the handling of TL pragmatics prompted the design and implementation of a study to investigate these issues more fully through an international survey (see Cohen, 2018, Chapter 4, for full details). In part, this study was conducted to see whether it made sense to tease out similarities and differences, or rather to assume that they were inconsequential, which is what some of the World Englishes literature cited above might suggest.

Research Questions

RQ1. How do NNTs and NTs report their handling of pragmatics in the TL classroom?
RQ2. What areas in TL pragmatics do they report teaching: To what extent do they provide explicit instruction re pragmatics, use digital media, and teach about dialect differences in pragmatics?
RQ3. How comfortable do they feel about being a resource for TL pragmatics?
RQ4. What do they report doing if they do not feel like an authority on some aspects of TL pragmatics?
RQ5. How knowledgeable do they feel they are about sociopragmatic (sociocultural) and pragmalinguistic (language form) issues relating to the specific TL?
RQ6. How do they motivate learners to learn TL pragmatics?
RQ7. In what areas in the pragmatics of the TL might they want to obtain more information or see the results of research?

Instrumentation

An online survey instrument was constructed for NTs and NNTs with minor differences between the NNT and the NT versions (see the Appendix for a composite questionnaire, combining the two versions). The questions on the survey were prompted by issues raised in the research literature on L2/FL pragmatics (see Taguchi & Roever, 2017). An effort was made to include a range of speech acts − from those receiving considerable attention to those that have received minimal attention in the pragmatics research literature, such as criticism (e.g., of a person's behavior or appearance) and sarcasm. Since it appears that there has not been such a survey conducted in the past, it was not possible here to build on previous work from international sampling of teachers' reporting as to how they deal with TL pragmatics instruction.

The survey instrument was piloted with a mixed group of 15 NTs and NNTs, and subsequently some changes were made in the questions. Teachers were asked to focus just on the language course in which they were most likely to teach about pragmatics, and to indicate the extent of coverage that specific areas of pragmatics were likely to receive (see the Appendix).

Sampling

An invitation to respond to the survey was sent directly to over 100 professors and graduate students worldwide via email, along with an open invitation on my personal website, on LinkedIn, and on Facebook. The first invitation went out July 25, 2015, and responses to the survey were accepted until September 20 of that same year. Since the call for respondents was totally voluntary, not so surprisingly those who responded all had had and/or were currently engaged directly or indirectly with TL language instruction involving pragmatics. In addition, given the average number of years that they had been teaching (see below), it would be assumed that they were highly proficient in the language that they were teaching, although they were not queried as to their language proficiency.

There were 113 respondents to the survey − from the U.S., China, Japan, Korea, Vietnam, Australia, New Zealand, Spain, the UK, and elsewhere. There were 83 NNT respondents, natives of 23 languages: English (29), Mandarin (10), Vietnamese and Persian (6 each), Indonesian (4), Japanese and Arabic (3 each), and 14 other L1s. They were teaching 9 TLs: English (53), Spanish (13), German (11), and 6 others. They had been teaching language for an average of 10 years and were teaching at the beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels about evenly. As to their background for teaching pragmatics, only one referred specifically to formally acquiring knowledge about pragmatics, and six indicated being in a relationship with a TL speaker or having lived in the TL country.

The 30 NTs who responded to the survey were natives of 7 languages: English (5), Japanese (5), French (1), Spanish (2), Catalan (1), Chinese (1), and Danish (1), and were native-language teachers of 5 TLs: English (21), Japanese (4), Spanish (3), Danish (1), and French (1). One was an NS of Cantonese in Hong Kong but dominant in English which he reported teaching. They had been teaching language for an average of 16 years, teaching all three levels robustly, with 75% teaching advanced-level courses. While many indicated that their NS intuition provided them insights for teaching TL pragmatics, some noted that learning other languages also contributed, as in this example:

> Practical connections came from my experiences learning foreign languages, first Spanish as a high school student, then Mandarin and

> Mongolian as an adult. Many of my students speak those three languages as their native tongues, so I have a window into their thinking both mechanically (first-language interference in grammar, spelling, and pronunciation), culturally, and emotionally.

With regard to the language teaching context, of the 83 NNTs, 39% taught the TL as an FL and 61% as an L2. Among the 30 NTs, 73% taught the TL as an FL and 27% as an L2. Some teachers reported teaching pragmatics in other kinds of courses as well, such as teacher preparation courses, heritage language courses, linguistic courses, language for academic purposes courses, and courses focusing on sociolinguistics and culture in general.

Data Analysis

Survey Monkey provided basic statistical analysis (means and percentages) for closed items. Chi-square analyses were performed in cases where the data lent themselves to statistical analysis. Open-ended data were content analyzed.

RESULTS

Teachers' Reported Handling of Pragmatics in Their Instruction

As for the areas of pragmatics that NTs reported covering, they reported being more likely to teach the speech acts of criticism and sarcasm than were the NNTs. Whereas neither group of teachers reported very much attention to cursing, NNTs reported providing more instruction on this topic. In other categories, the teachers were relatively similar in what they reported. With regard to their comfort level at serving as a resource for information about the specifics of pragmatics in the TL, 53% of the NTs reported being "very comfortable" teaching TL pragmatics vs. 37% of the NNTs.

Both NTs and NNTs reported at least sometimes acknowledging to their students their lack of knowledge about some pragmatics issue. Coupled with that, the NTs reported a significantly higher likelihood of getting their students to serve as data gatherers. A fair number of NNTs (62%) reported sometimes or extensively using as a point of departure the pragmatics of their L1 or some other language when teaching the TL. Commenting on those moments when they did not feel like an authority with respect to pragmatics, most NNTs said they would check with NSs, with the internet or with other sources, and get back to their students right away. Here is a representative comment:

> I base what I tell students on research and, when research isn't available, I use my own anecdotal observation − but if my only evidence is anecdotal, I tell students that fact so they don’t overgeneralize. If I don’t know about some pragmatic feature, I say so and tell students I will try to find out. Then I ask native speaker friends about the feature, if there is no published research available to consult.

As for comments by NTs about those moments when they did not feel like an authority, a fair number commented on their using such moments as an opportunity to gather data. Here is one representative comment:

> Usually the confusion is over ambiguities or differences in context, etc. I discuss with the students these differences, then we gather data (I will survey my colleagues and sometimes also outside my school) and report back. These are “teachable moments.”

Activities That Teachers Reported as Helpful in Teaching TL Pragmatics

The NTs and the NNTs had similar responses with regard to activities that they reported using for teaching pragmatics. They reported the following four types of activities:

- Viewing segments from films, videos (from YouTube and elsewhere) and analyzing them (perhaps with a transcript).
- Role-play, perhaps based on models from film segments and videos
- Collecting data from TL speakers (in service encounters, in dorms, in cafeterias, restaurants, and the like).
- Small-group discussions of TL pragmatics.

Since the instruction is for those who presumably have perhaps limited contact with the language as it is spoken naturally in the community, all the more reason then for students to depend on films and videos. It is interesting to note that the teachers included the importance of analyzing the segments. This makes sense in that without the analysis, the learners may not automatically attend to the pragmatics involved. The use of role-play can help to give the learners an opportunity to practice the TL pragmatics segments that they have been exposed to.

Especially in an FL context, it may be challenging to collect data from TL speakers engaged in activities other than, say, a Skype session. And even if they do collect data from TL speakers, their pragmatics may be altered if their performance is taking place in the speech community of the learners and not that of the TL speakers. One of the respondents gave specifics as to what the data gathering from students might look like:

> Sending my ESL students out as ethnographers to observe specific types of interactions: greetings and leave-taking among young men in contrast to young women of their own age group (i.e., hands, voices, feet, proximity, verbal or grunting/shrieking expressions), gift-giving actions and verbal expression, phone calls, requests for directions around campus, expressions of disappointment, asking for and declining favors. These can be written up, but if possible, videotaped and analyzed.

Assuming that learners are gathering TL data with pragmatic import, all the more reason then that the teacher engages them in small-group discussions in order to highlight the pragmatic features and to make sure that learners are clear as to how they function in the given context.

Ways That Teachers Motivated Their Students to Learn About TL Norms

The following are a series of quotes from the teachers themselves as to practices aimed at motivating their students to learn more about the norms for TL behavior:

- By saying: If you want to make sense, sound natural, and − more importantly − be polite, you need to learn TL pragmatics.
- I find that with my students (intermediate & advanced Spanish), I don’t need to work hard to motivate them to be interested in

Spanish pragmatics. They generally find social norms to be fascinating! In part, it may be that in other classes instructors don't talk about pragmatics, so it is novel for them. In addition, there is a clear practical component to learning about pragmatics that I think they recognize.

- Through engaging materials, especially Russian-language music and movies. If they find something they really love, they are motivated to understand it. Also I emphasize how native speakers will react when they behave in pragmatically inappropriate ways, which I hope motivates them to at least be conscious of that dimension of language.
- I tell them that being a competent speaker requires not only being accurate but also appropriate.
- I make sure my German FL students have the opportunity to observe real (if possible, filmed) interactions among people who speak the target language; this way, they see that there are people just like them who observe the social and linguistic norms that they have been learning about.
- I tell my EFL students [in Italy] about my own interactional experiences with native speakers (storytelling grabs their attention, and I trust they trust I am telling them the truth). If there are international/Erasmus students in class, I always ask them to tell the class about how their way of doing things differs from ours and what problems, if any, this may have caused.
- I normally peak their curiosity by using humor or misunderstandings, and start from there [Spanish FL in Italy].
- I try to make my Iranian EFL students [Babol, Iran] watch English comedies because it seems interesting to most of them, or register in different social networks and be in touch with Americans.
- I just demonstrate it to my beginning Spanish and German FL students [female teacher, University of California at Santa Barbara]. I act like someone from that culture would act. I also try to get them excited about the culture. I show them things that they can connect with. I always interview all of my students at the beginning of the quarter to find out why they are taking the language and what their hobbies/activities are. Then I try to match my curriculum to that.
- With inter-cultural and cross-cultural examples. For example, I use service encounter interactions in US English and in comparable

> settings in Spain and Latin America. My Spanish FL students [Indiana University] love the pragmatics of service encounters because they find it quite useful when they travel abroad.

As can be seen, the teacher respondents identified various motivators, mostly involving either live interactions or filmed ones, where cultural elements could play an important role in behavior. They also referred to the importance of music and especially of humor. Needless to say, bringing up the issue of politeness was also seen as a motivator in that learners generally did not like the embarrassment associated with being inappropriately impolite or, conversely, overly polite.

Areas of Pragmatics Where Teachers Wanted More Information on Pragmatics

The following are topics that the teachers identified as ones that they would welcome more information about, all having possible ramifications with regard to pragmatic behavior and especially to the avoidance of pragmatic failure. Some of the topics have a more robust research literature associated with them than do others (see Taguchi & Roever, 2017; see also Taguchi, 2019).

- Humor, sarcasm, teasing, and cursing.
- The expression of sympathy and compassion.
- Table manners.
- Interacting with different generations of speakers at, say, a family gathering (e.g., meeting their TL-speaking significant other's siblings, parents, and grandparents).
- Euphemisms for things like age, sex, and dying.
- How to pose questions during class, at conferences, and in the workplace.
- The pragmatics of online discussions engaging several participants using the same language.
- The pragmatics of diplomatic communication.
- Things people are more or less likely to discuss in the TL.
- Small talk.
- Invisible culture − behavior patterns in the TL community that learners do not realize are part of the shared culture, rather than individual idiosyncrasies.

- "English as a lingua franca" pragmatics (e.g., ELF pragmatics for business purposes).
- Differences in pragmatic behavior that may exist among the varieties of the TL (e.g., Spanish) around the world.
- The connection between grammar and pragmatics: the relevance of the resources of a language system to speakers' uses of a language.
- Distinguishing pragmatic deviations due to lack of TL knowledge from pragmatic deviations by L1 speakers (such as due to boorish or gauche behavior).
- Prioritizing − determining the areas of pragmatics to be taught first or to be skipped if there is only limited instructional time.

Again, let us keep in mind that these were requests from teachers in the field based on their perceptions and experiences. Especially researchers reading this article could look at this list as a potential call to action. Some of these topics may be of interest to researchers looking for areas in pragmatics that warrant further investigation in a given TL context − especially involving less-studied languages.

Discussion and Conclusions

Summary

This article dealt with an area that has appeared to have received somewhat limited attention in both the research literature relating to pragmatics, as well as in the pedagogically oriented literature − namely, the ways in which NTs and NNTs are similar and different with regard to the handling of TL pragmatics in their instruction. The survey of NTs and NNTs revealed both numerous similarities in reported handling of TL pragmatics and also certain areas of difference. For example, there were some areas where NNTs with considerable experience in language teaching and high TL proficiency nonetheless felt that they lacked knowledge about how to teach certain aspects of TL pragmatics. These NNTs also indicated somewhat less comfort than NTs in teaching about certain aspects of pragmatics as well. The findings would suggest that NTs' intuitions about pragmatics may assist them in teaching learners how to be effectively critical and sarcastic, as well as how to respond appropriately to criticism and sarcasm. The caveat here is that relying on

NS intuition may be misleading, which is why both NNTs and NTs in this survey indicated that they gathered data from other sources if they were in doubt about some area of TL pragmatics.

The NTs also indicated greater use of digital media, possibly due to their relative ease at finding and using TL media or their many years of teaching experience. The NTs also indicated a willingness to use their students as data gatherers in cases where they were unsure of some issue in pragmatics to a somewhat greater extent than were the NNTs. What is encouraging about this finding is that it would indicate that at least with regard to this sampling of teachers internationally, the NTs were not just relying on their intuition, but also reported a willingness to learn more about their L1 pragmatics rather than just relying on their intuitions.

The NNTs reported more coverage of cursing than the NTs, which can be an important area for learners to have some control over. A case in point would be that of female undergraduate students of mine at the University of Minnesota who, upon returning from study abroad in a Middle Eastern culture, reported in retrospect that it would have been helpful to them to have been able to appraise catcalls on the street as possibly threatening.

It was also found that, not so surprisingly, NNTs reported relying on their L1 when they were not certain of the TL pragmatics. In the literature on transfer, it has been seen time and again that learners may fall back on their L1 when there are gaps in their TL knowledge. When such transfer is negative, it may result in pragmatic failure (see Ishihara & Cohen, 2014, Chapter 5, for examples). In addition, the survey provided a listing of activities that could be used in teaching TL activities both in FL and L2 situations. In addition, the data provided suggestions for how to motivate learners to want to study TL pragmatics, as well as an indication as to pragmatics areas for which teachers would like more information based on both research and practice.

Limitations

Since this study was conducted over the Internet with a portion of the participants remaining anonymous, no effort was made to determine the actual knowledge base of the NTs and NNTs about pragmatics, nor their pedagogical knowledge. Nor was there any way to verify the extent to which they actually practiced what they reported practicing. While the reliability of the survey instrument was determined solely through piloting of the questionnaire items, the resulting data would suggest that the respondents were genuinely engaged in producing thoughtful responses.

While international in scope, the sample was still relatively modest and self-selective, and the NTs had on the average more teaching experience than the NNTs (an average of 16 years vs. 10 years). It is probably the case that teachers who were less knowledgeable about TL pragmatics declined to respond to the survey. In addition, the questions were in some cases only a first effort at probing the issues. Also, the fluctuation in responses would serve as an indication that it is difficult to arrive at consensus in such a survey effort. Both the NTs and NNTs were highly diverse, representing not only different L1s and TLs, but also many different regions of the world. Another limitation is that the TL proficiency of the NNTs was not measured, a task that would have called for instruments in a variety of languages and a willingness on the part of the NNTs to have their knowledge assessed. Undoubtedly, having knowledge of just how proficient or even "expert" they were in their respective TLs would have helped interpret the data in order to distinguish NT–NNT issues from other kinds of issues. Finally, it must be remembered that report of coverage of certain TL pragmatics issues does not speak to how reliable the reports actually were, nor does it speak to how effectively they were covered.

Despite the limitations of the study, the conducting of the survey appears to have constituted a useful exercise in an effort to better deal with the area of pragmatics instruction in the classroom.

Suggestions for Future Research

With regard to further research, there is undoubtedly a need to broaden the data base through more systematic sampling of teacher respondents from all areas of the world, as well as to refine the questions that are posed to teachers. In addition, it would be most helpful to collect classroom observation as well in order to corroborate teachers' reported handling of pragmatics in the TL classroom. Fortunately, there has been at least one effort to replicate the study reported in this article. It involved 10 female EFL instructors, all NNTs in Greece or Cyprus who had experience teaching at FL institutes and private English-medium mainstream schools (Savvidou & Economidou-

Kogetsidis, 2019). The investigators collected data regarding what these teachers knew about pragmatics and what they reported teaching about it in the classroom. Among the more interesting findings was that reportedly when they did venture into teaching about TL culture, there was a tendency to focus on the visible layers of culture (e.g., food, festivals, and habits) rather than on "the hidden layers of culture" such as values, politeness, beliefs, attitudes, which this sampling of EFL teachers considered to involve issues that were "too alien or sensitive for them to touch on" (p. 53). Ironically, these are the issues involving pragmatics that are often of keen interest to numerous language learners.

Pedagogical Implications

With regard to pedagogical implications derived from this study, more could certainly be done to develop classroom activities that help in the instruction of TL pragmatics in the less-covered and more-challenging areas – activities that serve NTs and NTTs alike, both in FL and L2 teaching contexts. The findings from the survey reported on in this paper would appear to support the view that there are NT–NNT differences that might show up in TL instruction in the classroom, which warrants a discussion about measures that might be taken to deal with this issue (see Cohen, 2019, for guidelines regarding strategy instruction in pragmatics). In all fairness, the conversation needs to start by acknowledging NNTs for the fine work they do in teaching the TL and for their often admirable abilities in both performing and teaching TL pragmatics. The concern is in dealing with those areas of pragmatics that may currently be outside their comfort zone (perhaps dealing with teasing, sarcasm, humor, cursing, and other such areas). Being a NNT may make teachers even more mindful of pragmatics and motivated to educate themselves in this area. Rather than simply denying it is an issue, language educators might wish to make more resources available to NNTs and to NTs as well, so that both groups can teach TL pragmatics with greater comfort and facility.

For example, both NNTs and NTs may benefit from synopses of findings from research on TL pragmatic norms since NNTs may be unaware of the TL norms and NTs, while they have their intuitions, may have an anecdotal, idiosyncratic, or otherwise limited and/or inaccurate understanding of the actual pragmatic norms. And even if the textbooks cover these areas of pragmatics, the coverage may not reflect the current normative behavior (Cohen & Ishihara, 2012). Both groups of teachers may also benefit from comparing pragmatic norms in different dialects since, as reflected in the NTs' comments, they are not necessarily aware of the TL norms for pragmatics in other countries where their L1 is spoken.

CONCLUSIONS

At a time when there is increasing interest in teaching pragmatics, there needs to be a commensurate concern with supporting NTs and NNTs alike to do the best possible job of this. A comment is in order with regard to the finding that years of teaching was reported to correlate positively with certain speech acts for the NTs. Why years of teaching experience correlated positively with reported teaching of certain speech acts for NTs and not for NNTs is a matter of speculation. Perhaps the longer this sample of NTs taught, the more they saw the benefits of introducing information about pragmatics. As for the NNTs, perhaps it was their relative lack of awareness of pragmatics or their intent to simply follow textbook lessons over the years that explained the lack of correlation between years teaching and report of inclusion of pragmatics, since they had a rather robust average of 10 years of teaching experience. On the other hand, perhaps this finding is suggestive of a slight deficit that the NNTs in this sample had in their ability to teach TL pragmatics, whether as an L2 or as an FL.

THE AUTHOR

Andrew D. Cohen was a professor in ESL Teacher Development at UCLA (1972–1975), Language Education at the Hebrew University (1975–1991), and Second Language Studies at the University of Minnesota (1991–2013). He co-edited Language Learning Strategies with Ernesto Macaro (Oxford University Press, 2007), co-authored *Teaching and Learning Pragmatics* with Noriko Ishihara (Routledge, 2014), and authored *Strategies in Learning and Using a Second Language* (Routledge, 2011) and *Learning Pragmatics from Native and Nonnative Language Teachers* (Multilingual Matters, 2018). He has also published many book chapters and journal articles. For the last eleven years, he has been studying his thirteenth language, Mandarin. Email: adcohen@umn.edu

References

Akikawa, K. (2010). Teaching pragmatics as a native speaker and as a non-native speaker. In B. Brady (Ed.), *WATESOL NNEST Caucus Annual Review*, *1*, 43–69. https://drive.google.com/a/umn.edu/file/d/0Bz-G2H5Hram7ZWU3ZWFjNDEtOTY1Ni00ZTQ1LTgyOTgtY2I0YTQxMDhmYjk3/view?ddrp=1&pli=1&hl=en#

Cohen, A. D. (1997). Developing pragmatic ability: Insights from the accelerated study of Japanese [Technical report 15]. In H. M. Cook, K. Hijirida, & M. Tahara (Eds.), *New trends and issues in teaching Japanese language and culture* (pp. 137–163). Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center, University of Hawaii at Manoa.

Cohen, A. D. (2001). From L1 to L12: The confessions of a sometimes frustrated multiliterate. In D. Belcher & U. Connor (Eds.), *Reflections on multiliterate lives* (pp. 79–95). Multilingual Matters.

Cohen, A. D. (2018). *Learning pragmatics from native and nonnative language teachers.* Multilingual Matters.

Cohen, A. D. (2019). Strategy instruction for learning and performing target language pragmatics. In A. U. Chamot & V. Harris (Eds.), *Learning strategy instruction in the language classroom: Issues and implementation* (pp. 140–152). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

Cohen, A. D., & Ishihara, N. (2012). Pragmatics. In B. Tomlinson & H. Masuhara (Eds.), *Applied linguistics applied: Connecting practice to theory through materials development* (pp. 113–126). Continuum.

Davies, A. (2003). *The native speaker: Myth and reality*. Multilingual Matters.

Huang, Z. (2018). *Native and non-native English speaking teachers in China: Perceptions and practices*. Springer; Shanghai Jiao Tong University Press.

Ishihara, N. (2008). Transforming community norms: Potentials of L2 speakers' pragmatic resistance. In M. Hood (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 2008 Temple University Japan Colloquium on Language Learning* (pp. 1–10). Temple University Japan.

Ishihara, N. (2010). Maintaining an optimal distance: Nonnative speakers' pragmatic choice. In A. Mahboob (Ed.), T*he NNEST lens: Nonnative English speakers in TESOL* (pp. 32–48). Cambridge Scholars Press.

Ishihara, N., & Cohen, A. D. (2014). *Teaching and learning pragmatics: Where language and culture meet*. Routledge.

Mahboob, A. (2010). The NNEST lens. In A. Mahboob (Ed.), *The NNEST lens: Nonnative English speakers in TESOL* (pp. 1–17). Cambridge Scholars Press.

Marlina, R., & Giri, R. A. (Eds.). (2014). *The pedagogy of English as an international language: Perspectives from scholars*, *teachers*, *and students*. Springer International.

Matsuda, A. (Ed.) (2012). *Principles and practices of teaching English as an* *international language*. Multilingual Matters.

Rose, K. R. (1997). Pragmatics in teacher education for nonnative-speaking teachers: A consciousness-raising approach. *Language*, *Culture*, *and Curriculum*, *10*(2), 125–138.

Savvidou, C., & Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2019). Teaching pragmatics: Nonnative-speaker teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and reported practices. *Intercultural Communication Education*, *2*(1), 39–58. https://doi.org/10.29140/ice.v2n1.124

Taguchi, N. (Ed.). (2019). *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition and pragmatics*. Routledge.

Taguchi, N., & Roever, C. (2017). *Second language pragmatics*. Oxford University Press.

Walkinshaw, I., & Oanh, D. H. (2014). Native and non-native English language teachers: Student perceptions in Vietnam and Japan. *SAGE Open*, 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244014534451.

Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Oxford University Press.

FOOTNOTE

[1] Paper based on a workshop conducted at the Korea TESOL International Conference, Sookmyung Women's University, Seoul, South Korea, October 13, 2019.

APPENDIX

Composite Questionnaire for NTs & NNTs: Thoughts About Your Handling of Pragmatics in the Target Language Classroom

The concern of *pragmatics* is with intended meanings, assumptions, and actions in oral and written language. This questionnaire seeks to stimulate your thinking about how you handle the pragmatics of the language you are teaching.

This survey seeks to collect information on the experiences of native and nonnative language teachers as they teach their learners about the pragmatics of the target language, whether it be more a second-language experience (where the target language is spoken extensively in the learners' immediate community) or more a foreign-language experience (where the target language is not spoken extensively in the learners' immediate community). For the purposes of the questionnaire, pragmatics is viewed as dealing with intended meanings, assumptions, and actions in both oral language and written language (especially as used in texting and emailing).

There are 19 questions in this survey, including both multiple-choice, short-answer, and open-ended items. Please focus just on the class or classes in which you are likely to teach the most about pragmatics. The questionnaire should take about 20–30 minutes to complete.

1) What is your native language? What is your dominant language now, if it is not your native language? ________

2) What language(s) do you teach?

3) For how many years have you been teaching this language (these languages)?

4) What levels of the language do you teach?
Beginning ____ Intermediate ____ Advanced ____ Other ____ (e.g., a course)
Please provide a brief description:

5) In several sentences, please describe how you develop knowledge about the target language pragmatics that enables you to instruct others in it (e.g., through either your intuition as a native speaker or

highly competent nonnative, coursework, the research literature, or websites).

6) Focusing just on the class level/course for which you teach about pragmatics, indicate the extent of coverage that the following areas of pragmatics receive in your current language classes:
4 – extensive coverage, 3 – a fair amount of coverage, 2 – some coverage, 1 – little coverage, 0 – no coverage.

- Politeness/impoliteness ____
- How to make requests ____
- How to apologize ____
- How to compliment and respond to compliments. ____
- How to complain ____
- How to criticize ____
- Greetings and leave-taking ____
- Thanking ____
- Conversational style (e.g., turn-taking, appropriate listener responses) ____
- Humor ____
- Sarcasm ____
- Teasing ____
- Cursing ____
- The temporal, discursive, affective, and indexical roles of discourse markers like “well,” “you know,” “so,” “I think,” “on the other hand,” “frankly,” and “as a matter fact” ___
- Conversational implicature (i.e., the implied meaning as interpreted by listeners based on context and knowledge of how conversation works) ____

7) Please indicate the extent to which you think you would feel comfortable serving as a resource for information about the specifics of pragmatics in your language of instruction:
- very comfortable ____
- somewhat comfortable ____
- somewhat uncomfortable ____
- very uncomfortable ____

8) If you encounter classroom moments when you don’t feel like an

authority on some aspect of pragmatics, what do you do about it? Indicate the extent to which you do the following:
3 − extensively, 2 − sometimes, 1 − seldom, 0 − never.

a) I acknowledge my lack of knowledge to my students. ___
b) I have my students serve as data gatherers by having them check with native speakers and then report back to the class what they found out. ___
c) I teach what I know. ___
d) Other (please explain).

9) Pragmatics focuses on how the language is interpreted in a given sociocultural context within the target community. How would you assess your current knowledge of the target language and of the sociocultural contexts in which the language is likely to be used? (Mark all that apply.)

- Very knowledgeable about both the language and the sociocultural contexts___
- More knowledgeable about the language than the sociocultural contexts___
- More knowledgeable about the sociocultural contexts than about the language___
- Still a learner in both the language and the sociocultural contexts within the target community___

10) It is said that teaching the pragmatics of a foreign language is more challenging than teaching the pragmatics of a second language since in foreign-language learning the learners are presumably not living in the target-language context.

a) To what extent do you think this distinction has relevance to your situation?
Extensive relevance___ Some relevance___ Little or no relevance___

b) As a foreign-language teacher, in what ways (if any) do you think your students' development of pragmatic ability is influenced by their lack of contact with the target language? Explain.

11) To what extent do you teach the pragmatics of the target language explicitly?

    4 – all the time, 3 – most of the time, 2 – sometimes, 1 – rarely, 0 – never ____. Please comment.

12) To what extent do you have your students access digital media (e.g., movies, YouTube, etc.) in learning pragmatics?

    4 – all the time, 3 – most of the time, 2 – sometimes, 1 – rarely, 0 – never ___.
    Explain in several sentences how you use digital media.

13) To what extent do you teach regional and dialect differences in the use of pragmatics (e.g., the pragmatics of Korean English?

    4 – all the time, 3 – most of the time, 2 – sometimes, 1 – rarely, 0 – never ___.

14) How do you motivate your students to learn about the norms for target-language behavior? Explain in a few sentences.

15) Assuming you are teaching in a foreign-language situation, what activities do you think are most helpful in teaching pragmatics?

16) As a language instructor, what do you do if your students deviate from accepted norms for pragmatic behavior in the target language?

17) What if your students' deviations from target-language norms are on purpose – namely, an expression of their self-identity (sense of agency)? How do you deal with that in the classroom?

18) What areas of pragmatics would you like to have more information about?

19) Thinking about specific areas of pragmatics (such as those listed in question #6 above), in what areas of pragmatics might you be interested in seeing the results of research?

Decolonizing Higher Education: Practical Examples from International and Intercultural Educators in Korea

Kevin Kester
Keimyung University, Daegu, Korea
Loughlin Sweeney
Woosong University, Daejeon, Korea
Cindy Chang
Cambridge University, Cambridge, UK
Mel Watkins
Independent Researcher, Korea
Jeongmin Cha
Keimyung University, Daegu, Korea

Research indicates that a new diverse body of students on university campuses requires innovative teaching and learning methods that take this complexity into account (Chatelain, 2018; Oberlechner, 2018). This challenge to higher education applies also to the Korean context, where increasing numbers of students are entering Korean universities from Asia, Africa, and Latin America. This paper utilizes decolonial theories of epistemic, social, and global justice to reimagine intercultural higher education for university academics and students in Korea and how to enhance international pedagogies. Drawing on the work of leading social theorists such as Connell (2007), Mignolo (2012), and de Sousa Santos (2007), the paper reviews and compares international and intercultural education literature in Korean and English to investigate the intersectional fields of education for diversity, social justice, and intercultural understanding in higher education. The paper also introduces small practical onto-epistemic, curricular, pedagogical, methodological, institutional, and scholarly changes that educators could employ to support decolonizing intercultural higher education in Korea.

Keywords: intercultural education, higher education, second language contexts, decolonial theory and practice

INTRODUCTION

In response to the increasing internationalization of Korean higher education, questions are arising about how educational professionals should respond creatively and effectively to changing demographics and citizenships in classrooms, schools, and universities (Chatelain, 2018; Kim & Chun, 2015; Oberlechner, 2018). University lecturers are increasingly facing the challenge of educating young people from diverse backgrounds (i.e., from the Global North and the Global South). For example, Korean national statistics indicate that the number of international students studying in Korean universities today has risen by 10% each year since 2015 with more than 160,000 international students in Korean universities in 2019 (KESS, 2019; Koh & Kim, 2019). The bulk of these students have arrived from the Global South (e.g., China, 71,067; Vietnam, 37,426; and Mongolia, 7,381), although there are numerous students also joining from the Global North (e.g., Japan, 4,392 and USA, 2,915). From our experience as university educators working within Korea, these statistics correspond with the rise of international student numbers that we have witnessed in our classrooms. For example, three of the authors in this project (Kester, Sweeney, and Watkins) taught students in Korea in the 2019–2020 academic year from among the following countries: Australia, Bangladesh, Brazil, Brunei, China, France, Germany, India, Japan, Kenya, Mexico, Mongolia, Nepal, Nigeria, Pakistan, Philippines, Uganda, USA, Uzbekistan, and Vietnam. This illustrates in part the remarkable diversity of international students in Korean university classrooms today.

Within this changing context, then, it is crucial that international and intercultural[1] educators in Korean universities adapt their theoretical, methodological, and pedagogical approaches to transcend the orthodoxies and limitations of the previous generations of multicultural education, foreign language education, and global citizenship education that have been proposed to address diversity in teaching and learning (Green, 2017; Shirazi, 2019). The current project approaches intercultural higher education from counter-cultural and non-hegemonic traditions (Andreotti et al., 2015; Dulfano, 2017), including the questioning of racial erasures that exist within universities (Sriprakash et al., 2019). Hence, the old techniques of multicultural and global education implemented in and borrowed from North America and Europe are no longer sufficient for the transformative and diverse purposes of international and intercultural education in Korea today (Banks, 1999; Bennett & Bennett, 2004; Grant & Sleeter, 2011). This will be made clearer in the review of literature that follows.

Importantly, the literature review in this study was conducted in Korean as well as English to account for diverse approaches across linguistic and cultural borders. This is a method some of the authors have employed elsewhere to explore decolonial[2] possibilities for higher education (Kester et al., 2019). The project had a three-pronged objective: (a) Review and share theories and praxis on decolonizing knowledge production and consumption within higher education in Korea, (b) generate discussion about the challenges and possibilities that Korean-based scholars face as they seek to teach and research differently, and (c) provide space for practitioners to conceptualize and plan decolonial responses to the challenges they face in their classrooms. The objectives were examined via three driving research questions: (i) What are the different theoretical and pedagogical perspectives on decolonizing higher education in the literature? (ii) What are some methodological implications for international and intercultural educators in Korea? and (iii) What decolonial pedagogic strategies could offer transformative potential? These questions were explored through six practical workshops conducted around Korea in 2019.

We will begin the next section by overviewing the various contexts in which we teach in order to provide insights into the educational environments from which this study emerges. Then we examine the literature in Korean and English to identify the gap that this paper seeks to address. Next, we turn to outline our research methodology and describe the practical workshops before sharing the decolonial toolkit that was co-developed by more than 100 practitioners across the six workshops. Prior to concluding, we will discuss the utility and implications of the findings. It is our hope that university educators in Korea might find practical curricular, pedagogic, and institutional strategies that will enhance their own contextually relevant and decolonial practices. Through our critiques and the toolkit, we aim to contribute in a modest way to furthering the agenda of critical international and intercultural education in Korea.

Our Varied Backgrounds

We first offer our own positions within Korean higher education in order to practice the decolonial methodology that we describe later and to account for our own diverse polyphonic voices within this paper. This is done to assist readers in understanding the background environments from which our ideas have emerged. We additionally offer this to allow readers to judge the utility of the proposed interventions for their own teaching context.

To begin, Kester, who is from the United States, teaches at a large comprehensive regional university with approximately 27,000 students. The university is ranked in the top quartile of Korean higher education institutions and is located in a metropolis of approximately 2.5 million people. The faculty and student body are predominantly composed of Koreans from the southern provinces, yet the university's internationalization policy has raised the number of international students and faculty in recent years to approximately 8% of the total university population. Students are mainly from middle-class backgrounds, although there is some degree of wealth disparity on campus. Additionally, in the particular degree program where Kester teaches, many of the students are first-generation, and nearly 80% are female. More importantly, in his wider university context, Kester is expected to instruct through English, in both undergraduate and postgraduate courses, although few students understand English adequately enough to master disciplinary knowledge within the language. This contextual challenge was in part the impetus for embarking on this project.

Sweeney, from Ireland, teaches at an "international college" that focuses on undergraduate and graduate teaching and research in the social sciences within a small, middle-ranked university in a mid-size Korean city. While the university's student body is primarily constituted of Koreans from the local area, the international college is overwhelmingly international, and all teaching is conducted in English. Many of the students are first-generation and originate from the Global South, the majority of whom are from China, Central Asia, and South Asia. There is a large wealth disparity in the student body, with some students flaunting status symbols like designer clothing and expensive cars, while many other students struggle to pay their tuition, even while working. Within the international college, approximately 5% of the student body is female, though whether this is due to deficiencies in student recruitment, access policies, or wider societal forms of gender discrimination is unclear. Local students and their parents have proven resistant to the idea of intermixing with international students, and nationalistic and religious tensions sometimes provoke discontentment. These tensions may partly arise, or at least manifest, from the disparity between the generally low level of English proficiency amongst the local students compared with an international student body with good fluency.

Chang, a Taiwanese PhD candidate at the University of Cambridge, conducts research on English-medium instruction (EMI) in East Asia and teaches related subjects to undergraduate students. She is a certified schoolteacher, and before attending Cambridge, she taught middle school for four years in Taiwan. In her research, she examines the growing phenomenon of EMI within the wider context of higher education internationalization, specifically through the lens of language policy and the sociology of knowledge. Her research highlights the impact of EMI on the higher education curriculum, pedagogy, and learning experiences of local and international students. She argues that EMI is not just a language issue, but also has significant epistemic and cultural implications. This has led her to examine EMI and education more widely through a decolonial lens.

Watkins, also from the United States, is an independent researcher who last taught at a large, but slowly shrinking, Korean private university in an area with a high density of higher education institutions. This university has focused heavily on recruiting international students as a stopgap for its decreasing numbers of native Korean students, resulting in a remarkably diverse student body. An international graduate school was created specifically for graduate students who speak English as a native, second, or foreign language with a high level of tested proficiency, and Watkins' teaching load was shared between the graduate school and the general education department's content courses in English for students who desire to study abroad in English and acclimatize themselves to "English-style" educational environments. The students participating in both of these programs are primarily male, and many are first-generation students from relatively low-income backgrounds. Many of them have high English test scores, but little practical or academic experience in using the language, and some of the non-Korean students have a much better practical knowledge of Korean, despite demonstrating high English-language test scores. That gap between a student's tested knowledge of English and their practical ability has proven to be a major challenge.

Finally, Cha, a Korean undergraduate student and research assistant with Kester, is completing her studies in education and English literature. She is a third-year student involved in international cooperation activities on campus, which includes living in a mixed Korean and international student dormitory with an English-language policy to encourage international exchange. Cha is interested in global affairs and educational development, and has also participated in various volunteer activities through the university to assist international students in adapting to life in Korea. She is especially fascinated by the intersections between language, culture, and international learning, as well as the challenges for policymakers and classroom educators.

Across these diverse national, race/ethnic, socioeconomic class, gendered and linguistic backgrounds between ourselves and the students, we all teach (and learn) the knowledge, values, and skills needed to support intercultural understanding, global cooperation, justice, and human dignity. Our goal is to engender creative counter-spaces for nurturing epistemic pluralism and decolonial practices in higher education environments (Shirazi, 2019; Sriprakash et al., 2019). Nonetheless, as noted above, a major hurdle that we all face to such endeavors is the inadequate linguistic preparation of students and our own limited pedagogical resources (Kedzierski, 2016; Pecorari & Malmstrom, 2018). Hence, it has become increasingly necessary for us to critically reflect on our teaching approaches in order to more fully work with diverse students through English, the most commonly shared academic lingua franca, in fluid second language contexts. Although we do not suggest that our experiences are necessarily representative of all higher education contexts in Korea, we trust that scholar-practitioners who find some of the approaches useful may reasonably transfer some of these methods back into their own context.

Literature Review

In this section we review the various articles in Korean and English that contribute to contemporary debates on higher education, intercultural understanding, and decolonization. In particular, the section draws on literature discussing decolonization from the related fields of higher education (Andreotti et al., 2015; Bali, 2014; Dulfano, 2017), multicultural and social justice education (Bang, 2018; Goodman et al., 2015), intercultural education (Gorski, 2008; Jung, 2018), citizenship education (Abdi et al., 2015; Lee, J. H., 2014), curriculum studies (Joo & Kim, 2017; Kim & Jung, 2019), indigenous education (Lopez & Grande, 2019), peace and human rights education (Kim, Y. C., 2011; Zembylas, 2017, 2018), and foreign language education (Macedo, 2019; Phipps, 2019). Integrating these disparate articles in Korean and English allows for a comprehensive review of concepts and practices across diverse linguistic and educational communities relevant to decolonial education (Anderson-Levitt, 2019; Torraco, 2016; Sumida Huaman, 2019).

In recent years, scholars have begun to talk of a "decolonial turn," that is, an increasing awareness and appreciation of the limitations of "traditional" knowledge claims in the Western university tradition. This has manifested itself both in challenges from within the academy as well as in movements of students hungry for a more comprehensive treatment of their fields ("Rhodes Must Fall," "Why is my Curriculum White?", and "Alternative Approaches to Economics," for example; see Peters, 2015). The concept itself is a foreign one to most Anglophone European academia, emerging as it does primarily from contexts in which the marginalization of indigenous epistemologies and ways of knowing (which Boaventura de Sousa Santos refers to as "epistemicide") is coupled with the deprivation of the civil and political rights of indigenous ethnic groups. It is not a coincidence that the intellectual centers of the decolonial turn are those with painful historical experiences of slavery: North and South America, Australasia, and Africa (Andreotti et al., 2015; Connell, 2007; Mbembe, 2016; Mignolo, 2007; de Sousa Santos, 2007; Tuhiwai-Smith, 2012; Yu, 2009). In essence, decolonial scholars view the epistemological tradition of the Western university, grounded in Renaissance and Enlightenment philosophies, as unhelpfully limiting when it comes to discussing and understanding the experience of non-Western peoples. Indeed, the parallel development of the modern university and the expansion of the world system of "new imperialism" in the late nineteenth century weaponized these epistemologies in the service of a narrative of Western civilizational and racial superiority, while marginalizing, attacking, and erasing the rich traditions and world-views of non-Western cultures in a process of epistemic violence, sometimes called "epistemicide" (de Sousa Santos, 2014; Mignolo, 2017).

The historical development of these epistemic inequalities is bound up in the expansion of European colonialism in the early-modern period (Conrad, 2016; Joo & Kim, 2017; Kim, B. Y., 2002). For decolonial scholars, modernity and coloniality are thus intimately bound and constitutive of each other (Mignolo, 2007; Quijano, 2000). In seeking to redress this epistemic violence, several fields in the humanities and social sciences have seen calls to "decolonize" their curricula and pedagogy, questioning the received wisdom of the established "classic" texts of the field and calling for a broader representation of scholars from different intellectual traditions around the world. At the same time, scholars are beginning to address the colonial origins of their fields, as artefacts of nineteenth-century European and North American universities were established with the goal of making knowledge claims that privileged the imperial world-system (Conrad, 2016; Joo & Kim, 2017; Lee, 2010; Stanek, 2019; Yu, 2009).

Moving from empire to classroom, another consideration is the status of English as a lingua franca. Tension is produced in the intercultural classroom by the status of English as a "colonial language" (Macedo, 2019; Min & Hong, 2015) or the "academic lingua franca" (Pennycook, 2017), which elevates claims to scientific knowledge while marginalizing scholarship produced in other languages. Given the resulting predominance of English, German, and French in scientific research and, in turn, course materials, it may be easy for one to assume that what is presented in these "foundational" languages encompasses all needed knowledge. However, Mignolo (2007) makes the point that each language contains unique concepts and modes of thought that cannot be presented, or even properly synthesized, in other languages. He states:

> ... there are many "beginnings" beyond Adam and Eve and Greek civilization and many other foundational languages beyond Greek and Latin. With and in each language comes different concepts of economy that of course Adam Smith was unable to think, and other political theories beyond Niccolo Machiavelli or Thomas Hobbes; and different conceptions of life which leads to philosophical practices that cannot be dependent from Greek canonical dictums in matters of thought. (p. 456)

Additionally, Mignolo and Tlostanova (2006) argue:

> "Modern" science, philosophy, and the social sciences are not grounded in Russian, Chinese and Arabic languages. That of course

> does not mean that there is no thinking going on or knowledge produced in Russian, Chinese and Arabic. It means, on the contrary, that in the global distribution of intellectual and scientific labour, knowledge produced in English, French or German does not need to take into account knowledge in Russian, Chinese and Arabic. (p. 214)

Hence, students and scholars must learn to question the limitations of the medium through which knowledge is produced and re-produced (Bernstein, 1990). Here, recognizing the need for a more inclusive academia and pedagogy that is not restricted to a few colonial languages at the foundations of its communications opens up interesting, yet labor-intensive possibilities. For example, Phipps (2019) argues for multilingual scholarship beyond the Western white academy, and she is emphatic that this must entail non-colonial languages. Furthermore, Torres (2017) claims that intercultural global citizenship education through multilingual perspectives is a necessity in order to build a concept of global responsibility that results in the furthering of cosmopolitan ethics, human rights, and global peace. This type of education reduces the effect of human drives towards dominance and reduces the perception that linguistic, cultural, economic or political dominance, i.e., colonized language education, is a necessary evil or even an acceptable pedagogy (Bang, 2018; Lee, J. H., 2014). This is, of course, easier said than done, as it requires "deep shifts in educator consciousness" (Gorski, 2008, p. 517), which can require generations to enact rather than simple changes in curriculum or programming. Gorski, for instance, argues that

> any framework for intercultural education that does not have as its central and overriding premise a commitment to the establishment and maintenance of an equitable and just world can be seen as a tool, however well-intentioned, of an educational colonization in which inequity and injustice are reproduced under the guise of interculturalism. (p. 517)

More radical scholars go further. They claim that knowledge (or rather what counts as knowledge) is inescapably linked to land and to the socio-historical control of that land. Here, Tuck and Yang (2012) argue that "decolonization is not a metaphor" (p. 1). They explain:

> Decolonization, which we assert is a distinct project from other civil and human rights-based social justice projects, is far too often subsumed into the directives of these projects, with no regard for how decolonization wants something different than those forms of justice. (p. 2)

Hence, for these scholars, decolonization is about calling out and disrupting land appropriation and settler colonialism. That is, decolonial education, in order to undo colonial logics, must go beyond a mere change of mindsets, and it must challenge the accompanying psychotherapeutic pedagogies that often emphasize deep shifts in consciousness without working to change the external social and political realities (Kester, 2018). Mackinlay and Barney (2014) concur. They critically reflect on their own authorship of decolonial research as non-indigenous scholars and question whether this places their work within the confines of whiteness, where whiteness is re-centered and sanitized. They write:

> ... it is time to address the growing unease we hold that what we are in fact doing as non-Indigenous educators, is nothing more or less than colonizing decolonizing discourse, which appeases and sustains the "possessive logic of White sovereignty" (after Moreton-Robinson, 2004a). (p. 58)

These are cutting critiques of the whitening (and enlightening) project of decolonial practices that scholars and practitioners should take seriously. For instance, many reading this journal are non-Korean scholars working within the Korean (or another second and foreign language) context. While this is not intrinsically problematic, it should cause serious pause for reflection. It is in part for this reason that the authors of this paper are intentionally diverse with a Korean coauthor, as well as other diverse representation. But this of course is not enough, as colonialism and prejudice are not inherently serologic. Critical race scholarship and decolonial thinking also signal the ways in which local scholars might reproduce colonialism (Joo & Kim, 2017; Kester, 2019; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995; Picower, 2009). Hence, there are competing and contested notions of what decolonizing education entails. While for some it is a matter of historical narrative, epistemological exclusion, language and social equity, for others, it concerns border-thinking, counter-storytelling, and territory reclaiming (Zavala, 2016).

METHODOLOGY

Many scholars note that survey methods are insufficient to generate the sorts of nuanced engagement and critical transformative agency that workshops, interviews, and focus groups may produce (Brown & Strega, 2005; Tuhiwai-Smith, 2012). Given the critical inquiry nature of this project and its emphasis on exchange, language, co-production, and educational intervention, we selected the professional workshop as a participatory methodology to generate decolonial responses to classroom issues concerning colonialism, diversity, and injustice. The aim was to develop a practical decolonial toolkit through a dialogic process to enhance the resources available to intercultural educators in Korea. Hence, the workshop as a participatory methodology was especially useful to support the type of collective brainstorming that this project was intended to support and to provide an example of decolonial work in action.

The method is similar to other participatory engagements, including problem-solving workshops (Fisher, 2004), action research (Reason & Bradbury, 2007), participatory action research (PAR) (Davis & Reid, 1999), and community-based participatory research (CBPR) (Mariella et al., 2009). Davis and Reid (1999) write of PAR that it seeks to "improve the quality of life of the people being studied by involving them in the research process and by using their knowledge in the search for relevant solutions to relevant problems" (p. 757). Hence, the participatory methodology was especially appropriate, given that the participants themselves are the intended end-users of this research.

In addition, the research methodology was advantageous for us to iteratively adapt the workshop process across the six workshops during the six months of data creation (Orngreen & Levinsen, 2017). Specifically, the toolkit was conceptualized and constructed from May 2019 to November 2019 with the participation of more than 100 educators in six different professional chapters of KOTESOL. Procedurally, our workshops began with a critical review of the literature presented by one of the lead researchers, followed by facilitated collective inquiry amongst the participants to re-imagine practical strategies for decolonizing higher education in Korea. In particular, the workshops focused on the sorts of onto-epistemic, curricular, pedagogic, methodological, institutional, and scholarly strategies that educators could share amongst each other to address decoloniality in and through higher education.

The timeline for the workshops was as follows: Daegu-Gyeongbuk KOTESOL Chapter (May 2019), Gwangju-Jeonnam KOTESOL Chapter (June 2019), Gangwon KOTESOL Chapter (July 2019), Yongin-Gyeonggi KOTESOL Chapter (September 2019), KOTESOL International Conference (October 2019), and Daejeon-Chungcheong KOTESOL Chapter (November 2019). From the workshops, we then developed six different areas of activity for the toolkit, and the writing of the final paper commenced from December 2019 through February 2020. Before being sent for publication, the toolkit was shared with a sample of KOTESOL members (who were in the workshops) to elicit final suggestions. We describe the culminating toolkit in the next section.

A Decolonial Toolkit

Through examining the literature and discussing practical strategies with participants in the workshops, we identified six areas for university academics (and other practitioners) to address coloniality and diversity in the international and intercultural classroom. These six areas include (a) onto-epistemic changes, (b) curricular possibilities, (c) pedagogic responses, (d) methodological tweaks, (e) institutional policies, and (f) scholarly practices.

Onto-epistemic Changes

The starting point for the toolkit is an onto-epistemological shift that lays the foundation for the other interventions to follow. Gorski (2008) writes, “The first step toward authentic inter-cultural practice is undertaking shifts in consciousness that acknowledge sociopolitical context, raise questions regarding control and power, and inform, rather than deferring to, shifts in practice” (p. 522). This includes integrating different ways of knowing and being into practices that transcend traditional Eurocentric or Korean ethnocentric viewpoints (Hickling-Hudson & Ahlquist, 2003). Beginning with onto-epistemic shifts means lecturers training themselves through continual professional reflexivity toward seeing what they have been trained not to see: race, ethnicity, nationality, gender, sexuality, class, religion, etc. (McIntosh, 1992; Peters, 2015).

Most importantly, we emphasize the ontological aspect of this work, that is, the right not only to think differently but to actually be/act differently (Andreotti et al., 2015). It is not enough to claim to allow difference in theory, but it must be possible to practice difference in reality. In other words, focusing on the inclusion of diverse voices through, for example, calling on international students in class or reading global texts without challenging epistemological dominance would be counterproductive and insufficient, as much as allowing epistemological diversity but not ontological diversity would also be inadequate. Toward these differences, Gorski (2008) continues:

> Culture and identity differences may affect personal interactions, but more importantly, they affect one's access to power. The powerful exploit differences from the hegemonic norm to justify dominance and oppression. I especially must avoid the sorts of cultural awareness activities that other or essentialize non-dominant groups or that, absent a commitment to social justice, require dominated groups to make themselves ever more vulnerable for the educational benefit of the privileged. (p. 522)

Hence, the objective of the onto-epistemic shift is to see decolonial education as systemic critique rather than (or in addition to) an empathy-building exercise that seeks to foster intercultural appreciation. This position argues for the pluralism of ontological and epistemological possibilities as well as the entanglements between the ontological and epistemological (i.e., onto-epistemic[3], questioning the presumed goodness or superiority of any one over another).

This is necessarily a political project, which we return to in the conclusion. From this critique new and different possibilities must emerge that allow diverse renderings in the classroom beyond Western/Northern worldviews and ways of life. In this regard, participants in the workshop at the KOTESOL International Conference argued for intersectional analysis and globally diverse perspectives, which moves us now to curricular possibilities.

Curricular Possibilities

Among the curricular possibilities, we suggest that educators look at the reading lists included within syllabi, especially for core theory courses, and check that the readings are not all (or mostly) white (or Korean) men as well as ensure that theoretical perspectives are included from outside the European (or nationalist) tradition (Phipps, 2019). A starting point in Korea would be ensuring that diverse Korean thinkers and scholars are included within the readings and discussions. Within the field of education, for example, this could include the decolonial work of Kim Young-Chun or the Korean-based scholarship published in such domestic educational journals such as the *KEDI Journal of Educational Policy*, *Korean Journal of Comparative Education*, *Asia Pacific Education Review, or The Korea TESOL Journal.* Of course, it should not stop here. Expanding more widely beyond Western (or Korean) perspectives to include other scholars from the Global South is necessary. Raewyn Connell (2007) illustrates well in her book, *Southern Theory*, the sorts of transformative insights thinking that Southern theory provides for teachers and students. We will return to this again in the section on scholarly possibilities.

Additionally, we encourage educators to examine the non-Occidentalist West, that is, explore with students how European, North American, and Korean histories and geographies are entangled with Indigenous, Eastern, and Southern contributions, that is, how migrant communities from the East and South have influenced what is assumed to be Western culture today (de Sousa Santos, 2009; Phipps, 2019). Finally, bring in diverse speakers from the Global South and Global East as guest lecturers for courses. For instance, some participants in the Gangwon workshop shared examples of how their colleagues in South Africa have re-worked their courses and syllabi to include multiple perspectives via diverse coursework and invited speakers (see also Kurian & Kester, 2019). In each of these ways, the voices included in courses become heterogeneous and begin to undo taken-for-granted educational norms.

Pedagogic Responses

Decolonial pedagogies challenge modern forms of colonialism within the teaching by expressly confronting coloniality (Bali, 2014; Zembylas, 2017, 2018). This involves inquiring into why what counts as knowledge counts and pointing out that indigenous knowledges and local practices of teaching and learning are not often used within higher education classrooms (Battiste, 2013). As such, strategies for teaching diverse issues could be adopted, including promoting open dialogue and active listening, as well as encouraging students to express multiple viewpoints through translingual practices (Canagarajah, 2012, 2018). These strategies would also include assigning substantial issues for discussion that may be perceived as controversial, such as power, privilege, cultural exclusion, and inequality. Here, Freire's (1970) dialogic and problem-posing education is helpful for fostering critical classroom discussions. This strategy was raised by participants in the Daegu workshop and re-emphasized at the Gwangju gathering. The employment of such approaches will challenge students and lecturers to engage differences and question social, political, and economic assumptions. Tuhiwai-Smith (2012), for example, promotes counter-storytelling and reclaiming as some decolonial methods for teaching and learning. In her book, *Decolonizing Methodologies*, she offers 25 such methods, which also include testimonies, intervening, gendering, reframing, democratizing, and sharing.

Furthermore, in classroom teaching, lecturers could ensure that student learning groups are diverse, promote cooperation, responsibility, and creative problem-solving (Johnson & Johnson, 2006), and use visual narratives and metaphors to support indigenous ways of thinking (Andreotti et al., 2015). Other scholars suggest that lecturers engage students in and with local communities through service learning and experiential activities, as well as the use of transrational pedagogies to engage diverse faculties, for example, drama, theater, meditation, the arts, storytelling, and nature walks (Kester, Archer, & Bryant, 2019). An important distinction to remember is that dialogue is not inherently superior to any other learning modality, and it may indeed exclude certain students who are quieter and more uncomfortable with logocentric methods from learning (Bali, 2014; Ellsworth, 1989). Hence, the use of multiple pedagogies that engage different learning preferences is critical to support onto-epistemic diversity. In the next section, we explore the ways in which educators as researchers might enhance their research methods.

Methodological Tweaks

Mignolo (2007) contends that what is necessary from a methodological perspective is to alter the terms of the conversation, which allows for a discussion of non-Western epistemologies to emerge. Rather than taking the stopgap measure of simply changing the content of research and teaching (which pays lip service to decoloniality while preserving the underlying inequalities it seeks to challenge), the emphasis should be on critically questioning who has the right to re-produce knowledge and what function this knowledge production serves in sustaining inequalities in the world. This methodological tweak requires empathy, humility, intellectual curiosity, and an appreciation of affect to create an environment where decolonial learning can take place. The concept of positionality (Zamudio et al., 2009) is a crucial starting point. It is necessary for researchers to examine their own relationship to global power relations, their epistemic position, and the standpoint from which they address their research questions.

Concurrently, there may also be a sense of contradiction experienced by some scholars in working to decolonize curricula. On the one hand, there is a clear understanding of the necessity of interculturality for producing broader and more equitable learning. However, on the other hand, there is a resistance to being prescriptive: "Whether it is possible to have respect for the many faces of humanity while concomitantly expecting everyone to become intercultural in a particular prescribed way" (Aman, 2019, p. 4). A response to this contradiction is to be found in our discussion of "recontextualization" in the concluding section.

One of the more concrete ways in which methodologies can be turned towards decolonial practice is by exploring an expanded selection of sources and data, for example, by challenging the obsession with quantification, which serves to essentialize its subject and minimize the importance of the uncountable. For instance, researchers and educators could focus here on the contextualization of knowledge and practice, thereby offering personal and local counter-stories that compliment or challenge the more popular nomothetic approaches. In other words, a sensitivity to place is necessary: Researchers need to connect to and explore local contexts, practices, and methodologies. This approach was raised by participants in Gwangju. There is also scope here for researchers to work with colleagues from the Global South and to conduct research across languages, cultures, and contexts, employing decolonial and transnational/transcultural methodologies (see, for example, Tuhiwai-Smith, 2012; Zembylas, 2017).

In the Korean context, there are other particular challenges to be addressed. As a society that still frequently regards itself as monocultural (Kim & Chun, 2015), a decolonial challenge issues not from the marginalization of an indigenous group but from the invisibility of a variety of migrant communities, genders, and exploited socioeconomic classes in Korean society. A potential solution presents itself here in the foregrounding of student experiences in the international and intercultural classroom, as well as increasing discussions not only of the migrant, gender, and class experience within Korea but also the experiences of Koreans abroad who are often excluded from the national narrative.

Institutional Policies

Education is often articulated through a framework of socioeconomic mobility where achievement is emphasized (Lopez & Grande, 2019). Exacerbated by forces of meritocracy and neoliberalism, institutions nowadays are further driven by desires to feel good, look good, and be acknowledged as doing good, overlooking how such desires may accentuate rather than undermine the violences of modernity (Andreotti et al., 2015). While there have been efforts to challenge existing power structures, scholars have questioned the extent, and even possibility, of pushing for change, especially at times when public support for higher education is declining and when academic dissent is increasingly repressed.

To systematically expand imaginaries of decolonizing education, Andreotti et al. (2015) mapped out three spaces of enunciation in response to modernity's violence: The soft-reform space, the radical-reform space, and the beyond reform space, all of which provide insights into decolonization practices for the higher education institution. Problems in the soft-reform space are primarily addressed through personal or programmatic transformations. For example, institutions may choose to equip minority students with skills and cultural capital through the provision of additional resources. In the radical-reform space, diversity is emphasized by dealing with issues of equity, access, and voice. Specifically, the inclusion of previously excluded knowledge may be built within the curriculum (e.g., adding the field of Native American and Indigenous Studies), or through non-curricular activities such as demanding institutions to divest their endowments from nuclear weapon producers or fossil fuel companies, apologize for their participation in slavery or genocide, and question the land upon which their own institutions are built (Lopez & Grande, 2019). Institutions should also strive to ensure that marginalized communities are hired on permanent positions instead of precariously created contracts. And finally, moving beyond current structures of reform, more fundamental changes through subversive uses of space and resources may prompt scholars to consider ontological alternatives to what higher education could be. This process would require post-abyssal thinking (de Sousa Santos, 2007), border thinking (Mignolo, 2000), or learning to unlearn (Tlostanova & Mignolo, 2012).

As pointed out by educators at the Yongin workshop, it is important to discuss in the Korean context that research and education have been significantly influenced by Japan, the US, and more broadly, Western theories (Jung, 2018; Kester et al., 2019; Kim, 2005). While an increasing number of scholars have attempted to disrupt this normalization and overrepresentation (Joo & Kim, 2017; Kim B.-Y., 2002), many efforts to “decolonize” have been narrowly confined to a process of Koreanization, falling into the colonizer–colonized dualism. At this stage, it may be helpful for institutions to rethink what exactly has been and should be decolonized as well as why and for whom. Echoing Gorski’s (2008) notion of introducing deep shifts of consciousness, it is timely that institutions make decolonization a responsibility through research, teaching, and asking hard questions.

Scholarly Practices

For scholarly practices, we suggest beginning, as we expressed in the section on curricular possibilities, by theorizing with Southern and Eastern theories. These could include, for example, the scholarship of Ali Shariati from Iran, Anibal Quijano from Peru, Boaventura de Sousa Santo from Portugal, Gustavo Esteva from Mexico, Julius Nyerere from Tanzania, Kim Young Chun from Korea, Kuan-Hsing Chen from Taiwan, the Maori scholar Linda Tuhiwai-Smith from New Zealand, the First Nations scholar Marie Battiste from Canada, Raewyn Connell from Australia, Thich Nhat Hanh from Vietnam, Vandana Shiva from India, or Walter Mignolo from Argentina, among many others (see Connell, 2007; Yu, 2009). By theorizing from a Southern or Eastern perspective, new findings emerge that are not possible from more traditional routes of European or North American theorizing. In other words, we question, “What new findings might be produced if scholars theorize through the work of Shariati, Kim, and Chen instead of Bourdieu, Deleuze, and Foucault?”

Next, we recommend publishing locally and in regional languages as well as open access where possible. This expands the audience and makes the work available to communities often excluded from access to such research. This was discussed in the Daejeon workshop. It is, of course, crucial here to still identify quality local journals; the research must be produced with sound method and rigor. Furthermore, to reach a broader audience, other non-scholarly publishing approaches could include sharing knowledge with local communities through popular venues like newspaper editorials, workshops, and blogs. In addition, whether publishing in local or international venues, or academic or popular media, a few participants in the Gwangju workshop raised their concerns that research should be “descholarized,” that is, scholars should avoid the use of excessive academic jargon and inaccessible language. In conclusion, the decolonial strategies introduced throughout this section are small, but useful, adjustments for combatting colonialism and injustice in research and teaching. Finally, we should note that we have not attempted to be exhaustive throughout the presentation of this toolkit.

Summary Conclusion and Emergent Possibilities

This paper has provided an overview of the diverse literature on decolonizing higher education, and in turn, offered a decolonial toolkit for international and intercultural educators in Korea interested in practical strategies to address coloniality and justice in classrooms. The paper has contributed to the applied and conceptual literature on higher education in Korea, internationalization in diverse higher education contexts, alternative methodologies, and intercultural second and foreign language education. We have argued that the six practical strategies presented herein are pragmatic approaches that when accompanied by deep philosophical shifts in practice could provide the foundations for modest but radical changes toward a more just intercultural higher education. We invite more educators from the KOTESOL community and beyond to continue opening up decolonial spaces in their teaching and research, and also through different languages and mediums.

From the review of literature and the development of the toolkit, we have additionally been reminded of two emergent possibilities in education that we posit could further the cause of decolonizing higher education more broadly. These include, as we have been arguing throughout the paper, a core focus on the recontextualization of learning (Kester et al., 2019). Recontextualization involves the localization of learning and research within the context where it is taking place. Moreover, there is a need for the repolitization of education or a return to embracing the political nature of knowledge and instruction (Freire, 1970). Recontextualization, hence, would involve the localization of learning within its context, and repolitization would mean putting power back into the hands of classroom educators and students to choose what and how they learn. In other words, we contend that the project toward practical decolonization of higher education in Korea would be enhanced significantly by efforts toward recontextualizing and repoliticizing international and intercultural education. Finally, we conclude with a renewed commitment to this endeavor as we were inspired (and challenged) by the many educators in Korea that we met during this project, all of whom are working in their own significant ways to further the cause of intercultural understanding and justice on the peninsula.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We wish to thank all of the participants from the workshops who provided valuable insights toward developing this decolonial toolkit, with special appreciation to David Shaffer, Miky Urbanski-Lee, Luis Caballero, Michael Free, Bryan Hale, James Rush, Kimberley Roberts, Mike Peacock, and Andrew Griffiths for their support in hosting us at the regional chapters. We also wish to thank the KOTESOL leadership for awarding us a 2019 Korea TESOL Research Grant to help support the costs of this research. Additional funding was provided by Keimyung University's 2019 Usu Research Grant. Finally, we wish to thank the Korean Comparative Education Society for the invitation to present the concept note for this project at their 50th anniversary symposium in Seoul in November 2018. Together, the funding and hospitality of these organizations have made this project possible.

THE AUTHORS

Kevin Kester is Assistant Professor of International Education and Global Affairs cross-appointed to the Department of Education, Graduate School of Education, and School of Global Affairs at Keimyung University in Daegu. He holds a PhD from the University of Cambridge and has been working in higher education since 2007. His most recent book is *The United Nations and Higher Education: Peacebuilding, Social Justice, and Global Cooperation for the 21st Century*. Email: kkester@kmu.ac.kr

Loughlin Sweeney is Assistant Professor of History and International Studies at the John Endicott College of International Studies, Woosong University, Daejeon, and a visiting scholar at the University of Edinburgh. He is a scholar of colonial and imperial history, nationality, violence, and migration, and is particularly interested in teaching colonialism through decolonial methods in the transnational classroom. He holds a PhD from the University of Cambridge. His most recent book is *Irish Military Elites, Nation and Empire 1870-1925*. Email: lsweeney @endicott.ac.kr

Sin-Yi Chang is a PhD candidate at the Faculty of Education, University of Cambridge. She was formerly an English school teacher in Taiwan. Her current research interests include English medium instruction, bilingual education, language policy, communication strategies, and other topics related to the global spread of English. Her recent research articles have been published in *System* and *English Teaching and Learning*. Email: syc39@cam.ac.uk

Mel Watkins is an independent researcher who has worked in English language and social justice education in Korea since 2013. After studying at the University of Manchester, she moved to Korea to observe its shift towards multiculturalism firsthand. She currently provides educational and professional workshops on how to navigate race, class, difference, and diversity in non-Western educational contexts for educational institutions and workplaces. Email: mel.watkins @gmail.com

Jeongmin Cha is currently completing her undergraduate degree in education in the Department of Education at Keimyung University. She was born and raised in Daegu and has an interest in the intersections between culture, language, and development. She actively participates in programs that allow her to interact with international students and faculty on campus, and she volunteers at a community childcare center in Daegu where she coaches young children in difficult circumstances. She hopes to pursue a master's degree in education, culture, and development. Email: cjm9460@gmail.com

References

Abdi, A., Shultz, L., & Pillay, T. (Eds.). (2015). *Decolonizing global citizenship education*. Sense.

Aman, R. (2019). *Decolonizing intercultural education*. Routledge.

Anderson-Levitt, K. (2019). Comparative Education Review guide to searching for world literature 2019. *Comparative Education Review*, *63*(4), 633–640.

Andreotti, V., Stein, S., Ahenakew, C., & Hunt, D. (2015). Mapping interpretations of decolonization in the context of higher education. *Decolonization: Indigeneity*, *Education*, *and Society*, *4*(1), 21–40.

Bali, M. (2014). Why doesn't this feel empowering? The challenges of web-based intercultural dialogue. *Teaching in Higher Education*, *19*(2), 208–215.

Bang, E.-S. (2018). A study on the analysis of multicultural assimilation in elementary Korean textbooks. *Literature Education*, *59*, 167–196.

Battiste, M. A. (2013). *Decolonizing education: Nourishing the learning spirit*. Purich.

Banks, J. A. (1999). *An introduction to multicultural education* (2nd ed.). Allyn & Bacon.

Barad, K. (2007). *Meeting the universe halfway.* Duke University Press.

Bennett, J. M., &. Bennett., M. J. (2004). Developing intercultural sensitivity: An integrative approach to global and domestic diversity. In D. Landis, J. M. Bennett, & M. J. Bennett (Eds.), *Handbook of intercultural training* (3rd ed.; pp. 147–165). SAGE.

Bernstein, B. (1990). *Class*, *codes*, *and control: Vol. 4. The structuring of pedagogic discourse*. Routledge.

Brown, L., & Strega, S. (2005). *Research as resistance*. Canadian Scholars' Press.

Canagarajah, S. (2012). Translanguaging in the classroom: Emerging issues for research and pedagogy. *Applied Linguistics Review*, *2*, 1–28.

Canagarajah, S. (2018). Translingual practice as spatial repertoires: Expanding the paradigm beyond structuralist orientations. *Applied Linguistics*, *39*(1), 31–54.

Chatelain, M. (2018). We must help first-generation students master academe's "Hidden Curriculum." *The Chronicle of Higher Education.* https://www.chronicle.com/article/We-Must-Help-First-Generation/244830

Connell, R. W. (2007). *Southern theory: The global dynamics of knowledge in social science*. Allen & Unwin.

Conrad, S. (2016). *What is global history?* Princeton University Press.

Davis, S. M., & Reid, R. (1999). Practicing participatory research in American Indian communities. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, *69*(4), 755S–759S.

De Sousa Santos, B. (2007). *Another world is possible: Beyond Northern epistemologies*. Verso.

De Sousa Santos, B. (2014). *Epistemologies of the South: Justice against* *epistemicide*. Paradigm.

Dulfano, I. (2017). Knowing the other/other ways of knowing: Indigenous feminism, testimonial, and anti-globalization street discourse. *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education*, *16*(1), 82–96.

Ellsworth, E. (1989). Why doesn't this feel empowering? Working through the repressive myths of critical pedagogy. *Harvard Educational Review*, *59*(3), 297–324.

Fisher, R. (2004). The problem-solving workshop as a method of research. *International Negotiation*, *9*, 385–395.

Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. Continuum.

Goodman, R. D., Williams, J. M., Chung, R., Talleyrand, R. M., Douglass, A. M., McMahon, H. G. & Bemak, F. (2015). Decolonizing traditional pedagogies and practices in counseling and psychology education: A move towards social justice and action. In R. D. Goodman & P. C. Gorski (Eds.), *International and cultural psychology: Decolonizing "multicultural" counseling through social justice* (pp. 147–164). Springer.

Gorski, P. C. (2008). Good intentions are not enough: A decolonizing intercultural education. *Intercultural Education*, *19*(6), 515–525.

Grant, C. A., & Sleeter, C. (2011). *Doing multicultural education for achievement and equity* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Green, R. (2017). Strategies that promote English as an intercultural language (EIcL) in the Korean university EFL classroom. *Korea TESOL Journal*, *13*(1), 65–95.

Hickling-Hudson, A., & Ahlquist, R. (2003). Contesting the curriculum in the schooling of indigenous children in Australia and the USA: From Eurocentrism to culturally powerful pedagogies. *Comparative Education Review*, *47*(1), 64–89.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (2006). Peace education for consensual peace: The essential role of conflict resolution. *Journal of Peace Education*, *3*(2), 147–174.

Joo, J. H., & Kim, Y. C. (2017). Key themes in post-colonial curriculum studies. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *35*(4), 231–257.

Jung, J.-H. (2018). Decolonizing educational/curriculum studies in East Asia: Problematizing shadow education in South Korea. *Inter-Asia Cultural Studies*, *19*(2), 269–281.

Kedzierski, M. (2016). English as a medium of instruction in East Asia's higher education sector: A critical realist cultural political economy analysis of underlying logics. *Comparative Education*, *52*(3), 375–391.

Kester, K. (2018). Coproducing peace: Beyond psychologized approaches – Toward a transrational onto-epistemology and dialogic learning community as the foundations of peace education. *In Factis Pax: Journal of Social Justice and Peace Education*, *12*(1), 1–24.

Kester, K. (2019). Reproducing peace? A CRT analysis of whiteness in the curriculum and teaching at a university of the UN. *Teaching in Higher Education*, *24*(2), 212–230.

Kester, K., Zembylas, M., Sweeney, L., Lee, K. H., Kwon S., & Kwon, J. (2019). Reflections on decolonizing peace education in Korea: A critique and some decolonial pedagogic strategies. *Teaching in Higher Education*. https://doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2019.1644618

Kester, K., Archer, T., & Bryant, S. (2019). Diffraction, transrational perspectives, and peace education: New possibilities. *Journal of Peace Education*, *16*(3), 274–295.

Kim, B.-Y. (2002). Korean education viewed from a post-colonial perspective. *Humanities Research*, *5*, 149–176.

Kim, J. H., & Chun, Y. J. (2015). Ethnocentrism as a barrier to intercultural interaction. *Korean Journal of Comparative Education*, *25*(5), 201–229.

Kim, T. (2005). Internationalisation of higher education in South Korea: Reality, rhetoric, and disparity in academic culture and identities. *Australian Journal of Education*, *49*(1), 89–103.

Kim, Y. C. (2011). A study on the improvement of peace education in democratic citizenship education in the age of globalization. *Journal of Education*, *31*, 35–46.

Kim, Y. C., & Jung, J. H. (2019). *Shadow education as worldwide curriculum studies*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Koh, M., & Kim, M. (2019, August 30). *No. of international students rises to all-time high in South Korea*. Pulse. https://pulsenews.co.kr/view.php?year=2019&no=680611

Korean Educational Statistics Service. (2019). *Brief statistics on Korean education.* https://kess.kedi.re.kr/eng/publ/publFile/pdfjs?survSeq=2019&menuSeq=3895&publSeq=4&menuCd=80287&itemCode=02&menuId=3_8&language=en

Kurian, N., & Kester, K. (2019). Southern voices in peace education: Interrogating race, marginalisation, and cultural violence in the field. *Journal of Peace Education*, *16*(1), 21–48.

Ladson-Billings, G., & Tate, W. (1995). Toward a critical race theory of education. *Teachers College Record*, *97*(1), 47–68.

Lee, J.-H. (2014). *Critical examination of cosmopolitanism and a research on ways forward for ethics education* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Seoul National University.

Lee, S.-K. (2010). Is a postcolonial strategy of reading/writing with foreign theory possible? Reflections from Bourdieu. *Communication Theories*, *6*(2), 118–155.

Lopez, F. B., & Grande, S. (2019). Notes from the field: Decolonizing in unexpected places. *International Journal of Human Rights Education*, *3*(1), 2–19.

Macedo, D. (Ed.). (2019). *Decolonizing foreign language education: The misteaching of English and other colonial languages*. Routledge.

Mackinlay, E., & Barney, K. (2014). Unknown and unknowing possibilities:

Transformative learning, social justice, and decolonizing pedagogy in indigenous Australian studies. *Journal of Transformative Education*, *12*(1), 54–73.

Mariella, P., Brown, E., Carter, M., & Verri, V. (2009). Tribally-driven participatory research: State of the practice and potential strategies for the future. *Journal of Health Disparities Research and Practice*, *3*(2), 41–58.

Mbembe, A. J. (2016). Decolonizing the university: New directions. *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education*, *15*(1), 29–45.

McIntosh, P. (1992). White privilege and male privilege: A personal account of coming to see correspondences through work in women's studies. In M. Andersen & P. H. Collins (Eds.), *Race*, *class*, *and gender: An anthology* (pp. 76–87). Wadsworth.

Mignolo, W. (2000). The many faces of cosmo-polis: Border thinking and critical cosmopolitanism. *Popular Culture*, *12*(3), 721–748.

Mignolo, W. (2007). Delinking: The rhetoric of modernity, the logic of coloniality, and the grammar of decoloniality. *Cultural Studies*, *21*(2), 449–514.

Mignolo, W., & Tlostanova, M. (2006). Theorizing from the borders: Shifting to geo- and body-politics of knowledge. *European Journal of Social Theory*, *9*(2), 205–221.

Min, S. G., & Hong, Y. K. (2015). An autoethnography on the teaching experience of an English language specialist concerning colonialism. *Journal of Curriculum Integration*, *9*(2), 93–123.

Oberlechner, M. (2018). The institutionalization of inclusive migration pedagogy as an academic discipline in the context of Austrian teacher training. *International Dialogues on Education: Past and Present*, *5*(1), 8–26.

Orngreen, R., & Levinsen, K. (2017). Workshops as a research methodology. *Electronic Journal of e-Learning*, *15*(1), 70–81.

Pecorari, D., & Malmstrom, H. (2018). At the crossroads of TESOL and English medium instruction. *TESOL Quarterly*, *52*(3), 497–515.

Pennycook, A. (2017). *The cultural politics of English as an international language.* Routledge.

Peters, M. (2015). Why is my curriculum white? *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, *47*(7), 641–646.

Phipps, A. (2019). *Decolonizing multilingualism: Struggles to decreate.* Channel View.

Picower, B. (2009). The unexamined whiteness of teaching: How white teachers maintain and enact dominant racial ideologies. *Race*, *Ethnicity*, *and Education*, *12*(2), 197–215.

Quijano, A. (2000). Coloniality of power and Eurocentrism in Latin America. *International Sociology*, *15*(2), 215–232.

Reason, P., & Bradbury, H. (2007). Handbook of action research. SAGE.

Shirazi, R. (2019). "Somewhere we can breathe": Diasporic counterspaces of education as sites of epistemological possibility. *Comparative Education Review*, *63*(4), 480–501.

Sriprakash, A., Tikly, L., & Walker, S. (2019). The erasures of racism in education and international development: Re-reading the "Global Learning Crisis." *Compare: Journal of Comparative and International Education*. https://doi.org/10.1080/03057925.2018.1559040

Stanek, M. B. (2019). Decolonial education and geography: Beyond the 2017 Royal Geographical Society with the Institute of British Geographers Annual Conference. *Geography Compass*, *13*(12), 1–13.

Sumida Huaman, E. (2019). Comparative indigenous education research (CIER): Indigenous epistemologies and comparative education methodologies. *International Review of Education*, *65*(1), 163–184.

Teichler, U. (2017). Internationalisation trends in higher education and the changing role of international student mobility. *Journal of International Mobility*, *5*, 177–216.

Tlostanova, M., & Mignolo, W. (2012). *Learning to unlearn: Decolonial reflections from Eurasia and the Americas*. Ohio State University Press.

Torraco, R. (2016). Writing integrative literature reviews: Using the past and present to explore the future. *Human Resources Development Review*, *15*(4), 404–428.

Torres, C. (2017). Education for global citizenship. *Oxford research encyclopedia of education*. https://oxfordre.com/education/view/10.1093/acrefore/9780190264093.001.0001/acrefore-9780190264093-e-91

Tuck, E., & Yang, K. W. (2012). Decolonisation is not a metaphor. *Decolonisation: Indigeneity, Education and Society*, *1*(1), 1–40.

Tuhiwai-Smith, L. (2012). *Decolonizing methodologies: Research and indigenous peoples*. Zed.

Yu, H.-J. (2009). *Third world literature and its educational value* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Kyunghee University.

Zamudio, M., Bridgeman, J., Russell, C., & Rios, F. (2009). Developing a critical consciousness: Positionality, pedagogy, and problems. *Race, Ethnicity, and Education*, *12*(4), 455–472.

Zavala, M. (2016). Decolonial methodologies in education. In M. A. Peters (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of educational philosophy and theory* (pp. 1–6). Springer.

Zembylas, M. (2017). Re-contextualising human rights education: Some decolonial strategies and pedagogical/curricular possibilities. *Pedagogy, Culture, and Society*, *25*(4), 487–499.

Zembylas, M. (2018). Con-/divergences between postcolonial and critical peace education: Towards pedagogies of decolonization in peace education. *Journal of Peace Education*, *15*(1), 1–23.

FOOTNOTES

[1] For the purposes of this paper we conceptualize international educators to be those university faculty who have "crossed borders" into Korea to teach. For the most part, the international educators do not hold Korean citizenship. We also conceptualize intercultural educators to be those university educators who may (or may not) have Korean citizenship and who also teach students from overseas. An educator may, of course, be both at the same time. Hence, our definition of "international educator" focuses on the academic, and "intercultural educator" focuses on the type of students who are taught. For more on these definitions and debates, see Teichler (2017).

[2] We understand decolonial education to be teaching and learning approaches and strategies aimed toward addressing and disrupting exclusionary policies/practices in universities. In particular, decolonial education aims to confront and alleviate epistemic and material injustices in higher education and, in turn, promote epistemic and curricular justice (Connell, 2007; Mignolo, 2007).

[3] We write onto-epistemic, instead of ontology and/or epistemology, to indicate the entanglements between person, place, physical matter, and perspective (Barad, 2007).

A Critical Comparative Analysis of Post-global English Language Education: The Cases of Korea and Japan

Christopher Samuell
Hannan University, Matsubara, Japan
Mike Smith
Kwansei Gakuin University, Nashinomiya, Japan

In Northeast Asia, as in many other regions, local administrations have interpreted English language acquisition as central to enhancing national competitiveness within the currently dominant neoliberal-financial paradigm. Against this background, this comparative analysis critically reviews the structural and ideological processes by which global English impacts the Japanese and Korean educational domains, employing the linguistic imperialism framework (Phillipson, 1992) as its principal theoretical lens. In doing so, this inquiry aims to respond to local calls (see Kubota, 1998) for comprehension of the sociocultural impact of global English within economically developed, neo-colonial contexts. As a comparative study, this report focuses on neighboring settings in an effort to draw attention to the friction between the obligation to learn English for local empowerment and the underlying inequities that are strengthened by ELT locally. Through close examination of the conditions presented by Japanese and Korean academics, it is determined that the sustained transmission of globalization discourse has been a primary impetus in communicating, from the state level to the public, the symbolic worth of ELL. The pluralistic representation of internationalization and Englishization acts not only as a mechanism for countering global tensions but as a tool for élite privilege fortification, sustaining circular socioeconomic inequity based on linguistic competence, thereby depriving learners of authentic agency when "electing" to participate in ELL.

Keywords: comparative analysis, sociolinguistics, World Englishes, social reproduction

INTRODUCTION

The agency supporting the supranational positionality of the English language has long provoked a complex, often heated dialogue within the field of sociolinguistics. An increasing number of scholars (e.g., Holbrow, 1992; Phillipson, 1992; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000), interpret global English as a vehicle for the deliberate propagation of structural and social inequalities, representing a complot form of cultural hegemony that serves to strengthen the underlying conditions that maintain asymmetrical power relations on both the local and international levels. Conversely, academics such as Davies (1996) and Crystal (2012) maintain the position that the language has, in a contemporary context, "play[ed] a central role in empowering the subjugated and marginalized, and eroding the division between the 'haves' and the 'have-nots'" (Crystal, 2012, p. 28). However, even such moderate accounts recognize English language dissemination as entwined with historical colonial exploitation and as being replicated globally as a partial result of local policy enactments reactionary to the external pressures of globalization.

In reaction to this process, Phillipson composed his controversial, yet undoubtedly influential *Linguistic Imperialism* (1992), which details the alleged mechanisms by which English language teaching (ELT) distorts ideological discourses within the sphere of globalized educational practice − to the advantage of English and the disadvantage of broader language ecologies (Phillipson, 2008a). Specifically, global English is framed as a key mechanism of social reproduction, interlocking with political, educational, and financial systems and structures that strengthen the "hegemonic paradigms and monolingual control that consolidate Anglophonic power in the information society and the knowledge economy" (Phillipson, 2011, p. 442). From this perspective, the sustained dominance of English acts as a point of ingress for the interests of local and foreign élites, facilitating a transnational structure of exploitation and cultural marginalization constituting a "new form of empire that consolidates a single imperial language" (Phillipson, 2010, p. 487). Linguistic imperialism may thus be interpreted as "the dominance of English asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages" (Phillipson, 1992, p. 47).

Whilst linguistic imperialism's frame of analysis focuses on post-colonial settings within the Global South − notably detailing the impact of English on cultures native to the African and South Asian locales − it is also applied increasingly to neo-colonial contexts in which English is commonly framed as “the language of modernity, technological progress, and national unity” (Phillipson, 2010, p. 487), and participation in the global knowledge economy. Nevertheless, it is undeniable that accounts proposing the micro-level presence of linguistic imperialism have cast their attention predominantly towards economically disadvantaged settings, arguing that the dissemination of English has strengthened enduring structural inequalities established during the Age of Imperialism. Subsequently, academics from affluent nations in which English is consumed as a second or foreign language (ESL and EFL, respectively) have suggested that reports describing the ideological structuring of ELT within those contexts lack an adequate body of research (Kubota, 1998).

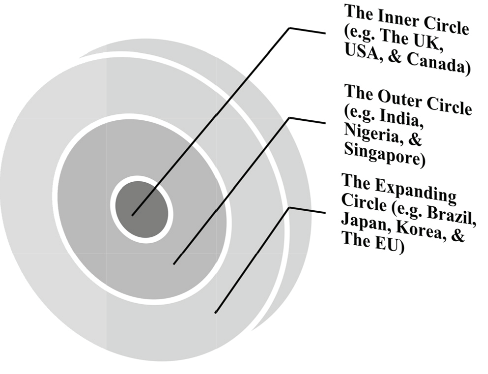
Two societies in which globalization, foreign language policy, and neoliberal ideologies pertaining to human capital development have visibly intersected are Japan and the Republic of Korea (henceforth, Korea). Ranked third and twelfth globally with regards to their respective gross domestic products (World Bank, 2017), the developmental strategies of both nations, manifesting per an outward vision of globalization (*Gurōbaruka*[1] and *Segyehwa*, respectively), emphasize the capital of English language learning (ELL) in order to realize national interests within the currently dominant neoliberal economic paradigm. Despite English’s position within these neighboring settings, the language neither retains official language status nor is it a second language (L2) employed during the institutional purposes of Japanese or Korean government. Yet, this distinctly foreign product is so entrenched within Japanese education that “over ten million twelve-to-eighteen-year-olds, and another million or so university students, have *no choice*[2] but to study English” (Horiguchi et al., 2015, pp. 6−7). Additionally, proficiency in English has been described as a key expression of Korean cultural capital with regard to competitiveness, emerging as a determinative factor in the quantification of individual value per neoliberal discourses detailing “appropriate” forms of citizenship (Cho, 2017, pp. 18−19). As a consequence, academics (see Song, 2011; Jeon, 2012) routinely interpret ELL appropriation as being hegemonically structured by local élites to facilitate self-aggrandizing outcomes, most notably with regard to the maintenance of social reproduction (Song, 2011).

In reaction to this process, this inquiry proposes a comparative investigation of the sociological impact of English language appropriation within these neighboring settings, employing features of the linguistic imperialism framework (Phillipson, 2008b, 2011) as its theoretical frame of analysis. Specifically, the contextual factors surrounding the ideological and material structuring of English within Japan and Korea will be analyzed in order to answer calls by local academics (see Kubota, 1998) for the provision of a broader understanding of English language hegemony, with specific reference to the accommodation of élite-driven globalized foreign language policy. In doing so, this comparative analysis will attempt to provide a parallel demonstration of linguistic imperialism within neighboring contexts to draw attention to the tension between the requirement to learn English for local empowerment (Phillipson, 2009) and, more broadly, the structural inequalities that are reinforced by ELT within these settings.

The International Positionality of English

Braj Kachru's "Three Circles of English" (1985, 1992), displayed in Figure 1, represents perhaps *the* authoritative model for describing the historical diffusion of English and its ensuing status within diverse cultural settings. Specifically, Kachru (1985) interprets global English in terms of three concentric circles, representing "the type of spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functional domains in which English is used across cultures and languages" (Kachru, 1985, p. 12).

Figure 1. Braj Kachru's (1985) Model of Concentric Circles



The *Inner Circle* denotes the sociolinguistic bases of English, including Anglosphere nations that initiated or received the first diaspora of British colonists, resulting in the permanent modification of population and linguistic structures across the globe. Settings incorporated within the inner circle include, but are not limited to, the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, and New Zealand − with their linguistic codes designated as *norm-providing* due to their longstanding role as the primary first language (L1) in each respective locale. The *Outer Circle*, meanwhile, represents those countries subjected to British imperial expansionism during the second diaspora. Due to the colonial legacy of English within these nations, the language is commonly recognized as an official L2, employed predominantly in multilingual contexts, such as education and legislation. These countries are said to be *norm-developing* and include settings such as India, Pakistan, Kenya, and Singapore. Finally, the *Expanding Circle* refers to territories with no history of inner circle colonization, including Brazil, Japan, Korea, and non-Anglophone Europe. English holds no distinct socio-historic status or institutional function within these settings and is acquired primarily as a vehicle for intercultural communication within the various spheres of global activity, such as trade, finance, and diplomacy. Owing to the lack of consistent standardization throughout the expanding circle, constituent locales are interpreted as *norm-dependent*, relying heavily on inner circle models, such as British or American Standard English, when codifying context-specific EFL norms (Saraceni, 2015, p. 51).

The Theoretical Basis for Linguistic Imperialism

Prior to detailing linguistic imperialism's frame of analysis, it is appropriate that terminology central to Phillipson's (1992) critique be addressed. For instance, throughout his narrative, Phillipson consistently employs the term *Centre* to denote those dominant inner circle locales that maintain the pre-eminence of English in order to impose Anglo-centric sociocultural, political, and economic models throughout the outer and expanding circles, collectively referred to as the *Periphery*. Thus, the Centre–Periphery model serves as a spatial metaphor, used to illustrate and clarify the relationship between language transfer and unequal distribution of structural power (Marshall, 1998, p. 71) by virtue of English's position as a primary gatekeeper to education, employment, and social mobility (Ferguson, 2006). Nonetheless, while the term *Centre* is employed predominantly as a means of distinguishing the Anglosphere, the sustained consumption and reproduction of English by Periphery speakers has, according to Phillipson (2011), resulted in their complicit legitimization of ELL, its social norms, and hegemonic structures of global inequality and dependency.

Mechanisms supporting linguistic imperialism are reinforced operationally and ideologically by both L1 English speakers and partisan users of ESL and EFL within the outer and expanding circles. Periphery actors key to this process include local policymakers and business leaders − referred to by Phillipson (1992, p. 55) as "counterparts and collaborators" − who establish or retain the dominant role of English to generate "élite formation and privilege" (Phillipson, 2012, p. 215) − commonly via stratified education systems and the vocational necessity for costly English language proficiency measures, such as TOEIC or TOEFL. In facilitating this process, outer and expanding circle élites are characterized as context-specific Centres, assimilated into the hegemonic structuring of English to their benefit and the detriment of broader subaltern populations. Moreover, given that English within this context has emerged as a leading indicator of socioeconomic mobility (Phillipson, 2012), the enduring legacy of linguistic hierarchization has resulted in Periphery élite status being inextricably linked to proficiency in the neo-colonialist language − leading Phillipson (1997) to theorize that English linguistic imperialism is an Anglosphere-emanating process that presupposes and enhances underlying structures of asymmetrical social reproduction within the Periphery.

The theoretical foundations of linguistic imperialism, therefore, represent a blend of Galtung's (1971) *structural theory of imperialism*, and Gramsci's (1992) concept of *cultural hegemony* which, to use Bourdieusian terms, describes the process by which a ruling class exerts dominance over its broader field via the manipulation of cultural capital contained within. In doing so, the élite-driven cognitive orientation, or *weltanschauung*, imposed on that society is gradually accepted as benefitting all social classes, thereby representing a universally valid and unquestionable orthodoxy, or *doxa* (Bourdieu, 1977), that justifies the dominant social, political, and economic hegemon. Accordingly, language represents a vehicle by which Centrist actors regulate the Periphery, playing a significant function in the processes by which hierarchies are negotiated and structured during social reproduction. In this regard, linguistic imperialism may be viewed through the broader lens of *linguicism* (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1988), a concept parallel to discriminatory social constructs, such as racism and sexism, that describes “ideologies, structures and practices which are used to legitimate, effectuate, regulate, and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources (both material and immaterial) between groups which are defined on the basis of language” (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1988, p. 13).

As noted by Skutnabb-Kangas (2015), unequal access to power and resources is frequently multicausal, with instances of linguicism often intersecting with societal injustice in terms of economic, ethnic, and gender inequality. In keeping with dialectics of social exclusion, linguicism may be supported consciously or unconsciously, be both concrete or abstract, and manifest via overt or covert means (Phillipson, 1992). Regardless of its mechanism of delivery, however, linguicism and, by extension, *linguistic imperialism*, serves to simultaneously privilege those with convertible linguistic capital in the dominant language and restrict those who do not (Phillipson, 2011). Undoubtedly, the pattern of activities that facilitates this process is multifaceted and anchored to a range of factors, most notably the material and symbolic organization of ELT. To that end, the theoretical lens of this review comprises the following[3] features of Phillipson’s (1992, 2011) narrative − detailed here in Table 1 − which describe the structural and ideological procedures by which linguistic imperialism serves the Centre (Phillipson, 2011, p. 2).

TABLE 1. The Abridged Pattern of Linguistic Imperialism

Indicators of Linguistic Imperialism
• “It is structural: More material resources and infrastructure are accorded to the dominant language than to others.”   • “It is ideological: Beliefs, attitudes, and imagery glorify the dominant language, stigmatize others, and rationalize the linguistic hierarchy.”

Adapted from Phillipson (2011, p. 2).

English is not solely a neutral vehicle for intercultural communication: “It is a value one identifies with for the social functions the language is seen as serving, its utility in the linguistic market” (Phillipson, 2009, p. 109). Thus, the spread of English and, by association, the agency supporting its sustained appropriation “remains inextricably interwoven with its economic and social origins" (Holborow, 1992, p. 358). Indeed, considering that proficiency in English is increasingly required for access and participation within key societal domains, the promotion of ELT may be interpreted as an agency of dominance (Bourdieu, 1982), with the "choice" to participate in ELL interlacing with "power struggles over what is and what is not regarded as acceptable and valuable" (Zotzmann, 2013, p. 253). Consequently, investigations into the transmission and function of ELL necessitate an appreciation of issues of identity and power that, in accordance with Pennycook (1995), "neither reduces it to a simple correspondence with its worldly circumstances nor refuses this relationship by considering language to be a hermetic structural system unconnected to social, cultural, and political concerns" (Pennycook, 1995, p. 78). In targeting contexts where the functional and symbolic influence of English is strengthened at the expense of broader language ecologies and population groups removed from the hegemonic structure of power, it is anticipated that relations between dominant and dominated groups will be publicized, specifically with regard to the resistance and accommodation of a linguistic hegemon that serves to strengthen the reproduction of social class.

English Linguistic Imperialism Is Structural

As posited by Phillipson (2011), the hierarchization of language is integral to social reproduction within the Periphery. Specifically, inequity by means of foreign language acquisition functions per the degree of access to linguistic capital − a feature of Bourdieu's (1986) broader notion of cultural capital − which serves to privilege the agentive forces behind the increased use of English: those who typically possess the requisite social, cultural, and economic capitals to participate in, and thus benefit from, EFL instrumentalization. Accordingly, when local élites designate asymmetrical structural resources to a non-native language, the embodied dispositions, or habitus, of wider subaltern populations must reconcile the emergent dynamics of the linguistic market if they are to accommodate the dominant logic of the field and ultimately prove victorious in "the games of culture" (Bourdieu, 1984, p. 54). In essence, this process results in "the acquisition of linguistic capital in postcolonial societies [being] structurally constrained by linguistic market forces in such a way that 'choosing' English is contingent rather than free"

(Phillipson, 2011, p. 449).

In the case of Korea, Jeon (2009, p. 232) notes that “English test scores play a large part in college entrance and access to employment in white-collar jobs,” whilst Song (2011) records that “over 90% of employees in manufacturing and export industries are continuously assessed for their English competence” (p. 42). Consequently, the degree of access to Korea’s vocational and educational domains is recurrently determined by the capacity of the social agent to demonstrate their aptitude for English. This pervasiveness of ELL within Korean society has resulted in what Kim (2015) terms “English fever” (p. 117), or *yeongeo yeolpung*, demonstrated by the recorded $15−17 billion annual expenditure by Koreans on private ELL (Jeon, 2012; Kim, 2015). However, considering that Kim (2012) reported that “seventy percent of students from families earning 5 million won or more a month received private English education in 2010, fully 3.5 times the 20% from those earning less than 1 million won” (p. 3), it is apparent that ELT preserves social reproduction dynamics by limiting “access to education, socioeconomic mobility, social status, and political power” (Song, 2011, p. 42) amongst financially disadvantaged Koreans. Accordingly, Song (2011) argues:

> English language education must be recognized as part and parcel of the primary “mechanism of elimination” designed, under cover of meritocracy, to conserve the established social order in South Korea. Thus, English has been “conveniently” recruited, in the name of globalization, to reproduce and rationalize the hierarchy of power relations. (p. 36)

Likewise, the degree of access to ELL within Japan is increasingly perceived as stratified, with EFL representing a highly desirable symbolic capital in “neoliberal discourses [which] emphasize that it is the responsibility of the individual to acquire the information and skills, including communication or language ability, that are considered important for the new knowledge economy” (Horiguchi et al., 2015, p. 3). Thus, ELL is positioned as a market-driven product that can be quantified and assessed via (typically learner-funded) proficiency measures, such as TOEIC, and study at élite-level educational institutions. The ten-year Top Global University Project (*Sūpā gurōbaru daigaku sōsei shien*) launched in 2014, for example, aims to foster the global mobility of Japanese students by study abroad participation and English-medium instruction at a number of distinguished public and private universities. This initiative, along with its predecessor, the Global 30 Project is, as noted by Nowlan (2019), reactive to a push by local business and industrial sectors (including the e-commerce giant Rakuten, which drew worldwide attention in 2010 when communicating the intention to operate entirely in English) for the cultivation of transnational human capital (*jinzai*) within tertiary education.

Ostensibly, such policies evidence growth in governmental and industrial interest in the internationalization of Japanese citizens; however, as noted by Horiguchi et al. (2015) globalization reform in education "has generally been invested in a small and competitively selected top tier of society" (p. 4). For example, in response to ideologies shaping neoliberal policy enactment, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) authorized several private English immersion schools within geographically designated "special zones." However, as noted by Poole and Takahashi (2015), tuition fees at such institutions have been shown to amount to "upwards of US $10,000 per year per child" (p. 90). Access to desirable forms of linguistic capital thereby remains hierarchic, with the language learning requirements imposed on Japanese citizens proving realistically inaccessible to the financially disadvantaged. This dynamic calls to mind the Hiraizumi–Watanabe debate of 1974, in which Wataru Hiraizumi, a politician of the *Jiyū-Minshutō* party, proposed a restructuring of governmental ELT that would, according to Fujimoto-Anderson (2006), have resulted in ELT being available "to an *élite*[4] set of students" (p. 276). As with Korea, segregation of the economically disadvantaged within the sphere of language education serves to preserve an asymmetrical system of power distribution – accordingly, the criterion that would constitute linguicism is, in both instances, achieved.

That is not to say that the Japanese and Korean governments do not provide access to public EFL education. With regard to Korea, the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (MEST) presently demands 68 hours of compulsory ELL per academic year for nine-to-ten-year-old learners, and 102 hours for eleven-to-twelve-year-olds (Hu & McKay, 2012, p. 350), figures that dwarf the learning alternative languages, including the regional lingua franca, Chinese. In Japan, meanwhile, English has been a compulsory high school subject since 2002; yet, a report by the Japan Forum recorded 4 percent and 11 percent of local secondary schools providing Korean and Chinese language classes, respectively − with both cases representing language learning environments that are demonstrably subtractive within the context of broader language ecologies. Phillipson (1992) labels this key tenant of ELT doctrine as *the subtractive fallacy*, which commonly converges with an emphasis on students beginning ELL at a young age within English-only classrooms − correspondingly referred to by Phillipson (1992) as the *early-start* and *monolingual* fallacies.

These ideologies are reinforced by the 1987 Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) and 1995 English Program in Korea (EPIK) initiatives, which respond to internationalization by providing sites in which the global resource of English may be achieved locally. In both instances, Anglosphere university graduates are recruited as teachers or teaching assistants to improve the English language communicative competence of learners; yet, the majority of instructors receive no specialized training in language education prior to employment. Classes are compulsory for pupils through the elementary to secondary levels and are held predominantly in English (although local teachers are often present) with L1 communication limited in such a way as to enhance inner-circle-orientated English proficiencies (Michaud & Colpitts, 2015). As a consequence, both the JET and EPIK programs represent not only Phillipson's (1992) subtractive, early-start, and monolingual fallacies, but also *native speaker* and *maximum-exposure* fallacies, which posit that "the ideal teacher is a native speaker" and "the more English is taught, the better the results" (p. 185), respectively. Or, as deftly summarized by Pennycook (1998), "English is best taught monolingually, by native speakers, as early as possible, and as much as possible, and preferably to the exclusion of other languages" (p. 158).

However, there appears an acceptance within the academic discourses of each setting that participation in the JET and EPIK programs alone is insufficient for the broader ELL goals of either state (see Horiguchi et al., 2015; Kim, 2015). Consequently, concerns regarding the effectiveness of local ELT − specifically the suitability of instructors and broader ELL syllabi (Hisoki, 2011) − have led many parents to seek private language education, the quality of which is, as previously described, reflective of the socioeconomic positionality of the learner's familial network. The degree of EFL attainment is thereby stratified not only in terms of social class but also generationally via the commodification of the private ELT market − with this circular form of social reproduction presenting a convincing exemplar of Bourdieu's (1986) capital regulation-reproduction process. Ultimately, sustained exposure to ELL, whether in public or private spheres of education, maintains an ideologically embedded inclination towards EFL reproduction, culminating in the consolidation of ELL at the direct expense of alternative foreign languages, a process that Phillipson (2008b) terms "linguistic capital dispossession" (p. 34). Given the context presented here, it is apparent that the evolution of ELT within both Japan and Korea represents a structural imbalance that favors both English and those who use English, while simultaneously devaluing linguistic alternatives and those who do not possess the requisite forms of EFL-related capital.

English Linguistic Imperialism Is Ideological

The increasing prevalence of not only EFL consumption but the language's role in social reproduction is reflective of the processes by which linguistic imperialism serves to both legitimize and strengthen unequal conditions for groups based on language. This framework of dominance serves the interests of neoliberal-orientated élites via an ideological-reproduction function that presents English as a resource crucial to social advancement, modernization, development, and participation in the various domains of global interactivity. Consequently, dominant ELL ideologies have emerged as sources of contestation in the ongoing struggle to accomplish national and international interests, with EFL proficiency positioned as a highly covetable form of cultural capital, specifically with regards to economic capital conversion and the strengthening of the nation-state. This convergence of material resources and EFL instrumentalization, delivered under the veil of meritocracy, is strengthened via rhetoric that serves to reconcile socioeconomic inequality as a consequence of linguistic difference. As such, "linguistic legitimation of social inequality is highly effective, as it comes to be accepted by both the dominated and the dominant" (Piller, 2015, p. 5).

Concerning Korea, numerous governments have utilized globalization discourse to extol the benefits of ELT, most notably with reference to enhancing individual competitiveness locally and, more broadly, Korea's development and international prestige. Encouragement to learn English was fueled initially by several social and economic transitions, including

Seoul's hosting of the 1986 Asian and 1988 Olympic Games; *segyehwa*, President Kim Young-sam's 1994 globally conscious, laissez-faire reform of the Korean political and social economies (Shin, 2010); and crucially, the 1997 Asian financial crisis. In response to Korea's enforced economic restructuring, Kim's successor, Kim Dae-jung, "forcefully embraced the core concepts of globalization like no other" (Kim, 2000, p. 84). Specifically, Kim liberalized the highly protectionist Korean economy, laying the foundations for growth in both foreign investment and human capital development, positioning ELL as a tool crucial to participation in the global economy (Song, 2011). Specifically, Kim Dae-jung intensified the internationally focused *segyehwa* policies introduced by his predecessor by actioning ELT reforms grounded in Western-orientated educational philosophies and the promotion of Korean global citizenship − as evidenced in the ELL principles of the Seventh National Curriculum (cited in Chang, 2009, p. 88; see Table 2).

TABLE 2. The ELL Principles of the Korean 7th National Curriculum

Functions of Korean ELT
• "English education for focusing on student-centeredness."
• "English education for cultivating communicative competence."
• "English education for utilizing various activities and tasks."
• "English education for fostering logical and creative thinking."
• "English education for functioning effectively as a nation in an era of globalization."

The ELL principles presented here emphasize the agency of the Korean state during the appropriation of EFL: "If Korea is to function effectively as a nation in the era of globalization, then Korean people must be able to communicate effectively in English" (Chang, 2009, p. 94). Subsequently, the habitus of the Korean social agent must reconcile the significance of English linguistic capital during navigation of the various educational and vocational fields if they are to participate in, and thus contribute to, the rapidly evolving culture of post-*segyehwa* Korea. In keeping with the significance of ELL on both the symbolic and social levels, the 2008–2013 presidency of Lee Myung-bak sought to enact several notable policy revisions that would have further enhanced the positionality of EFL instrumentalization.

As a case in point, a feature of Lee's failed $4.25 billion "English Education Roadmap" (as cited in Lee, 2010, p. 247) aimed to employ

English as the sole method of instruction during state-provided schooling, regardless of age, level, or subject. While this policy would face severe criticism and ultimate abandonment, the discourse employed by Lee during its justification recognized ELL as a prime determinant in the maintenance and reinforcement of Korean competitiveness. Notably, Lee described the sphere of global interactivity as a "battlefield," with English language appropriation "a key weapon for survival" (as cited in Lee et al., 2010, p. 338) without which international competitors would surpass Korea. In doing so, Lee manipulated the Social Darwinist tradition of "survival of the fittest" to strengthen the hegemony of ELL (Lee et al., 2010, p. 342), which, Phillipson (2011) emphasizes, "leads to English being perceived as prestigious and 'normal'... [resulting in the acceptance that] the language is universally relevant and usable, and the need for others to learn and use it" (p. 459), regardless of its tangible utility or applicability to the learner.

Likewise, the dissemination of ELT within Japan has been recurrently framed (Goodman, 2007; Kubota, 1998; Nowlan, 2019) as imbricating in the *kokusaika* ("internationalization") reforms of the 1980s and, more recently, the notion of *gurōbaruka*, or "globalization." While lexical differences between "internationalization" and "globalization" may appear initially semantic, it should be noted that the terms are, in this instance, somewhat distinct. Specifically, whereas *kokusaika* and *gurōbaruka* both necessitate managing and reacting to external forces, "the latter demands passive compliance with external norms that Japan is unable to control, whereas the former actively pushes back against perceived threats to Japanese identity" (Burgess, 2010). From a *kokusaika* perspective, the prominence of ELT within Japan, which indicates an outward-facing alignment with the neoliberalist ideology of human capital cultivation (Kubota, 2015), paradoxically co-exists with an inward-orientated drive for cultural protectionism.

Indeed, Japanese academics, including Tsuda (1990, 1998) and Kubota (1998), have cautioned against the black ship of ELL, arguing that its Anglosphere-centric norms represent a potential threat to both Japanese culture and her linguistic sovereignty. This response by local academics to the potentially adverse impact of EFL represents an apparent resistance to the hegemony of English; yet, given the prominence of *gurōbaruka* discourse, there has emerged a growing acceptance, on the institutional level, of the requirement to appropriate EFL to enhance global interactivity. Indeed, Torikai (2005) notes that "it is fair to conclude in summary that the government's rationale for their decisions on the purpose and objectives of English language education is to accommodate globalization" (Torikai, 2005, p. 251).

In 2002, for example, MEXT (as cited in Hosoki, 2011) claimed in its annual report that "it is essential that our children acquire communication skills in English" (p. 199) if they are to function in 21st century Japan and secure the future development of the nation. Consequently, the similarities between the state-driven, quasi-nationalistic ELL ideologies of both Korea and Japan are manifest. In each instance, the teaching of EFL responds to external pressures by attempting to foster global human resources locally; however, one could simultaneously interpret this process as exhibiting consistency with Foucault's (1995) description of state-driven *disciplinary power*, in which educational institutions produce neoliberalist-orientated "docile bodies" (Foucault, 1995, p. 138) for insertion into local hierarchies. Thus, whilst learners are provided, to varying degrees, the linguistic skills to participate (if not necessarily succeed) in the "games of culture" (Bourdieu, 1984, p. 54), they remain in subjugated positions due to the ideological foundations ELT "enhancing global capitalism dominated by multinational corporations" (Kubota, 2015, p. viii), thereby being "constituted by and [serving to] continuously reconstitute the interests of the dominant classes in society" (Piller, 2015, p. 5).

In keeping with neoliberal discourses, the orthodoxy of English as a universally applicable vehicle for communication frames educational policy enactment, with the cultivation of EFL communication skills "deemed part of the essential competence to survive in this unstable and yet globalized workforce" (Kubota, 2015, p. viii). Consequently, EFL is positioned, both structurally and ideologically, as a core feature of the recruitment and promotion strategies of various employers, with many Japanese companies basing screening decisions, in part, on the standardized EFL test scores of applicants (Hu & McKay, 2012, p. 357). Likewise, Choi (2008) remarks that Korean corporations commonly "require their applicants to submit an EFL test (e.g., TOEIC) score report and consider it an essential prerequisite for employment" (p. 41). Thus, the perceived indispensability of ELL within the educational and vocational domains has contributed to the perpetuation of EFL proficiency as a significant form of cultural and symbolic capital, thereby enhancing socioeconomic inequality and engendering linguistic elitism. In view of the gatekeeping role of English (Hu & McKay, 2012), Periphery learners are pressured to participate in ELL to realize their vocational goals, regardless of the demand for them to apply the English language in day-to-day activity. In this regard, one must inquire as to whether ELL indeed serves the best interests of the user and, crucially, whether learners elect to participate *freely* and *agentively* in ELL.

CONCLUSIONS

This investigation, in describing the structural and ideological foundations of ELT within Japanese and Korean contexts, has sought to address calls by Periphery scholars (Kubota, 1998) for comprehension of the impact of EFL appropriation on local social reproduction dynamics. In employing features of Phillipson's (1992, 2011) linguistic imperialism framework, it has been shown that the sustained transmission of globalization discourse has been documented, by both Japanese and Korean academics (Hosoki, 2011; Song, 2011), as a prime impetus in communicating, from the state level to the public, the symbolic worth of ELL. Specifically, post-global ELT is framed as an instrument for establishing internationalization, a resource crucial to the enrichment of cultural capital, and more broadly, national competitiveness within the various domains of global interactivity (Shin, 2010; Horiguchi et al., 2015). In keeping with the established, neoliberal-orientated orthodoxy of globalization, the human capital development strategies of both states emphasize the acquisition of English, with this structural imbalance posing a threat to the acquisition of alternative languages (Kubota, 2015) and, more damagingly, regional linguistic ecologies.

The conflation of internationalization and *Englishization* (Phan, 2013) acts not only as an instrument for responding to global pressures but as a vehicle for élite privilege reinforcement, sustaining circular forms of socioeconomic inequality on the basis of language proficiency – to the advantage of the agentive forces behind the dissemination of English, and the disadvantage of broader subaltern populations. Moreover, the overwhelming requirement to acquire English for the purposes of local empowerment has stripped language learners of agency when "electing" to participate in ELL. Thus, this comparative analysis, in interpreting the ELL dynamics described by local academics, has provided a parallel demonstration of "linguicist" devaluation (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1988) and, more broadly, English linguistic imperialism.

Nevertheless, this study lays no claim to comprehensiveness and was actively constrained due to limitations of space. Indeed, given the complexity of Phillipson's framework, future investigations into Periphery EFL policy enactment should expand their analytical lens to include additional features of linguistic imperialism theory, most notably local accommodation–resistance dynamics and the impact of external, neo-colonial powers on the structuring of linguistic hierarchization within the Periphery.

THE AUTHORS

Chris Samuell has been teaching English in Japan for the past nine years. He holds an MA in teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) and currently teaches classes in academic English and global English for use in study abroad programs. His research interests include international education, teacher autonomy, and learner motivation. Email: SamuellChris@gmail.com

Mike Smith is currently employed at the Kwansei Gakuin University, Japan. He is enrolled as a doctoral student at the University of Bath, holds both a teaching license and MA in applied linguistics, and is an alumnus of University College London Institute of Education, where he gained an MA with distinction in technology and education. Michael's research interests include sociolinguistics, World Englishes, international education, and CALL. Email: Michael. Dean. Smith@kwansei.ac.jp

REFERENCES

Bourdieu, P. (1977). *Outline of a theory of practice*. Cambridge University Press.

Bourdieu, P. (1982). *Language and symbolic power*. Harvard University Press.

Bourdieu, P. (1984). *Distinction: A social critique of the judgement of taste*. HarvardUniversityPress.

Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. G. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education*, (pp. 241–58). Greenwood.

Burgess, C. (2010). Higher education: Opening up or closing in? *The Japan Times*. https://www.japantimes.co.jp/community/2010/03/23/issues/higher-education-opening-up-or-closing-in/#.W3tkfugzZdo

Chang, B. M. (2009). Korea's English education policy innovations to lead the nation into the globalized world. *Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, *13*(1), 83–97.

Cho, J. (2017). *English language ideologies in Korea*. Springer.
Choi, I. C. (2008). The impact of EFL testing on EFL education in Korea. *Language Testing*, *25*(1), 39–62. https://doi.org/10.1177/0265532207083744
Crystal, D. (2012). *English as a global language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
Davies, A. (1996). Review article: Ironising the myth of linguicism. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *17*(6), 485–496.
Ferguson, G. (2006). *Language planning and education*. Edinburgh University Press.
Foucault, M. (1995). *Discipline and punish: The birth of the prison*. Vintage Books.
Fujimoto-Adamson, N. (2006). Globalization and history of English education in Japan. *Asian EFL Journal*, *8*(3), 259–282.
Galtung, J. (1971). A structural theory of imperialism. *Journal of Peace Research*, *8*(2), 81–117.
Goodman, R. (2007). The concept of *kokusaika* and Japanese educational reform. *Globalization*, *Societies*, *and Education*, *5*(1), 71–87. https://doi.org/10.1080/14767720601133413
Gramsci, A. (1992). *Prison notebooks: Vol. 1* (J. A. Buttigieg, Ed. & Trans.). Columbia University Press.
Holborow, M. (1992): Linguistic imperialism. *ELT Journal*, *47*(4), 358–361.
Horiguchi, S., Imoto, Y., & Poole, G. S. (2015). Introduction. In S. Horiguchi, Y. Imoto, & G. S. Poole (Eds.), *Foreign language education in Japan* (pp. 1–18). Sense.
Hosoki, Y. (2011). English language education in Japan: Transitions and challenges. *Kokusai Kankeigaku Bulletin*, *6*(1/2), 199–215.
Hu, G., & McKay, S. L. (2012). English language education in East Asia: Some recent developments. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *33*(4), 345–362. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2012.661434
Japan Forum. (2005). Kankoku chousengo kyouiku o dou ichi zukeru ka [How do you like to go?]. *Kokusai bunka fouramu tsuushin* [*Kokusai Bunka Forum*], *65*, 2–9.
Jeon, M. (2009). Globalization and native English speakers in English Program in Korea (EPIK). *Language*, *Culture*, *and Curriculum*, *22*(3), 231–243.
Jeon, M. (2012). English immersion and educational inequality in South Korea. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *33*(4), 395–408.
Kachru, B. B. (1985). Standards, codification, and sociolinguistic realism: The English language in the outer circle. In R. Quirk & H. G. Widdowson (Eds.), *English in the world: Teaching and learning the language and literatures* (pp. 11–30). Cambridge University Press.
Kachru, B. B. (1992). *The other tongue: English across cultures*. University of Illinois Press.
Kim, S. S. (2000). *Korea's globalization*. Cambridge University Press.
Kim, M. (2012). Equity and efficiency of English education spending. *KDI Policy*

Forum, *245*, 2–3.
Kim, B. R. (2015). The English fever in South Korea: Focusing on the problem of early English education. *Journal of Education and Social Policy*, *2*(2), 117–124.
Kubota, R. (1998). Ideologies of English in Japan. *World Englishes*, *17*(3), 295–306.
Kubota, R. (2015). Foreword. In S. Horiguchi, Y. Imoto, & G. S. Poole (Eds.), *Foreign Language Education in Japan* (pp. vii–x). Sense.
Lee, J. (2010). Ideologies of English in the South Korean "English immersion" debate. In M. T. Prior, Y. Watanabe, & S. K. Lee (Eds.), *Selected proceedings of the 2008 Second Language Research Forum* (pp. 246–260). Cascadilla Proceedings Project.
Lee, J. H., Han, M. W., & McKerrow, R. E. (2010). English or perish: How contemporary South Korea received, accommodated, and internalized English and American modernity. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, *10*(4), 337–357.
Marshall, G. (1998). *A dictionary of sociology*. Oxford University Press.
Michaud, M., & Colpitts, B. D. F. (2015). English as a lingua franca: Globalisation, ownership, and the diversification of English. *Kwansei Gakuin University Humanities Review*, *20*, 125–131.
Nowlan, A. (2019). Bridging internationalization goals through future selves: A focus on Japan. *Communication and Media in Asia Pacific*, *2*(2), 95–111.
Pennycook, A. (1995). English in the world/the world in English. In J. Tollefson (Ed.) *Power and inequality in language education* (pp. 34–58). Cambridge University Press.
Pennycook, A. (1998). *English and the discourses of colonialism*. Routledge.
Phan, L. H. (2013). Issues surrounding English, the internationalization of higher education, and national identity in Asia: A focus on Japan. *Critical Studies in Education*, *54*, 160–175. https://doi.org/10.1080/17508487.2013.781047
Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford University Press.
Phillipson, R. (1997). Realities and myths of linguistic imperialism. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *18*(3), 238–248. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434639708666317
Phillipson, R. (2008a). Lingua franca or lingua frankensteinia? English in European integration and globalization. *World Englishes*, *27*(2), 250–267.
Phillipson, R. (2008b). The linguistic imperialism of neoliberal empire. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, *5*(1), 1–43.
Phillipson, R. (2009). *Linguistic imperialism continued*. Routledge.
Phillipson, R. (2010). Linguistic imperialism. In M. Berns (Ed.), *Concise encyclopedia of applied linguistics* (pp. 487–489). Elsevier.
Phillipson, R. (2011). English: From British Empire to corporate empire. *Sociolinguistic Studies*, *5*(3), 441–464. https://doi.org/10.1558/sols.v5i3.441
Phillipson, R. (2012). Imperialism and colonialism. In B. Spolsky (Ed.), *The Cambridge handbook of language policy* (pp. 203–225). Cambridge

University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511979026.013
Piller, I. (2015). *Language ideologies*. The international encyclopedia of language and social interaction. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118611463.wbielsi140
Poole, G. S., & Takahashi, H. (2015). Effecting the “local” by invoking the “global.” In S. Horiguchi, Y. Imoto, & G. S. Poole (Eds.), *Foreign language education in Japan* (pp. 85–102). Sense.
Saraceni, M. (2015). *World Englishes: A critical analysis*. Bloomsbury.
Shin, H. (2010). *“Gireogi Gajok”: Transnationalism and language learning* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Toronto.
Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1988). Multilingualism and the education of minority children. In T. Skutnabb-Kangas & J. Cummins (Eds.), *Minority education: From shame to struggle* (pp. 9–44). Multilingual Matters.
Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (2000). *Linguistic genocide in education − or worldwide diversity and human rights?* Lawrence Erlbaum.
Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (2015). Linguicism. *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics*. Blackwell.
Song, J. J. (2011). English as an official language in South Korea: Global English or social malady? *Language Problems and Language Planning*, *35*(1), 35–55.
Torikai, K. (2005). The challenge of language and communication in twenty-first century Japan. *Japanese Studies*, *25*(3), 249–256. https://doi.org/10.1080/10371390500342733
Tsuda, Y. (1990). *Structure of English domination*. Daisan
Tsuda, Y. (1998). Critical studies on the dominance of English and the implications for international communication. *Japan Review*, *10*, 219–236.
World Bank. (2017). *All countries and economies*. https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.CD?year_high_desc=true
Zotzmann, K. (2013). Bourdieu, language, and linguistics. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, *13*(2), 252–255. https://doi.org/10.1080/14708477.2013.771518

FOOTNOTES

[1] All romanization of the Japanese and Korean writing systems employs the Hepburn and Revised Romanization of Korean systems, respectively.
[2] Italics added by the authors for emphasis.
[3] It should be noted that Phillipson’s (2011) pattern of activities for linguistic imperialism encompasses multiple overlapping features. However, due to both limitations of space and the desire to provide a concise analysis, the narrative of this study will focus solely on the components detailed here.
[4] Italics added by the authors for emphasis.

Examining Korean College Students' Perceptions of Pair and Group Work in the EFL Classroom

Jessica Lee
Baekseok Arts University, Seoul, Korea

In English as a foreign language (EFL) classes in Korea, students share the same mother tongue, and English is not used as a means to communicate in daily life. Thus, the use of meaningful communicative activities is encouraged, as very limited English language exposure is available outside of language classrooms. However, when communicative activities are introduced using pair and group work in an EFL language context, how do Korean EFL students respond? What are their perceptions of pair and group work in the EFL classroom? The purpose of this study is to explore Korean college students' perceptions of pair and group work activities and the significance of the pair and/or group work on their language learning in the EFL classroom. This study employed a qualitative research design and collected data from 53 college students in two EFL classes of a community college in South Korea. The findings reveal that the participants have positive perceptions of pair and group work and the use of pair and group work in the EFL context plays an important role in their language learning. However, some learners identified minor obstacles of pair and group work, mostly related to emotional difficulty connecting with some members and unnecessary pressure to produce language output in a short period of time.

Keywords: pair work, group work, EFL classrooms, CLT, students' perceptions

INTRODUCTION

While the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) is a teacher-centered approach that focuses on teaching the grammar rules and vocabulary in second and foreign language instruction, the communicative approach is a student-centered approach that emphasizes learning a language through meaningful communication (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards, 2006). Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), the method that derives from the communicative approach encourages the use of pair and small-group activities because the main principle of CLT is to enhance the attainment of communicative competence in the target language. Thus, according to CLT, teaching of any explicit grammatical rules or the formal aspects of language itself does not contribute to second language acquisition nor communicative competence. Hymes (1972) defines the term *communicative competence* as "the overall underlying knowledge and ability for language which the speaker-listener possesses" (p. 13). The concept of communicative competence entails the speaker to use the language in a meaningful social context. Larsen-Freeman (2000) contends that the main goal of using the CLT method for language teachers is to have students become communicatively competent, so class "activities are often carried out by students in small groups" to negotiate meaning (p. 129). Lightbown and Spada (2009) also maintain that "group and pair work is a valuable addition to the variety of activities that encourage and promote second language development" (p. 192). Therefore, in CLT, teachers encourage students to take an active role to speak and to take part in doing communicative language exercises that focus on function and appropriate language use in a given social context.

Howatt (1984), however, distinguishes between strong and weak forms of communicative language teaching. In Howatt's view, the strong form of CLT maintains that language is acquired through meaningful communication while the weak form of CLT claims that the key to using the target language is for communicative purposes, integrating communicative activities into language teaching. In other words, in the strong version of CLT, language learners are "using English to learn it" in real-life situations, while in the weak version of CLT, language learners are "learning to use English" when given speaking opportunities (Howatt, 1984, p. 279). It seems that the aim of both versions is to encourage communication, but the means used to achieve it are different. While it has been stated that CLT does not necessarily require pair or group work (Savignon, 2018), one of the main teaching techniques that is often used in language classrooms is meaningful communicative activities using pair or group work, as language fluency is promoted through interactive learner-centered activities rather than language-focused, teacher-led activities (Brown & Lee, 2015).

Previous studies have shown that interactive pair or group work provides benefits in second language teaching and learning more than individual work (Brown, 2007; Brown & Lee, 2015, Ellis, 1996; Foster, 1998; Long & Porter, 1985; Richards, 2006). However, previous research studies on the use of pair or group work in second language teaching and learning have been also controversial (Baleghizadeh, 2010; Li & Campbell, 2008; McDonough, 2004; Rakab, 2016). For example, Li and Campbell's (2008) study revealed that in addition to the positive strengths of group work, there are some detrimental factors that impact student learning and participation due to different group members' varying cultural values and beliefs. Phipps and Borg (2009) even argued that due to the high noise level generated during pair and group work activities, classroom management difficulties hinder teaching and learning for both teachers and second language learners.

In the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom, students share the same mother tongue, and English is not used as a means to communicate in daily life. Thus, the use of meaningful communicative activities is encouraged, as very limited English language exposure is available outside of language classrooms. However, when communicative activities are introduced using pair and group work in an EFL language context, how do Korean college EFL students respond? What are their perceptions of pair and group work in the EFL classroom? Is pair or group work as beneficial in language learning as previous studies have indicated? Thus, this current qualitative study examines Korean college students' perceptions of pair and group work on their language learning. Exploring Korean college students' perceptions of pair and group work will reveal the benefits and negative aspects of language learning through communicative activities using pair and group work in the college EFL classroom.

Literature Review

The Role of Pair or Group Work in CLT

According to Brown (2001), "[Group work] is a generic term covering a multiplicity of techniques in which two or more students are assigned a task that involves collaboration and self-initiated language" (p. 177). Richards (2006) similarly defines group work as a learning activity in which a small group of learners work together on a single or different language learning tasks. From these definitions, it can be assumed that the role of pair or group work in CLT is to provide more opportunities for language learners to practice the target language through language learning activities. In language teaching and learning, meaningful communicative activities through pair or group work are essential components of learning a second or foreign language. Pair or group work not only supports classroom interaction but also provides opportunities for language learners to interact in the target language, which in return promotes receptive and productive language learning opportunities (Fillmore, 1982). Nunan (1999) further maintains that "through group work, learners develop their ability to communicate through tasks that require them, within the classroom, to approximate the kinds of things they will need to communicate in the world beyond the classroom" (p. 76). Richards (2006) also posits that group work helps language learners to use more negotiating strategies among themselves as the learning environment through group work is more relaxed.

Benefits and Challenges of Pair and Group Work

Previous studies have revealed that there are both benefits and challenges in employing pair or group work activities in second language teaching and learning (Baleghizadeh, 2010; Brown, 2007; Li & Campbell, 2008; Long & Porter, 1985; McDonough, 2004; Rakab, 2016). McDonough's (2004) study in the Thai EFL context revealed that his research participants who participated more in the communicative activities in pair and small group work demonstrated improved production of the target language and a more positive experience in learning varied linguistic concepts. His findings mirrored one of the earliest studies that explored adult EFL learners in Mexico. While the Long et al. (1976) study involved only two pairs of learners in Mexico, their study also demonstrated that "the students produced not only a greater quantity but also a greater variety of speech in group work" (as cited in Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p. 124). The following are some of the other benefits Brown (2007) noted of group work: (a) Group work generates interactive language; (b) group work offers an embracing affective climate; (c) group work promotes learner responsibility and autonomy; (d) group work is a step toward individualizing instruction (pp. 225–229). Many other researchers have also agreed that group work is an effective way of learning in language classrooms due to many opportunities for learners to practice and negotiate the meaning in the target language (Baines et al., 2009; Dornyei & Murphey, 2003; Foster, 1998; Richards, 2006).

In a recent study, Alfares (2017) explored benefits and difficulties of learning in group work in EFL classes in Saudi Arabia from learners' perceptions. The findings indicated that the participants in the study perceived positive aspects of group work, which mainly related to cognitive and emotional advantages. Cognitive benefits referred to more interaction in group work, which in turn helped the learners become more aware of their mistakes and enhanced their accuracy in the target language. Emotional benefits entailed motivating factors for learning the target language. The participants in the study indicated that because they worked in groups, they were more enthusiastic to learn and to teach others the language concepts in the target language. However, some challenges the study mentioned are difficulties some learners encountered while working with uncooperative group members for which they characterized group work as "a waste of time" (p. 254).

Another researcher Koc (2018) investigated the perceptions of Turkish English-language teachers and their students' in regards to collaborative learning and group activities in the EFL classroom. The study revealed that of the 486 student research participants, 82.5% of them favored working in groups and that 91% of the participants reported group-work activities motivated their learning. On the other hand, 30% of the 25 teachers indicated that they rarely or never implemented group activities because excessive noise level negatively impacted student learning and that students spoke more in their native language instead of the target language during group activities.

While many researchers have indicated that pair and group work is effective in language classrooms because it provides more opportunities for language learners to practice the target language, some scholars have argued otherwise. Rakab (2016) claimed that CLT activities do not "promote conscious understanding of the target language system" and further stated that pair work and group work activities do not contribute to second language development (p. 96). Brown (2007, pp. 225–229) expressed the following as being the disadvantages of group work: (a) The teacher is no longer in control of the class; (b) students will use their native language; (c) students' errors will be reinforced in small groups; (d) teachers cannot monitor all groups at once; (e) some learners prefer to work alone. In addition, depending on students' cultural values and cognitive learning styles, using communicative activities through group work may be inappropriate and ineffective (Li & Campbell, 2008). In the literature, it has also been pointed out that CLT practices that are successful in one context may be challenging in another context. Thornbury (2006) contends that "any teaching method that is not sensitive to the expectations and traditions of the local context is less likely to succeed" (p. 65). Thus, cultural stereotyping perceptions, such as most of the Asian students do not enjoy working in groups while Polish students tend to focus more on learning grammar aspects of the target language, can influence how teachers teach and students learn in the classroom (Thornbury, 2006).

In addition to cultural challenges of group work, some researchers (Ammar et al., 2010; Simard & Wong, 2004) have worried that group work may induce language learners to learn each other's grammatical errors and to encourage fossilization in the students' interlanguage patterns as there is "too much freedom without correction and explicit instruction" in the communicative language teaching activities (Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p. 119). However, there are more studies that support the use of communicative activities through pair or group work and claim that language learners do not learn each other's language mistakes (Long & Porter, 1985). Pica et al. (1996) also found that "learners, too, may be reassured that their participation in communication tasks with other learners is not linguistically harmful" (p. 80).

Difficulties of Implementing the CLT Method in South Korea

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is widely used in many English language classrooms, both in ESL and EFL contexts. The South Korean Ministry of Education in 1992 also recommended the CLT method be used in the English language classrooms (Shin, 2007). However, despite its effort, the Grammar-Translation Method is still used mostly by Korean English teachers, and the CLT method is used mainly by native English-speaking teachers (Kim, 2004). The reason the CLT method is not widely popular among Korean English teachers is that there is always "pressure to perform well on exams" for students learning English (McClintock, 2012, p. 150). Thus, most English instruction in South Korea is exam-oriented, which focuses on the importance of obtaining entrance to college and future employment

(Jeon, 2009).

Although Korean English teachers may not advocate the CLT method in the classroom, various studies have demonstrated that Korean students have positive perceptions and attitudes toward communicative language learning activities. Nam (2009) indicated in his study that Korean students majoring in English desired to learn communicative skills. The participants in his study pointed out that gaining communication skills was more essential than obtaining reading, writing, and grammar skills. McClintock (2012) also surveyed 88 Korean university students and revealed that the participants demonstrated positive attitudes toward CLT activities in the classroom. His study also explored Korean students' perceptions of group activities and indicated that over 70% of the participants in the survey had a positive opinion of small-group or pair work. In a more recent study, Parsons (2016) also surveyed 44 Korean university students to understand their perceptions of pair and small-group work, with findings mirroring the results of McClintock's study.

While a number of studies have been conducted to examine students' perceptions of the CLT method and the use of communicative activities, qualitative research that specifically examines Korean college EFL students' perceptions of pair and group work on their language learning is rather limited. This study draws on the notion that the more meaningful the pair or group work interaction is that is introduced into the EFL classroom, the more it will help language learners in their language learning, as group work interaction may lead to more target language production. However, in an EFL context, how beneficial is pair or group work for students who may have never experienced doing group work in language learning? By focusing on students' perceptions, the author investigated the importance of pair and group work on Korean college students' language learning within the context of the EFL classroom.

Theoretical Framework

This study is framed within social constructivism, in which learning is socially constructed and that social interaction leads to language and cognitive development (Hacking, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978). Lev Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory of human mental processing emphasizes the importance of the social environment, as Vygotsky contends that social interaction plays a fundamental role in language development. Based on this theory, it is believed that when language learners are provided with a supportive interactive environment, they have the ability to collect information and to construct meaning and understanding.

Similarly, Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development (ZPD) maintains that with the help of an expert or of a more advanced learner, language learners can develop optimal language learning. Within the framework of social constructivism, this qualitative study focuses on students' perceptions of and their language learning experiences in interactive activities through pair and group work. The study aims to uncover in depth the participants' opinions, feelings, perceptions, and meanings of their experiences in an interactive environment provided in the language classroom (Denzin, 1989).

METHOD

Statement of the Problem

Existing literature mentioned in this paper has revealed that there are both benefits and challenges regarding communicative activities using pair and group work in second language teaching as previously conducted studies have demonstrated in countries such as Mexico, Saudi Arabia, Iran, Turkey, and Thailand. However, qualitative research findings in the literature in the context of English language teaching in Korea and perceptions of pair and group work from Korean students are limited.

In English as a foreign language (EFL) classes in Korea, students share the same mother tongue and English is not used as a means to communicate in daily life. Thus, the use of meaningful communicative activities is encouraged, as very limited English language exposure is available outside of language classrooms. However, unless students are placed in situations where language learners are required to speak the target language, they do not have the need to communicate in English in the classroom nor outside the classroom. Lim and Griffiths (2003) argue that "Korean students tend to not speak much in class" but speak the native language especially when there are other Koreans present in language classes (p. 1). Therefore, when communicative activities are introduced using pair and group work in an EFL setting where all other students are also Korean, how do Korean EFL students respond? What are their perceptions of the pair and group work in the EFL classroom? The current study aims to fill the data gap by conducting an explorative qualitative study to examine Korean college students' perceptions of pair and group work on their language learning in the EFL classroom.

Purpose

The purpose of this exploratory qualitative study is to examine (a) Korean college students' perceptions of pair and group work in their language learning and (b) the significance of pair or group work within the context of college EFL classrooms. Specifically, the research questions are as follows:

RQ 1. What are the views of Korean college students toward pair and group work in their EFL classes?
RQ 2. In the context of college EFL classrooms, what significant role(s) does pair or group work play for Korean college students?

Research Context

This study took place during one semester at a two-year community college in South Korea. Since students are in a two-year program, all students usually complete their degree program within two years. Some students take a year off to go abroad to study foreign languages, so it may take more than two years to complete their program. For students, obtaining excellent English language skills is important in order to obtain career-initiating employment or to transfer to a four-year degree program upon graduation. In addition, all students are required to take various English language exams such as the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI), the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), and/or TOEIC Speaking before they graduate. Thus, taking various English classes is an essential component of the students' curriculum requirements. When students complete all their course requirements, they receive an associate degree in their major.

The target English class was "Global English Communication," which was not a required course for the participants but a recommended class for second-year students before students graduate from their program. The main goal of the course was to improve students' English language communication skills. In this course, the participants engaged in various communicative activities using pair and group work based on an English textbook for the course. Depending on the tasks, random and non-random pairing and group work arrangements were made. For pair work, two students usually worked together; however, when there was an odd number of total students in a particular class period, pair work might also include one group of three students working together. Group work is usually identified as a group of 4 to 6 students working together. One of the main techniques used by the instructor to group students for pair or group work was to randomly assign numbers or colors to students and group them according to their matching numbers or colors. Another technique used by the instructor was to simply ask students to pair up with another person or to form into groups of four or five students, depending on the task. Thus, in non-random pairing or group work, students selected their partner or group members based on their friendship or associations with others. Table 1 shows some of the pair and group work activities that were used in the classroom, and their learning tasks and procedures are described.

TABLE 1. The Format and Tasks in Pair and Group Work

Activity Format	Learning Tasks/Procedures	Pairing/Group Arrangement
Conversation Role-Play	Pair work consists of two people with a similar or mixed-level English ability to do a role-play in a certain social situation based on different themes. Essential conversational techniques and appropriate language are introduced by the instructor in the beginning of the lesson for each different theme or topic. Then, students are given opportunities to pretend that they are part of different social situations based on different topics and practice their language skills with different partners. Toward the end of the semester, students work in pairs to present their own role-play to the whole class. They can choose their own partner, topic, and social situation.	Non-random pair or small group. Similar or mixed-level partners. (Pair work or group of 3.)
Group Discussion	The instructor provides various topics for students and discusses some of the key points of the topics.	Random group work.

Group Discussion (cont.)	Students are then asked to create sentences that represent their agreeing and disagreeing opinions on the topics studied. For each randomly selected topic, students are asked to participate in the discussion by forming into two groups, the agreeing side and the opposing side. Each group is randomly selected using a numbering or coloring technique. Usually around 4–6 students are organized in each group. This activity does not end until everyone had a chance to participate. After each group discussion session, the instructor summarizes each side's key points. Then, observers are asked to vote and choose the side (the agreeing or opposing side) of the group that presented the best case. This allows everyone to be engaged in the activity as a speaker and as a listener.	Similar or mixed-level group of students. (Group work: 4–6 students.)
Partner Interview	Students are asked to practice asking and answering all the questions learned based on different topics in each unit. Each student randomly interviews another student and each takes turns interviewing and responding to the questions. Then some pairs are called upon to go to the front of the class and take turns interviewing and responding to questions. The instructor provides feedback on their responses as the questions are already written in the book.	Random pair work. Similar or mixed-level partners. (Pair work or group work.)
Think-Pair-Share	After reviewing a reading passage in the textbook, the instructor asks various questions related to the reading. Students are given time to respond to the questions in written form; then they are required to ask the questions and share their responses with their partner.	Non-random pair work. Similar or mixed-level partners. (Pair work.)

Participants

The participants in this study were 53 college students from two English classes in a two-year community college in South Korea. Class A consisted of 25 students and Class B consisted of 28 students. These particular classes of participants were selected because these two classes integrated the CLT method and employed pair and group work activities. Each class met once a week for two and a half hours for the duration of the 15-week semester. The main goal of these English classes was to teach students communication skills focusing on all four English language aspects: listening, speaking, reading and writing. The proficiency levels of the participating students in the study ranged from advanced-beginning and low-intermediate to high-intermediate. The students were enrolled in these English classes based not on their English proficiency levels but on their academic school year. Thus, different English classes are reserved for first-year students and second-year students. These particular English classes were reserved for second-year students, so all participants in the study were second-year students. The author was the class instructor who had second language teaching experience in both ESL and EFL contexts.

Data Collection Procedures and Data Analysis

In this qualitative study design, the methods of data sources included (a) a questionnaire survey at the beginning and at the end of the course, (b) classroom observations, and (c) semi-structured informal interviews and conversations throughout the research period. The author conducted an informal interview after each pair work or group work activity to inquire about the students' perceptions of it. A final informal interview was conducted on the last day of each course in order to collect additional qualitative data. One simple open-ended question was asked relating to the perceived benefits and challenges of using pair and group work in the classroom. While students openly shared their responses, the author took notes of their responses. Although the author of the study was involved as the primary instrument, several data sources were used to triangulate the research findings (Merriam, 2014). In this qualitative research study, an inductive approach was employed (Creswell, 2012; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). The data were coded and analyzed for patterns and themes related to the research questions.

RESULTS

The instructor of the two participating classes employed a variety of pair and group work activities, such as role-play, dialogue, group discussion, think-pair-share, and/or partner interview for each session. At the beginning of the semester, a semi-structured questionnaire was distributed to 50 participants asking how many years they had studied

English and whether they had tried pair/group work or role-play activities in their previous English classes. The author also asked if they preferred pair/group work activities in English language classes. In order to collect data on students' perceptions of pair and group work on their language learning in the EFL classroom, open-ended interview questions were used in the questionnaire administered at the end of the semester. The results of the open-ended questions, the informal course-end questions, and the informal conversations related to pair and group work were integrated and analyzed to present the following results of the study.

Pre-course Questionnaire Responses

Two EFL classes were selected for the study. At the beginning of the semester, a pre-course questionnaire was distributed to the 25 students in Class A. The same number of students remained at the end of the semester. For Class B, there were 25 participants who responded to the pre-course questionnaire. But during the course, three new students were added, so there were 28 students who responded to the post-course questionnaire. The pre-course questionnaire data collected general demographic information about the students, their language learning experience, and whether they had tried pair or group work activities in their previous English language classes. The results of the pre-course questionnaire data are described below.

When asked about how many years the students had learned English, their responses ranged from 1 year to 16 years, with a mean of 9.4 years. The students (N = 50) from the two EFL classes were also asked at the beginning of the semester whether they were motivated to learn English. Forty-seven (94%) of the students indicated that they were motivated to learn English while only three of the 50 students indicated that they are not motivated to learn English.

In the pre-course questionnaire, the students (N = 50) were asked whether they preferred pair or group work activities in English language classrooms, and 22 students (44%) indicated that they prefer pair or group work activities, while 13 students (26%) responded that they do not prefer pair or group work activities. Of the 50 students, 15 students (30%) indicated that they were indifferent to pair or group work activities.

According to the pre-course questionnaire data, 41 of the 50 students (82%) indicated that they had tried pair or group work activities in their previous English language classes. The other 9 students (18%) indicated that they had never tried pair or group work activities.

Post-course Questionnaire Responses

At the end of the semester, the students were asked again whether they preferred pair or group work activities in English language classes. Of the 53 students, 44 students (83%) indicated that they preferred pair or group work activities in English language classes. Only three students indicated that they do not prefer pair or group work activities in their English language classes, and 6 students indicated that they were indifferent to pair or group work activities. At the beginning of the semester, 13 out of 50 students (26%) indicated that they did not prefer pair or group work activities, and 15 students (30%) indicated that they were indifferent to pair or group work activities. However, at the end of the semester, more students (83%) indicated that they preferred pair or group work activities, and fewer students (5.6%) indicated they did not prefer pair or group work activities. At the end of the semester, those students who responded as having a moderate preference for pair or group work activities also decreased to 6 students (11%). At the beginning of the semester, 15 students (30%) indicated that they were indifferent to pair or group work activities.

After a semester's experience with pair or group work activities in their EFL classes, the students were also asked whether they enjoyed pair or group work activities. A high percentage of the students, 49 of the 53 students (92%), indicated that they enjoyed pair or group work activities. Only one of the students indicated that they did not enjoy pair or group work activities, and three students indicated that they moderately enjoyed pair or group work activities after a semester of experiencing such instructional teaching techniques.

As previously mentioned, the author administered a post-course questionnaire containing open-ended questions at the end of the semester to collect more in-depth feelings of the students' experiences with pair or group work activities. Analysis of the data from the post-course questionnaire and an informal course-end interview and conversations revealed that four themes emerged related to Korean college students' perceptions of pair or group work activities on their language learning in the EFL classroom. The findings related to each theme are discussed in the following sections.

Students' Perceptions of Pair and Group Work

Confidence Gained

Based on the data analysis of the responses to the open-ended questions in the post-course questionnaire and the informal course-end interview and conversations with students, the majority of the students indicated that they gained confidence to speak in the target language as a result of participating in the pair or group work activities. At the beginning of the semester, many of the students expressed a reluctance to participate in the pair or group work activities as they felt embarrassed to speak in English, especially in front of fellow classmates. However, as the students were provided many opportunities to practice key expressions from their lessons with their partner or in a small group, they expressed an increased level of comfort in speaking English. These opportunities provided students with an opportunity to ask questions to fellow classmates who were similar to their level of proficiency or who were more advanced students. Less advanced students felt confident to speak as a result of the help received from the advanced students, while the more advanced students also gained confidence because they were able to demonstrate their knowledge to others.

In addition, many of the students also indicated that since they first practiced English with a partner or in a small group before they were called upon to present in front of the whole class, it allowed them to gain confidence in their communication skills in the target language. Students explained that they were more comfortable in making mistakes in front of their partner or in a small group, so working with others enabled them to receive help to create more accurate expressions and to learn varied language forms. Thus, the data results demonstrate that participating in pair and small group work activities provided a positive influence for students in their language learning practice. On the subject of gaining confidence to speak in the target language, the following are the responses of several participants from the data:

> While doing pair work, I was able to obtain feedback from my partner, which helped me express my thoughts more confidently. (Student 1)

> Since I was practicing English with my friends in a small group, I didn't feel embarrassed to ask questions. So, I naturally gained confidence to speak English. Even if I made mistakes, it was okay. (Student 2)

> I have always been afraid to speak English because I didn't feel confident. But pair work activities allowed me to overcome my fear and to actually practice the target language confidently. (Student 3)

> Pair and small group work gave me opportunities to ask questions to my peers and to the instructor, so for me, receiving feedback was helpful because I learned how to practice English more confidently. (Student 4)

> I really enjoyed pair and group work activities because I gained confidence to speak English. I also felt I became better at composing key expressions in my thoughts and in my writing. (Student 5)

> Before I used to focus only on grammar, so speaking English was secondary and sometimes not even necessary. But pair and group work activities helped me change my old ways of learning. I definitely think pair and group work helped me gain confidence to speak and to feel more comfortable to tackle English in any situation. (Student 6)

Active Participation Promoted

The participants in the study revealed that doing pair or group work activities promoted active participation from them. For each lesson, students were paired or organized randomly or non-randomly into a small group depending on the task: to practice new language expressions, to create expressions, to ask questions, or to negotiate meaning. Furthermore, after their pair or group work participation, students were often asked to present their pair or group work to the whole group. Understanding this format of their lessons, most of the students stated that they had no problem in executing the pair or group work activities. Students explained that pair and group work provided a comfortable environment for them to clarify any misunderstanding and to receive additional help from their partner and/or from the instructor when needed. Several students even revealed that they previously had fear of communicating in the target language because they were afraid of making too many errors in front of the class. However, through pair and group work activities, students indicated that they learned to overcome their fear because being with a small number of students helped them feel comfortable to ask for clarification of any misunderstandings and to participate more actively. The following excerpts from the data illustrate this view:

> I used to be afraid of making mistakes, so I did not speak. But in this class, through pair and group work, I felt comfortable to participate more. (Student 7)
>
> I used to just listen in English classes before. But I had no choice but to actively participate because everyone needed to speak in the class. In the process, the class became more enjoyable. (Student 8)
>
> In this class, we studied lots of different topics in English. As a result, we shared different stories and became interested in learning more about others. I think I participated more because it was interesting. (Student 9)
>
> It was memorable for me to help others in the class. There were so many chances for me to speak and to help others. (Student 10)
>
> We often don't have any chance to speak English. But this class encouraged speaking and practicing with others. So, it was natural for me to participate. (Student 11)
>
> At first, I didn't enjoy pair or group work activities. However, I saw myself enjoying them and saying more in English. (Student 12)
>
> I am quite introverted, but my partner is very outgoing. So, working with her helped me actively participate in pair work. Also, receiving feedback right away was helpful in learning. (Student 13)
>
> Having a resourceful partner was helpful for me to actively participate in the pair work activities. I think I was lucky to work with her. (Student 14)

In addition to the responses from the questionnaire, the data from informal conversations and class observations demonstrated that a variety of formats of pair and group work activities promoted learner interaction, which enhanced the quantity of spoken expressions among students. Several of the students explained that because there were many different formats of pair and small group work activities, they were compelled to speak and to participate in the activities. These learners also implied that doing pair and group work indeed increased their motivation level to participate more in the class and to take interest in learning the target language.

Of the 53 participants, less than a hand full (4 students) demonstrated less eagerness to participate in the pair or group work activities. These same students indicated in the post-course questionnaire that they did not enjoy pair or group work activities or they felt indifferent to pair or group work in general after experiencing a semester of such a teaching technique. However, when they were asked in their post-course survey about what they gained from participating in the pair or group work, they all provided positive responses such as gaining confidence in speaking the target language, learning a variety of expressions, improved teamwork skills, and increased active participation.

Conversational Skills and Cooperative Learning Enhanced

Another theme that emerged from the data analysis of students' views on pair and group work was that pair and group work activities enhanced conversational skills and cooperative learning. Several students indicated that not only did they have a better understanding of learned expressions but they also learned a variety of expressions to use from their group members. These students explained that because they worked with a partner or in a small group, it was easy for them to seek additional help, to negotiate meaning, to create a variety of expressions, and to practice new expressions in a comfortable environment.

Interestingly, some participants went on to say that because they had more opportunities to speak English with their partner or their small group members, they understood the language content and the activities better. For example, one of the students revealed that it was much easier to ask fellow classmates for clarification than to ask the instructor. This learner also suggested that when her classmates explained something, they used vocabulary or expressions that were less complicated than the instructor's. This in turn helped her understand the activities and enhanced her language learning process. For example, the participant stated that, during the informal conversation activities, "if we were left to work alone, we wouldn't have a chance to ask questions and improve our speaking skills." The student also said that by having students work in pairs and in small groups, the instructor was accessible for additional help when necessary. Another student mentioned that it was helpful when the instructor went around to each group to check on student learning and to provide additional assistance. Several students explained that this practice allowed students to ask questions and to receive feedback right away about their work and language expressions from the instructor. The following responses from several students support these findings.

> Participation in pair and small group work activities helped me remember what I learned in class better. I think this method of learning suits me well, so I am going to form a study group to study English in the future. (Student 15)

> I believe I made more friends in this class because of pair and group work. I feel my speaking skills improved because we were able to share our thoughts in a comfortable environment. (Student 16)

> Group work definitely allowed me to focus more and improved my cooperative learning and leadership skills. (Student 17)

> I gained a sense of responsibility knowing that I worked with other people. So, I feel I worked harder to create interesting conversations. (Student 18)

> From pair and group work, I gained confidence, leadership, teamwork, and English speaking skills. (Student 19)

> Pair and group work enhanced my English speaking skills. I had to listen and to speak in the group. (Student 20)

> It was nice having a partner to correct my errors, but I liked the fact that the instructor went around to each group to check on everyone. So if my partner and I made errors, the instructor corrected our errors. (Student 21)

The data illustrates that many of the participants believed pair and group work activities enabled them to speak more, which in turn helped them improve their conversational skills. These participants also demonstrated their ability to work with others by asking questions, providing assistance, and working together to support one another. In addition to the perceived benefits that were presented by the students, some participants also reported that pair and small group work activities motivated their language learning. For example, several students explained that seeing others speak well in English increased their motivation level and that they concentrated more in class. Some also revealed that they received more interesting information by sharing knowledge with one another and learned to work more cooperatively with others. All in all, the majority of the students indicated that pair and group work had a positive influence on their language learning process.

Perceived Challenges to Pair or Group Work

When students were asked about challenges they may have encountered while participating in the pair or group work activities, many of them indicated none and provided only positive aspects of them. However, a small number of students mentioned that their quiet personality hindered their participation in the pair and group work activities. In this vein, one student stated, "Because of my shy personality, it was difficult to approach classmates in the class. So, I didn't think some group work was helpful." Another student revealed, "Some pair work was difficult because my partner did not speak much." One student also explained that doing pair or group work sometimes created unnecessary pressure. In individual work, she explained that she was left to do her task in her own time, so there was no pressure to produce output in such limited time. On this subject, she shared, "Creating correct conversational expressions on the spot was a bit difficult because of my low English skills."

Some other students also mentioned the following as negative aspects of doing pair or group work activities.

> I didn't have any friends in the class, so I had a hard time working with people. (Student 22)
>
> Not everyone was eager to participate in the pair or group work, so sometimes it was difficult to start. (Student 23)
>
> I sometimes felt left out because I didn't know my classmates. (Student 24)

These students further explained that having active and helpful partners made a difference in terms of how successful their participation in their pair or group work activities turned out. These responses illustrated the importance of organizing pair and group work with suitable partners for each activity and designating a special feedback time for beginning-level students to provide them with assistance and extra time.

Finally, when students were asked if pair and group work should be continued in their future English language classes, a large majority of them (50 of the 53 students) enthusiastically recommended and two students modestly recommended that they be continued. These two students explained that even though they somewhat enjoyed the pair and group work activities, they felt indifferent toward them for future English classes. One of the students stated, “Pair and group work allowed me to use the target language more, but I am not sure how much it impacted me in terms of learning the language.” The other student also expressed that doing too many pair and group work activities could negatively affect their concentration level if future class time were only an hour. One student did not respond to the question.

Discussion

This study clearly illustrated that the Korean college students in the two EFL classes have positive perceptions of pair and group work activities. The data revealed that at the end of the semester, more students, 44 (83%), indicated that they prefer pair and group work activities, and only a few students, 3 (5.6%), indicated that they do not prefer pair and group work activities in their English language classes. At the end of the semester, those students who responded with only a moderate preference for pair and group work activities also decreased to six students (11%). Furthermore, the majority of the students, 49 (92%) of the 53, reported that they enjoyed the pair and group work activities after a semester’s experience of participating in them, and 50 of the total 53 participants enthusiastically recommended pair and group work for their future English classes. Nam (2005) expressed in his study that “the current communication-based EFL curriculum may not be aligned well with students’ desires” (p. iii) because Korean students tend to focus on exam-taking skills, and they are not expected to express their opinions. However, the findings of this study revealed that students indeed have positive opinions of pair and group work, especially after their experience of participating in pair and group work in their classes. More recent studies have also demonstrated that Korean students have a high preference for pair and group work over a teacher-centered learning method (McClintock, 2012; Parson, 2016).

In addition, the qualitative responses from students revealed that pair and group work play an important role in their language learning. First, working in a small group or with a partner, the majority of the students indicated that they gained confidence to speak in the target language as they were provided with more opportunities to practice, to ask questions in the group, and to receive feedback from others, including both from more advanced learners and from the instructor. The feedback students mentioned refers to receiving corrections to their expressions and obtaining support from fellow classmates and the instructor. Students also reported that pair and group work aided their ability to clarify any misunderstanding and to obtain additional assistance when necessary from their fellow classmates and the instructor. Thus, more interaction in the pair and group work allowed students to make adjustments to their language, which helped them develop more accuracy in their expressions, leading students to gain confidence in using the target language. This finding appears to support the importance of having a positive affective climate to promote language acquisition, as several students indicated that doing pair and small group work allowed them to feel more comfortable to produce language and to clarify issues in the target language. The value of group work and how it aides in students' stress reduction has also been mentioned in previous scholarly work (Brown, 2007; Richards, 2006). Specifically, this study also suggests that allowing students to work in pairs and small groups helps learners to feel at ease, thus reducing their anxiety level, and allowing them to interact more comfortably and confidently.

Although very few participants in the study demonstrated indifference to pair or group work activities, most of the students revealed that pair and group work encouraged engagement and active participation. These students further explained that pair and group work activities promoted their motivation level, encouraging them to participate more in class and to take interest in learning the target language. This finding is consistent with recent studies on group work and learner motivation (Alfares, 2017; Baleghizadeh et al., 2014; Koc, 2018). These studies have illustrated that language learners perceived group work as being beneficial and motivating, as group work provided positive competition for learners, enabling them to participate more.

It has been observed in the past that "Korean students tend to not speak much in class, appear reserved, rarely ask questions, and do not express opinions" (Lim & Griffiths, 2003, p. 1); however, this did not appear to be the case in the present study. Based on the interaction among the students during pair and group work, it appeared that the students naturally negotiated meaning, asked questions, discussed responses, and provided assistance to different-level students to accomplish their tasks, which in turn created more lively and friendly interaction. The finding of this study suggests that when students are provided with meaningful communicative activities through pair and group work, they seem to have positive perceptions and take an active part in the activities.

Furthermore, the data gathered from the qualitative responses of the students indicated that pair and group work activities enhanced their communicative competence and cooperative learning. Students explained that pair and group work provided opportunities for learners to speak English more to negotiate meaning and to be supportive of one another, which in turn helped them understand the language content and complete the activities better. In addition, speaking opportunities allowed students to ask questions, to practice new expressions, and to learn additional expressions from one another. One of the earliest studies done on group work and learner interaction by Long et al. (1976) and a later study by McDonough (2004) in the EFL context also revealed that language learners produced improved production of the target language as well as a greater variety of language during group work.

Similarly, on the role of group work and language learning, a recent study also demonstrated that language learners perceived many benefits of using group work similar to this current study. For example, Alfares (2017) found that, based on students' opinions, group work enhanced motivation for students to learn and created a supportive learning environment for students to acquire the target language. One of the main objectives of using communicative language teaching is to improve the communicative competence of language learners. It seems that communicative competence is best achieved when students engage in learning activities that encourage interaction in the target language with a variety of people. The findings of the current study suggest that communicative activities through pair and group work promote spontaneous interaction and a supportive environment, and this ultimately helps language learners to work cooperatively to gain communicative language skills.

In general, the majority of the students indicated that pair and group work had a positive influence on their language learning; however, some students expressed negative aspects of pair or group work. These students explained that the quality of pair or group work depended on their partner's or group members' personality and whether they had developed some kind of close relationship with them. In other words, those few students who did not have positive perceptions of pair or group work expressed that not having friends in the class impacted their engagement in pair and group work. On the other hand, other students who began the course without having a friend in the class revealed that even though they did not perceive pair or group work positively in the beginning, working with a partner who was helpful and friendly aided their interest in pair and group work participation. This indicates the importance of group dynamics, which can have a positive or negative impact on student learning. Dornyei and Murphey (2003) claimed that the stronger the connection students have in a cohesive group, the more they will participate and share ideas. This suggests that efforts should be made in order to organize a cohesive and effective pair and group for all students in the class. Another minor challenge one student mentioned was not having plenty of time to produce language output. For low-level students, time can be a big obstacle, so additional time and assistance should be provided to mitigate the pressure students experience from time limitations.

Limitations and Future Research

This research is not without its limitations. First, this study was limited to two EFL classes for second-year college students only. The experience of second-year college students may differ from those of first-year college students. Second, the author was the class instructor. Despite explaining to the students that their responses did not affect their grades, students' responses may have been influenced by the author of this study also being their course instructor. Further, the research was a qualitative study that examined Korean college EFL students' perceptions of pair and group work on their language learning in the classroom. Thus, the study did not investigate the students' language performance but explored their opinions, perceptions, and experiences toward pair or group activities on their language learning. The benefits and challenges that students indicated were not investigated to determine how those benefits and challenges impacted student performance in their language learning process. Finally, this small study took place in two classes in an EFL context. So, its findings should not be generalized beyond the two classes that were examined.

Conclusions and Implications

This study provides both theoretical and practical implications for practitioners, educators, and researchers related to second and foreign language learning. Similar to previous studies on group work and language learning, the findings of the current study revealed that, in the learners' perceptions, the majority of the Korean college students in the two EFL classes had positive perceptions of pair and group work and that there were benefits of using pair and group work in language classes (findings similar to those of Alfares, 2017; Brown, 2007; Koc, 2018; McDonough, 2004; and Richards, 2006). First, the majority of the students indicated that as a result of participating in the pair and group work activities, they gained confidence in using the target language, as pair and group work provided more opportunities to ask questions and to create and practice expressions, making it more comfortable for the students to produce the target language. In addition, the participating students revealed that pair and group work promoted active participation, which led to an increased motivation level in learning the target language. Finally, the students reported that pair and group work enhanced their communicative competence and cooperative learning. It seems that task-based activities through pair and group work provided opportunities for the learners to speak English more and to be supportive of one another, which in turn helped them comprehend the language content.

Although this study was conducted in South Korea, the findings indicating the positive aspects of pair and group work appear to be in agreement with a number of previous studies in different contexts. For example, Baleghizadeh et al. (2014) found in Iran that pair work positively influenced language learners' motivation because it maximized the opportunity for students to speak more by exchanging ideas and "enables learners to increase their participation" (p. 8). Alfares (2017), which investigated group work in EFL classes in Saudi Arabia, revealed that group work promoted a more pleasant "supportive learning environment" allowing "more opportunities and more freedom to practice English" (p. 254). While the majority of the participants in the study revealed positive elements of the pair and group work, minor obstacles that were mentioned were having emotional difficulty connecting with some members and creating unnecessary pressure to produce language output in a short period of time. This finding is consistent with Alfares' (2017) study in that one of the disadvantages of group work was lack of connection with certain individuals because they were shy or lacked interest in group work. This suggests that more efforts should be made by language instructors to identify the key ingredients to making cooperative learning most effective among participants when they are doing pair and group work in the EFL classroom. Finally, the general findings of this study could also provide insights for language learners in terms of how pair and group work can influence their language learning in the EFL classroom.

Based on the findings of the study, the following are pedagogical recommendations for college-level EFL classes in South Korea.

1. The findings show that Korean college EFL students have positive perceptions of pair and group work activities. In addition, the current study demonstrated that students learn language not only from the instructor but also from interaction with the other students. Thus, efforts should be made to include pair and group work in the EFL classroom to promote learner interaction and motivation.
2. The findings of this study suggest a need for students in the language classroom to form unity and team spirit. When students have emotional connections with their partner or group members, students seem to interact and participate in the language activities more. Thus, students should be given many opportunities to get to know one another better in language classes through pair and group work.
3. Some students in the study indicated that pair and group work allowed more feedback and guidance from their peers and the instructor, which was helpful in their language learning. In order to ensure the effectiveness of pair and group work in EFL teaching, language teachers need to make every effort to monitor student learning and provide feedback on their pair and group work activities.
4. In an EFL teaching context, using only communicative activities through pair or group work is not recommended as some students may have never experienced pair or group work in language learning. Thus, in order to improve learners' communicative and grammatical competence, language instruction should incorporate both communicative elements and linguistic components to meet the needs and demands of diverse students and varied teaching contexts.
5. Based on the insights drawn from the study, one of the challenges of pair and group work was not having enough time to produce

language output for beginning-level students. Thus, it is suggested that to minimize this difficulty, sufficient practice time and support should be provided for low-level language learners.

6. In the EFL classroom, there are students with varied language abilities, and they all have different learning styles. Therefore, a variety of pair and group work activities should be introduced to engage students at all levels of language proficiency.

THE AUTHOR

Jessica Lee is an assistant professor at Baekseok Arts University in Seoul, Korea. She is a graduate of the Graduate School of Education and Human Development at George Washington University. She received an EdD degree in curriculum and instruction, with a specialization in the teaching of English as a second or foreign language. Email: jsleegw@gmail.com

REFERENCES

Alfares, N. (2017). Benefits and difficulties of learning in group work in EFL classes in Saudi Arabia. *English Language Teaching*, *10*(7), 247–255.

Ammar, A., Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2010). Awareness of L1/L2 differences: Does it matter? *Language Awareness*, *19*(2), 129–146.

Baines, E., Blatchford, P., & Kutnick, P. (2009). *Promoting effective group work in primary schools*. Routledge.

Baleghizadeh, S. (2010). The effect of pair-work on a word-building task. *ELT Journal*, *64*(4), 405–413.

Baleghizadeh, S., Beheshti, S., & Farhesh, I. (2014). The impact of pair work on EFL learners' motivation. *MEXTESOL Journal*, *38*(3), 1–11.

Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. Addison Wesley Longman.

Brown, H. D. (2007). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (3rd ed.). Pearson-Longman.

Brown, H. D., & Lee, H. (2015). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (4th ed.). Pearson.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions.* SAGE.

Denzin, N. K. (1989). *Interpretive interactionism*. SAGE.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2000). *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed.). SAGE.

Dornyei, Z., & Murphey, T. (2003). *Group dynamics in the language classroom*.

Cambridge University Press.
Ellis, G. (1996). How culturally appropriate is the communicative approach? *ELT Journal*, *50*(3), 213–218.
Fillmore, L. W. (1982). Instructional language as linguistic input: Second language learning in classrooms. In L. C. Wilkinson (Ed.), *Communication in the classroom* (pp. 283–296). Academic Press.
Foster, P. (1998). A classroom perspective on the negotiation of meaning. *Applied Linguistics*, *19*(1), 1–23.
Hacking, I. (2000). *The social construction of what?* Harvard University Press.
Howatt, A. (1984). *A history of English language teaching*. Oxford University Press.
Hymes, D. H. (1972). On communicative competence. In C. J. Brumfit & K. Johnson (Eds.), *The communicative approach to language teaching* (2nd ed., pp. 5–27). Oxford University Press.
Jeon, M. (2009). Globalization and native English speakers in English Program in Korea (EPIK). *Language*, *Culture*, *and Curriculum*, 22(3), 231–243.
Kim, S. J. (2004). Coping with cultural obstacles to speaking English in the Korean secondary school context. *Asian EFL Journal*, *6*(3), 17–27.
Koc, E. M. (2018). Exploring collaborative learning with a focus on group activity in EFL classrooms, Inonu University. *Journal of the Faculty of Education*, *19*(3), 582–597.
Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and principles in language teaching*. Oxford University Press.
Li, M., & Campbell, J. (2008). Asian students' perceptions of group work and group assignments in a New Zealand tertiary institution. *Intercultural Education*, *19*(3), 203–216.
Lim, H., & Griffith, W. (2003). Successful classroom discussions with adult Korean ESL/EFL learners. *The Internet TESL Journal*, *9*(5), 1–4.
Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (1999). *How languages are learned* (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press.
Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2009). *How languages are learned* (3rd ed.). Oxford University Press.
Long, M., & Porter, P. (1985). Group work, interlanguage talk, and second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, *19*(2), 207–228.
Long, M., Adams, M., Mclean, M., & Castanos, F. (1976). Doing things with words: Verbal interaction in lockstep and small group classroom situations. In J. Faneslow & R. Crymes (Eds.), *On TESOL '76* (pp. 137–153). TESOL.
McClintock, K. (2012). Korean university students' perception of communicative language teaching. *TESOL Review*, *4*, 143–157.
McDonough, K. (2004). Learner-learner interaction during pair and small group activities in a Thai EFL context. *System*, *32*(2), 207–224.
Merriam, S. B. (2014). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and*

implementation. John Wiley & Sons.

Nam, I. (2009). An analysis of English majors needs at a Korean university. *The Korea TESOL Journal*, *9*(1), 109–134.

Nam, J. (2005). *Perceptions of Korean college students and teachers about communication based English instruction: Evaluation of a college EFL curriculum in South Korea* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Ohio State University. https://etd.ohiolink.edu/pg_10?::NO:10:P10_ETD_SUBID:63687

Nunan, D. (1999). *Second language teaching and learning*. Heinle Language Learning.

Parsons, K. (2016). Korean EFL students' perceptions of pair and small-group work. *Korea TESOL Journal*, *12*(1), 3–24.

Phipps, S., & Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. *System*, *37*(3), 380–390.

Pica, T., Lincoln-Porter, F., Paninos, D., & Linnell, J. (1996). Language learners' interaction: How does it address the input, output, and feedback needs of L2 learners? *TESOL Quarterly*, *30*(3), 59–84.

Rakab, M. (2016). Pair-work and group-work activities: Myth or reality? *International Journal of Educational Investigations*, *3*(6), 82–100.

Richards, J. (2006). *Communicative language teaching today.* Cambridge University Press.

Savignon, S. (2018). Communicative competence. In J. Liontas (Ed.), *The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching* (pp. 1–7). John Wiley & Sons.

Shin, H. (2007). English language teaching in Korea: Toward globalization or glocalization. In B. Spolsky & F. Hult (Eds.), *The handbook of educational linguistics* (pp. 75–86). Wiley-Blackwell.

Simard, D., & Wong, W. (2004). Language awareness and its multiple possibilities for the L2 classroom. *Foreign Language Annals*, *37*(1), 96–110.

Thornbury, S. (2006). An A–Z of ELT: A dictionary of terms and concepts. Macmillan Education.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Harvard University Press.

Korea TESOL Journal, Vol. 16, No. 1

Teaching Directions from Multiple Perspectives

Brent Campagnola and Lowell Sanborn
Gyeongsang National University, Jinju, Korea

Within the broad field of linguistics, there is a lack of collaboration between theoretical and applied schools of thought. Direction-giving is a suitable and relatively unexplored area to test the compatibility of traditional discourse analysis alongside more applied methods of language and genre analysis. This study seeks to explain the inherent patterns in how directions are given and received in a foreign language (FL) context. The results were obtained by performing and amalgamating several analyses on the transcribed text of direction-giving between eight pairs in varying student and/or teacher combinations at a Korean university. The results reveal a teachable pattern of turn-taking and intonation that seems essential for some English learners to give and follow verbal directions. These theoretical findings are compatible with the more applied findings, which revealed structural language patterns within the spoken genre. This creates a platform for future study of direction-giving and genre studies as well as collaborative works between researchers with diverse backgrounds.

Keywords: language teaching, diversity, theoretical, applied, linguistics

INTRODUCTION

A vital skill that remains relatively unexplored in language teaching research is how directions are given and received. There exists a plethora of practical ways to analyze texts. However, very few studies seem to employ theoretical and applied methodologies simultaneously. It would be particularly useful to know if traditional discourse analysis, introduced by John Sinclair, is compatible with Halliday's systemic functional linguistics and/or the English for specific purposes (ESP) school of genre studies. This provides an opportunity to test the compatibility of these above-mentioned perspectives on direction-giving conversation transcribed into text. The present study seeks to better understand how directions are given and received. The findings are intended to be presented in a way that they can be put to use in the foreign language (FL) classroom. Observed patterns in giving and receiving directions are juxtaposed alongside existing research and theory in second language acquisition (SLA) and task-based language teaching (TBLT) to inform the pedagogical implications, which are intended to show how FL instructors can integrate teaching of these proposed patterns into their lesson.

RESEARCH IN THE CLASSROOM

Language teaching research is an area that has been said to lack accessibility for language teachers (Borg, 2013; Hemsley-Brown & Sharp, 2003; McNamara, 2002). Positions sometimes rely more on theoretical arguments than on empirical evidence (Ellis, 2015, p. 264). This might explain why a number of researchers argue that research and practice are in different discursive worlds and therefore have incompatible goals, interests, and activities (Johnson, 2019). This study attempts to navigate this concern by providing empirical evidence to support the proposed pedagogical implications. Conducting a pilot study in this way has been shown as an effective means of testing a theory or type of analysis (e.g., Presada & Badea, 2014).

Genre studies is an area of research that has found its way into classroom application, especially in helping students connect written texts to their contexts (Myskow & Gordon, 2010; Firkins et al., 2007). As an example, in Firkins et al. (2007, p. 10), it was reported that using a genre approach in the classroom lead to success in helping non-native English-speaking students with English literacy, specifically with connecting text to their context and identifying useful patterns between texts.

Swales and others have repeatedly shown the usefulness of genre analysis to make sense of written discourse (e.g., Swales, 1990). There are three schools of thought in genre studies, and between them the concept can become ambiguous. Nunan (1991) defines genre in spoken discourse as “a purposeful, socially constructed, communicative event” (p. 44). Although research on spoken genres is scarce (e.g., Flowerdew, 1994; Thompson, 1994; Flowerdew & Miller, 1996; Ye, 2014) − and not all find it uncontroversial (Devitt, 1991) − there is a rich tapestry of theory that can be applied to genre analysis.

A crucial distinction to make is between that of a *speech community* and a *discourse community*. Borg (2003) provides that a speech community involves people who recognize their language use as distinct from other users of the same language (Hymes, 1972), whereas a discourse community is a group using communication to achieve shared goals (Swales, 1990). Although the concept of speech community has been regarded as problematic (e.g., Patrick, 2002), it is useful to note that all participants in the present study come from diverse speech communities, and therefore have varied ways of communicating. As Yule (2010) mentions, "people who live in the same region, but who differ in terms of education and economic status, often speak in quite different ways" (p. 253). In this study, the examples provided are only meant to be examples of interactions exhibiting useful patterns for language teachers to know about, not to provide conclusions on how people ought to communicate.

Pedagogical Implications

The pedagogical implications in this paper are colored to some extent by existing research and theory. Nation and Newton (2009) stress the importance of the four strands, the third being that learners pay "deliberate attention to language items and language features" (p. 1). Vocabulary is an area that Nation and Newton suggest will benefit from a "language-focused learning" approach wherein learners look at words as part of a system instead of as part of a message (p. 132). In looking at words as part of a system, collocations become relevant. It has been argued by Farghal and Obiedat (2009) that collocations are a neglected, yet highly valuable variable to take into account in language learning.

Language variation is also a highly relevant consideration to the present study. Sato (1985) showed that language variables are not all consistent in their level of variation (as cited in Ellis, 2015, p. 100). This means that the results of studies examining the variation could point to variables that are relatively consistent, and perhaps are useful to recreate in a classroom demonstration, for example.

Lastly, the pedagogical implications follow a task-based teaching (TBT) framework. The principle regard in this is that learners engage real-world uses of language in the classroom (Willis & Willis, 2007).

This paper will only produce recommendations consistent with this basic principle, meaning that the recommendations made require instructors to see the value in learning with a focus on meaning.

Useful Perspectives

The present study employs analyses derived respectively from the English for specific purposes (ESP) camp of genre research, systemic functional linguistics, and discourse analysis. Within ESP research, a tool that has been used primarily in the teaching of written genres is the Create a Research Space (CARS) model, often described as deriving from Swales (1990). The CARS model enables researchers to categorize information in a way that clarifies structure and connects the text to the context. This is useful because by establishing boundaries of where text meets a particular category of context, we can create a process-based approach to recreating the genre, or purpose-driven category of communication, which is the spoken genre of giving directions to a location in this study.

This study is unique in the way that it pairs the use of the CARS model alongside a transitivity analysis from systemic functional linguistics (SFL), although SFL principles have been used for genre identification (Melissourgou & Frantzi, 2017). Transitivity offers a way to experience the world through six process types (e.g., Zhang, 2017), which will be outlined in a later section. Transitivity comes from Halliday's SFL, which is said to be a "descriptive and interpretive framework for viewing language as a strategic, meaning-making resource" (Eggins, 2004, p. 2). A clause is a unit of language, usually containing one verbal element. According to Eggins, transitivity is in the ideational strand of meaning that deals both with how clauses logically relate to one another as well as the experiential meaning in the clauses themselves (p. 206). By labeling clauses as processes, we can arguably derive useful patterns of communication in the text.

Additionally, by drawing on tools from discourse analysis (e.g., Francis & Hunston, 1987), this study intends to enable the reader to see a successful pattern of communication in giving and receiving directions that can be explicitly or implicitly embedded into meaningful tasks.

ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

The present study attempts to uncover strategies for genre-based classroom instruction. To achieve this aim, this study draws from both ESP and Halliday's SFL to interpret the overall structural patterns from the transcribed text. To derive additional information about how directions are given on a more delicate level, we employed traditional discourse analysis. The latter part of the analysis also allows for a better understanding of what makes feedback meaningful. The lessons from the present study will lead into a description of how instructors can proceed in leading learners to give and receive directions from one place to another.

To understand the results of this study, one needs only a base understanding of the six process types from the transitivity system. Each process type is briefly described in Table 1 (see also Eggins, 2004; Bustam, 2011; Halliday, 2014).

TABLE 1. Process Types

Process Type	Category Meaning	Participants
Material action event	"doing" "doing" "happening"	Actor, Goal
Mental perception affection cognition	"sensing" "seeing" "feeling" "thinking"	Senser, Phenomenon
Behavioral	"behaving"	Behaver, Behavior
Verbal	"saying"	Sayer, Target
Relational attribution identification	"being" "attributing" "identifying"	Token, Value Carrier, Attribute Identified, Identifier
Existential	"existing"	Existent

Note. From Halliday (1985, p. 131), adapted from Bustam (2011, p. 25).

Table 1 shows the six process types and their subtypes. A clause is a unit that contains a single verb element, which can be several words (e.g., *am running*). Each verb element signifies which process type you are dealing with. (1) *Material processes* involve an actor doing something, possibly to something else, or an event occurring in the physical world. (2) *Mental processes* involve sensing some sort of phenomenon through perception, feeling, or cognition. (3) *Behavioral processes* are ambiguous as they often involve both expressions of a physical and mental behavior in a single verbal element, such as coughing or burping. (4) *Verbal processes* occur when there is a participant (sayer) speaking or stating an intention of speaking, sometimes to another person or just talking aloud. (5) *Relational processes* are of various kinds, but they boil down to two variables relating in sameness, time, location, manner, or in some other comparative way. (6) *Existential processes* occur when something is said to simply exist, such as "snow fell last night."

METHODOLOGY

The present study examined the interactions of four pairs of people. Each trial had three locations that only the speaker was aware of on a map filled with numbers. The speaker would freely give directions to the listener without saying any numbers until the listener could identify the destination number. The map was visible to both participants on a large projected overhead screen. The study involved 7 native and 8 non-native English speakers (N = 15). One participant was used for two respective trials involving different listeners.

Participants

The 8 non-native participants (4 speakers and 4 listeners) were all taking University EFL classes. The speaker and listener knew each other in the trials that involved native English speaker and listener combinations as well as non-native speaker and listener combinations. In trials where there was one native participant and one non-native participant, the participants did not know each other. Of the participants, 33% identified as female; 66% identified as male. Every participant, including the teachers, came from a different major or background.

Though all participants reported inclusion in different speech communities, all shared the Korean–English language community.

Data Collection

Data was collected in the present study using video recordings on two IPhones. One recording was of the speaker (giving verbal directions) and one recording was of the listener (following the directions). The audio was transcribed; then this transcription was used in the respective analyses. There were two pairings of each of the following (speaker–listener): native–native (N-N), native–non-native (N-NN), non-native–native (NN-N), and non-native–non-native (NN-NN). The same speaker was used for one N-N trial and one N-NN trial.

Data Analysis

The results of this study involve data collected from a Create a Research Space (CARS) model, a transitivity analysis, and using traditional discourse analysis. First, the transcription was broken down into a clause structure in Word signified by the verb element as discussed above. The CARS model was teased out through reading the data carefully and labelling the process type of each clause. The clauses and process types were then entered into Excel under each move-step category to calculate a table representing the quantity of process types found in clauses within each move and step. A separate discourse analysis was conducted to identify patterns in successful communication and quantify their occurrence in each respective trial. The audio was revisited to study prosodic patterns in the text such as the intonation, stress, and pausing. For this analysis, the transcript was broken down into "transactions," which are signified by a switch in the person speaking.

Results and Discussion

The present study employs a variety of perspectives to reach conclusions about giving and receiving directions. These conclusions were formed through persistent analysis of the data, which will be summarized in Tables 2, 3, 4, and 5.

TABLE 2. Move–Step Process of Giving Directions

Move 1	Initiating	Step 1: Stating goal
		Step 2: Confirmation of goal
Move 2	Directing	Step 1: State starting point
		Step 2: Specific instructions to move
		Step 3: Limiting the movement
		Step 4: Clarify instructions to move
Move 3	Sharing Perspective	Step 1: Discussing road(s)
		Step 2: Discussing location(s) or marker(s) on the map
		Step 3: Check for understanding

Note. Based on Swales (1990).

The move–step structure in Table 2 represents the patterns perceived through analysis of the transcripts from all 8 trials broken down into clauses. Three primary goals in the whole of the transcribed text were teased out in the analysis: initiating, directing, and sharing perspective. The steps provide more specific criteria that would trigger a count of any particular move (see Table 3).

TABLE 3. Process Frequency in Each Move

Process Type	Move 1: Initiating	Move 2: Directing	Move 3: Sharing Perspective	Total
Material	1	295	5	301
Mental	3	6	36	45
Behavioral	4	0	2	6
Verbal	9	4	2	15
Relational	1	27	80	108
Existential	0	4	25	29
Total	18	336	150	504

Table 3 shows the frequency of process types being grouped with each of the respective moves. Across the 8 trials, 60% of the processes are material, and are mostly contained in the second move. Contextual factors, such as whether participants knew each other, seemed to influence how participants would initiate giving directions. In the first trial between two native-speaking language teachers, for example, there was no initiating move at the beginning of the trial, but it did occur later in the trial upon starting directions to a new location on the map. Although the results show that 50% of the clauses grouped with the first move are verbal, this did not seem to suggest that students should limit themselves to this process type, as there was a great diversity in how this move would occur. Furthermore, the verb element chosen could depend on how students have practiced introducing themselves.

Clauses grouped with the latter two moves are far more numerous and weighted more to specific processes. Eighty-eight percent (88%) of the processes grouped with the directing move are material, often using the word *go* to direct the listener's movement. Clauses grouped with the third move of sharing perspective rarely invoked material processes, showing instead a relative tendency to use relational (53%), mental (24%), and existential processes (16.7%). Excerpt 1 from Trial 4 shows how the speaker alternates between directing movement and sharing perspective.

Excerpt 1. From Trial 4 showing alternation between moves (m) 2 and 3.
MP 34a (Speaker 4) Ok we're at the star. (m3)
QS 35a (Listener 4) Yeah.
MP 36a (Speaker 4) And we go straight. (m2)
QS 37a (Listener 4) Yeah.
MP 38a (Speaker 4) And there's a fork in the road (m3)
QS 39a (Listener 4) Yeah.
MP 40a (Speaker 4) You go to the right. (m2)
QS 41a (Listener 4) Ok.
MP 42a (Speaker 4) You keep going straight. (m2)
QS 43a (Listener 4) Yeah.
N/A 44a (Speaker 4) And then, uhh, I guess
MP 44b (Speaker 4) there will be a park. (m3)
QS 45a (Listener 4) Ahh ya.
MP 46a (Speaker 4) Turn right at the park. (m2)
QS 47a (Listener 4) Mhmm.
MP 48a (Speaker 4) And go straight. (m2)

The dialogue between speaker and listener in Excerpt 1 also demonstrates one of the key patterns identified from the discourse analysis that was conducted. The pattern, in reference to Francis and Hunston's (1987) work (as cited in Coulthard, 1992, pp. 158–159), involved two elements: a marked proposal (marked with MP) and a qualifying statement (marked with QS). For the purposes of this paper, a *marked proposal* is a direction or inquiry that might elicit a response from the other person. The marked proposals observed consistently used falling intonation, followed by a pause. This would often be followed by a passing of turn and feedback from the other participant. If the other person gives a verbal confirmation of understanding, this can be called a *qualifying statement*. This is useful for this analysis because it allows us to witness this pattern and make observations that could be useful for teachers and researchers. This pattern of communication seemed to occur more frequently with an active listener, as they would establish the pattern early on by providing some sort of feedback. Table 4 shows the relative occurrence of this pattern based on the number of transactions identified.

TABLE 4. Marked Features and Reliable Patterns Found in Experiment

Experiment Speakers	Greeting	Location 50	Location 69	Location 32	Instances	Transactions	Total Instance Percentage
1 N-N	0/0 0%	0/9 0%	1/7 14.2%	0/4 0%	1	20	0.2%
2 NN-N	2/7 28.7%	N/A	2/13 15.3%	17/30 56.6%	21	50	42.0%
3 NN-NN	0/2 0%	19/28 67.8%	7/7 100%	4/6 66.6%	30	43	69.7%
4 N-NN	4/6 66.6%	13/26 50.5%	16/28 57.1%	9/14 64.2%	42	74	56.7%
5 N-N	1/1 100%	15/27 55.55%	6/7 85.7%	6/8 75%	28	43	65.1%
6 NN-N	0/6 0%	N/A	2/5 40%	1/7 14.2%	3	18	16.6%
7 NN-NN	1/1 100%	9/13 69.3%	12/14 85.7	22/25 88%	44	53	83.0%
8 N-NN	N/A	2/15 13.3%	0/2 0%	0/2 0%	2	19	10.5%

Note. Adapted from Francis and Hunston (1987) as cited in Coulthard (1992).

Table 4 is a representation of how often marked proposals followed by qualifying statements occurred within the transcript. It seemed that when participants initiated the pattern early on, they would continue to use the pattern throughout the trial. In trials where the pattern occurred frequently, there were regular pauses after the speaker would give the directions.

Further intonational patterns were studied and shown to be consistent throughout the trials. After initial utterances from speaker participants, listeners would consistently provide feedback. This pattern was established quickly and repeated when roles were reversed and listeners began asking more detailed questions. The feedback took different lexicogrammatical forms (*mmhmm*, *ok*, *ya*) but had a significantly prevalent intonation pattern. When listeners gave feedback, they would usually select short, monosyllabic words with either rising, neutral, or falling intonation; an example is given for each in Table 5.

TABLE 5. Marked Prosodic Features

Intonation	Example	Act
Rising	L3: ahhh is it **69'** S3: ya	starter marked proposal qualifying statement
Neutral	S2: and then turn right L2: **ok-**	marked proposal qualifying statement
Initial Falling	L5: so you're going to turn right there or after **it'** S5: before the park' L5: ok.	inquiry qualifying statement confirmation

Note. Adapted from Francis and Hunston (1987) as cited in Coulthard (1992, pp. 158–159).

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The patterns and observations made above reveal some overall implications for instructors teaching direction-giving. These observations are arguably quite relevant in a Korean context, as more than half of the participants were Korean, and the other half were English teachers in Korea. The main pedagogical implications are as follows:

1. Emphasize the need for feedback. In directions, this is crucial for demonstrating that the directions have been understood at each step. If there is a misunderstanding, the speaker and listener can easily identify where the misunderstanding has occurred. As Willis and Willis (2007) point out, "spoken language usually involves two or more active participants in the production of language" (pp. 56–57). Indeed, listening skills involve taking an active role in providing the speaker with feedback (Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 97). Nation and Newton explain further that "this feedback may involve pointing out problems with the comprehensibility of the message and specifying where the problem lies" (p. 97). Instructors might also consider ensuring that they are being active listeners, as they could benefit from paying attention to and then reproducing areas where the learner shows proficiency. In other words, instructors might mimic the speech patterns of their students. Paul Nation (2007) describes meaning-focused activities as successful if "most of what learners are listening to or reading is already familiar to them" (p. 2). Hence, giving and receiving directions in a classroom setting could be characterized by the need for active listening. In the classroom, instructors can not only encourage learners to give feedback but also give them ample time and opportunity to do so when showing how to give directions.

2. Assist learners in noticing key vocabulary for giving directions. Instructors can explicitly teach the importance of key vocabulary, such as *go*, *turn*, and relevant collocations that enable the learner to understand the system they are working with. The need for knowing key verbs in direction-giving was shown by the frequency of material processes in the overall text. Material processes are particularly learnable because of the ease of "creating a mental picture of the word or a situation where it is used," a technique offered by Nation and Newton (2009, p. 135). Additionally, Nation and Newton recommend use of "language definitions, synonyms, pictures, or demonstration" (p. 135–136). Students also need the vocabulary and sentence structure necessary to reference the world, including phrases such as "it is" (relational), "I see" (mental), "there is" (existential). Once students grasp familiarity with these expressions, it will be a lot easier for them to give and receive directions in English.

3. Bring awareness to intonation in the target language. By emphasizing feedback, the speaker and listener will likely engage in the pattern demonstrated in Excerpt 1. Further scaffolding might allow learners to recreate the falling intonation witnessed in many of the trials. That is, delivering the marked proposal with falling intonation followed by a pause. If learners can notice this pattern, it would arguably bring awareness to an important aspect of language to pay attention to. It is vital that instructors do what they can to avoid making learners anxious about making the sounds (Nation & Newton, 2009). This can be avoided by guiding learners to recreate the correct intonation without making learners think that they are failing, which might be done by finding natural and spontaneous ways to give or receive some sort of direction from learners. As Willis and Willis (2007) argue, "Some of the most successful activities in the classroom involve a spontaneous exchange of meanings" (p. 8).

CONCLUSIONS

When learners participate in discussion, they produce patterns of language and intonation that they are comfortable with. Language instructors may provide explicit instruction on active listening and feedback giving to facilitate successful turn-taking patterns. Learners can begin to identify genre-specific conversation cues related to turn-taking. Understanding the markers that identify the passing of turn may assist in occupying the space of uncertainty often brought on by unfamiliar language patterns. From thought to action, the genre of direction-giving can be identified with consistent variables. Instructors with diverse groups of language learners may benefit from introducing intonational features related to turn-taking and logical steps in the formation of genre.

THE AUTHORS

Brent Campagnola holds a master's degree in applied linguistics and discourse studies, and a bachelor's degree in law from Carleton University. He is starting studies at the Schulich School of Law in Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada, as of September 2020. Email: brentcampagnolabusiness@gmail.com

Lowell Sanborn is the international faculty coordinator at Gyeongsang National University's School of Language Education in Jinju, South Korea. His fields of interest include discourse analysis and genre. He holds a master's degree in TESOL from the University of Birmingham and an undergraduate degree in linguistics from the University of British Columbia. Email: lowellsanborn @gmail.com

REFERENCES

Borg, E. (2003). Key concepts in ELT: Discourse community. *English Language Teaching Journal*, *57*(4), 398–400.

Borg, S. (2013). *Teacher research in language teaching: A critical analysis*. Cambridge University Press.

Bustam, M. R. (2011). Analyzing clause by Halliday's transitivity system. *Jurnal Ilmu Sastra*, *6*(1), 22–34.

Devitt, A. J. (1991). Intertextuality in tax accounting: Generic, referential, and functional. In C. Bazerman & J. Paradis (Eds.), *Textual dynamics of the professions: Historical and contemporary studies of writing in professional communities* (pp. 336–355). University of Wisconsin Press.

Eggins, S. (2004). *An introduction to systemic functional linguistics*. Bloomsbury.

Ellis, R. (2015). *Understanding second language acquisition* (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press.

Farghal, M., & Obiedat, H. (2009). Collocations: A neglected variable in EFL. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *33*(4), 315–332.

Firkins, A., Forey, G., & Sengupta, S. (2007). Teaching writing to low proficiency EFL students. *English Language Teaching Journal*, *61*(4), 341–352.

Flowerdew, J. (1994). *Academic listening: Research perspectives*. Cambridge University Press.

Flowerdew, J., & Miller, L. (1996). Lectures in a second language: Notes towards a cultural grammar. *English for Specific Purposes*, *15*(2), 121–140.

Francis, G., & Hunston, S. (1992). Analysing everyday conversation. In M. Coulthard (Ed.), *Advances in spoken discourse analysis* (pp. 123–161). Routledge.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1985). *An introduction to functional grammar*. Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2014). *Halliday's introduction to functional grammar* (4th ed.). Routledge.

Hemsley-Brown, J. V., & Sharp, C. (2004). The use of research to improve professional practice: A systematic review of the literature. *Oxford Review of Education*, *29*(4), 449–470.

Hymes, D. H. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Bride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: Selected readings*. Penguin.
Johnson, K. E. (2019). The relevance of a transdisciplinary framework for SLA in language teacher education. *The Modern Language Journal*, *103*(1), 167–174.
McNamara, O. (2002). Evidence-based practice through practice-based evidence. In O. McNamara (Ed.), *Becoming an evidence-based practitioner: A framework for teacher researchers*. RoutledgeFalmer.
Melissourgou, M. N., & Frantzi, K. T. (2017). Genre identification based on SFL principles: The representation of text types and genres in English language teaching material. *Corpus Pragmatics*, *1*(4), 373–392.
Myskow, G., & Gordon, K. (2010). A focus on purpose: Using a genre approach in an EFL writing class. *ELT Journal*, *63*(4), 283–292.
Nation, P. (2007). The four strands. *Innovation in Language Teaching*, *1*(1), 2–13.
Nation, I. S. P., & Newton, J. (2009). *Teaching ESL/EFL: Listening and speaking*. Routledge.
Nunan, D. (1991). Communicative tasks and the language curriculum. *TESOL Quarterly*, *25*(1), 279–295.
Patrick, P. L. (2002). The speech community. In J. K. Chambers, P. Trudgill, & N. Schilling-Estes (Eds.), *The handbook of language variation and change* (pp. 573–598). Blackwell.
Presada, D., & Badea, M. (2014). The effectiveness of error analysis in translation classes: A pilot study. *Porta Linguarium*, *22*(1), 49–59.
Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge University Press.
Thompson, S. (1994). Frameworks and contexts: A genre-based approach to analyzing lecture introductions. *English for Specific Purposes*, *13*(2), 171–186.
Willis, D., & Willis, J. (2007). *Doing task-based teaching*. Oxford University Press.
Ye, L. (2014). A comparative genre study of spoken English produced by Chinese EFL learners and native English speakers. *TESL Canada Journal*, *31*(2), 51–66.
Yule, G. (2010). T*he study of language* (4th ed.). Cambridge University Press.
Zhang, Y. (2017). Transitivity analysis of Hillary Clinton's and Donald Trump's first television debate. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, *6*(7), 65–72.

Developing an Effective ESP Curriculum: For Cosmetology Learners and Second Language Teachers

Haejin Jang
James Cook University Singapore, Singapore

This paper provides an analysis of a customized English for specific purposes (ESP) curriculum for the cosmetics industry. To develop the curriculum, a learner needs analysis was performed before the course began. It was clear that the learners were interested in improving presentation skills as well as understanding relevant terminology and expressions that are used in target workplace settings. In addition, both a qualitative and quantitative survey was conducted in order to understand the learners' satisfaction and the second language teacher's (SLT's) views on the ESP course. The results of the survey indicated that 69.7% of the students were extremely satisfied with the course and that they would highly recommend the course. Moreover, the SLT interview showed that curriculum development is extremely important, as many SLTs are not professionally trained to teach their assigned subjects. Therefore, providing effective curriculum for these ESP courses benefits both the ESP learners and the SLTs.

Keywords: English for specific purposes (ESP), second language teachers (SLTs), cosmetology, curriculum development

INTRODUCTION

In today's globalized economy, many people go abroad to study or work. The Human Resource Development Service of Korea (2010) reported that since 1998, there has been a significant increase in the number of people in Korea seeking overseas employment. From 1998 to the end of 2010, 5,442 people went abroad to work in the administration and service sectors. This is more than other sectors in Korea, such as IT, architecture, electronics, and medicine. Cosmetology is becoming more of a profession in Korea, and many students are choosing the path to becoming a hair stylist, massage therapist, or nail artist (Kim, 2011). The growing popularity of K-pop and K-drama has strengthened the Korean cosmeticians' position in the worldwide cosmetics industry, and it is helping young people to broaden their opportunities to work abroad (Kim, 2015). However, only a handful of English curricula have been developed specifically for those who want to work abroad in the cosmetics industry. Hence, a curriculum is being developed so that those cosmetology students who want to do an internship or get a job abroad in the cosmetics industry benefit from the course and adjust better in the overseas workforce. To develop effective curricula, specifically for those learners with different needs, it was important to conduct a learner needs analysis so as to effectively develop English for specific purposes (ESP) content (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Yu & Liu, 2018). In addition, second language teachers (SLT) who have only been teaching general English skills will face difficulties when attempting to teach ESP courses to business, engineering, nursing, or cosmetology students. In these instances, those subjects may be more foreign to the SLTs than to the students themselves. Therefore, developing a curriculum before the course is vital for those new teachers who are challenged with teaching ESP courses. In order to address these issues, this study aims to answer the following question:

> RQ: Why is it so important to develop ESP curricula for learners and SLTs?

Theoretical Background

Roles of SLTs in an ESP Context

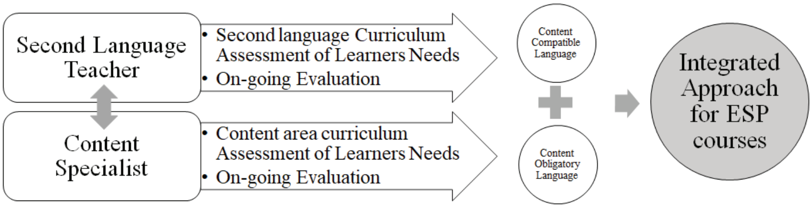
As an increasing number of Korean high school and university students have looked abroad for job opportunities, the demand for ESP courses has risen rapidly over the past 10 years (Harding, 2007). As such, it was essential for many departments within these educational bodies to incorporate ESP courses into their curricula. These changes have helped to increase the employment rate of universities and high schools in Korea (Whitehead et al., 2019). ESP is the area of second language teaching that focuses on the medium of the second language to develop an understanding of a range of academic fields such as business, architecture, nursing, and engineering. ESP courses emphasize the integrated-skills approach so as to enhance the student's specific areas of English understanding.

Therefore, the roles of SLTs in ESP courses do not end in teaching general grammar or phrases. Instead, the SLTs have to play multiple roles. Dudley Evans and St. John (1998) described ESP teachers as being a "practitioner" in order to emphasize their roles. An ESP practitioner can be categorized in five different ways: as teacher, course designer and content provider, researcher, collaborator, and evaluator. As a teacher the ESP practitioner needs to work together with the students to generate communication in the classroom. In ESP courses, the students who attend the class may likely know more about the contents than the teacher. Therefore, the SLT and students have to cooperate with each other in order to meet the students' specific learning objectives. The course designer and content provider needs to develop materials that relate specifically to the learners' requirements within a certain field. However, it is almost impossible to find a suitable textbook that exactly meets a learner's needs, so SLTs have to use supplementary materials from other published books or self-produced ones in order to fill this void. The researcher carries out a learner needs analysis, designs courses, and develops teaching materials specifically for ESP learners. The collaborator needs to collaborate with relevant educators to build an appropriate syllabus for the course. Collaborating regarding the content delivery and the work that students will actually have to carry out is an important part of ESP course preparation. The evaluator is involved in various types of evaluations such as testing students as well as evaluating the courses and teaching materials. SLTs also assess the progress of the learners in the class and modify the class materials as needed.

Importance of Contents in ESP Curriculum Development

Snow, Met, and Geness (1989) and Met (1994) outlined a conceptual framework that priorities contents in curriculum development. Genesee (1994) also indicated that learners' in-class activities should focus on content rather than the language itself when integrating second language learning in the classroom. Therefore, in order to meet the specific needs of learners when designing the learning objectives for a class, the supplementary activities selected should be both familiar to the ESP learners and suitable for the learners' level of intellectual development (Sasirekha et al., 2018). Therefore, it is important for both the SLTs and content specialists (CSs) to analyze the linguistic forms that arise in specific content domains, either in content-obligatory language or in content-compatible language. Content-obligatory language is the language that is required in order to learn particular content, while content-compatible language can be taught within the context of a particular content domain, but does not require the learner to successfully master the contents. As Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) described, most ESP courses are designed for English learners that have an above intermediate level of capability, as it requires learners to understand the content of their major in their second language. Additionally, Genesee (1994) proposed language-learning objectives in a content-based program in three aspects: (a) the second language curriculum, (b) the content-area curriculum, and (c) assessment of the learners' academic and communicative needs and ongoing evaluation of their developing language skills. From these aspects, two types of objectives are specified: (a) content-obligatory language objectives and (b) content compatible language objectives (see Figure 1).

FIGURE 1. The Conceptual Framework for Integrating Language and Content Instruction



SLTs are challenged to meet appropriate language objectives for second language learners with content-based instruction (Agustina, 2014; Richards & Rodger, 2001). With the help of CSs who focus on content obligatory language in developing the curriculum, ESP learners will not only improve their content area language skills but also their content knowledge. Consequently, to successfully develop an ESP curriculum that focuses on both content-compatible language and content-obligatory language, it is vital for CSs and SLTs to cooperate in the process.

Characteristics of ESP Courses

Carver (1983) states that there are three characteristics of ESP courses, which this paper has incorporated in order to develop the English for Cosmetics course curriculum: authentic materials, purpose-related orientation, and self-direction. (a) Authentic materials are usually used in intermediate- or advanced-level learning environments, as understanding the material can be difficult for low-level students. The students are also encouraged to conduct their own research by finding information through appropriate on- and off-line sources. (b) A purpose-related orientation is the simulation of communicative tasks that are required in certain situations, such as giving conference or business presentations and negotiating with clients on the phone. In these instances, learners can practice their listening, writing, and note-taking skills. (c) Self-direction is often used with high-ability learners, and teachers should encourage learners to decide when, what, and how they study. In sum, the type of classroom focus differs depending on the learners' profession. As a result, teachers need to take on different roles and approach situations in different ways depending on what their goals are and according to their English proficiency when conducting ESP courses.

Learner Needs Analysis

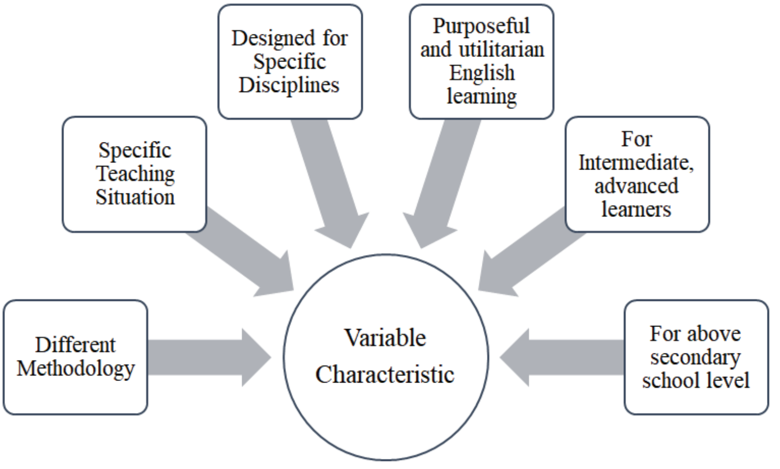
A needs analysis provides facilities with the input of a wider array of content, design approaches, and implementation techniques that are more in tune with the initial needs of the learners. By analyzing the needs of learners, teachers can develop clear goals and learning objectives that are in sync with the content of the ESP course (Richards, 1996). Two major ESP needs analysis models have been formulated by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998)[1]. The Hutchinson and Water model focuses on target needs and learning needs. In this regard, target needs refer to what learners need to do in the target situation, and it can be explained by their specific *necessities*, *lacks*, and *wants*. In contrast, learning needs is the process of understating the lacks to accomplish the necessities and wants. The model is summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1. ESP Learner Needs as Necessities, Lacks, and Wants

Learner Needs		
Target Needs	Necessities	*Necessities* are determined by what learners have to know to function effectively in the target situation.
	Lacks	*Lacks* are gaps between the target proficiency and the learners' current proficiency.
	Wants	Ideal *wants* reflect all learners' interests.
Learning Needs	*Learning needs* are knowledge and abilities that are needed in the target situation.	

As previously explained, the Hutchinson and Waters (1987) model focuses on target needs, which are important components of ESP needs analysis. However, the model does not consider means, linguistic, discourse, or genre analysis, which are included in Dudley-Evans and St. John's (1998) needs analysis model. This model provides a more comprehensive set of ESP characteristics, as the goal of developing the customized curriculum is to meet the learners' specific needs through effective teaching methodologies and teaching activities (see Figure 2).

FIGURE 2. Variable Characteristics of Dudley-Evans & St John's Needs Analysis Model



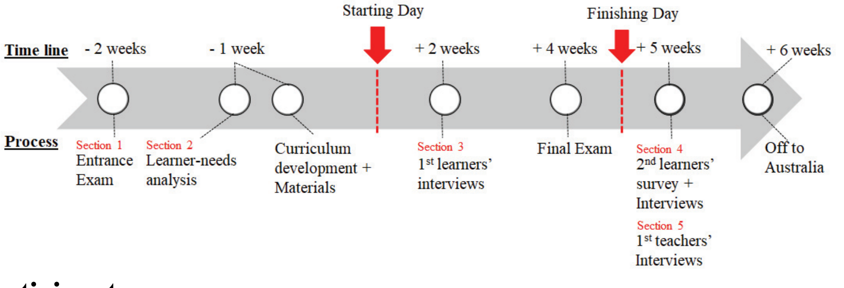
As shown in Figure 2, the needs analysis frameworks in an ESP context is extremely flexible, as many of the other considerations that can affect the results of the comprehensive ESP needs investigation are included (Rahman, 2015).

This study proposes to highlight the importance of effective curriculum development in one particular aspect of English language teaching, ESP, and how a well-organized curriculum can increase the satisfaction of the learners and decrease the burdens of SLTs in an ESP context. This study also presents a well-developed English for Cosmetics ESP curriculum to broaden the field of English education in the cosmetology sector.

METHOD

To answer our key research question, a background questionnaire and mini TOEIC test were conducted before the needs analysis to make sure that the students shared a similar background and English proficiency level. Based on the needs analysis data, the course was designed to improve the learners' understanding of the content and obligatory language. The process of course preparation is summarized in Figure 3. Furthermore, to give a clear understanding of the procedure of curriculum development, the course was divided into four sections.

FIGURE 3. The Process for Course Preparation



Participants

The participants in this study included 23 senior high school students from Korea who were majoring in cosmetology. None of the participants lived in an English-speaking country for more than six months, and this was their first time taking an ESP course focusing on English for cosmetology. As this was a part of a government program, the learners were sponsored to go to Australia to do an internship and study there for three months after passing this four-week program. To enter into the course, the learners had to do an interview and take an entrance exam. A total of 23 students were selected to take the course. To provide the students with the best language learning outcomes throughout the short program, this intensive course offered not only two hours of ESP classroom time, but also five hours of general English learning each week, which covered reading, speaking, writing, and listening skill development.

The SLT was a Korean bilingual teacher who had a background in English education, not cosmetology. In order to assess the degree of teacher participation as well as views on the ESP program as a second language educator, the interview was conducted at the end of the session. The questions were developed so as to better understand the difficulties that the SLT had gone through during the semester and to collect data that could be used to create a more effective ESP curriculum in the future.

Data Collection

In order to provide, well customized ESP courses for the learners, needs analysis data was collected before the course began. When taking into consideration the learners' level of English proficiency, the questionnaire was written in Korean in order to facilitate clearer answers.

A learners' satisfaction survey was conducted a week after the course was completed to investigate the success of the course. In this instance, the paper adopted a five-point Likert scale in which the following categories were given: 5 − *strongly disagree*, 4 − *disgree*, 3 − *neither*, 2 − *agree*, and 1 − *strongly agree* (see Section 2). To understand the in-depth perspectives on the course from the learners, two interviews (see Sections 3 and 4) were conducted as well as a survey (see Section 4) was retrieved from Hwang and Ahn (2011). To understand the teacher's view on ESP as a SLT, a one-on-one interview was conducted (see Section 5).

Data Analysis

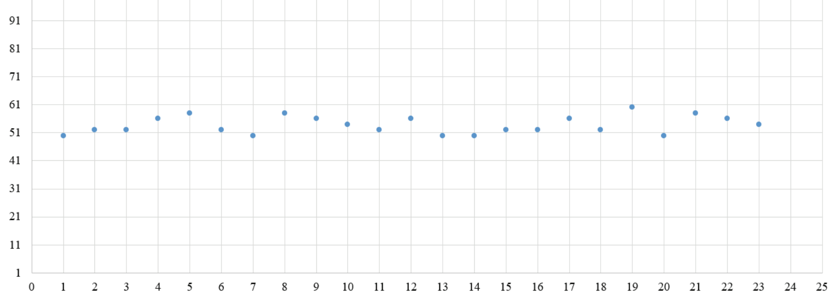
Data analysis involved analyzing the learners' needs, the learners' satisfaction survey, and interviews from both a learners' and teacher's perspective. The findings represent the collaborative results of the formal analysis procedures, which include the collection of the questionnaires as well as positive and negative comments from the interviews that were conducted throughout the course. The course was sectioned into four parts (i.e., Sections 1, 2, 3, and 4). All of the interviews were recorded, scripted, and interpreted accordingly.

Results and Discussion

Section 1: The Results of the Entrance Exam

The students' entrance exam results ranged from 50 to 60 out of 100, which demonstrates a low-intermediate level of English proficiency (see Figure 4). Interviews were conducted to understand the proficency level of the learners, and all of the students were able to communicate and elaborate upon their own ideas using simple English.

Figure 4. The Results of the Entrance Exam



Section 2: The Results of the Learner Needs Analysis

Table 2 shows that the top reasons for taking the ESP courses were to learn their major, followed by getting into a better university, and getting a better job in the future. The students preferred to learn from authentic materials such as reading beauty magazines and watching relevant video clips from news or TV shows. In addition, learners believed that giving presentations would help them to improve their English proficiency the most, followed by taking lectures and watching relevant videos in class.

TABLE 2. The Results of the Learner Needs Analysis

	Survey Questions	*N*	%
Q1. What is the purpose of taking this class?			
1	to go to a better university	6	26
2	to use it in everyday life	1	4.3
3	for self-improvement	1	4.3
4	to study the major	10	43.5
5	to get a better job	5	21.7
Q2. Who would be suitable to conduct ESP courses?			
1	second language teachers	4	17.4
2	cosmetics specialists	2	8.7
3	both second language teachers and cosmetics specialists	17	73.9
Q3. Which is the best way to improve your English fluency in classes?			
1	role plays	3	13
2	lectures	6	26.1
3	presentations	6	26.1
4	video clips	7	30.4
Q4. What would be an appropriate material to use in ESP classes?			
1	video clips	8	34.8
2	magazines	9	39.1
3	textbooks	6	26.1

Course Design

After collecting the needs analysis data, the course was designed with the help of a cosmetics specialist who had been working in the beauty industry for the past six years at a local beauty shop in Korea. The course materials represented not only "language use" but also the "content" in carefully selected topics such as makeup, massage, manicure, pedicure, hair styling, hair treatment, and facial treatment. The general setup of a unit was based on job roles in a beauty salon, as shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3. Syllabus for the Course

		Contents
1	Makeup 1	Learn what kind of makeup people wear Foundation, blemishes, concealer, face powders, lip liner, lip glosses
2	Makeup 2	Learn about makeup tools Mascara wand, eyelash curler, foundation brush, shader brush
3	Massage 1	Learn different types of massages Aromatherapy massage, deep tissue massage, shiatsu, reflexology
4	Presentation 1	
5	Massage 2	Learn about good massage therapy Massage table, spine and tender spots, massage therapist
6	Manicure 1	A guide to your nail beauty manicure Nail clippers, emery board, finger bowl, nail brush, cuticle oil, buffer
7	Manicure 2	Learn how to maintain your manicure Nail technician, smudging, scratching, shrinking, peeling, hand cream
8	Pedicure	Learn how to provide pedicure service Open-toed shoes, pusher, skin buffer, calluses, pumice stone, toe separator
9	Hair Styling 1	Learn what kinds of tools hair designers use Cap, shears, clippers, blow dryer, curling iron, flat iron, rollers, wide-tooth comb
10	Hair Styling 2	Learn different types of hair styles Straight, wavy, curly, oily, kinky, volume, tangled, sleek, frizzy
11	Communication with a Customer 1	Learn how to make a client feel comfortable I just want you to…, Please lean… so I can…, Tilt your head
12	Communication with a Customer 2	Learn how to greet clients Do you have an appointment? The wait time is going to be about…
13	Hair Treatment 1	Learn how to shampoo Shampoo chair, lather, hose, nozzle, nape

14	Hair Treatment 2	Learn how to straighten peoples' hair Flat iron, glossy, frizz-free
15	Presentation 2	
16	Facial Treatment 1	Learn about common skin problems Sunscreen, oily skin, flaky skin, enlarged pores
17	Facial Treatment 2	Learn about skin care treatment Scrub, astringent, sensitive skin, treatment
18	Final Test	

Some of the materials were incorporated from Dooley and Evans (2014) to fulfill Carver's (1983) three characteristics by using authentic materials (i.e., magazines and news articles), purpose-related orientation (i.e., presentations, keynotes), and self-direction (i.e., presentation peer evaluations; see Figure 5 and Table 4).

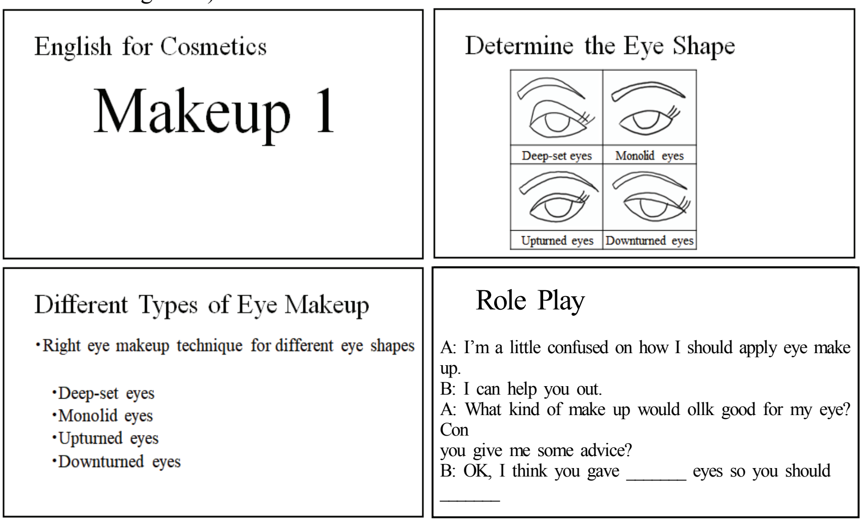
FIGURE 5. Class Materials Incorporated from Authentic Material (Beauty Magazine)

Eye Makeup for Monolid Eyes

1. Highlight the inner corners of the eyes.
2. Extend the highlights to the center of the lid.
3. Use a medium eye shadow to create the appearance of rounder eyes.
4. Apply a thin line of eyeliner but increase the thickness of the application as it goes towards the outer corner of the eye.

The class was conducted as follows: Word or sentence recall quiz, lecture on the topics, role play, and video clip viewing. To review the previous class materials, all of the students had to take the word or sentence recall quiz that was prepared by the SLT. Following this, the students participated in lectures on the important concepts of international beauty and the service industry. A role play was then conducted to help them understand what they need to say in certain situations. The students also watched video clips that were related to what the students learned in the lectures. This helped students to visualize what they had learned, such as the process of dying customers' hair or styling French nails, which are better explained using visual aids. Subsequently, the students did mention in their one-on-one interviews that the video clips helped them to learn how the new terminology and phrases acquired from the lectures could be used in real-life contexts.

FIGURE 6. Sample Slide Show Template That Accompanies Lesson 1 (see Figure 5)



Two ten-minute individual presentations were conducted to assess students' ability to present more accurately. Its theme was related to the areas of the beauty industry that the students were interested in, such as hair styling, hair coloring, manicure, tattoos, and massaging. All of the students prepared a PowerPoint presentation with key notes included within the submission. The PowerPoint materials were 5–6 pages in length with pictures and key words included on each slide. The students were advised to not have too many words on their PowerPoint presentation slides so that only reading the materials from the slides was not possible. This was reviewed by the teacher and peer-reviewed by fellow students a day before the presentation was scheduled to be made so they could be as well prepared as possible for the actual presentation. In addition to this, feedback questions were distributed among the class so as to better evaluate each other's performance. All of the students were advised to be critical and give constructive feedback to the presenters. Each individual presentation took 10–15 minutes.

TABLE 4. Presentation Evaluation Form

Features	Comments
Presentation was organized and easy to follow.	
Presenter had a good understanding of topic and was well-prepared.	
Presenter spoke clearly.	
Time for presentation was used effectively.	
Presenter tried to engage with the audience and responded well to their questions and comments.	
Visual aids were related to the information presented.	

A final exam was taken by the students to gauge the level of understanding that they had acquired from their four weeks of learning. Figure 7 provides an example of the final exam.

FIGURE 7. An Example of the Final Term

Q. Please fill in the blanks with the appropriate words below.

lukewarm, *barber*, *aftershave*, *nail technician*, *flat irons*, *blonde*, *shampoo chair*, *brunette*, *ridge*

1. 샴푸의자에 고객님을 앉도록 해.
   Instruct the client to sit in the __________________.
2. 물이 미지근한 것을 확인해.
   Make sure the water is __________________.
3. 첫 번째로 우리의 이발사는 너의 얼굴에 따뜻한 타월을 넣는다.
   First, our __________________ places a hot towel on your face.
4. 갈색 머리를 할 이유는 아주 많다.
   There are plenty of reasons to go __________________.

Section 3: The Results of First Learner Satisfaction Interviews

Two weeks into the course, the first set of learner interviews was conducted to make sure that the course was achieving the appropriate learning outcomes. In order to do this, two students were chosen at random to participate in the interviews. Extracts from their comments are shown below:

> I would prefer to have more video clips to help me to understand the materials. Moreover, I would like to know more about Australia as I have never been there before. I am a bit worried about living by myself as well. Would you have more classes on discussing the cultural differences and cultural norms that we need to be aware of? [Participant 2]

> I want more video clips as it helps me to focus more in class. [Participant 5]

What was evident from the interview was the level of excitement that the students had about the fact that they are leaving the country to explore and work in other parts of the world. In order to effectively address the learners' opinions, an additional question-and-answer session was conducted after the final exam to ease their concerns about moving to a new country. These first interviews also provided another mechanism by which the syllabus could be enhanced. In this regard, based on learner feedback, more video content was included in the course to facilitate better learning outcomes.

Section 4: The Results of the Second Learner Satisfaction Survey and Interviews

At the end of the course, students were given a series of further questions to evaluate how satisfied they were with the course. The questions asked were representative of an earlier study conducted by Hwang and Ahn (2011).

TABLE 5. Satisfaction and Interest Survey Results

Item	Question	SA		A		N		D		SD		Mean
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Satisfaction	1. I am satisfied with this class.	16	69.6	5	21.7	2	8.7	0	0	0	0	4.6
	2. Through this course I am now more interested in this area.	14	60.9	4	17.4	2	8.7	3	13	0	0	4.3
	3. I would like to recommend this course to other students.	16	69.6	4	17.4	3	13	0	0	0	0	4.6
Interest	4. Teachers helped students to get interested in the contents.	15	65.2	3	13	4	17.4	1	4.3	0	0	4.4
	5. I have prepared for the class and tried my best to get involved in class.	10	43.5	6	26.1	4	17.4	3	13	0	0	4.0

Note. SA: strongly agree; A: agree; N: neither disagree nor agree; D: disagree; SD: strongly disagree. The percentages have been rounded to one digit after the decimal point.

As Table 5 indicates, 69.6 percent of the students were extremely satisfied with the class, with a mean score of 4.6 recorded [Item 1], while 69.6 percent of the students wanted to recommend this course to other students, again with a mean score of 4.6 being recorded [Item 3]. Additionally, 65.2% of the students strongly believe that the teacher played an important role in nurturing greater interest in the topic. In this instance, a mean score of 4.4 was recorded [Item 4].

From the group discussion and one-on-one interviews that were conducted with the students, the feedback obtained indicated that because the class did not focus purely on acquiring grammar skills or understanding difficult concepts associated with cosmetology, the students enjoyed their time in class. Moreover, most of them were already familiar with the basic cosmetology subjects. However, the terminology was not familiar, as they could only understand the relevant Korean expressions. Therefore, although memorizing words or sentences every class was not easy, the students also commented on how beneficial it was to have these exercises, noting that it would definitely help them when working abroad. Below are further examples of excerpts from interviews held with learners from the ESP course.

> Memorizing words were too difficult. It was interesting to know that some English words were used in different ways. Also, the role

> plays on greeting customers helped me to remember useful expressions. [Participant 6]

The interviews also revealed the importance of CS when developing curricula. Without them, the class would, in many regards, have a general English class, as teaching new content for cosmetology students is more difficult for SLTs.

> I could see the teacher was not an expert on cosmetology as we have been studying cosmetology for 3 years now, so we can see if the person is an expert or not. However, the materials that were provided were a great help. I really liked the videos as I could learn new words and phrases that are used in real situations. Moreover, doing presentations helped me to overcome my fears of talking in front of others. Getting the evaluation from the teacher (SLT) and other students allowed me to think more carefully about how I should conduct presentations. [Participant 3]

Section 5: The Results of the Teacher Satisfaction Interview

The SLT's interview also addressed the issues of content development for ESP courses, as this kind of course requires not just English teaching but specific content about the students' major. Moreover, the first time SLTs deliver ESP courses, there are undoubtedly difficulties that they need to overcome in understanding of the subject itself. As the goal of the ESP course was to meet the specific needs of the learners in a particular domain, vocation, or occupation (Danilova & Pudlowski, 2006), it was vital for the course to integrate both content-compatible language and content-obligatory language. The following questions were asked to evaluate the effectiveness of the ESP program, which stemmed from a study by Tsou and Chen (2014):

1. Do you think the learning tasks in ESP were authentic? Were the tasks focused on what learners will need to perform in academic classes and future jobs?
2. Do you think the task-based tests were authentic in that they were the type of task learners will perform in their subject classes or future jobs?
3. Do you think the learners have transferred what they learned in ESP to courses in their academic major? Have you heard any

feedback regarding this? If so, what skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) were transferred?
4. Do you feel you play a participatory role in the program and the curriculum development process? Do you feel supported and your opinions heard? Do you feel you are growing as a teacher?
5. What was it like to develop the curriculum with the content specialist? Did it help you to understand the subject better?
6. How do you think this ESP curriculum will help future ESP teachers?

Below is part of the interview with the SLT:

> When I first had to teach this class, I was not sure where to start. I have searched for English cosmetics textbooks or any materials that I can use in class. However, I could not find many resources that I could specifically use. It was great to see the cosmetics specialist before the course, as I could ask them what they do. Additionally, the CS explained in detail the procedures associated with applying extensions or giving manicures, which I was not familiar with. It helped me to understand the context better, which made it easier for me to incorporate new areas of learning pedagogical approaches within course curriculum. Without the help of the CS, I would have been lost as I did not know much about cosmetology. As it helped me, this curriculum will definitely help those SLTs who are assigned to teach English for Cosmetics courses.

Conclusions

Although ESP courses are usually for those with at least an intermediate level of English (Sasirekha et. al., 2018), this course was conducted for low-level English learners who majored in cosmetology. As many of the students in the course did not have a high level of English ability, the SLT's focus had to be not on the quantity of the knowledge but the quality of the information. Therefore, with one topic, a lot of role plays were conducted as well as watching related video clips and discussion on relevant topics. For the SLT to deliver accurate and professional lectures, the SLT had to understand what cosmeticians do in the workforce and modify the authentic materials into well-customized class materials. However, the majority of SLTs are not officially or formally trained ESP teachers with different areas of industry-specific expertise. This is certainly a problem for SLTs in ESP courses, and despite significant preparation, the specific course content may still be more foreign to the SLTs when compared to those students who are taking the courses. Therefore, as it is difficult for the SLT to prepare for the topics, it would have been easier if the needs analysis included questions on the specific subject areas that the learners wanted to learn. As Yahya et al. (2019) described, focusing on the three different areas also made it easier for learners to improve their understanding of the topics.

As it is difficult for SLTs to fully familiarize themselves with knowledge specific to the domain, team teaching might be a better solution for the students. Swales (1990) stresses that SLTs should be an "insider" rather than an "outsider" in order to conduct productive ESP courses. It is therefore crucial for SLTs to not only help learners improve their linguistic proficiency but also their sociocultural competency, such as the occupational "subcultures" that underlie their profession. Swales (1990) indicates that with different communicative settings, the usage of terminology and expressions can differ. Consequently, team teaching can enhance not only the learner's communicative competence within the subject area, but it can also improve their sociocultural knowledge shared by the so-called "insiders." As for the current situation, one can hypothesize that there may be very few SLTs that specialize in English for cosmetology, as there has been no real demand for such classes. However, as the demand for ESP courses continues to grow, there will be more requests for cosmetics-based ESP courses.

Finally, due to the small number of participants in this paper, more research has to be conducted to further refine the curricula associated with cosmetic-based ESP courses. Nonetheless, this study is important in assisting SLTs who are looking for help in developing ESP curricula for low-level English students in Korea, particularly those studying cosmetology.

THE AUTHOR

Haejin Jang is currently lecturing at James Cook University Singapore in the Department of English Language where she teaches academic English courses. Her research interests include the factors that affect second/third language acquisition, the importance of foreign learners' needs analysis in curriculum development, and changes in motivation for second language learners. Her recent ongoing corpus-based study investigates how accurately definite articles are used by Korean learners of English. Email: haejin.jang@jcu.edu.au

References

Agustina, T. (2014). English for Specific Purposes (ESP): An approach of English teaching for non-English department students. *Beta*, *7*(1), 37–63.

Bhatia, V. (1993). *Analyzing genre: Language use in professional settings*. Longman.

Carver, D. (1983). Some propositions about ESP. *The ESP Journal*, *2*, 131–137.

Danilova, E., & Pudlowski, Z. (2006). Research on the curriculum development in English for specific purposes (ESP) to improve the communication skills of students in engineering and technology studies: A research scheme. *World Transactions on Engineering and Technology Education*, 5(3), 385–392.

Dooley, J., & Evans, V. (2014). *Beauty salon*. Express Publishing.

Dudley-Evans, T., & St John, M. J. (1998). *Development in English for specific purposes*. Cambridge University Press.

Genesee, F. (1994). *Integrating language and content: Lessons from immersion*. National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.

Harding, K. (2007). *English for specific purposes*. Oxford University Press.

Human Resources Development Service of Korea. (2010). 해외취업활성화를 위한 토론회 자료집 [Forum materials and minutes for revitalizing overseas employment]. Human Resources Development Service of Korea.

Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes: A learning centered approach*. Cambridge University Press.

Hwang, J., & Ahn, H. (2011). The effects of college-level English-mediated instruction on students' acquisition of content knowledge and English competence. *Korean Journal of English Language and Linguistics*, *10*(1), 77–97.

Kim, K. (2015). A study on the way that can have the beauty industry's competitiveness through the Korean wave. *Treatise on the Plastic Media*, *18*, 11–17.

Kim, M. (2011). *A study on the improvement of overseas employment programs for young population*. Ewha Womans University Press.

Mackay, R., & Mountford, A. (1978). *English for specific purposes: A case study approach*. Longman.

Met, M. (1994). Content-based instruction: Defining terms, making decisions. The National Foreign Language Center.

Nunan, D. (1988). *Syllabus design*. Oxford University Press.
Rahman, M. (2015). English for specific purposes(ESP): A holistic review. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, *3*(1), 24–31.
Richards, J. C. (1996). Teachers as course developers. Cambridge University Press.
Richards, J., & Rodger, S. (2001). Approach and methods in language teaching. Cambridge University Press.
Sasirekha, K., Rathiga, K., Sarpparaje, M., & Suresh, G. (2018). English language pedagogy for engineering students through domain specific literature classroom experiments and experience. *The Asian ESP Journal*, *14*(7.2), 229–250.
Snow, M., Met, M., & Genesee, F. (1989). A conceptual framework for the integration of langauge and content in second/foreign language instruction. *TESOL Quarterly*, *23*, 201–217.
Swales, J. (1990). *Genre Analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Longman.
Tsou, W., & Chen, F. (2014). ESP program evaluation framework: Description and application to a Taiwanese university ESP program. *English for Specific Purposes*, *33*, 39–53.
Whitehead, G., Ramos, I., & Coates, A. (2019). Developing effective teacher talk: A critical self-examination of an ESP course designed for Korean in-service teachers. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, *16*(1), 178–199.
Widdowson, H. G. (1990). *Aspects of language teaching*. Oxford University Press.
Yahya, A., Said, Y., & Masruddin. (2019). Developing appropriate English learning materials for Syariah. *The Asian ESP Journal*, *15*(1.2), 22–33.
Yu, L., & Liu, C. (2018). Curricululm reform of college English teaching in China: From English for gerneral purposes to English for specific purposes. *Journal of English for Specific Purposes at Teriary Level*, *6*(2), 140–160.

FOOTNOTE

[1] The term *needs* in *needs analysis* has different meanings or types. *Needs* can be defined as goal-oriented and describes what learners need to actually do to acquire a language (Widdowson, 1990). Mackay and Mountford (1978) also described *needs* as a desired ability to be learnt from a course. A *needs analysis* is conducted before or at the beginning of a course. Learners' biographical data and personal data related to the learners' preferences and perceptions of needs should be collected through questionnaires and interviews (Nunan, 1988).

Online and Offline Classes at a Private University in Korea: Reflections and Considerations

Tory S. Thorkelson
Hanyang University, Seoul, Korea

The coronavirus outbreak-initiated paradigm shift, requiring an abrupt and uncertain shift from traditional offline classes to entirely online ones, caught both instructors and students off guard. In attempting to provide classes that bore some semblance to the offline classes they replaced for the spring semester of 2020, several strategies were required, including reducing a 16-week term's worth of material to 14 weeks, creating weekly lessons on the university's learning management system (LMS), using both commercially available and self-published textbooks to provide a semblance of normality and structure to the classes, and developing new skill sets to use Zoom, YouTube, and the aforementioned university LMS − Blackboard, in this case − to keep students engaged and on track as the term progressed. This was made even more challenging since the university never formally declared that the entire term would be online, and so this article will outline the background, modifications made to the class content and materials, and reflections on how the author's teaching style has changed for the duration of the COVID-19 situation and afterwards.

Keywords: online education, emergency remote teaching, Blackboard LMS

INTRODUCTION

While many colleges and universities in Korea have already decided to either conduct their entire spring semester online or, in a few cases, have already moved to offline classes as the number of COVID-19 cases has dropped to near zero, our university has left us in limbo with initial delays to our class starting dates from March 2 to March 16 (see Yonhap News, 2020a), when online classes began at our university. However, as the number of COVID-19 patients fell in early to mid-April, the university requested a vote by enrolled students in both practical and theoretical subjects on whether to start offline classes or not with results due by early May. They voted and, if enough students chose offline classes, professors followed up by submitting a form and having it approved by the relevant college and administration during the week of May 8 and − finally, if approved − offline classes started on May 25.

This action by the university may be inspired by the large number of students expressing dissatisfaction with online classes. According to *Yonhap News* (2020b), “The survey of 21,784 students at 203 universities and colleges found 99.2 percent of them agreeing to the full or partial refund of their spring semester tuition, according to the National University Student Council Network, a network of university student councils across the country” (para. 2). According to Chung (2020), “Of those demanding a refund, 82% said the reason was that ‘remote classes are not up to par,’ while 72% also cited not being able to use university facilities” (para. 15).

To be fair, the university may have been attempting to mollify students by trying to gauge their willingness to return to on-campus classes, especially since Bahk (2020) reported in *The Korean Times* that “Colleges have decided to not refund tuition despite facing growing calls from students as classes are being disrupted due to the COVID-19 pandemic, according to the association of university presidents....” (para. 1).

As a result, students are confused and upset, and instructors are struggling to maintain the proper learning atmosphere along with demonstrating both sympathy and empathy for students struggling to adapt to the online learning environment while in turn trying to learn how to best adapt their offline classes to an online experience without losing too much of the content and intended learning outcomes for their classes and programs.

This paper will offer an overview of what has gone right and wrong during this period, with insights into how the purely online class experience has changed the class experience for both the students enrolled in four university classes as well as for the instructor for those classes (i.e., this author). It will also offer some insights into how this experience will likely change the content and instructional approaches that this author will take to their classes both as this unusual situation unfolds and post COVID-19.

BACKGROUND

While in recent semesters new classes can be offered with little or no notice, this being the spring term, all classes being offered by Hanyang University's Department of English Language and Literature's foreign faculty have been offered previously. Of the four courses this author is teaching, the presentations class (PC) has been taught in a variety of forms for 15 years, the acting class (AC) was revived from a class taught for five years in a previous department and has been taught for three years in its current form. The freshmen class (FC) was a new class from the spring semester of 2016, and the Global Business Communication class (GBC) is eight years old and is taught for another department and program that is slowly being phased out but still attracts a mixture of Korean and non-Korean students. One way to gauge the success of the online classes is the number of students who remain active up to the midterm period as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1. Enrolled vs. Active Students in All Classes (May 2020)

Class Name	Enrolled Students	Students Submitting Midterm Materials
AC	19	15*
FC	22	21
PC	25	23
GBC	6	5

* One student emailed the course instructor promising to start submitting homework asap.

These numbers were based on four add/drop periods running right up until April 6. A typical class during a regular semester of offline classes might have one or two students dropping out at some point during the term, so the AC is unusual, but attempting to teach acting purely online is a definite challenge. The FC has a published textbook[1], and I self-published or created textbook-workbook combinations for the other three classes − two of which are available online in PDF and/or e-book formats[2].

All of these classes are communicative classes requiring active participation and extensive use of group/pair work, which is lacking in a purely online class. While Zoom was considered an attractive option at first, the lack of a reliable Wi-Fi network as well as pressure by the university to use the Blackboard LMS, meant that the course instructor spent a significant amount of time over the first few weeks figuring out how to best make use of the tools recommended by the university.

The result was that about 90% of the class is conducted through online assignments, daily review quizzes that appear randomly for 30 minutes during the class, online discussions through the LMS discussion forums with emails between students and the course instructor, and group discussions amongst the students. The instructor offered initially to add any students who wished to Kakao Talk and to create chat groups, but no students responded positively to this offer, presumably because they did not want the instructor monitoring what they were doing or not doing within these groups. Blackboard Collaborate, a much less attractive version of Zoom with fewer features was considered, but after a few technical glitches due to the poor network both at home and at work, it was abandoned as not viable. The networks in question are on the university network and are apparently not upgradeable to any significant degree. Further, it appears it is not equally problematic for all, as some instructors in the same buildings and on the same floors have strong and reliable signals most of the time and others do not. Internal emails from the administration team requested that "class materials be uploaded at home or off-campus due to the network load[3]" before the start of the online classes on March 16, and the situation only worsened once online classes began.

Before the offline class poll officially began, several students shared their strong desire to meet in person or face to face for classes as written in the sample emails below:

> Thank you, professor!
> I hope to see you soon!! [L; AC student after homework feedback, March 29]
>
> Hello professor,
> These are my self-introduction worksheet and video.
> I hope you enjoy the rest of your weekend and look forward to seeing you at school on April 6th. [S; GBC student before online classes were extended to mid-April, March 30]
>
> Hello Professor Tory.
> I'm E in Presentation class, and I'm sending my 2nd week Tuesday

> assignment by this email. Thank you for fun and meaningful online class, and I wish we can meet soon. I hope you to have a nice day today! [PC class student, April 2]

Based on these and similar emails, when the opportunity to move to regular offline classes was offered, this instructor expected students would be eager to do so, but the results of the class polls did not support this (see Table 2).

TABLE 2. Votes For and Against Offline Classes on or before May 8

Class name	Vote for Offline Classes	Votes Against Offline Classes
AC	6	6*
FC	4	6*
PC	10	2*
GBC	1	3*

* Some students chose to abstain from voting for either option.

The votes were conducted through email and on Blackboard, and the deadline was apparently moved from May 6 to May 7 and then to May 8, which caused some confusion. As one student wrote when responding,

> After my closest neighbor [redacted] diagnosed as coronavirus, my family spent most of our time in home, [redacted]. And still no vaccine comes out, so I think we should be careful as we can become random infectors. If we have to meet, we can use live class on our blackboard instead...! Hope to see classmates and professor in near future.... [S; AC student, May 7]

The pandemic hits closer to home for some students than others. Another student wrote,

> I'm not ready for the off-line class. But, if at lest [sic] 10 students agree I'll go to the class very happliy [sic]. Thank you! have a good night professor bye :) [AC student, May 5]

As only one class voted in favor of moving offline, this instructor submitted the form requesting offline classes for the PC on May 8 and received the following response from the department later the same day:

> We just had a meeting... and we decided to approve offline classes only for classes where students have agreed to 50% or more. So please keep <PC> online. The final exam is expected to be taken offline. Thank you for your hard work. [Admin Team, May 8]

So, what changes have been necessitated by online classes for spring semester 2020, and what changes have been made to the classes taught?

Online Versus Offline Classes

Changes in Class Materials Associated with Moving Online

Hodges et al. (2020) state the following in their article comparing online learning and emergency remote teaching:

> Well-planned online learning experiences are meaningfully different from courses offered online in response to a crisis or disaster. Colleges and universities working to maintain instruction during the COVID-19 pandemic should understand those differences when evaluating this emergency remote teaching. (para. 1)

Keeping this in mind, this course instructor has endeavored to pare offline class materials in the textbooks and handouts down to their most basic components and then add additional materials – often in the form of YouTube videos or self-recorded videos uploaded to YouTube[4] as unlisted and then shared with the students online through Blackboard. This process allows the students to watch the videos with English subtitles as often as they like. Since this instructor is not proficient with Blackboard, and the students probably are not in many cases, they are recorded live on Zoom Basic with only 2–3 takes for each video, and then the best one is uploaded. This instructor purposely kept the videos short, 3–6 minutes in most cases, with the longest being 21 minutes thus far.

Lynch (2019) states that the following are important to keep in mind when designing and using videos for e-learning:

> The right video length for e-learning depends on context and application. There's no right answer for all e-learning, but there is a right answer for you. Let's take a quick look at some of the

primary ways online educators put video content to use.

1. Capturing interest on social media. (1−3 minutes)
Social media is a fantastic medium for sharing video. As your followers, subscribers, or (in the case of paid advertising) potential learners scroll down the news feed, you have the opportunity to catch their eye with content.

But even those who do stop to watch your video probably won't stay for more than a few minutes. After all, they came to that channel for something else. So, keep videos here on the shorter side. You can even repurpose content from other parts of your course to make them snappier and more engaging.

2. Training, trailers, and recaps. (2−5 minutes)
Ever notice how movie trailers are all about 2:30? I think there's a reason for this. It's just long enough to give you a taste without giving too much away. And the time commitment is low enough that there's almost no reason not to watch them.

That said, there's not a lot of information you can fit into short videos. You can deliver very specific training information for how to use a piece of equipment, deliver a succinct recap (or introduction) to a module, or preview a course. To get to the heart of your course, you'll need something longer.

3. Guides, tutorials, and overviews. (6−10 minutes)
There is some research that says that six minutes is the optimal length for a video. That's certainly a compelling case, and the bulk of your content should lie at about this length. Six minutes is just long enough for learners to absorb something of value, but not so long that they can't watch it (and complete a review quiz) during a coffee break.

From my personal experience, I can attest that six minutes is a pretty addictive length for video content. I can always justify watching just one more, while also feeling like I treated myself to something interesting and valuable.

4. Deep content. (Up to 20 minutes)
Now we're into the TED Talk zone. This is for complex topics − subjects that can't be covered in enough detail in only six minutes. And yes, there's plenty of content that falls into this category.

However, with longer videos, there are two things to keep in

> mind. First, some learners won't stay till the end. I'm willing to accept this in exchange for incredible long-form content, but that's the key: your videos have to be top notch and riveting all the way through if you expect to maintain interest for the duration.
>
> Second, these are not good for mobile learners. Not only does a twenty-minute video draw on a lot of data, it's also a bit awkward to consume in a public setting (where most mobile learners are). (para. 8–17)

Finding Lynch's suggestions very helpful, this instructor has used them consistently to guide the lengths and types of videos being recorded for various classes. This has resulted in two interesting things happening. First, this instructor now has seven subscribers to their YouTube channel[5]; up from 0 before this term. Further, the videos recorded by this instructor have been watched numerous times (see Table 3 for examples).

TABLE 3. Examples of Instructor's Videos on YouTube and Numbers of Views

Video Title	Total Views
Welcome Video Tory All Classes	13
PC Introduction	90
AC Introduction	74
FC Introduction V2	79
GBC Introduction	13
My Self Introduction Tory (Homework 1 all classes)	78
Blooms Taxonomy Discussed (FC Homework)	125
Character Sketch Video (AC)	55

Changes Associated with Moving Classes Online

Hodges et al. (2020) explicitly said this about online education versus emergency remote education:

> Online education, including online teaching and learning, has been studied for decades. Numerous research studies, theories, models, standards, and evaluation criteria focus on quality online learning, online teaching, and online course design. (para. 7)

> In contrast to experiences that are planned from the beginning and designed to be online, emergency remote teaching (ERT) is a temporary shift of instructional delivery to an alternate delivery mode due to crisis circumstances. It involves the use of fully remote teaching solutions for instruction or education that would otherwise be delivered face-to-face or as blended or hybrid courses and that will return to that format once the crisis or emergency has abated. (para. 13)

With the above in mind, here are some of the many changes that have occurred as this instructor's offline classes have been moved online.

The textbook has become more important than ever.

As can be seen from the list of classes above for the spring 2020 term, the classes taught by the foreign faculty in our program are designed to be highly communicative. The textbooks often serve more as a springboard for pair/group work and so online classes inhibit these aspects of the classes to a large degree. Lochiatto (2009) writes:

> A good textbook is crucial to an online course. Because so much of an online instructor's interaction is based largely on email, chat, or online discussion boards and groups, the textbook must provide structure and deliver the course content. (para. 1)

With three self-designed textbooks, it might be assumed that the textbooks and class content would match up nearly perfectly. However, in most cases the activities in the textbooks are intended to be done in pairs/groups and – while class discussions can be set up on the Blackboard LMS along with random or assigned groups, most students prefer to set up their chat groups off of the site, so this has required more frequent assignments worth 1–2% of their homework grades to ensure that they are practicing and applying the skills. It also means that the acting class, for one, has been modified significantly to require students to do activities on video by themselves rather than in a class with their classmates and in pairs and groups. For example, the mirror game descriptions from the textbook and revised for online classes are shown below:

> From the Acting Resource and Workbook (2020) "Mirror Game: Pairs. One person must follow exactly what the other does (e.g.,

> brushing hair). Students can practice for 2–3 minutes and then random pairs perform for the class" (p. 29)

The Blackboard LMS version that was revised for 2020:

> Think of an activity you do every day, washing hands, brushing teeth, putting on makeup. Break it down into the steps you use to accomplish the task, and act it out in front of a mirror so you can see what you are doing. Again, this is an imaginary activity; do not simply wash your hands in front of your bathroom mirror! Send me a short video of this. [AC class assignment, April 27, 2020]

This has also resulted in many other activities from the books being cut from the courses or replaced with similar but different activities. For the PC class, the usual offline requirement is four presentations during the term, each worth 15% of the students' grade, but – due to the shorter 14-week term as well as the absence of in-class pair or group work, it has been reduced to three, and the final group presentation has been replaced with an optional individual presentation that they can do at the end of the term if they are unhappy with their scores on the first three presentations. If they choose not to do the fourth presentation, their scores for the first three presentations will be averaged to get the final presentation score. This leads naturally to the issue of communication in the next section.

Communication is continuous.

A glance at this instructor's inbox and junk email for the last few days, during what has been midterm week for two of four classes, shows that 35 emails were received from students in all four classes and 15 were received from various university departments and teams. These numbers are on par with the exchange of information necessitated by online classes and do not include the 50 or so messages on the Blackboard LMS related to midterms, assignments, and the poll for offline classes starting at the end of May. During regular offline classes in previous terms, the number of emails from students would typically be closer to 10–15 during midterm week and the administrative emails would be in the 5–10 range.

While the number of students who use direct emails to contact this instructor has dropped significantly since the term began and this instructor has increasingly used the Blackboard LMS for assignments, discussions, review, and other tests, as well as to send messages to all class members, a few students continue to prefer email to ask questions and send homework. This has resulted in having to check email, class message boards, and class discussions on a pretty much continuous basis in an ongoing effort to keep on top of students' requests and queries about assignments and homework, for example. It is presumably a necessary part of online education of this type, but it is also a burden at times as there is no real break or downtime under the current circumstances. Interestingly, the students are also more aware of all the work being done to keep the class on track, and so more emails like this one are being received from students: "Thanks, professor! I'll do my best continuously in other activities and get some rest!!" (FC student, May 8, 2020).

Lessons are more basic and instructions are more explicit.

Since the lessons are being more explicitly scaffolded in an attempt to help reduce students' confusion and because of the way Blackboard as an online learning system is designed with folders, assignments, tests, etc. appearing in a continuous stream from the top of the webpage to the bottom of the current week's lesson, it has necessitated a balancing act between providing the necessary background and theory, and providing numerous opportunities for students to practice and develop their skills in the various areas. Further, since the AC and PC classes meet for 90 minutes on Mondays and Tuesdays every week, and the GBC and FC classes meet once a week for three hours on Mondays and Fridays, respectively, larger lessons with more content are required on some days for some classes and smaller, more basic lessons are required for the Tuesday-only classes. Therefore, the homework grades for the larger assignments are sometimes worth 3–4% of their homework or assignments grade rather than the 1–2% previously mentioned.

Students can track their progress more accurately online.

Everything, except attendance grades for all students, which are done on the university app and webpage, is graded on the Blackboard LMS either automatically or by this instructor week by week. Feedback is given in detail using checklists, rubrics, or other tools, so there is little room for students to pretend that their grade is better than it is. While this instructor uses Excel to tabulate both homework and final grades, since it is the easiest way to upload them onto the university's website during final grades period and it minimizes the chances of errors being made in calculating these grades, most students' online grades are lower than their actual grades regardless of which of the two grading metrics is applied on the Blackboard system. For example, in the PC, if the instructor picks three students − one at the top of the class, one in the middle, and one near the bottom, and applies the two methods of grading available, the overall grades in Table 4 appear.

TABLE 4. Sample Overall Grades for 3 students at top, middle, and near bottom of PC class

Student Grade Performance	Gradebook (Individual) Item Weights	Grade Category Weights
High (A student)	C+	B
Medium (B student)	F	C-
Low (D student)	F	D-

After a few panicked emails from students in all classes, this instructor switched the grade books over to the grade category option for all four classes and reminded students in messages and subsequent emails that the Blackboard grades are not the final grades. This may seem like an unimportant little detail, but it was anything but unimportant for the students who thought that they were failing, or near to failing, when in fact they were near the top of the class in terms of quality of work, attendance, and other factors not clearly shown on the Blackboard LMS and because of the way our university handles attendance grades on their app.

YouTube has become more central to classes than was previously the case.

YouTube still offers a lot of good content, despite their efforts to add more paying customers and the ever-present ads that appear at the beginning or in the middle of videos. Gartenberg (2018) writes:

> Even though I hate YouTube's ads, I don't think I'd ever shell out $10 per month for YouTube Red. I'd rather spend my hard-earned money on a subscription that gets me content I want but don't already have access to (like say, Apple Music, Spotify, Netflix,

> Hulu, or Moviepass, all of which are in the same financial ballpark) rather than just to make already free content slightly more palatable to watch (and before you ask, no, YouTube Red's original content does not justify the cost). (para. 7)

For class use, this instructor looks for short videos on class-related topics that have been watched by high numbers of viewers. Then, they are previewed, and if they match the course's and student's needs, they are added to a playlist for that class. This instructor has discussed how they use YouTube previously[6], but to give an idea of how important YouTube videos can potentially be for the four classes being taught this term, the playlists for these classes include the numbers of videos shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5. Playlists of YouTube Videos for Spring 2020 Classes

Class Name	Number of Videos Saved on the Playlist
AC	15
FC	51
PC	49
GBC	45

The AC class is relatively new compared to the other classes, so this instructor is still building that list as they discover appropriate videos for class use. The similar numbers for other classes indicate how selectively this instructor adds or removes videos from the class playlists each term.

New materials have been created and older ones have been revised and/or updated.

Even in the material used regularly class after class and term after term, typos and spelling errors can be found, and hopefully fixed so that they can be nearly error-free the next time around. For most professions and people, a few errors here and there in materials may serve to emphasize that you are human, but when your job and profession is to teach others to avoid making such mistakes, the more often an instructor makes them − and especially when they are not immediately spotted and fixed − the more inconsistent and incongruous they appear. This is only one example, of course, of what this instructor is concerned about in terms of offering better lessons and materials (see Appendix for some examples of this at the class and lesson levels that go even further than those mentioned above).

The student–teacher interactions are different.

This can be summed up by the two messages below to this instructor:

> Technically, I only demonstrated the incorrect use of one object in my video. I didn't really see how I could keep the story of my video coherent any other way. I hope this is not a problem. (Although I did use a desk, a mop, and an umbrella to create a makeshift camera stand for the time-lapse part of my video!)
>
> Also, was my vote for offline classes registered? I would have been person #9 to vote for offline. Was their really not one more person to vote for offline? It's a pity, and I suppose it is just as hard for you as for many of us students. We must make the best of it though. In any case, I hope you enjoy this video and have a nice day! [AC student, May 11, 2020, explaining why they did an assignment wrong and other issues]

> I'm terribly sorry for sending you e-mails repeatedly. (And I will try to make a better presentation by referring to the feedback so far. I'm so sorry.) Hope you are well. Thank you very much. [PC student, May 12, 2020]

Misunderstandings like those above would be less common in traditional face-to-face classes, thanks to both class time devoted to students' questions, typically the last five minutes of each class and also to the nature of the classes. Students spend a large amount of class time practicing the skills being taught and, during these practice sessions done in pairs or groups, this instructor has numerous opportunities to catch misunderstandings and mistakes and to fix them on the spot. Students can also learn from and observe more proficient students, which means that the potential to misunderstand this instructor's intentions and instructions is reduced. This is not to say that errors do not occur but rather that there is a greater likelihood that they will be caught before they find their way into the written assignments or a student presentation, monologue, etc. No matter how carefully this instructor believes that a particular assignment or lesson has been constructed to ensure everyone knows what to do and how to do it, students will still find original ways to "get it wrong." As an educator, it is necessary to acknowledge that the fault is at least partially one's own, and grade and offer feedback accordingly. As the above messages demonstrate, getting it right is not as important as dealing with the students' errors and your own as fairly and honestly as possible. Most students, if not all of them, will appreciate it to a greater or lesser degree. For example,

> Always, thank you for the class and all the efforts in our class. Thank you again, and have a good day. [PC student, May 13, 2020]

Review tests and quizzes are now standard in all classes.

Of the four classes being taught this semester, three of them have no written tests due to the nature of the classes. The GBC class is the only one that has regular quizzes once a month or twice a term depending on what the students vote for, but they are only worth 20% of the class grade and therefore are certainly not the most important item on the class syllabus (see Appendix A for the grading schemes for this and other classes). However, as this term is unusual − and this instructor wanted a way to guarantee that students would be online and paying attention to messages, class discussions, and assignments during class time, review quizzes were added to all classes. However, as the test functions on Blackboard are inconsistent at times[7], a few rules were set for these tests by this instructor after a couple of test runs in preview mode:

- Tests are pass/fail so that pressure to complete them in the 30-minute time permitted is minimized.
- As the answers are most often wrong for fill-in-the-blank questions due to content or word mismatches, this instructor has used more matching, multiple-choice, and true/false questions over time.
- A rule was tested allowing students who scored well on Day 1 to skip the test on Day 2 of the class. Most students just decided to do both, so it was phased out.
- Students could retake the same quiz on Day 2 for classes that met twice a week to improve their scores and understanding of the content.
- If a large number of students performed well on Day 1 of the test, then the test could be removed on Day 2. This has only applied to once-a-week classes, so it has never been used so far.
- On midterm or major assignment days, there are no quizzes. Also,

on the class days right before these assignments, assignments completed on time, late assignments, or unopened assignments will be used for attendance/participation grades instead of the quizzes.
- The quizzes are opened and closed at random for 30 minutes per class period. One message is sent to all students by email through the Blackboard LMS and/or posted on the daily class discussion board to let them know that the test has begun or is about to begin.

The material is primarily taken from the previous class or previous week's lessons, and most students are doing these within the 30 minutes without fail. The GBC class quizzes are a bit more challenging due to the content being covered, so they typically get at least 35 minutes to do their tests.

Reflections on Online Classes and Implications for Future Classes

At present, no one knows how long this situation will last with any certainty. Online classes are the reality for the foreseeable future and learning to better use the tools at our disposal to facilitate better classes is a given. This article has served to let this instructor put down on paper some of the many changes and adjustments that the process of transforming offline classes into online ones that meet similar educational goals has brought about. In a sense, it has meant a return to the basics with all of the social interactions removed or at least minimized. All of those tried-and-true jokes built up over many years of teaching similar classes while discussing similar topics have been left behind and − even if everyone miraculously returned to regular classes tomorrow − they would not be the same.

The textbooks are at the center of the classes again, rather than being used as a springboard for doing more fun and interactive activities based on their topics, and the students are no longer familiar as individuals after eight weeks of online classes. Perhaps it allows instructors to be a bit more objective in their grading of students, but it also means that student–teacher interactions are much less personal and that students are more like distant acquaintances than well-known entities at this point in the courses. And that means something meaningful and often magical is missing from the classes this semester that may never be recaptured.

THE AUTHOR

Tory S. Thorkelson (BA, BEd, MEd in TESL/TEFL, PhD in Language Studies / Curriculum Development) is a proud Canadian who has been an active KOTESOL member since 1998 and has presented at many local and international conferences. He is a past president of the KOTESOL Seoul Chapter, a past president of KOTESOL, and an active KOTESOL Teacher Training member. He is also an associate professor for HYU's English Language and Literature Program. He has co-authored research studies and textbooks, including a university-level textbook, *World Class English*, with a team of fellow KOTESOL members, several papers like this one and a few e-books. Currently, he is a regular contributor to *EFL Magazine*. Email: thorkor@hotmail.com

REFERENCES

Chung, A. (2020, May 1). *Students head to court over tuition fee refund demands*. University World News. https://www.universityworldnews.com/post.php?story=20200501085528893

Bahk, E. (2020, April 26). Universities refuse to refund tuition. *The Korea Times*. https://www.koreatimes.co.kr/www/nation/2020/04/181_288527.html

Gartenberg, C. (2018, May 6). *YouTube with ads after YouTube Red is hell*. The Verge. https://www.theverge.com/circuitbreaker/2018/5/6/17316180/youtube-red-ads-free-subscription

Hodges, C., Moore, S., Lockee, B., Trust, T., & Bond, A. (2020, March 27). The difference between emergency remote teaching and online learning. *EDUCAUSE Review*. https://er.educause.edu/articles/2020/3/the-difference-between-emergency-remote-teaching-and-online-learning?fbclid=IwAR1Wj9utR2_0bSOyZszqofc01h8--WbqpNfFVMz-YrlJgTeEb4lOysMn0DY

Lynch, L. (2019, January 15). *How long should videos be for e-learning?* LearnDash. *https://www.learndash.com/how-long-should-videos-be-* for-e-learning/

Lochiatto, G. (2009, January 8). *How to select the right textbook for an online course*. Faculty Focus. https://www.facultyfocus.com/articles/online-education/how-to-select-the-right-textbook-for-an-online-course/

Thorkelson, T. S. (2020, February 25). *Acting resource and workbook*. Chapter Indigo. https://www.chapters.indigo.ca/en-ca/books/acting-resource-workbook/9788835379133-item.html?ikwsec=Books&ikwidx=1&fbclid=IwAR0SRRpKCxdZ

2GOnPhguoU86tzxejRGfPC6jzZ0Zc_XvHLXfqHvMcIXqxsw#algoliaQueryId=6b34a226d39ba106e92823808ca51442

Yonhap News. (2020a, February 29). Universities in Seoul shift to online classes amid virus fears. https://en.yna.co.kr/view/AEN20200228008800315

Yonhap News. (2020b, April 21). Almost all university students want tuition refunds over COVID-19: poll. https://en.yna.co.kr/view/AEN20200421007300315

FOOTNOTES

[1] See here for details of the FC book: https://eltngl.com/search/productOverview.do?N=4294918495+200&Ntk=P_EPI&Ntt=1299288432353509862788786171813022932&Ntx=mode%2Bmatchallpartial&homePage=false

[2] These two textbook-workbook combinations can be found at https://www.chapters.indigo.ca/en-ca/books/acting-resource-workbook/9788835379133-item.html?ikwsec=Books&ikwidx=1&fbclid=IwAR0SRRpKCxdZ2GOnPhguoU86tzxejRGfPC6jzZ0Zc_XvHLXfqHvMcIXqxsw#algoliaQueryId=6b34a226d39ba106e92823808ca51442
And at https://store.streetlib.com/en/search?q=Tory%20S%20Thorkelson&sort=_score

[3] Translated from emails received in early and mid-March during the two-week class delay period.

[4] See here for an article about how YouTube was used previously: https://www.eflmagazine.com/impressing-your-students-with-your-youtube-skills/

[5] These numbers are from May 9, 2020.

[6] See Footnote 5.

[7] Internal emails from university administrators asked that the test function not be used to conduct midterms.

APPENDIX

Examples of Course Content Changes During the Spring Semester of 2020

AC Class

Pre-2020 Grading Scheme

Attendance/Participation: 30%
Monologue: 20%
Journals/Assignments: 20%
Scene/Skit: 30%
Total: 100%
* No Exams or quizzes.

Spring Semester 2020 Changes

Regular review quizzes added as part of attendance and participation grade.

Final Scenes/Skits replaced with:

- Finals Assignment I: Radio Plays
  - This assignment is worth 15% of your grade.
  - It will be easier to do this and the other part of the final assignment with a group of 2-3.
  - I will assign teams for this and the other assignment (the same teams are best I think).
  - See: http://ericcoble.com/free-radio-scripts-pdf/ for some samples. You can edit or shorten these but do NOT change the overall play or characters when you do so.
  - Please submit your edited radio script and the completed video by the end of May/June 1st.
  - Good luck and feel free to ask any questions in the weekly discussions or through messages or email.
- Finals Assignment II: Puppet Plays
  - This assignment is worth 15% of your grade.
  - It will be easier to do this and the other part of the final assignment with a group of 2-3.
  - I will assign teams for this and the other assignment (the same teams are best I think).

- The instructor will provide the puppets and the basic character descriptions.
- Please submit your scripts and the completed video by June 19th.

FC Class Changes for 2020

Regular review quizzes added as part of attendance and participation grade.

Revised Grading scheme for 2020 Online Classes

Attendance	10 points
Participation	10 points
Critical-Thinking Journals (optional)	+3% for 6.
Interviews	30 points
Homework	30 points
TED Lesson (Present/Paper version with answer key)**	20 points
Total	100 points (%).

** Will be done as a 3-5 minute video which your instructor will grade and/or upload to YouTube for your classmates to view and comment on (good and not so good).

PC Class

Pre-2020 Grading Scheme

Attendance	10 points
Participation	10 points
Critical-Thinking Journals (optional)	+3% for 6.
Interviews	30 points
Homework	30 points
TED Lesson (Present/Paper version with answer key)**	20 points
Total	100 points (%).

Changes for 2020 Classes

Regular review quizzes added as part of attendance and participation grade.

The 4th group presentation is replaced by either the average of the scores for presentations 1 to 3, or an optional individual presentation to be submitted at the end. The 3rd and 4th presentations are graded in the same ways but are based on different topics chosen by the students.

GBC Class

Pre-2020 Grading Scheme

Participation	10%
Attendance	10%
Assignments	15%
Quizzes (up to 4)	20%
Midterm Presentation (CEO)	20%
Final Company Presentation	25%
Total	100%

Changes for 2020 Classes

Regular review quizzes added as part of attendance and participation grade.

Middle School Korean English Teachers' Experiences, Views, and Expectations of Team Teaching with a Native English-Speaking Teacher

Jonathan Blake Moffett
Gwangju Metropolitan Office of Education, Gwangju, Korea

This paper highlights great inconsistencies among secondary Korean English teachers' (KETs) experiences, views, and expectations of team teaching with native English-speaking teachers (NESTs). This study reveals what these experiences, views, and expectations are and provides suggestions for more satisfying team-teaching relationships. It was discovered that KETs may view co-instruction as detracting from students' exposure to English, that there is little consistency among KET views towards "ideal" team-teaching roles, that KETs have very similar expectations for NEST roles in team teaching, and that KETs may be unsure of how to take an active role in co-instruction due to a lack of officially endorsed models. These findings suggest that NEST awareness of shared KET expectations could help facilitate more consistency across team-teaching relationships, that KET roles in team teaching should be negotiated individually, and that KETs need to be provided with more models of team teaching that demonstrate active KET involvement in team teaching as contributing to student English exposure and achievement of relevant objectives.

Keywords: team teaching, co-teaching, English education, South Korea, middle school

INTRODUCTION

Having taught English in South Korea for approximately four years at the time of this writing, I have had the opportunity to work in various contexts spanning across primary and secondary school grade levels, and I have worked with around 40 different KETs in a team-teaching relationship. Throughout this time, it has become apparent to me that there is large variability in the roles and responsibilities I have been expected to perform as a NEST, depending on the nature of the team-teaching relationship embodied in the classroom. As a result, I have thus become interested in the KETs' experiences, views, and expectations of team teaching with a NEST and how this can ultimately affect the quality of instruction students receive. Further thinking on the problem has led to me arrive at the conclusion that broad educational factors concerning English education in Korea, as well as official guidelines pertaining to team teaching are likely to affect the KETs' experiences, views, and expectations of team teaching, so I set out to gather more information regarding these topics in the present study. My goal is for this information to be used to help institutionalize more synergistic team-teaching relationships that ultimately lead to more effective educational outcomes for the students. The research question for the study was the following:

> RQ: What are middle school Korean English teachers' experiences, views, and expectations of team teaching with a NEST?

Literature Review

To learn what has already been discovered, a review of team teaching, including models of team teaching, conditions for successful team teaching, strengths and weaknesses of individual NESTs and local English teachers (LETs) involved in team teaching, benefits and drawbacks of team teaching, and English education as it affects team teaching in South Korea is discussed below.

Team Teaching

Team teaching is a term often used synonymously with *co-teaching*, though it is noted that the latter term has been more generally used in special education contexts in the United States, while *team teaching* usually refers to the joint work of two general educators teaching homogenous content, though it can refer to collaboration in teaching multiple disciplines (Krammer et al., 2018; Pope-Ruark et al., 2019). Internationally, *co-teaching* is used to commonly refer to the activities traditionally referred to as *team teaching*, and thus there is no precise clarity regarding definitive terminology when using the two terms

(Krammer et al., 2018). To rectify this problem, Carless and Walker (2006) defined *team teaching* as "two teachers together in the classroom, actively involved in instruction" (p. 464). Outside the United States, team-teaching schemes are often implemented most commonly in English language instruction contexts for the purpose of maximizing the relative benefits that accompany instruction from a NEST and an LET simultaneously (Carless & Walker, 2006). *Team teaching*, as referred to throughout this paper, uses the definition provided by Carless and Walker (2006) in relation to English language teaching by a LET and a NEST.

Models of Team Teaching

In an examination of previous research, Baeten and Simons (2014) distinguished five different models of team teaching as observation, coaching, assistant teaching, equal status, and teaming models. The observation model is characterized by one teacher having total responsibility while the other teacher only observes (Baeten & Simons, 2014). The coaching model involves one teacher having full responsibility over the instruction activities, while the other teacher offers advice on ways the teacher can improve their class. The assistant teacher model primarily involves one teacher taking on most of the responsibilities while the other helps with smaller tasks like marking papers, distributing papers, assisting learners during class, and ensuring learners are attentive to the material (Baeten & Simons, 2014).

The equal status model can be broken down into three separate approaches: Sequential teaching, parallel teaching, and station teaching (Baeten & Simons, 2014). In the sequential teaching model, each teacher is involved in the same lesson with the same learners, but they each take responsibility for different parts of the lesson at different times. In parallel teaching, the students are divided into groups that are taught the same information, often through different methods, that account for specific learner needs, like pace or learning style (Baeten & Simons, 2014). In the station teaching model, each teacher is responsible for specific content or aspects of learning generally centered on a different focus, and the students usually rotate between stations working with both teachers in different activities at varying times throughout the lesson (Baeten & Simons, 2014).

In the last model, the teaming model, each teacher is involved at all points of the lesson, fulfilling various roles and responsibilities in a highly responsive and flexible manner, though this model is noted to be rarer and/or implemented at later stages in the team-teaching relationship because each teacher must learn about the other teacher's style to be as effective as possible with collaboration (Baeten & Simons, 2014). Though these models have been divided as previously described, it is also possible that a combination of models can be implemented.

Conditions for Successful Team Teaching

Despite the existence of various models of team teaching emphasizing different levels of responsibility, previous research seems to suggest that models that emphasize relational equity among the teachers involved are generally the most successful (Rytivaara & Kershner, 2012). Additional conditions that facilitate success in team teaching include the opportunity for frequent and sustained interactions between the teachers and an emphasis on maintaining not just professional but also personal relationships (Baeten & Simons, 2014; Biemann & Weckmüller, 2012). More conditions contributing to successful team teaching include shared responsibilities with instruction, assessment, and pedagogic decisions, along with implementation of negotiation regarding these factors from a joint perspective with an emphasis on division of team responsibility (Shibley, 2006; Simmons & Magiera, 2007). Other conditions that lead to successful team teaching include both a choice to be involved in team teaching, and to a lesser extent, an inclusion of mixed genders in the team (Krammer et al., 2018; Rytivaara & Kershner, 2012). George and Davis-Wiley (2000) found that the ability to complement one another's weaknesses and flexibility with decision-making also contributed to successful team teaching. Other studies, such as Kim and Seong (2012), found that shared expectations were a large meditating factor in determining the success of a team-teaching pair, raising the idea that understanding how LETs view, understand, and experience team teaching may result in more effective communication towards shared expectations and thus overall pairing success. This notion is given further legitimacy by the finding that the use of effective communication skills, along with positive attitudes, strongly contributes to success among teaching pairs (Kim & Seong, 2012). Jeon (2010) further expands on the concept of willingness to cooperate as being a supportive factor for successful team teaching, identifying that a clear understanding of one another's teaching roles is strongly associated with successful pairing.

Overall, relationship maintenance, mutual goals, shared expectations regarding classroom roles, open communication, and an ability to complement one another's strengths and weaknesses have all been found to be conducive to team-teaching success (Baeten & Simons, 2014; George & Davis-Wiley, 2000; Jeon, 2012; Kim & Seong, 2012). "Successful" team-teaching models have been characterized as leading to the maximization of each teacher's respective benefit while minimizing their weaknesses, and it has been found that many of the strengths of LETs constitute the relative weaknesses of NESTs, and vice versa (Carless & Walker, 2006). The nature of these strengths and weaknesses are examined below, followed thereafter by an examination of the benefits of team teaching, as it pertains largely to these strengths and weaknesses.

Strengths and Weaknesses of Local and NESTs

Various strengths of LETs have been identified in the existing literature, such as LETs being good language learning role models, being able to predict areas in which students might struggle in advance, being able to speak the students' first language (L1) fluently, being familiar with local ways of assessment and conducting classes, and being able to develop closer relationships with the students (Carless & Walker, 2006). On the other hand, the strengths of NESTs are thought to include the ability to act as a language resource, being able to assist LET development and improvement of their own English, and being able to create an environment conducive for students to practice oral English skills (Storey et al., 2001). Additional benefits of NESTs have been identified as including possession of a wide range of vocabulary, intuitive knowledge about natural English usage, idiomatic knowledge, and inside cultural knowledge that is difficult for a LET on their own to possess (Carless & Walker, 2006).

Regarding identified weaknesses of LETs, Nam (2011) found that in Korean middle schools, LETs had a tendency to dominate the class with teacher talk 75% of the time. Among this teacher talk, only about a third of the communication was done in English. Informatively, the same study revealed that the employment of English by LETs in South Korea seemed to lack meaningful communicative elements, and listen and repeat was found to be the most commonly employed activity. The weaknesses of NESTs have been noted as the inability to discipline students effectively, especially if they are not able to use the students' L1 appropriately (Johnson & Tang, 1993). NESTs may also not be likely to make a significant impact if the education culture is dominated by factors incompatible with NEST strengths, such as cultures that place a heavy emphasis on textbooks devoid of communicative elements and the cramming for exams (Storey et al., 2001). NESTs strengths have been noted in relation to a decreased reliance on textbooks, an ability to engage students with authentic English usage, and an ability to offer different perspectives on teaching materials (Carless & Walker, 2006).

Benefits of Team Teaching

Carless and Walker (2006) have stated that it can be seen that many of the strengths of each respective teacher, LET or NEST, represent the weaknesses of the other party. The benefits of team teaching among LETs and NESTs have therefore been numerously noted. Some of these benefits include more logistical factors, such as an increased ability to support students because of the availability of two teachers instead of one and an inclusion of different personalities, teaching styles, and teaching methods is also thought to make the classroom more interesting and dynamic for students, allowing for increased participation and interaction opportunities (Carless & Walker, 2006). Additional findings have shown that students who were rated as being low proficiency improved their English skills more when in a team-teaching environment (Storey et al., 2001). This may be due to the finding that classes team-taught by LETs and NESTs result in higher motivation levels among students (Carless & Walker, 2006). It is believed that this may also be the result of the inclusion of more varied input, the availability of more examples of authentic English across a range of contexts, and more engagement for students who are able to participate more effectively when supported by an L1 explanation facilitated by the LET (Carless & Walker, 2006). It is also thought that LETs are able to help students express ideas for authentic use, thus encouraging natural communication and participation in communicative class activities often implemented by NESTs (Carless & Walker, 2006).

Along with these benefits, it has been found that students have a higher likelihood of task completion when team-taught (Carless & Walker, 2006). Additional findings show that collaboration among

NESTs and LETs may result in “pushed output,” that is, the use of language slightly outside of the students’ mastery zone, leading to increases in English ability (Carless & Walker, 2006). Numerous additional benefits have also been found, such as motivational effects of students who witness public interactions among LETs and NESTs, along with decreased levels of anxiety with the availability of a teacher who speaks their L1 (Carless & Walker, 2006).

Benefits for LETs themselves have also been noted, such as LETs reporting professional development as a result of interaction with NESTs, improvements in their English proficiency, learning various new teaching activities to employ in class, a deeper understanding of how to incorporate authentic resources into a lesson, and an increased understanding of how to integrate communicative activities with grammar (Carless & Walker, 2006). Benefits for NESTs involved in team teaching have also been noted, including the development of a deeper understanding of students’ learning difficulties and learning orientations, as well as increased familiarity with local educational practice, the local language, and the local culture (Carless & Walker, 2006).

Drawbacks of Team Teaching

Though there have been numerous benefits for team teaching depicted, there have been negatives noted in the literature as well. Some of these negatives include the perception by LETs that time is taken away for them to do other work such as teaching certain textbook content they might be required to do (Carless & Walker, 2006). Kim (2010a) found that LETs in Korea often saw themselves as having additional roles and responsibilities besides that of team teaching, such as being a personal assistant for the NEST who may need help with daily living tasks such as banking and housing.

NESTs have also complained that they fear the loss of their individual professional identities if they are forced to change their teaching style to adapt to local practices too much (Carless & Walker, 2006). NESTs have additionally stated that they may be frustrated by certain cultural tendencies of their LET coworkers that are different from their own culture, such as pretending to be busy (Kim, 2010b). Some cultural factors, as identified previously, have been found to inhibit NEST efficacy, such as the culture not being compatible with the

NEST's strengths (Storey et al, 2001). Balanyk (2012) found that differences in views towards classroom roles can lead to dissonance in the relationship of the team-teaching pair when compromise is not achieved (Balanyk, 2012). Boyle (1997) found that differences in teaching philosophy are especially contentious if the NEST threatens the LET's sense of self-esteem, and Johnson and Tang (1993) showed that discord emerges if NESTs are too critical of what is considered normal practice in the local culture.

English Education in South Korea

Since this study focuses on team teaching in South Korea, findings regarding English education in this context specifically have been assessed. Of particular importance is the development of the Seventh National Curriculum (SNC) in 1997, which is still the current curriculum. The SNC emphasizes teaching through communication for the purpose of communication and focuses majorly on communicative competence (Ahn, 2009; Moodie & Nam, 2016). The SNC recommends the employment of task-based language teaching, encourages more student-centered classes characterized by more cooperative learning, strongly emphasizes speaking proficiency, and calls for using English to teach English (Lee, 2011). As has been developed above, these are areas that KETs may be lacking in, highlighting the need for the inclusion of NESTs as a result of the SNC. Perhaps in foresight of these problems, the English Program in Korea (EPIK) was established in 1995, two years before the introduction of the SNC, and paired NESTs with KETs in public schools. The goals of the program are to improve student communication ability, improve KET English proficiency, develop teaching materials, improve English language teaching methodology, improve Korea's image abroad, and enhance intercultural awareness (EPIK, 2013).

Considering the incongruence between the SNC's stated objectives and benchmark assessments currently employed nationwide, as well as the uncertainty of the KETs' ability or willingness to employ communicative language teaching methods in the classroom, the role that NESTs should play in team-teaching pairs is highly questionable. In consideration of all of these factors, the present study has set out to uncover how middle school KETs view, understand, and experience team teaching with a NEST in order to institutionalize more synergistic team-teaching relationships and achieve enhanced educational outcomes.

Data Collection

Documents and Instruments

Artifact data concerning official team-teaching recommendations were requested and obtained in February 2020, while all data from the interviews were collected in March 2020 from KETs that the author has had direct involvement with in team teaching in the past across two different Korean middle schools. The artifact data regarding existing official recommendations relating to team teaching were obtained by contacting the provincial manager for NESTs at the Gwangju Metropolitan Office of Education. Any information regarding what official guidelines exist regarding team-teaching practices was requested, and a copy of a manual was sent to the author as being the only material of relevance. This manual was subsequently translated and analyzed to determine in what ways these guidelines may influence the KETs' experiences, views, and expectations of team teaching.

Regarding the interviews, various questions were included to gather information. These questions included "What grades do you teach?" and "How many different co-teachers have you worked with?" Some open questions, such as asking participants to talk about a time when they were satisfied in a team-teaching relationship, were included. Closed-answer questions were avoided as much as possible in order to gather more qualitative information in all instances. To respect the rights of the participants, the author obtained informed consent from all interviewees by explaining the purpose of the interview and what would be done with this information. Among all of the possible interviewees that were reached out to, five agreed to take part in the interview and were very eager to learn more about the results. Audio-recording of the interviews was employed due to its utility and convenience for transcription purposes, but more nuanced information, such as the kind that might be given away for gestures, facial expressions, or body movements, was unable to be obtained (Burns, 2010).

Data Analysis Methods

After all of the data from the interviews was recorded and transcribed, the interviews were read through several times with the purpose of finding any recurring patterns or themes. Unique statements made by the interviewees, such as one mentioned by Abigail (all names are pseudonyms), in which she revealed she had specific training regarding team teaching in the classroom that none of the other teachers had mentioned, were identified and made note of. In certain instances, some more revealing information pertaining to KET views emerged, such as Jessica revealing her thoughts regarding what the "Korean way" and the "foreign way" of teaching English are.

Analysis concerning official recommendations towards team teaching was conducted by first translating the contents page of the guidebook that was provided. Once translation was finished, relevant sections were consulted to search for information that directly affects KET participation in team teaching. Thereafter, data from the interviews were assessed to find a relationship between the recommendations of the guidebook and KET experiences, views, and expectations with team teaching. The findings are discussed below in detail.

RESULTS

Information has been provided about each of the five different interviewees in Table 1 for reference. The years team teaching ranged from six to eleven years, while the grades taught ranged from seventh to ninth grade. Karen had the least experience with different NESTs, having worked with four different NESTs, while Ashley had the most experience with different NESTs, having worked with eight NESTs. Various themes were identified from the five different interviews that were conducted and are addressed individually below. These themes pertain to KET experiences with team teaching, KET views on team teaching, KET expectations of team teaching, and factors influencing team-teaching relationships. After the findings pertaining to the interviews are presented, the findings connected with KET instructions regarding team teaching are revealed. These findings relate mostly to the KETs' experiences and expectations with team teaching, not matching the standards put forth by the 2019 NEST Management Guide or the 2019 NEST Management Guide's inadequacy in providing specific models or case studies for emulation.

TABLE 1. Interviewee Information

Interviewee Name	Grades Team-Taught	Years Team Teaching	NESTs Worked With
Sara	7, 9	7	5
Karen	8	8	4
Ashley	7, 9	6	8
Jessica	9	7	6
Abigail	7, 8, 9	11	6

KET Experiences with Team Teaching

Important information derived from the five different interviewees concerning KET experiences with team teaching is presented below. These data are divided into the following three broader topics: KET experiences with classroom roles, NEST lesson material preparation, and NEST personalities. KET experiences with classroom roles are divided into KET classroom roles and NEST classroom roles. KET experiences with NEST lesson material preparation and NEST personalities are further subdivided into factors pertaining to satisfying experiences and dissatisfying experiences for each category.

KET Experiences with Classroom Roles

KET Classroom Roles

All five KETs involved in the interviews reported identical experiences regarding KET and NEST classroom roles. Every interviewee said that their role had been both as a translator and facilitator, though the role of translator was given more emphasis by many of the participants. In Jessica's relative ranking of which role she performed more heavily, she states, "First is translator ... I have to translate for low-level students ... second is I arrange the class." Abigail also highlights the primacy of the role of translator and provides justification for this role, stating that she "translated difficult expressions and keywords ... [giving] advice in Korean because that would be hard for a NEST."

NEST Classroom Roles

In regards to the roles NESTs have played in team-taught lessons, the KETs reported unanimous answers once again. All KETs responded that the NESTs they had worked with, invariably, have taken a lead role in class. Sara and Jessica provided more information about what this entailed. Sara stated that the NEST "introduces key expressions and does games with the students," while Jessica said that NESTs "teach the textbook." From their statements, KET experiences regarding the role of lead teacher is established as having been primarily responsible for introducing key expressions, teaching the textbook, and playing games with the students. Additional roles for the NEST were mentioned by Abigail in her statement that NESTs have also acted as "language resources and culture resources."

KET Experiences with NEST Lesson Material Preparation

Satisfying KET Experiences with NEST Lesson Material Preparation

Sara reported that she was satisfied in the past when NEST lessons included some cultural components and taught her "things [she] didn't know." Karen said that she was satisfied with NEST lesson plans when the NEST prepared "three or four activities related with the topics, and when [NESTs] explain some culture parts related with [the] topics." In this statement, Karen introduces the importance of including various activities and further adds to the notion of satisfying lesson material, including cultural elements in the lessons. In addition, Ashley also mentioned being satisfied when both she and the students "learned about various cultures" and also when she was able to "take advice about [natural] English" from the NEST. Ashley demonstrates that satisfying lesson preparation additionally includes NESTs taking on the role of a language resource and that NESTs should add relevant information concerning natural usage to lessons. Abigail mentioned being satisfied with NEST lesson preparation when the NEST "set the goal of classes, every class, so the students can review what they learned," emphasizing the importance of both attaining tangible goals and reviewing previously learned material. In summary, satisfying experiences with NEST lesson material preparation pertained mostly to the inclusion of cultural elements, advice about natural English usage, involvement in various activities, clear goals for the class, and review of past material.

Dissatisfying KET Experiences with NEST Lesson Material Preparation

Three of the interviewees reported having been unsatisfied with NEST lesson material preparation, though they each reported different reasons for their dissatisfaction. Abigail reported that she was unsatisfied when there was an overemphasis on fun and a lack of adequate inclusion of review and assessment, while Sara said that she was unsatisfied when the material was “unrelated with lesson goals” and not “customized to the students’ level.” Sara explained further that she was upset when she noticed the NEST she worked with “used the same lesson material for all [three middle school] grades” and felt that each grade should receive lesson plan customization. Ashley stated that she was unsatisfied when the “students were bored” and when lessons were planned by NESTs “without considering the students’ levels and interests.” Overall, the most commonly mentioned sources of dissatisfaction with NEST lesson preparation was when the material was not customized for the students’ level, did not include review or assessment, or was not interesting.

KET Experiences with NEST Personalities

KET Experiences of Being Satisfied with the NEST’s Personality

Reported KET experiences of satisfaction with NEST personalities varied notably. Abigail mentioned that she was really satisfied when the NEST was “passionate when teaching with the students” and also when the NEST “tries their best.” Jessica talked about how she was satisfied when the NEST maintained good relationships with other faculty members of the school by being “very active.” Jessica further discussed how she was satisfied when NESTs were driven to “study about teachings methods and ... upgrade [their] teaching method,” adding that she thought this enhanced the NESTs’ helpfulness in the classroom. Ashley highlighted the importance of the NESTs’ attitudes, stating that “when NESTs helped [me] with a positive attitude I felt satisfied.” Mostly, the KETs’ experiences being satisfied with NESTs’ personalities related to the NESTs being passionate, hardworking, outgoing, enterprising, and positive.

KET Experiences of Being Dissatisfied with the NEST's Personality

Jessica outlined previous dissatisfaction with some NEST personalities due to a lack of a "professional attitude," stating that "they really didn't care about the class" and were "often late to the class." Karen told a story of how she thought a NEST she worked with was lazy because they sat "at the chair [while they] teach the students." Ashley responded that she was dissatisfied when the NESTs were "very messy" and "disorganized," stating that she thought "some NESTs [don't] like cleaning." Chiefly, the main personality factors pertaining to KET dissatisfaction with NESTs were related to unprofessional attitudes, disorganization, messiness, laziness, and a lack of punctuality.

KET Views on Team Teaching with a NEST

KET views on team teaching with a NEST were examined and classified into views on KET and NEST classroom teaching roles, advantages and disadvantages of working with a NEST, and views on the purpose of NEST activities used in team-taught classes. Views on KET and NEST teaching roles were further divided into KET views on NEST strengths and on KET strengths.

Views on KET and NEST Teaching Roles

The KET interviewees' views on KET and NEST teaching roles were very much split, with Karen and Ashley agreeing that KETs and NESTs should, ideally, both have main teaching roles. Jessica and Abigail, instead, believed that the best role for KETs is as a facilitator, while the NEST acts as the main teacher, though Sara said that "ideally the NEST should teach alone." Sara added to this view, stating that team teaching "is not necessary because [NESTs] can adjust their English to be more simple or easy.... The KET doesn't need to co-teach" and that "[NESTs] can manage the students [by themselves]." Ashley described KETs and NESTs as both having main teaching roles comprised by each "making a plan before the class ... [teaching] together during the class ... in a team ... and after the class, [talking] about the good points and bad points." Karen, though agreeing that "in the ideal English class we would both be main teachers," qualified this by saying that "in a real situation I couldn’t take a main role.” Karen stated that the reason she cannot take a lead role was that “in [the] classroom, I only use Korean.” Karen further revealed her ideas towards ideal team-teaching roles, stating that “both [the KET and NEST should] use English to explain English and work together to convey the topics of the textbook.” On the other hand, Jessica stated that she thinks, ideally, the KET should help as a facilitator in order to “let the students communicate more themselves,” a sentiment Abigail also agreed with, stating that the NEST should be “more involved than the KET in order to maximize student exposure to English,” adding that “the KET is most useful in giving advice regarding lesson planning and facilitating student involvement.” Considering closely what Karen, Abigail, and Jessica said seems to reveal that, realistically, they do not view the KET role as one that directly increases exposure to English for the students but more so to facilitate interaction with the NEST and class materials. Sara was the only teacher who did not view team teaching as being necessary or more beneficial than the NEST teaching alone.

KET Views on NEST Strengths. All of the interviewees responded that they viewed the NESTs’ strengths as being the ability to teach about culture. Sara summarized this view well, responding that “native English teachers are much better [at teaching culture] because they can teach new trendy words or they can know other culture aspects [KETs] do not know.” Jessica stated that she believed NESTs were good at teaching “authentic English,” while other strengths mentioned by Ashley, Abigail, and Jessica mainly pertained to the NESTs’ affinity for teaching speaking skills. Ashley describes that “NESTs are likely to show more positive improvements (among students) with ... speaking, writing, and culture.” Karen additionally mentioned that NESTs are good at “teaching phonetics” and pronunciation. Overall, the main strengths of NESTs identified by the interviewees pertained to the ability to teach culture, speaking skills, and pronunciation.

KET Views on KET Strengths. All of the interviewees responded that they believed KETs were good at teaching grammar. Jessica, in fact, characterized the “Korean way” of teaching as teaching “about grammar.” Ashley mentioned that “KETs are more likely to show positive improvements” when teaching reading and listening in addition to grammar. Abigail stated that she believed KETs were better at teaching grammar and “giving [students] advice in learning English by themselves.” While agreeing with the other interviewees, Karen noteded that she additionally thinks KETs are good at "rule explanation," referring to classroom management. Sara responded that the KETs "can cover all parts [of the lesson], even speaking and writing." Sara went on to say, "KETs are much better than NESTs for grammar and reading parts" because "students think it is really boring" and that grammar is "hard to understand." Sara highlights the idea that the KETs may view their ability to speak the students' L1 fluently as enabling them to better teach grammar than NESTs. The KETs' views on their own strengths pertain mostly to being able to teach grammar well, giving language learning advice to students, and being able to explain rules thoroughly.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Working with NESTs

Advantages of Working with NESTs. The most frequent mentions as advantages of working with NESTs included students being able to learn more natural English and that NESTs can help to improve the KETs' English abilities. Karen states that NESTs help students "learn English in natural ways ... and they accept cultures naturally." Regarding NESTs being advantageous for their ability to help improve KETs' English abilities, Sara stated, "I can also learn a lot from [NESTs], such as culture or new expressions, and I have a chance to practice new English and I can ask difficult or vague things to them to find out the right answer," elaborating that this quality is "really helpful" for her personally. Additional advantages mentioned included Ashley stating that she believed that NESTs and KETs "can become good friends," and Jessica stating that by working with a NEST, she was able to "learn about the foreign teaching method," which she described as being communicatively based. The advantages of working with a NEST that were cited ranged from NESTs contributing to KETs' English abilities and knowledge of other teaching methods, being able to help students learn natural English, being able to teach culture, and being able to form close relationships together.

Disadvantages of Working with NESTs. There were no disadvantages mentioned that specifically pertained to teaching in the classroom, though all the interviewees, except for Karen, who had no experience as a NEST manager, mentioned that extra administrative work, such as reporting NEST vacation dates and sick day usage, was burdensome. Jessica put it simply by saying the "administrative work is more," while Ashley expanded on this saying that "Korean teachers have a lot of work [already] − sometimes there is not enough time [to do administrative work for] the NESTs." Ashley went on to say that she was additionally stressed by a language barrier, explaining, "Sometimes I can't explain everything in English − I don't know how to explain or to tell [NESTs]." On another note, Sara mentioned that some NESTs "give us [a bad] impression," and that there may be some disadvantages when team teaching with NESTs if their personality is not good. The disadvantages of working with a NEST mentioned by the KETs overwhelmingly pertained to administrative work created by working with a NEST, getting stuck in a bad relationship, along with being stressed by having to communicate in English. None of these disadvantages pertained directly to classroom teaching.

Views of the Purpose of NEST Activities in Team-Taught Classes

Ashley, Jessica, Karen, and Abigail all believed that the purpose of the games or activities employed by NESTs were for language learning in a communicative way. Jessica stated that she thinks NEST games or activities are usually to "motivate and stimulate the students" and that the games or activities "are very good and useful ways to encourage [communication]." Ashley also mentioned that the purpose of the activities was to "give students a lot of experience [in using] English." Abigail stated that she thought the games were for making "the students involved ... because it is really interesting and [helpful for] the students to learn English." Sara had doubts about the effectiveness of NEST activities, stating that she believed the purpose was for "getting the feeling English can be fun" and that she is "not sure it can help the students a lot."

KET Team-Teaching Expectations

KET expectations are presented under the main category of expectations with lesson objectives and divided into two subcategories: expectations with class preparation and expectations with classroom roles.

KET Expectations Concerning Lesson Objectives

Almost all of the interviewees stated that they expected the lesson objectives for team-taught classes to directly follow the curriculum. Sara stated that "the curriculum is the most important." Ashley expanded on this idea, stating that although the "foundation of English [is] based on students' textbook," she expects NESTs to "provide various opportunities to use English [pertaining to the textbook]," adding that "NESTs should use their strength," referring to providing opportunities for speaking practice, including natural usage suggestions and having culturally relevant components. Abigail was the only interviewee to state that she did not expect team-taught lesson objectives to center around the textbook in some way. She responded that she expects NESTs to, instead, involve "real English" and "real expressions" in the lessons and that "the objectives for the classes should be learning language itself not as a subject." Moreover, Abigail went on to explain, "Because I, as a Korean teacher, [can] teach grammar and I [can] teach students for the exam so [in classes with a NEST] ... students can learn the English language itself." More specifically, Abigail stated that the lesson objectives should prepare students for "speaking English when they travel abroad." Generally, expectations with team-taught lesson objectives centered around NESTs teaching the textbook, including opportunities for language use emphasizing speaking, offering advice on natural English (including culturally relevant components), and preparing students to travel abroad.

KET Expectations Concerning Class Preparation. All interviewees expected the NEST to develop both the lesson plans and teaching materials for class. Sara additionally expected the development of some assessment materials, stating that she assumes NESTs will "set the lesson goals, and prepare every activity and also prepare simple tests and quizzes." Ashley stated that in addition to preparing the lesson plan and material, she expects NESTs to prepare for class with an "open mind," an idea developed more by Abigail, who expects NESTs to prepare by being "flexible for the students and KETs, ready to understand what they say because we all have a different culture from the Westerner." Abigail, Ashley, and Karen all noted expectations that they themselves would prepare for class by discussing what the NEST had planned, though none of them expected to contribute by creating class material. Ashley highlighted this sentiment best, stating that the KETs "should know the NESTs' plans, and if the NEST needs advice, the KETs should give advice." Jessica's expectations regarding class preparation centered more on preparing the students for class in a proactive way by performing "environmental preparation for class." She stated that this involved making sure students know what is expected of them during team-taught classes. Sara had no expectations regarding what the KET should do to prepare for class.

KET Expectations Concerning Classroom Roles. The KETs' expectations regarding their own team-teaching roles were often not reflective of their views towards ideal teaching roles, though all of the interviewees' expectations of NESTs leading class mirrored their views. Sara said that she expects to help manage the students "at the beginning of the semester," as compared to being totally uninvolved, like her view on ideal team-teaching roles. She attributes this expectation to the fact that "students [need to be taught] how to act and follows rules." Sara went on to state that "NESTs should act as a lead teacher because they have to teach everything." It is uncertain why Sara expects the NEST to teach everything. Abigail and Jessica's expectations much agreed with their views that their role should be to help facilitate student involvement, translate, and discipline students. However, Karen expects her actual role to be a facilitator, and not a main teacher, unlike her view towards ideal team-teaching roles. Karen says this is because she believes students will not be "satisfied with the condition [she does] not use Korean," and that she believes in order to be a main teacher, she can only use English. Ashley, also displaying different expectations from her views, stated that she expects to be responsible for the "classroom environment, students, and evaluations," but that the "NEST [is the] leader of their class," referring to whom she expects to deliver the class material and set lesson objectives. Jessica highlights the fact that, although she believes the "main role of class management is the KET ... [she thinks the] NEST is also [responsible for] classroom management," and that she expects NESTs to "be strict ... when students are bad." Jessica demonstrates that the KETs may expect some responsibilities to be shared, such as classroom management, though responsibilities like preparing and teaching the lesson material are expected to be solely fulfilled by the NEST. Ultimately, no KET expectations to take part in team teaching as a lead teacher were found. Instead, all of the KETs expected the NESTs to lead the class, while most of the KETs expected to play a supportive role as a facilitator.

Factors Influencing Team-Teaching Relationships

Factors that influence team-teaching relationships were divided into main categories of factors that contribute to team teaching positively and factors that contribute to team teaching negatively. Factors that contribute to positive team teaching were separated into normalization of NESTs as a school staff member, NEST personality traits, NEST ability to benefit KETs directly, and NEST preparation of high-quality lesson plans. Factors that contribute negatively to team teaching were divided into NEST personality factors, NEST lesson preparation, and lack of communication.

Factors That Contribute Positively to Team Teaching

Normalization of NEST as a School Staff Member. Jessica gives more information about how NESTs normalizing their relationships as a school staff member contributes positively to team-teaching relationships in her statement that she was happy when NESTs "go well with the non-English teachers." Jessica further explained that when NESTs are "active" in the school community, it allows the KET and NEST to spend more time together outside of class. Ashley adds to this idea, stating that she would be more satisfied if the NEST participated more "in big school events" because many members of the school want to get to know the NEST more, including herself.

NEST Personality Traits. Personality factors contributing to positive team-teaching relationships ranged from positivity and helpfulness mentioned by Ashley, flexibility and passion for teaching mentioned by Abigail, and willingness to communicate, professionalism, and outgoingness mentioned by Jessica. The NESTs' personality traits were found to contribute to the team-teaching experience in multiple ways, such as those extending outside of the classroom pertaining to the willingness to be involved in the school community and facilitating the ability to develop friendships.

NEST Ability to Directly Benefit the KET. Overall, one of the most commonly mentioned factors that facilitated team-teaching relationships positively pertained to whether or not the NEST could benefit the KET directly in some way, such as by teaching natural English expressions, culture, or teaching methods. Sara mentioned being really satisfied from having such close access to a language resource, while Jessica mentioned being satisfied when the NEST could teach her about different teaching methods. Ashley also reported being happy when she could learn more about Western culture from the NEST, and that NESTs "help KETs well." Sara expresses these shared sentiments best when she states that "there are many advantages [of working with a NEST]. As an English teacher I can also learn a lot from them. Such as culture or new expressions, and I have the chance to practice new English."

NEST Preparation of High-Quality Lesson Plans. The NESTs' preparation of high-quality lessons was also found to contribute to positive team-teaching relationships. Karen was happy when the NESTs' lesson plans included "three or four activities ... [and] some culture parts related with [the] topics" while Sara was satisfied when the lesson material taught her "things [she] didn't know." Overall, high quality lesson plans were characterized by including cultural elements, various activities, advice about natural English usage, setting clear and achievable goals, and reviewing previously learned material.

Factors That Contribute Negatively to Team Teaching

Three primary factors that negatively influenced team-teaching relationships were found. These factors relate to NEST personality traits, NEST lesson preparation, and lack of communication about team teaching.

NEST Personality Traits. Jessica mentioned that she was upset previously when a NEST she worked with lacked professionalism and was stubborn, saying that "they really didn't care about the class." Ashley wasn't happy when the NESTs were untidy, while Karen was particularly displeased with what she perceived to be laziness, characterized by the NEST sitting down "at the chair [while they] teach the students." Overall, important personality factors that contributed negatively to team-teaching relationships included unprofessional attitudes, disorganization, laziness, and a lack of punctuality.

NEST Lesson Preparation. Commonly mentioned areas of dissatisfaction regarding NEST lesson preparation included a lack of customization of the material, lack of inclusion of review and assessment in the lessons, and a lack of consideration of student interests when designing the material. The most often mentioned factor pertained to a lack of material customization, defined by Sara as material that is "unrelated with lesson goals" and also not "customized to the students' level."

Lack of Communication About Team Teaching. Jessica indicated that she viewed NESTs negatively when they "didn't have much conversation about the co-teaching class." Further consideration of how a lack of communication can influence team-teaching relationships is very revealing. Communication can be employed by NEST and KET pairs to address important areas for team-teaching success, such as lesson preparation, teaching roles, and encouraging involvement in different school activities. All of these factors have been shown to critically affect team-teaching relationships, and each factor is amenable to being enhanced by communication. It is surprising that Jessica was the only interviewee to mention communication as contributing to team-teaching relationships in any way. She also mentions the possibility that NESTs and KETs may not be communicating towards mitigating factors negatively affecting team-teaching relationships and maximizing those that positively contribute to team-teaching relationships.

Archival Findings: KET Instructions Regarding Team Teaching

The 2019 NEST Management Guide (NETMG) was found to have little information available regarding team teaching and its implementation. Though it is revealing that the NEST is referred to specifically as an "assistant instructor," a role that does not seem to be represented by the KETs' experiences with team teaching. Upon further analysis of Chapter 3, "Utilization of NEST," information regarding team-teaching instruction was obtained. This information came primarily through two charts emphasizing practices for both good and bad classes for team teaching with NESTs. Good class examples included standards such as discussing lesson content and teaching methods before class, trying to work together to employ both teachers as resources, and discussing and evaluating positive points of the lesson before planning the next class. Bad class practices included a lack of discussion about what would be taught before class, the NEST or KET teaching alone, the NEST not attending to the needs of students nor the KET during class, and a failure of the pair to discuss and evaluate the lesson after teaching. It is important to note that though standards are provided for team teaching by the NETMG, they are vague and that specific models or case studies are not provided.

The results from the interviews seem to suggest that the NETMG has had an effect on some of the KETs' views towards team teaching, but the NETMG was not found to affect the KETs' experiences or expectations with team teaching. Karen and Ashley are both good examples showing that, though they may view "ideal" team teaching in alignment with NETMG standards, their actual expectations of team teaching are different. Karen states that, in reality, she does not believe the students are comfortable with her having an active role if this involves her primarily using English, while Ashley stated that she expects the NEST to act as the "leader of their class." Overall, the clearest piece of evidence that the NETMG standards are not being followed is the finding that none of the KETs interviewed reported being actively involved with instruction of lesson-material during class, which is a stark departure from the kind of involvement the NETMG suggests, though nondescriptly.

DISCUSSION

Storey et al. (2001), finding that the role of NESTs was to act as a language resource, assist in teacher development, and foster an environment for students to practice their speaking skills seems largely to be confirmed by the results of this study. Carless and Walker's (2006) idea that team-teaching pairs complement one another's strengths seems also to be indicated by the relative ranking of NEST and KET strengths, though this fact may not be able to be properly used in South Korean public schools due to educational stakeholders' emphasis on mainly receptive skills for the important college entrance exam (Yook, 2010). The benefit of team teaching identified by Carless and Walker (2006), that is, of students having more opportunities for support and involvement in class with the availability of different personalities and teaching styles, is only able to be realized if both teachers are willing to participate in direct instruction. Yet, none of the interviewees had expectations regarding team teaching that would be compatible with Carless and Walker's (2006) definition that includes active involvement in instruction. The benefits of active team teaching in the literature have been extremely pronounced, such as more opportunities for students to interact with instructors, increases in motivation, and higher likelihood of task completion (Carless & Walker 2006; Storey et al., 2001). However, the findings of this study demonstrate that KETs seem to be unaware of these possible advantages, highlighted by the fact that the majority of the advantages of working with a NEST that were cited by KETs were directly related to the KETs themselves. The only advantage for students mentioned included the ability to learn more natural English, while no advantages pertaining directly to team teaching, such as increased opportunity for students to interact with or receive support from either teacher, were mentioned. This suggests that more education regarding team-teaching methods and benefits needs to be implemented for the KETs, which is in agreement with previous findings by Yim (2012).

When examining factors that contribute to positive team-teaching relationships, factors related to what occurs outside of the class were far more likely to be mentioned than any kind of collaboration that occurs inside of the class. Outside factors include the NEST's normalization as a school staff member and the NEST's ability to benefit the KET directly, while inside factors pertained mostly to the NEST's lesson preparation, which was overwhelmingly viewed as a solo endeavor. These examples introduce the idea that relational factors are perceived as more important than the direct implementation of team-teaching methods in regards to having a satisfying team-teaching relationship for the KET. In relation to this finding, the KETs' expectations that NESTs are solely responsible for class material delivery should be changed in order to maximize student learning outcomes. Providing KETs with suitable models of team teaching that show the KET's involvement in increasing student exposure to English and achievement of communicative objectives would go a long way in accomplishing this. This can perhaps be, in part, accomplished by changing the emphasis of the NETMG from "utilization" of NESTs to more appropriately, "team teaching with NESTs." Accordingly, more information regarding specific and suitable team-teaching models, methods, and benefits should be provided. These models should pay specific attention to ways the KET can increase the students' English exposure during team teaching and demonstrate ways that the KET's "facilitation" can become active involvement with instruction. Towards this end, the KET may be able to provide appropriate scaffolding and direct instruction during appropriate times by actively monitoring the students for lacks and needs as the lesson unfolds.

Suggestions regarding best ways forward for NESTs involved in team teaching include, firstly, considering the KET's willingness to implement team teaching. It is possible that the KET may not deem it relevant or beneficial for students, as evidenced by Sara's direct statement that this is the case. In such instances, the NEST should understand the educational climate as potentially not being conducive to certain forms of team teaching. This is possibly due to the KET involved being unsure of how to contribute and/or unconvinced of its benefits. If the KET remains unconvinced after discussing the roles and benefits of team teaching, compromise should be made as to what the KET believes to be in the best interest of the students.

In cases where the KET is willing to be more involved with team teaching, the NEST should be sure to be involved during all stages of the process, be flexible to new ideas, communicate openly about roles, interact frequently, be passionate, and be willing to share the stage to allow for active instruction by both teachers. Though team teaching is officially endorsed by EPIK (2013) and the NETMG, this is not necessarily reflective of KETs' experiences, views, and/or expectations. Kim and Seong's (2012) finding that effective communication skills contribute to team-teaching success is given much support by the findings of this present study. All directions forward should be communicated with each KET individually, and towards this end, communication regarding team teaching is likely the most important place to start. If such appropriate communication can be employed, the KET's and the NEST's respective strengths in active instruction can be capitalized on simultaneously, resulting in the embodiment of Carless and Walker's (2006) "successful" team-teaching pair.

CONCLUSIONS

The research question of "What are middle school Korean English teachers' experiences, views, and expectations of team teaching with a NEST?" has been addressed, though only five different interviewees were included in the present study, and all of the interviews came from KETs at the middle school level. The evidence presented suggests that KETs are aware of the respective strengths related to NESTs and KETs alike, but are unaware of the additional benefits of team teaching directly. To address this, KETs should be better informed regarding why team teaching characterized by dual-instruction is more beneficial for students than team teaching characterized by only translation and/or facilitation. This is not to say that translation and facilitation is not helpful, but instead suggests the necessity for official team-teaching guidelines to include specific models, not just standards, that showcase active co-instruction. Including more than one model would also allow for team-teaching pairs to better choose models that reflect the specifics of their relationships and teaching contexts. Active KET participation in team teaching does not necessarily detract from the students' exposure to English, which is a concern for some KETs. Instead, active KET participation may serve not only to further the students' exposure to English, but also to provide more targeted and customized learning. To realize this outcome most effectively, further research on current best practices in team teaching should be conducted and publicized. Advice to NESTs involved in team teaching at the secondary level pertains mostly to understanding that roles and responsibilities in team-teaching relationships should be negotiated individually. One should not conclude that all KETs have similar views or expectations of team teaching, as has been shown in the present study. There does not appear to be a single best recommendation or model for all team-teaching relationships as of now. Efforts towards practicing effective team teaching in the classroom appear to be best spent through consistent and candid communication about team teaching directly and adjusting one's roles and responsibilities in response to the information acquired.

Acknowledgements

This research study was supported by the Gwangju Metropolitan Office of Education (GMOE), which provided access to official recommendations and policies pertaining to team teaching. The author would like to thank the GMOE for both its assistance in providing relevant documents and its welcoming of scientifically based suggestions to improve certain guidelines related to team teaching. The author would further like to extend his gratitude to all the KETs involved in the study. Participation in the interviews was quite lengthy and demonstrates how much some KETs care about improving team-teaching relationships, and ultimately, the classroom experience for students.

The Author

Jonathan Moffett received an MEd with an emphasis on TESOL from the University of Missouri in May 2020. He has been working as a NEST for four years in Gwangju, South Korea, where he has had experience at both primary and secondary levels across seven different schools. He is especially interested in task-based learning and finding ways to improve team-teaching relationships and performance. Email: jblakemoffett@gmail.com

REFERENCES

Ahn, K. (2009). *Learning to teach within the curricular reform context: A sociocultural perspective on English student teachers' practicum experience in South Korea* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. The Pennsylvania State University.

Baeten, M., & Simons, M. (2014). Student teachers team teaching: Models, effects, and conditions for implementation. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *41*, 92–110.

Balanyk, J. (2012). Perceptions of co-teaching as shaped by differing educational discourses. *TESOL Review*, *4*, 33–63.

Biemann, T., & Weckmüller, H. (2012). Wie man erfolgreiche Teams zusammenstellt [How to composite successful teams]. *PERSONALquarterly*, *64*, 46–49.

Boyle, J. (1997). Native speaker teachers of English in Hong Kong. *Language and Education*, *11*(3), 163–81.

Burns, A. (2010). *Doing action research in English language teaching: A guide for practitioners*. Routledge.

Carless, D., & Walker, E. (2006). Effective team teaching between local and native-speaking English teachers. *Language and Education*, *20*(6), 463-477.

Choi, Y. (2001). Suggestions for the re-organisation of English teaching program by native speakers in Korea. *English Teaching*, *56*, 101–22.

EPIK (English Program in Korea). (2013). *EPIK: English program in Korea*. https://www.epik.go.kr/index.do.

George, M., & Davis-Wiley, P. (2000). Team teaching a graduate course. *College Teaching*, *48*(2), 75–80.

Jeon, J. H. (2009). Key issues in applying the communicative approach in Korea. *English Teaching*, *64*(4), 123–150.

Jeon, I. J. (2010). Exploring the co-teaching practice of native and non-native English teachers in Korea. *English Teaching*, *65*, 43–67.

Johnson, K., & Tang, G. (1993). Engineering a shift to English in Hong Kong schools. In T. Boswood, R. Hoffman, & P. Tung (Eds.), *Perspectives on English for professional communication* (pp. 203–216). City Polytechnic of Hong Kong.

Jung, S. K., & Norton, B. (2002). Language planning in Korea: The new elementary English program. In J. W. Tollefson (Ed.), *Language policies in education: Critical issues* (pp. 245–265). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Kang, J. Y., & Lee, S. H. (2014). 중등영어교사임용시험 듣기문항의 변화 추세 분석 연구 [A study on the trends in listening questions for secondary English teacher employment]. *Studies in English Education*, *19*(2), 151–175.

Kim, E. G. (2009). *Teacher policy: Procurement and disposition of qualitative teachers: Vol. 8*. Korean Educational Development Institute.

Kim, E. H., & Seong, G. B. (2012). 초등학교 영어 수업의 팀티칭 파트너십 사례

연구 [A case study on elementary school English team-teaching partnership]. *Korean Journal of English Language and Linguistics*, *12*(4), 655–685.

Kim, M. (2010a). A narrative inquiry of a Korean English teacher's first journey through co-teaching. *English Teaching*, *65*, 179–207.

Kim, M. (2010b). How do native English-speaking teachers perceive co-teaching? *Korean Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *26*, 213–249.

Krammer, M., Rossmann, P., Gastager, A., & Gasteiger-Klicpera, B. (2018). Ways of composing teaching teams and their impact on teachers' perceptions about collaboration. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, *41*(4), 463–478.

Kwon, O. (2000). Korea's English education policy changes in the 1990s: Innovations to gear the nation for the 21st century. *English Teaching*, *55*, 47–91.

Lee, M. W. (2011). The influence of the current national curriculum on pre-service English teacher education in Korea. *Journal of the Korea English Education Society*, *10*, 1–23.

Li, D. (1998). "It's always more difficult than you plan and imagine": Teachers' perceived difficulties in introducing the communicative approach in South Korea. *TESOL Quarterly*, *32*, 677–703.

Moodie, I., & Nam, H. J. (2016). English language teaching research in South Korea: A review of recent studies (2009-2014). *Language Teaching*, *49*(1), 63–98.

Nam, K. S. (2011). A critical look at interaction in a Korean middle school classroom: Its role in the development of students' communicative abilities. *English Language Teaching*, *23*(1), 129–151.

Park, J. S. Y. (2009). *The local construction of a global language: Ideologies of English in South Korea: Vol. 24*. Mouton de Gruyter.

Pope-Ruark, R., Motley, P., & Moner, W. (2019). Creative innovation takes a (team teaching) family. *Teaching and Learning Inquiry: The ISSOTL Journal*, *7*(1), 120–135.

Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative inquiry in TESOL*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Rytivaara, A., & Kershner, R. (2012). Co-teaching as a context for teachers' professional learning and joint knowledge construction. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *28*, 999–1008.

Shibley, I. (2006). Interdisciplinary team teaching: Negotiating pedagogical differences. *College Teaching*, *54*(3), 271–275.

Shin, S. K. (2012). "It cannot be done alone": The socialization of novice English teachers in South Korea. *TESOL Quarterly*, *46*, 542–567.

Simmons, R., & Magiera, K. (2007). Evaluation of co-teaching in three high schools within one school district: How do you know when you are TRULY co-teaching? *TEACHING Exceptional Children Plus*, *3*(3), Article 4. http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ967127.pdf

Storey, P., Luk, J., Gray, J., Wang-Kho, E., Lin, A., & Berry, R. S. Y. (2001). *Monitoring and evaluation of the native-speaking English teacher scheme (MENETS)*. Hong Kong Institute of Education. https://www.edb.gov.hk/attachment/en/curriculum-development/resource-support/net/rnct%20school%20based/menets%201998%20-%202000.pdf

Yim, S. Y., & Yu, Y. L. (2011). Validating the English learning anxiety scale for primary school students in Korea. *English Teaching*, *66*(2), 101–122.

Yim, S. Y. (2012). Implementation of team teaching: Perspectives from native English speakers. *Foreign Languages Education*, *19*, 109–131.

Yook, C. M. (2010). *Korean teachers' beliefs about English language education and their impacts upon the Ministry of Education-initiated reforms* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Georgia State University.

Brief Reports

The Importance of Teachers' Participation with Cooperative Learning in Adult ESL Education

Yih Ren
University of San Francisco, California, USA

This paper explores the benefits of teachers' active engagement and participation in cooperative learning (CL) activities in adult ESL education. More pointedly, this brief report argues that the teacher's active engagement and participation throughout CL activities will (a) help students crystallize key issues, weave students' thoughts together to help their learning, (b) forge a supportive environment for communication and socializing, and (c) critically encourage students to be active social agents finding their meanings and what matters along the collaborative learning journey. Furthermore, this study employed a case study in an English institute located in San Francisco, California. The data was collected mainly through observation and informal interviews with two teachers. Analysis and discoveries will be closely attached to how important it is for teachers to participate in collaboration learning in search of academic outcomes and psychological growth as well as critical awareness in relation to the study of social interdependence theory.

Keywords: ESL education, international students, teacher's education, cooperative learning, social interdependence, critical pedagogy

INTRODUCTION

Cooperative learning (CL), as the work of developing group dynamics, social relationships, teaching, and learning, has become one of the most influential pedagogical practices among different education domains on a global scale (Antil et al., 1998). With CL-structured curriculums and activities, students are encouraged to share information, discuss materials, help each other, and build strong solidarity, aiming to accomplish an established academic goal that is beneficial to all as a group as well as individuals within the group (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). Additionally, the traditional teacher-centered classroom and teacher-led discussions are challenged as learning takes place as a result of authentic interaction in meaningful contexts where learners and the teacher both make efforts for reaching the shared goal (Harmer, 1999).

Although CL as a strategy has existed for many years, compared with studies and research on CL in mainstream education settings, research in second language education is less widespread, and the focus traditionally has often been on whether CL can improve second language (L2) proficiency by providing students with more L2 interaction (Fathman & Kessler, 1993; McGroarty, 1993). Liang et al. (1998) argue that more studies addressing CL and other sociocultural and sociolinguistic aspects need to be conducted and examined, even with regard to CL and first language maintenance, CL and culture integration, relationships between the teacher and learners with CL, CL with prior knowledge and new knowledge, L2 learners' perceptions and lived experience related to CL, and so forth. Therefore, this paper suggests that educators and ESL instructors need to employ a critical perspective in L2 teaching, and the action research described in this brief report particularly aims to explore the importance of teacher's active engagement and participation not only in instructing students and monitoring their academic outcomes but also in cultivating their psychological growth and encouraging them to be active social agents, finding their meanings and potentials along the collaborative learning journey.

METHODS AND LITERATURE FRAMING THE ACTION RESEARCH

The objective of this paper as mentioned above is to share the outcomes of an action research study that aimed to evaluate mixed outcomes of cooperative learning in the ESL classroom with teachers' active participation, and its validity and importance in successfully implementing CL to reach the mutual goal. The action research project was intended to better inform my own future classroom instruction and development of ESL learners' language proficiency and self-development. In some form, it also functioned as a means of reflective practice regarding CL in the classroom.

Research Design and Context

Yin (2003) concludes that the value of case studies is to reveal what is beyond the participants and the social relations that they reflect. Through observations and data analysis, the case study in this brief report was conducted in an English learning institute, SF1 (a pseudonym), in San Francisco, California, in the academic year 2019–2020. There are almost 200 students currently enrolled in SF1, and the students are mainly from Thailand, Korea, Spain, France, China, and Japan. The data was collected through non-participant observation in a literature-based ESL class with VS (a pseudonym) and participant observation in a TOEFL class with MR (also a pseudonym). Also, informal interviews were held with teachers and some students. In SF1, cooperative learning has been commonly used in teaching and learning. VS's class, which targeted students at CEFR level B1-B2-C1, has implemented many CL-focused activates alongside the literature-based curriculum. In MR's TOEFL Prep class, besides following the TOEFL textbook, some CL games were conducted successfully with activities such as Think–Pair–Share, Inside–Outside Circle, Jigsaw, group presentations, and so on.

Research Target

According to Yin (2003), the case selection should relate closely to theories and theoretical propositions of interest. Two instructors, VS (CEFR B1-B2) and MR (TOEFL Preparation), are the main participants in this study. VS has been an ESL teacher at SF1 for several years. He majored in English and dived into language teaching after graduation. Also, VS passionately cherishes student group work and communicative competence, so he believes that having students interactively engaged with stories and novels can help them learn the language and the culture behind it. On the other hand, MR, with his remarkable teaching experiences overseas, values the importance of student academic engagement and cultural beliefs. In other words, he thinks ESL teachers should include students' learning backgrounds, cultures, and lived experiences into curriculum designing and in-class activity planning so that the students and the teacher can both engage with the class and build meaningful relationships between students as well as between students and the teacher.

Study Population

Most of the students at SF1 are ESL international students, which are arguably different from EFL and ELL students. NCELA (2006) claims that ELLs are learners whose English is not their native language and who expect or are expected to partially or fully acquire English in countries where English is the official language. On the other hand, ESL students, like international students, are often found in an English-speaking environment, and English is considered as an important tool for student success and survival (Brown 2006). For EFL students such as Chinese students in China, English is not an essential tool for their daily communication, but maybe massively taught throughout schooling (Broughton et al., 1978, p. 6). Moreover, almost all of the students at SF1 are adults who are more determined to protect their investment of time, money, and effort by getting into a good university and achieving a higher level of academic English (Tharp, 1988). Thus, making English classes for adult ESL students communicative and effective is vital to helping students reach their academic goals as well as attain interpersonal and social growth.

FINDINGS

CL coupled with social independent theory is a well-refined method, not merely group work on a given task but a group learning activity in which each learner is responsible for their own learning outcomes and is motivated to contribute to the learning outcomes of others (Olsen & Kagan, 1992). CL has for many years shown benefits in academic outcomes, social relationship-building, cognitive learning, and more. However, while the advantages of CL have been widely recognized, other concerns and debates also deserve our attention. For instance, Liu (1998) has concerns about certain culture-influenced international ESL students that might have a passive learning style, and need or expect a strong teacher's role in the transmission of knowledge. Also, DelliCarpini (2008) finds that ESL teachers often lack support from the faculty and are not comfortable with actually implementing CL due to negative experiences when trying CL and also the understanding gap between students and the teacher. Challenging the traditional role of the teacher, this author finds that ESL teachers' quality and active participation with students in cooperative learning classroom discussions and activities can maximize the benefits of CL, as students can not only receive instant feedback from a trained target-language native speaker but can also grow an equal and meaningful relationship with the instructor and peers. Also, the teacher is able to acknowledge learning gaps among students and understand students better as individuals.

Based on the results of class observation and participation, some important items that exemplify the teacher's role in CL learning activities have been identified. The observation was held throughout two weeks in a literature-based ESL class and in a TOEFL Prep class. A formal CL activity has been documented in Table 1, and an informal CL activity presented in Table 2.

TABLE 1. A Literature-Based Cooperative Learning Activity in an ESL CEFR C1 Class at SF1

Teacher Before the Activity	Student Before the Activity
*Showing the poem "The Second Coming" on the TV. *Explaining the connection between the material and the poem. *Asking students to discuss the poem, decipher the metaphors in the poem, and go back to the book to find out what those metaphors refer to in the book.	*Listening to the teacher's instructions. *Reading the poem.
Teacher During the Activity	**Student During the Activity**
*Going to each group and listening to their opinions. *Asking deeper questions based on students' answers. *Correcting students' oral grammar mistakes.	*Going to the assigned group. *Discussing the poem and the meaning behind its metaphors. *Asking the teacher some questions about word usage or meaning.
Teacher After the Activity	**Student After the Activity**
*Addressing the class and summarizing some of the highlights of the discussion. *Asking some questions about the poem. *Discussing with students and allowing new answers.	*Listening to a summary and thinking about questions that the teacher raises. *Answering with their own interpretation of the book and the poem.

The effectiveness of formal cooperative learning can be found in longer types of work (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). In this literature-based class, students collaboratively read a novel together with the teacher, and throughout the process, vocabulary, grammar, writing skills, reading skills, and speaking skills all get practiced and developed. Also, the groups have been working together for quite some time and are assigned to groups based on ability, interest, personality, style, and previous collaborations.

In analyzing the filed notes for this activity, it was revealed that (a) most students were motivated to learn and discuss in the group and that some students were less focused and more attached to their phone, (b) the interaction with the teacher looked easy, respectful, and fun, (c) the teacher actively participated in discussions with students, and the discussions were educational and English-language focused, (d) the teacher–student relationship seemed equal and not authoritative, and (e) the learning environment was student-centered.

During the discussion, the teacher actively joined each group and listened to them sharing their insights and opinions about the poem and its connection to the novel. When necessary, the teacher would correct sentence structures and pronunciations, not simply by oral correction but by using elicitation, clarification requests, and other corrective feedback (Lyster & Rant, 1997). The teacher would also initiate back-and-forth dialogue with some students in order to induce them to go deeper into thought on the metaphors and connect them with their own experience. For those who seemed less motivated to participate and distracted by their phone, the teacher went to them with a smile and asked them about their thoughts on the poem and the novel.

Using informal CL activities can help students to understand the material better and exchange information quicker in the group, which can boost the classroom learning atmosphere and foster relationships among students (Johnson & Johnson, 2009). In this activity, students with different cultural backgrounds needed to verbally deliberate their experience and opinions over the U.S. political entity and racial ideology, which offers them a great opportunity for TOEFL oral exam practice and also to discuss something beyond school matters in English. The traditional role of an ESL teacher is here challenged; more on this topic will be discussed later.

Analysis of the author's observations revealed that (a) most of the students had a hard time speaking their thoughts, (b) the atmosphere in the class was playful and enthusiastic, (c) the relationship between the teacher and students was caring and meaningful, (d) the teacher had to explain and ask more, as some of the students were having trouble understanding politics and the language.

TABLE 2. An Informal CL Activity in a TOEFL Prep Class

Teacher Before the Activity	Student Before the Activity
*Explaining the purpose of watching this Democratic Debate for the 2020 election, including the connection between the video and the students' immigration status, education, cultural beliefs, and TOEFL. *Asking students to be ready to discuss their vote, and explain why.	*Listening to the teacher's instructions. *Quietly forming a group with nearby students.
Teacher During the Activity	**Student During the Activity**
*Watching the debate with the students, and taking notes as well. *Asking students to summarize each candidate's main point. *Discussing with students by posing questions and encouraging them to connect them with their own life and home country.	*Watching the video and taking notes. *Discussing with the nearby students and the teacher. *Sharing their vote, and the reason for it.
Teacher After the Activity	**Student After the Activity**
*Addressing the importance of the debate and the connection to international student life.	*Sharing thoughts with the teacher and the class.

During the discussion, the teacher worked with each group and encouraged students to relate to their own cultural beliefs. When some students had a question or were less capable of discussing the topic, the teacher would ask them to address the question to the whole class and give more time for other students to share insights before the teacher addressed the question. In the end, the teacher shared opinions related to international students' linguistic and cultural anxieties, and affirmed their bravery and efforts in pursuing their dreams in a foreign country.

It is notable that cooperative learning has advantages including more academic engagement, social interaction across cultures, transfer of ideas, group leadership skills, and others (Johnson & Johnson, 1999; 2009). However, this paper argues that without the teacher's active participation with students throughout CL planning and implementation, CL activities may become confusing and counterproductive. The study by Hogan et al.

(2010) aims to discover patterns and outcomes of peer group collaboration and learning with and without teacher intervention. Although the results are varied due to different settings – the quality of the teacher's guidance, the level of the students, learning styles of the students, teacher–student relationships, and so forth – there is no doubt that a teachers' questioning and probing for thoughtful response can help crystallize key issues, move discussions forward, weave students' thoughts together to help them maintain a logical consistency.

Based on the author's observations, when some students produced a great number of grammatical errors during group work, their partners did not point out or help them to troubleshoot. This pattern is not uncommon; ESL international students with different cultural backgrounds and less confidence in oral communication tend to adopt affected behavior in order to avoid conflicts and save each other's face, ultimately compensating for their language barrier and to promote pleasant conversational experiences (Terui, 2012). Hence, when students struggle to benefit from collaborative learning, the teacher as a more knowledgeable other (MKO) needs to step forward to participate with the groups in order to address any difficulties that students might have in the outside circle of their zone of proximal development (Mcleod, 2019), help reinforce authentic second language inputs, and actively prevent the occurrence of fossilization (Zimmerman & Vavla, 2016).

Beyond affirmative academic outcomes, the students' psychological health and social skills can be improved through CL activities incorporating teacher engagement. Foreign students who left their homeland and moved to the U.S. to seek educational development are under a variety of mental health concerns on different levels due to culture shock, social status change, economic status change, expectations from themselves and family, and other idiosyncratic conditions. Also, the lack of support from institutions and communication problems resulting from the language barrier and differing cultural values have made it even more difficult for educators to acknowledge their students' lived experience and struggles (Oropeza et al., 1991). All of the above can result in negative impacts on student productivity, achievement, and self-esteem. Deursh (1962) initiates and Johnson and Johnson (2009) extends "positive interdependence" with three inter-correlated factors: outcome, means, and boundaries, which reveal the interdependent and overlapping responsibilities of both students and the teacher. Students who face a lot of stress might trigger abrupt discontinuity to the group and the whole class. Not only does it affect their role and goals, it also has a negative impact on motivations and social interactions, and ultimately hinders the effectiveness of second language acquisition. On the contrary, teacher participation and encouragement can become a unifying force providing students with a great opportunity to learn how to accept and communicate, as well as for them to take personal responsibility to promote positive interactions for the accomplishment of individual and group goals. For the teacher, being the unifying force reveals the value in having stronger bonds with students and monitoring their psychological growth, which constructively enhances educational goals and positive social relations, and greatly improves teaching and learning.

Besides monitoring students' academic progress and social interactions, ESL teachers also need to engage with a critical and problematizing perspective that potentially helps international English learners to examine positions of their culture, ethnics related to inequality, oppression, and compassion (Pennycook, 1999). According to Gee (1994), English teachers stand at the very heart of the most crucial educational, cultural, and political issues of our time (p. 190). The situation in which ESL educators are positioned urges them to embrace their multiple roles as supporters, risk-takers, learners, researchers, and communicators in order to actively engage with ESL students' lives by (a) connecting what ESL students are learning with ideologies and norms beyond the English language that presently has meaning to them, (b) providing a brave space with respect and love for sharing and collaborations, (c) valuing ESL students' prior knowledge from family and community, especially those who are underrepresented and misrepresented, and (d) helping students to develop critical consciousness and social awareness (Ren, 2020). Thus, when teaching English as a second or a foreign language is often narrowly viewed as a matter of second language acquisition, social interdependence theory applied in cooperative learning activities expansively provides a pedagogy for ESL educators to critically connect teaching and learning with educational, cultural, psychological, interpersonal, and political variables.

IMPLICATIONS

The Korean ELT Context

English education has long been taken seriously among Koreans (Seth, 2002). So-called “English villages” have been built by local governments (Kim, 2004) to offer simulated authentic interaction, sending children to English-speaking countries for study abroad has been popular, cram schools are ubiquitous (Seth, 2002), and taking children to get tongue surgery have been reported among middle-upper-class families (Demick, 2012). From top to bottom, English has been regarded as a necessity to achieve success and prestige, but at times, unfortunately, big investments have not always met the expectations of students, parents, and even the government.

Chun and Choi (2006) point out that high-cost and low-efficiency is at times reflective of the current situation of English education in Korea, despite diligent efforts at macro- and micro-level policy initiatives and the population’s investment and dedication to English education. The concerns are mainly with exam-focused classroom practices, oversized class settings, lack of interactions between the teacher and learners, lack of authentic English input and negative psychological effects resulting from academic performance below expectations (Cho, 2004).

Moreover, Korean international students who apply Korean cultural values in American schools and in other Western English-speaking countries have been found to struggle in classroom discussions (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001) as well as in interactions with native speakers (Terui, 2012) due to linguistic and socio-cultural competences.

So, within Korea and abroad, Korean students may lack exposure to a learning environment that fosters a risk-taking setting in the classroom where they have an opportunity to learn not only from the teacher as a subject-matter expert but also from peers and from their own reflective processes.

The Value of CL for the Korean ELT Context

Cooperative learning can offer more dynamics to horizontal communication, rather than hierarchical communication through teacher-fronted instruction, benefiting both the teacher and learners to build a learning environment where communication and interaction are centralized but flexible. Fitzgibbon (2011) in *The English Connection* not only highlights that CL can boost learners' decision-making, problem-solving, and collaboration to achieve a shared goal but also emphasizes that CL can help establish an accepting, encouraging, and trusting community for both teachers and students to share, learn, and grow across differences. This action research particularly aims to discuss how the teacher with active participation and engagement with CL can be a unifying force in the development of English education not as a static body, merely concerned with second language acquisition, but rather as a fluid substance, critically bridging their lived experience, cultures, mental growth, and social relations within the collaborative learning journey. Yet Korea's traditional classroom and educational models are ever changing through its rapid economic development, participation as a lead player on the global level, and investment in English language education. CL is simply another tool that is available for educators to explore and understand how best to apply for the enhancement of Korean ELT.

CONCLUSIONS

This action research study, shared here as a brief report, was a small-scale project, aimed not only to provide insight in CL but also to raise further questions of inquiry for the author and for other English language educators to reflect on the use of CL in their classrooms. Therefore, the purpose of this brief report is to stimulate future inquiry in the field by encouraging classroom teachers and/or researchers to look closely at (a) how ESL teachers' participation plays interactively with cooperative learning, (b) how ESL teachers can bring other social roles into teaching and be an important part of international students' lives, and (c) how ESL educators can connect second language teaching with critical pedagogy, aiming to cultivate learners' critical consciousness. Based on the results of this action research, teachers' active participation in CL activities can reinforce the central position of learning and authentic second language input, and boost overall performance. Also, CL can help to establish an equal, collaborative, and meaningful learning environment where positive interdependence occurs among students as well as between learners and the teacher. Paulo Freire (1998) has said that "whoever teaches learns in the act of teaching, and whoever learns teaches in the act of learning" (p. 31). This may be one frame to understand the value of CL and student collaboration during the process of learning as students indirectly serve as peer tutors, peer supporters, and peer mentors.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The author would like to thank two wonderful teachers and their enthusiastic students for trusting me and sharing their lived experiences with me. Also, many thanks to Kara Macdonald and the *Korea TESOL Journal* team of editors for showing me that education can truly be liberating and possible.

THE AUTHOR

Yih Ren is a language teacher, an educator, and film critic in San Francisco. Holding an MFA in acting and theater arts, he is pursuing his second master's degree in international and multicultural education at the University of San Francisco. Email: yihren43@gmail.com

REFERENCES

Antil, L. R., Jenkins, J. R., Wayne, S. K., & Vadasy, P. F. (1998). Cooperative learning: Prevalence, conceptualizations, and the relation between research and practice. *American Educational Research Journal*, *35*, 419–454.

Broughton, G., Brumfit, C., Flavell, R., Hill, P., & Pincas, A. (1978). *Teaching English as a foreign language*. Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Brown, H. (2006). *Principles of language learning and teaching.* Prentice Hall.

Cho, B-E. (2004). Issues concerning Korean learners of English: English education in Korea and some common difficulties of Korean students. *The East Asian Learner*, *1*(2), 31–36.

Chun, H-C., & Choi, H-S. (2006). Economics of English. *CEO Information*, *No. 578*. Samsung Economic Research Institute.

Demick, B. (2002, March 31). Some in S. Korea opt for a trim when English trips the tongue: Parents are turning to specialty preschool and even surgery to give their children a linguistic advantage. *Los Angeles Times*.

DelliCarpini, M. (2008). Enhancing cooperative learning in TESOL teacher education. *ELT Journal*, *63*(1), 42–50. https:doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccn016

Fathman, A. K., & Kessler, C. (1993). Cooperative language learning in school contexts. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *13*, 127–140.

Fitzgibbon, L. (2001, September). Cooperative learning in the EFL context. *The English Connection*, *5*(5), 1, 6–8. https://koreatesol.org/sites/default/files/pdf_publications/TECv5n5-0109.pdf

Flowerdew, J., & Peacock, M. (2001). *Research perspectives on English for academic purposes*. Cambridge University Press.

Freire, P. (1998). *Pedagogy of freedom: Ethics, democracy, and civil courage* (P. Clarke, Trans.). Rowman & Littlefield.

Gee, J. P. (1994). Orality and literacy: From the savage mind to ways with words. In J. Maybin (Ed.), *Language and literacy in social practice* (pp. 168–192). Multilingual Matters.

Harmer, J. (1999, July). Why study language? *English Teaching Professional*, *12*, 3–5.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1999). Making cooperative learning work. *Theory into Practice*, *38*(2), 67–73.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (2009). An educational psychology success story: Social interdependence theory and cooperative learning. *Educational Researcher*, *38*(5), 365–379.

Kim, D-Y. (2004, August 24). "No Korean, Just English": English village open at Ansan. *Kukmin Ilbo*.

Liu, D. L. (1998). Ethnocentrism in TESOL: Teacher education and the neglected needs of international TESOL students. *ELT Journal*, *52*(1), 3–10.

Lyster, R, & Ranta, L. (1997). *Corrective feedback and learner uptake, negotiation of form in communicative classrooms*. Cambridge University Press.

Liang, X., Mohan, B., & Early, M. (1998). Issues of cooperative learning in ESL classes: A literature review. *TESL Canada Journal*, *15*(2), 13–23. https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v15i2.698

McGroarty, M. (1993). Cooperative learning and second language acquisition. In D. D. Holt (Ed.), *Cooperative learning: A response to linguistic and cultural diversity* (pp. 19–46). Center for Applied Linguistics and Delta Systems.

Mcleod, S. (2019). *The zone of proximal development and scaffolding*. SimplyPsychology. https://www.simplypsychology.org/Zone-of-Proximal-Development.html

NCELA (National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Educational Programs). (2006). *How many school-aged English language learners (ELLs) are there in the U.S.?* http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/expert/faq/01leps.html

Oropeza, B. A., Fitzgibbon, M., & Baron, A., Jr. (1991). Managing mental health crises of foreign college students. *Counselling and Development*, *69*(3), 280–283.

Olsen, R., & Kagan, S. (1992). About cooperative learning. In C. Kessler (Ed.), *Cooperative language learning: A teacher's resource book*. Prentice Hall.

Pennycook, A. (1999). Introduction: Critical approaches to TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly*, *33*(3), 329–348. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587668

Ren, Y. (2020, May 10). *The need for teachers to address racism during the COVID-19 pandemic*. E-International Relations. https://www.e-ir.info/2020/05/10/the-need-for-teachers-to-address-racism-during-the-covid-19-pandemic/

Seth, M. J. (2002). *Education fever: Society, politics, and the pursuit of schooling in South Korea*. University of Hawaii Press.

Tharp, J. (1988). Put the cart first: Career counseling for adults before enrollment. In S. MacGowan (Ed.), *Recruiting in the 1980s: Enrollment management and adult students*. The Admissions Strategist, 11.

Terui, S. (2012). Second language learners' coping strategy in conversations with native speakers. *Journal of International Students*, *2*(2), 168–183.

Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research*. SAGE.

Zimmerman, L. W., & Vavla, L. (2016). Exploring of the role of teacher's input in fossilization: An examination of some spoken errors by Albanian speakers of English. *Anglica Wratislaviensia*, *54*, 165–179.

Writing to Authority Figures: Korean Students' Communication in English

Emmy J. Min
Rossier School of Education, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA, USA

When learning a particular target language, students can encounter the authority relations manifested in their native language. In this study, the author explored how Korean high school students use communicative strategies when communicating with an authority figure in English. The cultural influence of authority and hierarchy is evident in the written English communications of Korean students in the study. The author describes various communicative strategies that the students used to convey respect and politeness to authority. Finally, the author recommends more learning opportunities for language learners to critically analyze communicative strategies and discursive forms to define, negotiate, and shape their power relations in various sociocultural and sociolinguistic contexts.

Keywords: authority, language learning, language teaching, equity in language teaching, culture, EFL

INTRODUCTION

Authority in schooling is a crucial factor inextricably related to teaching and learning (Bixby, 2006; Pace, 2003). Depending on how it is enacted and constructed, authority can promote or discourage valuable learning in schools (Pace 2003, 2006; Page, 1991). Researchers have not adequately examined the role of authority in education, despite its significance as a research topic. According to Pace (2003), although authority is implied in most educational research, it has not typically been used as the lens through which one views education. Pace noted that "although these studies bear vital implications for authority, they most often do not explicitly address it; even when they do, it is undertheorized" (p. 20). Thus, she called for studies of classroom relations that "consider the multiple, interacting influences of sociocultural factors as well as of the classroom and that work from theoretically grounded conceptualizations of authority" (p. 20).

The importance of authority as a theoretical framework extends to language learning contexts. When learning a particular target language, students can face the authority relations manifested in their native language. Language can function as an important variable in students' relationships to authority figures as they negotiate and co-construct their own roles (Chen, 2006). Thus, it is important to explore the role languages and possible cultural influences play in students' relationships to authority figures in schools.

METHOD

The author collected data at a college preparatory high school in South Korea for three months. The students completed an online survey and participated in optional assignments and were given the title of "research assistant." Fifteen student participants (i.e., research assistants) were selected from a pool of volunteers. Those with high English language proficiency in writing were selected from the pool of volunteers. All of these high school student participants were planning to write applications to top universities based in the U.S. and the U.K. The students wrote and posted letters and survey responses online on a designated website, which the author analyzed. The author was not their teacher but used to teach at their school, so the students regarded the author as a teacher-like figure. Examining the students' language usage online was important because it is innately different from the face-to-face interaction students usually experience (Wu, 2003).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Park (2001), after studying a college English classroom in Korea, found that many student complaint letters written in Korean contained introductory and closing buffer statements, whereas many of the same letters written in English lacked such buffer statements. Buffer statements such as "I deeply appreciate your teaching and advice during this semester" and "I'm sorry I was not able to write this letter earlier" (Park, 2001, p. 193) mitigate any negative effects the letter might have had on the reader. In addition, students who wrote letters in Korean did not place blame directly on the reader. Rather, they recognized the possibility of their own error or an external, unexpected cause as seen in statements such as "I might have made mistakes" (Park, 2001, p. 193). According to Park, students writing letters in Korean were more influenced by cultural effects that validate and valorize teacher authority. In Korean culture, teachers are to be highly respected by students.

Park's (2001) research found that the hierarchical relationship between teachers and students was more evident in student letters written in Korean than in those written in English. The use of Korean honorifics is only one way that students show respect to their teachers, regardless of their true feelings. In addition to the absence of the honorific system when writing in English, students may have been influenced by Western cultural norms that foster a more equal status between the teacher and students. Similar to Park, the author of this study found that authority plays a role in student letters written in Korean. However, unlike Park's findings, this author found both explicit and implicit impacts of authority and the culture of hierarchy on student letters written in English. The following is a posting by Young Ho Kim:

Young Ho's Posting

> Hello. Remember me? I am Young Ho Kim, one of your faithful assistants. And yes, I am one of the infamous trio conspicuously absent from your assistant list. Yeah, I know... you're probably wondering why this guy who didn't even deserve to get assistantship is doing on this board.
> Thing is, I don't really know for sure either, but I do have some things to say.
>
> First, I wish to make it clear to you why I was not listed on the list of contributors. Obviously, my group thought I was not contributing enough. Admittedly, they were right. But I wish to make it clear that my lack of participation was not due to my total absence of enthusiasm and devotion to this project. Nor did I not take this project seriously. Rather, I attribute (quite honestly) my misconduct to my abysmal daily life style, my extreme disorderness, and the fact that I make it virtually impossible to be contacted at

breaks. My horrible memory is also to blame (I forget appointments on a daily basis and have a dazzling list of lost possessions; I lost about 4 student cards, 2 library cards, 5 printer cards, 6 expensive watches, 30~40 hats, the only pair of basketball shoes I ever owned, 2 game boys, and hundreds of other things). What I am trying to say is, although I am to blame for my lack of contribution, I never had disrespect for your project. It was because I was a horrible student. I deeply regret my actions.

Yeah, I know, it's a lame excuse. But it's true.

I deeply apologize to Ms. Min and my group for my blunders. I will do my best to do the rest of the work you assign (I'm a bit more normal when I'm out of school). And no, I'm not asking for credit. Thank you for all your effort.

Ok, now that that's out of the way, here are the online assignments. (download)

Sincerly, Yong Ho Kim

For a more focused analysis in this study, the author defined buffers as any language or symbol used before or after the main topic to minimize negative effects and maximize positive effects that the main topic may have on both the reader (listener) and sender (speaker). It is unclear whether language creates hierarchical influences in the teacher–student relationship or vice versa. Nevertheless, Korean students who use English may feel liberated from the rigid hierarchical relationship they generally have with their teachers. For example, MacMahill (2001) found that Japanese women felt liberated when speaking English. In her study, Japanese women reported that the use of pronouns such as "I" and "you" allowed them to attain a level of assertiveness and directness that they were not able to enjoy when speaking Japanese. Even so, their English writings reflected that they were not entirely free from the cultural notion that students must genuflect before their teachers.

The online letter posted by Yong Ho (a pseudonym) states that although he volunteered to participate in a group project in which he would post his journals, he did not spend much time on the project. Yong Ho's online letter emphasized that his lack of contribution to the project was strictly his fault. By confessing that "I never had disrespect for your project," he was careful not to offend the teacher, thereby establishing the latter's authority. He listed several reasons why he was to blame for the undesirable result, primarily because he was a "horrible student," and he further stated that he "deeply regrets his actions." Yong Ho's letter contained more buffer statements than the letters in Park's (2001) study did because Yong Ho was motivated by his culpability. In other words, in Park's study, the students used buffer statements to mitigate any negative effects on the reader, whereas Yong Ho used buffer statements to mitigate the potential negative effect on himself.

The way Yong Ho encapsulated his message is also noteworthy. He introduced himself in the first section of the letter (inserting a line space to divide sections), but he did so in a self-mocking style. He degraded himself by stating, "I am one of the infamous trios conspicuously absent from your assistant list" and "you're probably wondering what this guy who didn't even deserve to get assistantship is doing on this board." Knowing that his letter would be publicly accessible to other students, it is quite surprising that he ridiculed himself. However, these statements set the stage for his declarative remark, "But I do have one thing to say." The students used buffer statements in almost all their correspondence with their authority figures. The following posting shows a different type of buffer used by a student named Sinhee:

Shinhee's Posting

Hi [name of teacher].

My name is Sinhee Kim. How is everything with you?
It is getting cold. I hope you stay warm as winter is on our way.
I am now submitting the online survey. It is very late and I am sorry.
I know this is not my first time to be late on my online survey posting and I am speechless. If you allow me to explain, I had too many things to prepare for my classes. I stayed up until 3 in the morning to do the assignments. Now I post the survey you asked me to do. I apologize again for not posting this in time. This is the last time that you'll see my survey late.

I really find your research interesting. I hope my survey answer could be helpful to your research. I'll be visiting the US this vacation to learn about universities I want to apply. I hope this will

> give me motivation to study harder for my goal. The process of participating in your research is such a joy and honor for me.
>
> Hope you have wonderful holiday! Sinhee Kim

The purpose of both Yong Ho's posting and Sinhee's posting is similar. After explaining why their survey responses were late, both Yong Ho and Sinhee submitted them online. Despite their similarities, the letters differ in that a closing buffer statement is almost nonexistent in Yong Ho's letter, whereas it is obviously there in Sinhee's much shorter letter.

Most of Yong Ho's introductory buffer consists of the reasons why he had not been actively responding to the online survey questions, which were, of course, optional. After offering his excuses, he was finally prepared to make his final statement, which was the reason he posted his letter publicly on the web. One may argue that Yong Ho's self-blame and apology, which comprise the majority of his letter, could also be the main topic of his letter. Although he may have intended to admit fault and apologize for his lack of cooperation, his main purpose in writing this letter was to submit his responses to the online survey questions. The reason for this is twofold: First, this letter was posted in the assignment menu of the website. If his intention was to apologize and explain his situation, he could have posted a letter in a separate menu on the website where students can directly make inquiries or leave comments privately for teachers. Second, his statement, "OK, now that that's out of the way, here are the online assignments," led to his main topic of interest, thus minimizing the previously made excuses.

In addition, Yong Ho's introductory buffer statements, used as a prelude to the forthcoming climax, had a direct relationship between the former (cause) and the latter (effect). By arguing that the cause of his late submission was his incompetence rather than his ignorance, Yong Ho claimed that the result was unintentional, which would mean he had no intention to disrespect either the author or the research project. In addition, considering the fact that posting the survey responses had no effect on his grade or academic performance, posting his responses could have been another gesture made to ensure he had not threatened the respect he thought his teacher deserved.

Although Yong Ho's beginning buffers have a cause-and-effect relationship, the content of Sinhee's buffer statements, as shown in

Shinhee's Posting, was less directly related to the content of her main topic. Sinhee's discussion of the weather in the beginning buffer served to lighten the mood and prepare the reader for the tension that would be conveyed in the message found in the body of the letter. Up to this point, the letter had not indicated any negative content. After addressing the main topic, she used the closing buffer to mitigate any negative effects. Once again, she directed the reader's attention away from the main topic by indicating in the closing buffer statement how much she enjoyed participating in the study. She also mentioned that she planned to visit the United States to learn more about her future schools, possibly to strengthen her image as a good student, despite the late submission of her online response.

Although this closing buffer statement reinforced her positive appraisal of the project, her statements had no direct relationship with the main purpose of her letter. Unlike Yong Ho's letter, Sinhee's letter had three distinct subtopics: weather, her survey responses, and her thoughts about the project. Discussing these topics indicated that the buffer statements were used by Sinhee to strengthen her relationship with her teacher, thereby having more nuance than in Yong Ho's case. Yong Ho's beginning buffer − his self-blame − is more of a recognition and surrender to the hierarchical status than an effort to nurture the relationship with his teacher. He may have intended to repair the relationship, but emphasized the preservation of his teacher's authority, which may have been threatened because of his so-called blunder.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The cultural influence of authority was evident in the written communications of the Korean students in this study. Although English may have allowed the students to feel less subjugated than when they used Korean (Park, 2001), they remained bound by the culture of authority, even when using English, and were thereby left to maneuver in a limited space. As such, the students used different "buffering" (Park, 2001) strategies to respect and maintain the authority of the teacher. The students used buffering strategies that were more appropriate in the Korean context, such as self-blame, neutral topics, politeness, humor, and self-mocking, to detract attention from their late submission. For language learners to use communicative strategies and discursive forms more suited to the target culture and language, Chen (2006) argued that they need to "learn how power, identity, and culture-specific ideology are constantly intertwined with communication practice" (p. 51). Through the findings of this study, the author also suggests that language learners should be given ample opportunities to practice appropriate communicative strategies and to define, negotiate, and shape their power relations in various sociocultural, sociopolitical, and sociolinguistic contexts. Finally, the authority relations manifested in the native, as well as in the target, language must be made explicit to language learners so that they can be empowered to choose the most appropriate strategies to deliver their core message in both languages.

THE AUTHOR

Emmy J. Min is an associate professor of education in the MAT-TESOL program at University of Southern California in Los Angeles, California, USA. Formerly, she was an instructor of English at Kyunghee University and Hankuk University of Foreign Studies in Korea. She received her PhD in education from the University of California, Riverside. Email: emmymin@usc.edu

REFERENCES

Bixby, J. (2006). Authority in detracked high school classrooms: Tensions among individualism, equity, and legitimacy. In J. L. Pace & A. Hemmings (Eds.), *Classroom authority: Theory*, *research*, *and practice* (pp. 113–134). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Chen, C. E. (2006). The development of e-mail literacy: From writing to peers to writing to authority figures. *Language Learning and Technology*, *10*(2), 35–55.

Pace, J. L. (2003). Revisiting classroom authority: Theory and ideology meet practice. *Teachers College Record*, *105*, 1559–1585.

Pace, J. L. (2006) Saving (and losing) face, race, and authority: Strategies of action in a ninth-grade English class. In J. L. Pace & A. Hemmings (Eds.), *Classroom authority: Theory*, *research*, *and practice* (pp. 87–112). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Pace, J. L., & Hemmings, A. (2006). Understanding classroom authority as a social construction. In J. L. Pace & A. Hemmings (Eds.), *Classroom authority: Theory*, *research*, *and practice* (pp. 1–31). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Page, R. N. (1991). *Lower-track classrooms: A curricular and cultural perspective*. Teachers College Press.

Park, J. (2001). Articles on linguistics in general: Korean EFL learners' politeness strategies in their complaints. 언어학 [*Linguistics*], *9*(1), 185–210.

Wu, A. (2003). Supporting electronic discourse: Principles of design from a social constructivist perspective. *Journal of Interactive Learning Research*, *14*(2), 167–184.

Promoting Intercultural Competence in the Japanese Classroom

Jesse R. Elam
Meiji Gakuin University, Tokyo, Japan

The cultural landscape of Japan is rapidly changing; it is estimated that nearly one third of the population will be made up of foreign residents by 2050. However, proper systems have yet to be put in place in order to deal with this dramatic transition, leaving many to wonder how Japanese society will cope with cross-cultural communication in the near future. In higher education, the current policy has been to use study abroad programs in hopes of promoting global-minded students, but with unreliable results. To this end, intercultural competence is often an overlooked aspect of L2 teaching approaches in the domestic EFL classroom in Japan, though it is a rich environment for exploring cultural similarities and differences that can allow students to move into intercultural mindsets. Using the Intercultural Development Inventory® (IDI), then, this study looks at how 21 Japanese EFL students' intercultural competence was affected while undergoing an eight-week socioculturally modified curriculum using problem-based learning. Findings suggest that even a short-term intercultural intervention can yield positive changes in intercultural competence with more than half of the students either increasing or retaining their level of intercultural sensitivity.

Keywords: intercultural competence, intercultural sensitivity, intercultural development inventory (IDI), problem-based learning

INTRODUCTION

"Achieving nonjudgmentalism is much easier said than done. We might like to think that we do not judge others according to our own cultural frames of reference, but it is very difficult not to do so" (Martin & Nakayama, 2010, p. 471). Because of this, there is widespread consensus among researchers that intercultural competence is a key 21st century skill for effectively working and co-existing in diverse countries in the future. In Japan, the current population of non-Japanese residents makes up roughly 2%, but it is expected that this will skyrocket to 20–30% by 2050 (H. Kim & Oh, 2011; Whitsed & Wright, 2013). Because of this, many universities in Japan have begun to use study abroad and diversity programs to both send students abroad and welcome more students from culturally diverse backgrounds in hopes of promoting intercultural competence and global-mindedness (Kawamura, 2016). Nevertheless, many researchers believe that there may be more effective methods (Deardorff, 2006) that can be conducted anywhere domestically to achieve a similar goal (Kawamura, 2016). This research project observes how a socioculturally modified curriculum, which used problem-based learning, affected 21 students' intercultural competence while studying in a regular first-year oral communications course at a well-known Japanese technical university over an eight-week period.

Literature Review

In Japan, bias may not be as visible as in Western societies, but just as in any developed country, it is prevalent and counterproductive for promoting intercultural communication (Hirano, 2009; Nozaki, 2008). The populace is often unaware or believes that it is non-existent due to governmental and educational policies. To this end, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) can be held accountable for a majority of the issues faced in the education system's unwillingness to accept equal rights for cultural ideologies due to the conservative views imposed by the K–12 school curriculum.

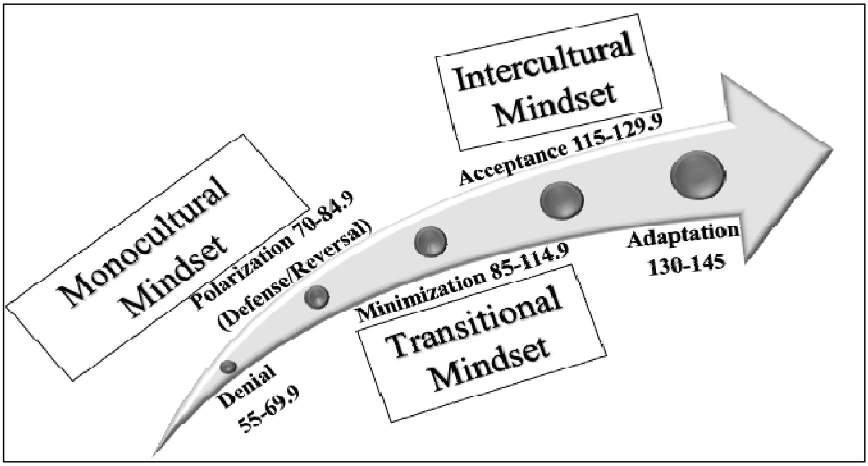
To supposedly counteract these issues in Japan, MEXT established multicultural and outreach courses at public schools in the past. Nonetheless, Kim (2002), who analyzed the effects of these multicultural courses, found that the ethnic studies classes that were "meant to help ... as measures against discrimination, ... actually resulted in creating racial images" (p. 56). For instance, even though there are many minority groups within Japan – some domestically born or native – "the existing literature [at schools] often focuses on a minority group as a separate entity, placed in dichotomy to the majority Japanese" (Yamada, 2013, p. 219). Morita (2013) adds that this polarized view establishes an inadequate understanding of otherness and lack of intercultural competence; thus, limiting students' "interest in integrating with the international community due to a deeply ingrained form of cultural conditioning" (p. 57). This, in turn, causes Japanese students to believe that there is no true need to accept new cultures or languages for the benefit of their future (Morita, 2013; Whitsed & Wright, 2013; Yamada, 2013).

Nonetheless, as our world is becoming more interconnected, intercultural competence is thought to be an invaluable tool for communicating with people from different cultural backgrounds. Because of the nature of social sciences, there are often many competing definitions for abstract terms such as *intercultural competence*, but this study accepts the terminology laid out by Hammer (2015) who conceptualizes it as the ability to successfully navigate "experiences, values, ... judgments, and behaviors that differ between people and are learned and internalized from the groups one belongs to" (p. 484). This means that someone with a more refined ability to distinguish between these aspects can participate appropriately in any given intercultural situation and therefore be more likely to be successful in intercultural communication (2015).

Intercultural Development Continuum (IDC)

Because intercultural competence is multi-faceted and problematic to assess in its entirety, Hammer (2015) created a conceptual framework called the Intercultural Development Continuum (IDC), which is a modification of Bennett's (1986, 1993) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS), in order to categorize intercultural sensitivity quantitatively (see Figure 1). Using grounded theory to produce the theoretical categories for different orientations (Bennett, 1986), it is believed that intercultural sensitivity can be used as a marker to predict intercultural competence. That is to say, intercultural sensitivity can be thought of as the belief system and intercultural competence as the behaviors. As can be seen in Figure 1, then, it is theorized that these two aspects correlate as we act on our beliefs, ultimately allowing us to communicate across cultures. The IDC has three mindsets, which are divided into different orientations: Monocultural (Denial and Polarization); Transitional (Minimization); and Intercultural (Acceptance and Adaption). It is hypothesized that at any given point in time, we utilize these mindsets to construe cultural phenomena.

FIGURE 1. Intercultural Development Continuum (IDC)



(Adapted from Hammer, 2012.)

In the *Monocultural Mindset* of Denial on the IDC, people cannot accept that any type of similarities or differences exist when attempting to reconcile intercultural situations. Polarization has two opposing views (Defense and Reversal), but both retain the idea of "us versus them" and have issues finding the differences between cultures. In Defense, people see other cultural practices as threatening. In Reversal, people take a critical view of how their culture does things while highlighting how other cultures are better or superior to their own.

The *Transitional Mindset* of Minimization is the first orientation on the IDC where people can see the similarities between cultures but still take a colorblind outlook toward society. That is to say, they believe that everyone is similar to them and view the world through a universal lens. For example, they tend to trivialize religious or complex aspects of cultures other than their own, especially in cases where they are the dominant culture.

During the initial *Intercultural Mindset* of Acceptance on the IDC, someone is able to accept that people from other cultures are equally as complex as themselves, understanding and appreciating how our differences make us unique. Finally, in Adaptation people are able to switch between different worldviews because they have the proper amount of cultural awareness and can choose the appropriate behavior for the situation. Because intercultural sensitivity is a holistic interpretation of how we operate, we also have trailing orientations that we occasionally use when our mindsets are not completely resolved (Hammer, 2015).

Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI)

The Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) is one of the most robust quantitative data collection tools for assessing intercultural sensitivity, using a 15- to 20-minute self-assessment multiple-choice instrument online with 50 questions to place respondents' intercultural sensitivity on the IDC (Hammer, 2012). The IDI was spearheaded by Hammer et al. (2003) and has been rigorously tested for validity and reliability. It has been translated into 17 different languages and has been used in over 30 different countries including government, religious, corporate, NPO, NGO, and educational environments. To date, it has been used in more than 60 prestigious, peer-reviewed publications and over 80 doctoral dissertations.

The IDI creates a holistic profile called an Individual Development Plan (IDP) for the respondents; this IDP is based on the respondents' ability to construe culture. It also comes with a coaching plan for the facilitator to use with both the entire group or an individual to target deficient areas of intercultural sensitivity on a scale of 0–145 on the IDC (see Figure 1). Typically, people who have little to no interaction with individuals from other countries lie in Denial or Polarization with the vast majority in the latter. In these cases, the objective of the facilitator is to assist those on their journey toward the Intercultural mindsets of Acceptance and Adaptation.

Research Question

RQ 1. What effect does a problem-based, socioculturally modified curriculum have on students' intercultural sensitivity according to the IDI?

METHOD

This study used the IDI through a pre-test–post-test methodology with a convenience sample of 21 students studying in an oral communications course over an eight-week period at a technical university in Tokyo, Japan.

Participants and Instrument

The course met weekly for 90 minutes in a traditional classroom with students divided into groups of five or six members for discussions. Seventeen (17) students were Japanese and four (4) students were Chinese. The researcher attempted to distribute the Chinese students amongst the Japanese students and conducted activities to make sure that everyone had first-hand contact with people who had different cultural backgrounds and experiences. The IDI pre-test was taken on the first day of class in their native language, and then the treatment (eight-week sociocultural component) was introduced. Finally, the post-test was given in the same way after the treatment and descriptive statistics were used to evaluate their progress. A consent form was signed by all participants, and students' names were coded using S1–S21 with no personal information being recorded for privacy and ethical reasons. Due to the small sample size (N = 21), inferential statistics (e.g., correlations or t-tests) were not employed because the reliability and consistency of the data could not be established using a Cronbach Alpha test.

Procedure

In the first week, the initial pre-test was taken in a computer lab and the orientation for the group was processed by the IDI online software, which generated an intercultural development plan (IDP) for the entire class. The IDP reported the group's perceived orientation (the way they thought they construed culture), their developmental orientation (the way they actually perceive it), and their orientation gap (what they need to achieve their perceived level). In this way, the administrator could know the students' mean baseline of intercultural sensitivity (see Table 1) and constructed a training program that started at the average of the students' developmental orientation (Polarization Defense). This was done by crafting an environment that allowed students to experience and reflect on different/similar sociocultural phenomena juxtaposed to their own culture at their comfort level. The teacher employed *Mirrors and Windows*, a textbook by Huber-Kriegler et al. (2003), through problem-based learning as the sociocultural modified content of the curriculum reform (see Elam, 2018, p. 211). As advised by the IDP, throughout the treatment the instructor created supplemental materials to help students (a) compare cultural differences (to resolve Polarization trailing orientations) and then (b) look at similarities that their culture had in common with other cultures (to move students into Minimization). During the treatment period, three units were taught: education, gender, and diversity. Students watched videos, read passages, reflected in writing, and discussed each theme over a 2- or 3-week period ending in a problem-based activity that required the learners to solve real-world problems through collaboration and debate.

TABLE 1. IDI Mean Baseline

	Orientation	Mean Score	Std. Deviation
Perceived Orientation (PO)	Minimization	116.20	4.86
Developmental Orientation (DO)	Polarization Defense	79.19	9.99
Orientation Gap (OG)		37.01	5.85

Note. N = 21.

Findings and Interpretation

Table 2 shows how students' orientations changed after being exposed to sociocultural content over an eight-week period. In general, 16 out of 21 students either increased their intercultural sensitivity or stayed in the same orientation. Out of those 16 students, nine students moved from Denial to Polarization or Polarization to Minimization with one student (S5) moving up two orientations from Denial to Minimization. The seven other students, who remained in either Minimization or Polarization, had varying gains and losses; nevertheless, what is most important is that they did not regress to previous mindsets. Only five students decreased in their intercultural sensitivity, moving into Polarization or Denial. There was one student (S21) who moved down considerably from Minimization to Denial. At the end of the study, 38% of the students had reached Minimization, 47% were in Polarization, and only 15% were in Denial. The overall average of the class remained in

Polarization, but it was approaching the cusp of Minimization after the eight weeks.

Table 2. Analysis of IDI Changes After Eight Weeks

	Student	Orientation	Pre-test	+/-	Post-test	Orientation
Orientation Increase	S1	Polarization	84.2	+17.8	102.0	Minimization
	S2	Polarization	78.2	+23.2	101.4	Minimization
	S3	Polarization	72.6	+23.4	96.0	Minimization
	S4	Polarization	76.3	+15.1	91.4	Minimization
	S5	Denial	67.8	+19.1	86.9	Minimization
	S6	Polarization	82.0	+5.8	87.8	Minimization
	S7	Denial	64.4	+14.4	78.8	Polarization
	S8	Denial	64.2	+12.5	76.7	Polarization
n = 9	S9	Denial	68.8	+1.5	70.3	Polarization
No Change	S10	Minimization	103.1	-17.1	86.0	Minimization
	S11	Minimization	87.1	-1.2	85.9	Minimization
	S12	Polarization	72	+12.4	84.4	Polarization
	S13	Polarization	74.4	+8.9	83.3	Polarization
	S14	Polarization	79.3	-2.3	77.0	Polarization
	S15	Polarization	82.4	-7.2	75.2	Polarization
n = 7	S16	Polarization	70.7	+3.6	74.3	Polarization
Decrease	S17	Minimization	85.9	-7.0	78.9	Polarization
	S18	Minimization	94.8	-18.8	76.0	Polarization
	S19	Polarization	82.0	-12.9	69.1	Denial
	S20	Polarization	82.2	-14.0	68.2	Denial
n = 5	S21	Minimization	90.7	-23.6	67.1	Denial
	Average	Polarization	79.2	+2.5	81.7	Polarization

Note. *N* = 21. Denial 55-69.9 / Polarization 70-84.9 / Minimization 85-114.9 / Acceptance 115-129.9 / Adaptation 130~.

Findings from this research project suggest that even a short domestic intervention can have a significant impact on the way that students construe cultural phenomena. In this study, the nine students who increased their intercultural sensitivity the most (S1–S9) often had more interactions with the Chinese students and were able to reflect and compare their cultures more easily through the sharing of prior knowledge and experiences. S5 was a good example of this because the student had little to no interaction with people from other countries or different cultural ideologies before taking this course; however, S5 was able to move up two orientations, from Denial to Minimization, by discussing similarities and differences with group members and using what was learned in class to solve global issues through problem-based learning. For the seven students who remained in their prior orientation (S10–16), this is quite normal with such a short interaction with people and content. If the study had continued, these students would have more than likely achieved more cultural awareness and broke through into Minimization or Acceptance. For the five students who regressed into Polarization and Denial (S17–21), there could be two explanations for this decrease. First, three of these people (S17, S18, S21) were in Minimization at the onset of the intervention; thus, being exposed to content that required them to look at the differences of cultures may have caused them to use their Polarization trailing orientations and solidified their beliefs in such a way. For those who moved into Denial (S19–21), it may be because they were not ready to interact with people from other countries or that the things they heard from the other students caused them to recoil and hold on to their identity more cautiously. In either case, more detailed qualitative research should be put into analyzing special outlying cases like S5 and S21 who both moved drastically into other mindsets. Such case studies could use interviews or open-ended questionnaires to get a better understanding of why the changes happened.

IMPLICATIONS

In many respects, other countries in Asia with low levels of ethnic diversity often suffer similar intercultural competence issues as Japan. According to Ock (2019), the population of both foreign immigrants and multicultural families in Korea is increasing more rapidly than in the past. However, few resources have been put forward to deal with an increased need for higher levels of intercultural competence.

Additionally, the idea of building cross-cultural or intercultural skills in Korea has revolved around study abroad programs in hopes of developing global citizens. Although these programs succeeded in developing language skills at times, they often failed at properly nurturing intercultural competence, ultimately sending students back to their home country with a more negative outlook toward different cultures (Choi, 1997). However, studies by Jon (2009, 2013) at Korea University show that, similar to Japan, intercultural competence can be developed domestically by getting students to interact with international students and faculty, using English as a tool to discuss culture rather than as a subject of study. This is quite obvious when we look at different cases of international schools in Korea where students already rank very highly in intercultural competence even without having been taught the skill directly (Straffon, 2003). Furthermore, for those who do not have the financial benefit of attending a university, let alone an international school, intercultural competence can be developed even by discussing pertinent global issues with people of different cultural backgrounds, using technologically enhanced forms of education like SNSs (Jin, 2015).

Although the findings from this study cannot be used to make generalizations outside of the context of the university and group of students that underwent the curriculum adjustment in Japan, it is a good indicator that intercultural sensitivity can be increased by having students with varying cultural awareness and backgrounds interact with each other to solve real-world problems from within their own country. With any group, there will be multiple starting points of students' intercultural sensitivity, but by using the IDI or other quantitative tools, educators can know where to begin and help students navigate the difficult terrain.

CONCLUSIONS

The resonating effects of the policies established by MEXT have made it difficult to incorporate multicultural ideologies properly in K–12 education in Japan (Kim, 2002). Furthermore, although intercultural competence is particularly valuable for EFL programs, many universities in Japan attempt to send students abroad or invite international students to their country in hopes that people will incidentally become more internationally or globally minded (Kawamura, 2016). Without a clear plan, students may not increase their ability to shift between mindsets; they may even decrease or regress because they are not prepared to be exposed to other cultural ideologies (Deardorff, 2006). Hence, there are better opportunities to promote inclusive learning environments domestically, and any university discipline can promote intercultural competence by integrating sociocultural components to assist students in finding cultural similarities while appreciating differences (Kawamura, 2016). Additionally, at any given time our intercultural competence is changing, and there is no perfect curriculum that will help everyone progress in the same way. However, results from this study show that using the IDI and recommendations of the IDP through a socioculturally modified, problem-based curriculum helped the majority of the students in this study positively change their mindsets. From now, the author will work on observing outliers through qualitative methods in order to gain a better understanding of the successes and failures of intercultural interventions in the future.

The Author

Jesse R. Elam is a junior associate professor at Meiji Gakuin University in Tokyo, Japan. He has lived and taught in higher education in Japan for the past 15 years, and with his doctorate in curriculum and instruction, his research is primarily focused on intercultural competence and sensitivity in the undergraduate setting. Email: elamj@gen.meijigakuin.ac.jp

References

Bennett, M. J. (1986). Towards ethnorelativism: A developmental model of intercultural sensitivity. In M. R. Paige (Ed.), *Cross-cultural orientation: New conceptualizations and applications* (pp. 27–70). University Press of America.

Bennett, M. J. (1993). Towards ethnorelativism: A developmental model of intercultural sensitivity. In M. R. Paige (Ed.), *Education for the intercultural experience* (pp. 21–71). Intercultural Press.

Choi, M. (1997). Korean students in Australian universities: Intercultural issues. *Higher Education Research and Development*, *16*(3), 263–282. https://doi.org/10.1080/0729436970160302

Deardorff, D. K. (2006). Identification and assessment of intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalization. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *10*(3), 241–266. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315306287002

Elam, J. R. (2018). *Fostering intercultural competence through problem-based learning: A case study of a socioculturally modified curriculum in Japanese* *higher education* [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Carolina]. Scholar Commons. https://scholarcommons.sc.edu/etd/5031

Hammer, M. R. (2012). The intercultural development inventory: A new frontier in assessment and development of intercultural competence. In M. Vande Berg, M. R. Paige, & K. H. Lou (Eds.), *Student learning abroad* (pp. 115–136). Stylus.

Hammer, M. R. (2015). Intercultural competence development. In J. Bennett (Ed.), *The SAGE handbook of intercultural competence* (pp. 484–486). https://doi.org/10.4135/9781483346267.n159

Hammer, M. R., Bennett, M. J., & Wiseman, R. (2003). Measuring intercultural sensitivity: The intercultural development inventory. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, *27*(4), 421–443. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0147-1767(03)00032-4

Hirano, M. (2009). *History education and international relations: A case study of diplomatic disputes over Japanese textbooks*. Global Oriental.

Huber-Kriegler, M., Lázár, I., & Strange, J. (2003). *Mirrors and windows: An intercultural communication textbook.* Council of Europe.

Jin, S. (2015). Using Facebook to promote Korean EFL learners' intercultural competence. *Language Learning and Technology*, *19*(3), 38–51.

Jon, J.-E. (2009). "Interculturality" in higher education as student intercultural learning and development: A case study in South Korea. *Intercultural Education*, *20*(5), 439–449. https://doi.org/10.1080/14675980903371308

Jon, J.-E. (2013). Realizing internationalization at home in Korean higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *17*(4), 455–470. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315312468329

Kawamura, H. (2016). International education as intercultural communication: Using the intercultural development inventory (IDI) as a framework of reference. In J. Mock, H. Kawamura, & N. Naganuma (Eds.), *The impact of internationalization on Japanese higher education: Is Japanese education really changing?* (pp. 3–17). Sense.

Kim, H., & Oh, I. (2011). Migration and multicultural contention in East Asia. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, *37*(10), 1563–1581. https://doi.org/10.1080/1369183X.2011.613332

Kim, T. (2002). "Identity politics" and Korean youth in Japan: A case study of a junior high school student. *International Education Journal*, *3*(5), 56–63. http://ehlt.flinders.edu.au/education/iej/articles/v3n5/5kim/paper.pdf

Martin, J. N., & Nakayama, T. K. (2010). *Intercultural communication in contexts*. McGraw-Hill.

Morita, L. (2013). Globalisation, intercultural contexts and the sociocultural component of an English course. *Journal of English as an International Language*, *8*(1), 55–69.

Nozaki, Y. (2008). *War memory, nationalism and education in postwar Japan, 1945–2007: The Japanese history textbook controversy and Ienaga Saburo's* *court challenges*. Routledge.

Ock, H. (2019, December 31). What the 2020s will hold for Korea: More immigrants, multinational families. *The Korea Herald*. http://www.koreaherald.com/view.php?ud=20191231000390

Straffon, D. A. (2003). Assessing the intercultural sensitivity of high school students attending an international school. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, *27*(4), 487–501. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0147-1767(03)00035-X

Whitsed, C., & Wright, P. (2013). English language learning in the Japanese higher education sector: Towards internationalisation. *Intercultural Education*, *24*(3), 222–236. https://doi.org/10.1080/14675986.2013.793033

Yamada, M. (2013). Diversity matters: Japan's domestic diversity and the role of English language teaching. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, *10*(3), 215–241. https://doi.org/10.1080/15427587.2013.816828

Korea TESOL Journal, Vol. 16, No. 1

The Importance of Raising Learners' Awareness of Connected Speech

Thomas Entwistle
The British Council, Japan

This paper aims to explain why raising the awareness of connected speech is important for East Asian (Korean and Japanese) learners due to their English education background. Also, this paper gives an outline of the main elements of connected speech (e.g., linking), why our learners have difficulties with it (e.g., L1 interference), ideas to tackle these problems (e.g., listening and speaking activities), and evaluations of these ideas. Furthermore, this paper introduces some of the background and theory of teaching listening in class and how this has changed over time. Lastly, questions are posed as to what we can do as educators in an East Asian context to better help our students with the understanding and production of English connected speech.

Keywords: comprehension, connected speech, listening, rapid colloquial speech, reception, production, speaking

INTRODUCTION

Raising students' awareness of connected speech is key in helping them speak more naturally and helps ease listening comprehension. This is often the case for East Asian students (particularly in Korea and Japan) who have been previously taught in careful speech classrooms (Arroub, 2015).

According to Roach (2010), there has been a spike in interest in academic research of phonetics in language learning. However, this spike in research hasn't seemed to have trickled down to the classroom yet, and from my own experience, I have found that pronunciation and phonology play a minor role in textbooks and syllabi, and connected speech even less. I strongly believe that raising our students' awareness of connected speech is critically important in mitigating the shock (Field, 1998) that learners feel when confronted with rapid colloquial native speech.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Of the four skills, listening is arguably the most important, as most live interactions, and certainly most classroom activities, whatever their purpose, rely on the listener's listening skills (Bowen & Marks, 1994). For this reason, listening plays an important role in L2 instruction (Rost, 1994), as listening is vital to providing input for students. Listening can provide enjoyment and stimulate students' interests, it helps with participation in the target culture (e.g., via movies, TV shows, music, etc.), gives students appreciation of the language (e.g., colloquial expressions, different accents, different native Englishes), and future authentic listening presents a real challenge to learners attempting to understand the spoken language as it is used by natives (Rost, 1994).

Listening activities in the classroom have changed quite a lot over the decades. In the 1960s and 1970s, listening activities followed a particular format:

- Pre-teach vocabulary
- Listen for gist
- Listen for detail
- Examine vocabulary or grammar from the listening
- Play and repeat activities

We have moved on somewhat from this early format, and in a typical listening task, attention to listening skills now takes priority over language details (Field, 1998). Second, there is an attempt for listening activities to relate to authentic listening that happens outside the classroom. Also, there is an attempt to provide learners with motivation for listening. This is a vast improvement over the listening tasks from the 1960s and 1970s, but modern textbooks still use graded listening exercises. Even if we use locally produced materials rather than globalized textbooks (Meddings & Thornbury, 2010), the listening texts are often still graded, meaning that we aren't providing learners with any actual authentic audio. Authentic listening activities encourage learners to use top-down processing skills because the listeners will understand less of the bottom-up language.

I agree with Field (2009) that to add onto the graded audio from textbooks, authentic micro-listening activities (i.e., short authentic listening activities that can be done in discrete slots anywhere in a lesson) is the ideal way to expose learners to authentic audio. However, I am not sure I agree with him that this can be done even at beginner levels when learners lack both top-down and bottom-up processing skills.

Sheerin (1987) mentions that learners use their schematic knowledge (i.e., knowledge about life that students already have) to predict and interpret when they are trying to process what someone is saying. This is another reason why exposing learners to authentic speech and raising students' awareness of connected speech is needed, as it adds to their schematic knowledge.

The goals of exposing learners to authentic audio is what Underhill (2005) calls *comfortable intelligibility*. I agree that learners should aim for careful colloquial speech with regards to their productive skills. When it comes to receptive skills, however, we need to challenge our learners and aim for rapid colloquial speech recognition. It has been known since the 1980s that even high-level learners can feel a sense of trauma when they are confronted with authentic, native listening. A trauma that can last for days, weeks, or even months, depending on the learner (Rixon, 1986). So, we need to do what we can to reduce the shock (Field, 1998), demotivation, and embarrassment our learners may feel when conversing with native speakers or confronted with native audio.

Harmer (2007) comments that live listening outside the classroom should be brought into class activities on a regular basis (i.e., bring rapid colloquial connected speech listening materials into the class). As teachers, we use English as the medium of communication in the classroom, so the amount of exposure time to the spoken language should be exploited. A holistic approach to developing receptive and productive connected speech skills makes sure that learners do plenty of listening and productive practice in class. Practice makes perfect (Harmer, 2007), as the more listening and attempts at production, the better. I agree with Ridgway (2000) that the more connected speech awareness is raised, the more that listening subskills will take care of themselves as our students' listening skills become autotomized.

Lastly, there has been a move away from the explicit teaching of pronunciation in general. Most new textbooks only pay what Ostick (2006) describes as "lip-service to pronunciation." I agree and believe that there are chances to work on pronunciation in everything we do in the class, and it should be part of our day-to-day teaching.

WHY IS CONNECTED SPEECH SO DIFFICULT FOR OUR STUDENTS?

Receptive Problems

East Asian learners struggle to comprehend connected speech in English due to their L1. For example, Koreans tend to pronounce every English syllable flatly and regularly (Swan & Smith, 2001) like they would in Korean, thus affecting the comprehension and production of connected speech. Also, Japanese learners find English sound combinations particularly difficult to understand and produce (Swan & Smith, 2001). Even when these East Asian learners are of intermediate proficiency and above, they struggle with elements of connected speech.

Due to the fact that English words join together, the true identity of words can be masked (Bowen & Marks, 2012). For example, if a learner hears the words *won't you*, they might possibly think the speaker will not eat their food properly because they "won't chew." Why, because coalescent assimilation mixes the /t/ sound at the end of *won't* with the /j/ at the start of *you* to create the /ʧ/ sound. This can lead to embarrassment and demotivation when students are confronted with authentic speech. Therefore, it is essential that we as educators help our learners with this.

Receptive/Productive Problems

As Korean and Japanese are syllable-timed languages, all the syllables in an utterance happen again at regular intervals. However, English is a stress-timed language; it has a rhythm in which the content words or stressed syllables happen at equal intervals. This means that the syllables between the stressed syllables or stressed content words in English are often crammed together, become connected, and are often distorted, changed, or dropped. This is why Korean and Japanese learners struggle to comprehend and reproduce connected speech.

What Is Connected Speech?

There are a number of bendings and blendings that happen within English. English is a particularly pliable language and these contortions mean that the sounds are produced as part of a continuous utterance rather than by themselves (Thornbury, 2012). The following is what is referred to as connected speech.

Catenation (Linking)

In connected speech words are linked to each other. This joining of words happens in many different sequences. For instance, when words ending in a consonant sound connect to words starting with a vowel sound:

- *An* + *apple* becomes “anapple” /ænæpl/, catenation of the consonant /n/ and the vowel /æ/.

Weak Forms

English is a stress-timed language, so content (important) words are stressed, and unstressed words take on a rather weak identity (Birjandi, 2005). This kind of compression of language happens in native speech. These unstressed weak words share some similar characteristics (Underhill, 2005):

- Single syllable words
- Function words (grammar words; e.g., *have*)
- High frequency words
- Weak words unless speakers wish to emphasize them

  Here are some examples of these types of words and their weak form:

  and /ən/, *of* /əv/
  have /həv/, does /dəz/

I agree with Underhill (2005) that the use of weak forms is essential in obtaining clear and rhythmic connected speaking.

Assimilation

Assimilation is when two sounds combine to make a third sound at the place of articulation, that is, the position of the mouth and tongue (Underhill, 2005).

Regressive Assimilation

This is when the sound at the end of a word changes due to the first sound of the next word.

- Consonants /t/, /d/ and /n/ will assimilate to the place of articulation of the first consonant sound of the next word:
  in bed: /im bed/, *lead balloon*: /leb bælu:n/
- /d/ can change to /g/:
  good game: /gʊg geɪm/

Progressive Assimilation

This is when the sound is changed by the preceding sound.

- *-s* and *-ed* endings are changed if they follow a voiced sound:
  the /s/ in *dogs* is pronounced with a /z/ sound
  the *-ed* in *bribed* is pronounced as /d/ because of the proceeding /g/ and /b/, respectively

Coalescence

Coalescence is when two articulates take a shortcut and join sounds together.

- /d/ and /j/ coalesce (come together) to make a new sound, /dʒ/
  would you: /wʊdʒu:/
- /t/ and /j/ coalesce (come together) to make a new sound, /tʃ/
  wouldn't you: /wʊdntʃu:/

Intrusion

There are three intrusive sounds, /w/, /j/, and /r/. Intrusion happens between vowel boundaries: vowels at the end of a word before a vowel at the start of the next word. The sounds /w/, /j/, and /r/ help connect the words, so they run together more seamlessly.

- /w/ intrusion: *you all* /juːwɔːl/
  /w/ follows an /uː/ or a dipthong ending in /ʊ/
- /j/ intrusion: *they are* /ðeɪjɑː/
  /j/ follows an /i:/ or a dipthong ending in /ɪ/

- /r/ intrusion: *law and order* /lɔ ː rən(d)ɔ ː də/
  when the first word ends in /ə/ or /ɔ ː /

Elision

Elision is the omission of certain sounds when two sounds meet with one another, often in a consonant cluster.

- An unstressed schwa sound is often omitted:
  int(e)rested
- Elision often occurs with /t/ and /d/, often in a consonant cluster:
  chris(t)mas
- When /t/ and /d/ are in the final position:
  mus(t) be
- The sound /h/ is also often left out:
  you will (h)ave

IN-CLASS IDEAS

Dictation

An easy way of exposing our learners to native-level colloquial speech is with a simple dictation. Rather than displaying discussion questions on a PowerPoint slide or on the board, read them out at a natural speed as you would ask another native speaker. Students transcribe what they hear and then work with a partner to piece together the questions. This is a quick and easy way of building into our lessons a micro-listening activity that requires no preparation.

Procedure

1. Instruct the students to listen and dictate what you are about to say.
2. Read one discussion question at full, natural speed.
3. Have students work together to recreate the question from their notes.
4. Reveal the correct question.
5. Repeat depending on how many questions you want the students to discuss.
6. Encourage the learners to mimic the connected speech when discussing.

Evaluation

I often do this with my “all English mode” questions at the start of each class. However, teachers can choose their own discrete slot to raise awareness. This type of awareness-raising, coupled with the promotion of production, increases the learners’ ability to recognize more fluent natural speech. Doing this regularly over a semester ensures that connected speech can be regularly trained and goes a long way to help with issues our learners have with connected speech comprehension.

Anticipation

Having students anticipate where connections might take place helps them to be better able to comprehend native speech and produce connected speech themselves. This needs scaffolding, but the outcomes can be very rewarding and motivating for the students. The Test, Teach, Test method works well for helping our learners anticipate connected speech by highlighting gaps in their understanding. The following procedure focuses on raising students’ awareness of intrusion but can be replicated with any element of connected speech that suite Korean and Japanese contexts.

Solution

1. *Test*: Have students read a short paragraph aloud with a partner. Teacher listens to see if students are naturally using any of the three intrusive sounds.
2. Students listen to the first line of a new paragraph (spoken by the teacher or pre-recorded) including intrusion at a natural speed.
3. Students transcribe what they hear.
4. Reduce the speed if students are struggling.
5. *Teach*: Teacher guides students to notice the intrusive sounds, then teaches the rules behind intrusion.
6. *Anticipate*: Students work in pairs to try and locate the remaining intrusive sounds in the rest of the sample paragraph.
7. Teacher reads out the paragraph (or plays it) for students to check.
8. *Test*: Students then locate possible intrusive sounds in the original test paragraph.
9. They then read the original test paragraph and try to use intrusive sounds.

Evaluation

Guided discovery and anticipating helps East Asian learners become more aware of connected speech like intrusion and helps them to be better able to hear and produce it. It is a good counter to their L1 interference, which impedes their recognition and production of elements of connected speech, such as intrusive sounds. Guided discovery is also motivating when learners notice connected speech. Also, giving the students the chance to anticipate what they might hear helps train their listening comprehension and demystifies the perceived unintelligibility of natural speech.

OTHER SIMPLE IDEAS

- When incidental vocabulary comes up in class, drill the word individually and then drill it in a full lexical chunk so that the learners can hear the connected speech around the word.
- Superlatives are a good chance to highlight elision. The /t/ sound is often deleted in native speech. For example: What's the bigges(t) city in Korea? The bigges(t) city is Seoul.
- Occasionally, I use students as near-peer models and student feedback is very positive when I do this. However, choose the student carefully, Korean learners can find being corrected in front of their peers very embarrassing and Japanese learners don't like to be put on the spot publicly (Swan & Smith, 2001).
- A clapping exercise helps emphasize content words in a sentence and weakens function words. This is helpful for Korean and Japanese learners as their L1 is syllable timed.

  THIS and THAT and THOSE and THESE
  THIS and also THAT and also THOSE and also THESE
  THIS and then there's THAT and then there's THOSE and then there's THESE

The key is to keep the timing between the content words the same to force the function words to become weakened.

- The Human Computer^{TM}: This is an approach from Community Language Learning (CLL) in which, at the end of the lesson, the teacher lets the students request something from the board to be modelled again (Richards & Rodgers, 1999). The students get the chance to listen again to a chunk of language that they feel is important to them.

Evaluation: Little and often. The more our learners are exposed to connected speech, the less of a shock it will be for them when confronted with native speech in the future.

Raising Awareness of Connected Speech

Fostering the motivation for authentic listening encourages students to engage with it more and challenge themselves to try out new listening skills and strategies (Kemp, 2009).

Helping our students to recognize elements of connected speech is an important way of tackling their understanding of native English. Also, giving them a chance to attempt to produce connected speech sets them on the path to more fluent and natural spoken English. This is vitally important for East Asians, particularly Korean and Japanese students, who have come from carefully controlled and teacher-led classrooms.

By raising their awareness of connected speech through exposing them to rapid colloquial native speech, we can help students to not be overwhelmed (Swan & Smith, 2001) in the future when traveling, studying abroad, or meeting native speakers.

The question is, as well as incorporating the ideas outlined above, what else can we do to set our learners on the road to comfortable intelligibility? We should be looking for new, creative, and interesting ways of exposing our learners to connected speech.

Conclusions

By adopting the in-class ideas above and exposing our students to authentic audio through simple micro-listening activities, our learners will gain an increased ability to comprehend native and non-native English. I agree with Jackson (2008) that many English courses are inadequate in preparing students to manage interactions with native speakers and manage themselves in future English-speaking environments, especially when it comes to working on pronunciation and connected speech. We can help address that by incorporating the ideas in this article. The benefits of this will be improved student confidence in handling social and functional situations with native speakers and handling the rapid colloquial speech (Roach, 1991) they will encounter in their target situations.

Helping our learners recognize and produce the different features of connected speech is a way to help them with much of their comprehension problems. Furthermore, it is the first step to helping them speak a little more naturally.

THE AUTHOR

Thomas Entwistle is a British Council English language specialist and member of the English Team at Nagoya University of Foreign Studies, Japan. He received his BA in creative practices from Leeds Metropolitan University. Afterwards, he gained his CertTESOL through Trinity College London and become DELTA qualified through International House London. Email: thomas.entwistle @britishcouncil.or.jp

REFERENCES

Arroub, M. (2015). Connected speech. *English Teaching Professional*, *97*, 18–19.
Birjandi, P. (2005). *An introduction to phonetics*. Zabankadeh.
Bowen, T., & Marks, J. (1994). *Inside teaching*. Heinemann.
Bowen, T., & Marks, J. (2012). *The book of pronunciation*. Delta.
Field, J. (1998). Skills and strategies: Towards a new methodology for listening. *ELT Journal*, *52*(2), 110–118. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/52.2.110
Field, J. (2009). More listening or better listeners? *English Teaching Professional*, *61*, 12–14.
Jackson, J. (2008). *Language*, *identity*, *and study abroad*. Equinox.
Kemp, J. (2009). The listening leg: Motivating autonomous learning. *ELT Journal*, *64*(4), 385–395. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccp099
Meddings, L., & Thornbury, S. (2010). *Teaching unplugged*. Delta.
Ostick, R. (2006). Our phonemic friend. *English Teaching Professional*, *47*, 42–43.
Richards, J., & Rodgers, T. (1999). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511667305
Ridgway, T. (2000). Listening strategies: I beg your pardon? *ELT Journal*, *54*(2), 179–185. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/54.2.179
Rixon, S. (1986). *Developing listening skills*. Macmillan.
Roach, P. (1991). *English phonetics and phonology*. Cambridge University Press.

Roach, P. (2010). *Phonetics*. Oxford University Press.
Rost, M. (1994) *Introducing listening*. Penguin.
Sheerin, S. (1987) Listening comprehension: Teaching or testing? *ELT Journal*, *41*(2), 126–131. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/41.2.126
Swan, M., & Smith, B. (2001). *Learner English*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511667121
Thornbury, S. (2012). *An A–Z of ELT*. Macmillan.
Underhill, A. (2005). *Sound foundations*. Macmillan.

Book Reviews

Key Issues in Language Teaching

Jack C. Richards
Cambridge, UK. Cambridge University Press, 2015
Pages: xxii + 848 (ISBN-13: 978-1-107-45610-5 Paperback)

Reviewed by James Kimball

INTRODUCTION

Looking for a comprehensive resource to help with all of your forays in teacher-education courses and professional development endeavors, one that bridges academic theory and classroom practice? Then start with *Key Issues in Language Teaching*. It really is the one-stop-shopping resource that covers virtually every topic under the TESOL sun. Given that it is 848 pages, it should come as no surprise that the author, Jack Richards, tackles each issue with enough depth and breadth to satisfy a broad audience. That includes teachers in teacher-education programs at both the undergraduate and graduate levels as well as those in teacher-training courses such as the Cambridge CELTA and DELTA. Both native speakers and non-native speakers will find the text written in smooth and easy-to-digest prose, including the ample use of charts, diagrams, task samples, and discussion questions. With this in mind, *Key Issues in Language Teaching* should be a core reference text in any professional's library.

SUMMARY

Key Issues in Language Teaching is organized into four sections: (a) English Language Teaching Today, (b) Facilitating Student Learning, (c) Language and the Four Skills, and (d) The Teacher's Environment. Each explores key issues impacting teachers today.

Part 1, English Language Teaching, discusses fundamental issues central to the lives of teachers, including the status of English(s), how languages are learned, methodologies, and the notion of how teacher knowledge and beliefs serve as a catalyst for change. The last chapter in Part 1, Developing knowledge, skills and awareness in teaching, encapsulates the journey of a teacher from novice to expert. Part 2, Facilitating Student Learning, concerns learners, lesson planning and observation schemes, and classroom management. Chapter 7, Managing classroom learning, stands out for its practical application of themes or issues impacting classroom practice. Part 3, Language and the Four Skills, investigates traditional systems and skills that make up the foundation of teacher knowledge: grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, and listening, speaking, reading, and writing. And finally, Part 4, The Teacher's Environment, unites peripheral, top-down issues (curriculum planning, assessment, and professional development pathways) with all of the previous bottom-up concepts.

EVALUATION

Where does *Key Issues in Language Teaching* sit in regards to other references? Well, it is much more encyclopedic than Thornbury's (2006) *The New A-Z of ELT*, which is more like a dictionary of terms. And it offers more cohesiveness than *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice* (Richards & Renandya, 2002). In short, it a more-than-adequate middle ground between a collection of articles and book-length treatment of a topic.

Most notable is how it connects theory with practice. It is not a deep dive into research or theory; it caters to practicing classroom teachers and managers by consolidating critical issues in language teaching. This text is a very hands-on resource, with activities worth doing and perhaps keeping a diary or notebook while reading.

Secondly, it is ideal for self-study and introspection. Throughout the book, there are discussion questions at the end of each chapter. These are springboards for rumination. Some are reflective in nature: "Do you make use of descriptions of aims and objectives when planning lessons?" Others are hands-on tasks: "Examine two coursebooks of a similar level and compare the range of grammatical items they include and the way they are taught." Throughout the book, there are opportunities to stop and think about the topic under discussion. This is where text is interrupted by a box with a question mark (?), followed by a pertinent question in bold. This forces readers to stop and actively engage in the reading process rather than passively consume knowledge.

There are 40 pages of up-to-date, seminal references that include books and articles. This is a goldmine of information. Not only is it fun to just read through and earmark listings for future reading projects, but it is the first place to start when writing a paper or engaging in action research. There is an Index, too. Before attending conferences or seminars, it is a useful tool to navigate and investigate. The Glossary is 22 pages but it is rather terse.

While Jack Richards is the author, there are contributions from other teacher trainers from around the world who provide vignettes showcasing the practical application of a theory, answer questions in their context, or support a topic through relevant action research projects. Some readers may find these tangential or extraneous. However, despite their relevance (or not) to the Korean context, they do offer opportunities for readers to form or imagine their own responses.

Paperback or E-book?

Technology marches on, so *Key Issues in Language Teaching* is available in both paperback and e-book editions. Although the choice is a personal one, it is worth pointing out relevant issues to consider. The paperback is heavy and slightly unwieldy − and that is a decidedly positive attribute! The paper quality feels crispy and tangible, making for a better reading experience compared to other books its size using wafer-thin tissue paper. And the layout, with its large print size and wide-enough line spacing, is perfect for readers who have weak eyes. Regrettably, given its weight, it is not the ideal reference to carry in your briefcase or backpack.

Regarding the e-book, it is convenient and accessible. Searching is a breeze. Searches can be done by word or page number. And when highlighting a word, you can instantly search the web or Wikipedia for a more narrow reading experience. Embedded in the text are two-minute videos from the author introducing each chapter's content. Unfortunately, the lack of highlighting and notetaking functionality is a disappointment. And finally, the thumbnails at the bottom are impossibly small for modest-sized fingers to manipulate. Nevertheless, having an e-book edition to take to meetings, conferences, and cafes is the epitome of modern convenience. All ELT publishers should follow suit and embrace the migration to digital reading platforms.

CONCLUSION

Key Issues in Language Teaching is a welcome addition to any teacher's core collection of professional resource books. It can be read from beginning to end, or cherry-picked for any issue or theme that piques interest. Moreover, the references are core, seminal reads to follow-up on when doing a literature review for research. Whether new to the field or a classroom veteran, *Key Issues in Language Teaching* is bound to offer new insights on how theory informs practice and, ultimately, spark enthusiasm for teaching. Part of a teacher's identity is to grow and change over the years. One way to do that is to acquire a more extensive knowledge base and cultivate a skillset of effective classroom routines. *Key Issues in Language Teaching*, then, is one means of affecting change and transformation.

THE REVIEWER

James Kimball holds an MSc in educational management in TESOL from Aston University, and his research interests include program evaluation and classroom dynamics. Taking part in teacher development activities has been a long-time interest. He is an assistant professor of English in the Liberal Arts Department of Semyung University in Korea. Having an interest in classroom dynamics, he formed the KOTESOL Classroom Management Special Interest Group.

REFERENCES

Richards, J., & Renandya, W. (Eds.). (2002). *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*. Cambridge University Press.

Thornbury, S. (2006). *The new A–Z of ELT*. Macmillan.

Who's Doing the Work?
How to Say Less So Readers Can Do More

Jan Burkins & Kim Yaris
Portland, Maine, USA: Stenhouse Publishers, 2016
Pages: 158 (ISBN: 978-1625310750)

Reviewed by Tania Campbell

INTRODUCTION

In *Who's Doing the Work?* Burkins and Yaris (2016) propose an idea that may be considered counterintuitive − that when it comes to teaching reading, teachers should do less. Their intended audience are teachers in K−12 school settings who use an American curriculum, particularly teachers who engage in teaching reading − English and literacy teachers.

SUMMARY

The text is organized in a clear and helpful manner as the authors introduce what reading instruction and proficiency look like in their model. They then give a detailed account of four instructional contexts, using a dance metaphor to explore each context and mirror the teaching and learning cycle that teachers and students engage in. In the first, the *read-aloud* context, students watch the dance, while in *shared reading*, they practice the dance led by the teacher. *Guided reading* is the dress rehearsal, while finally, *independent reading* is thought of as the recital.

In this concise work, the authors propose a new model for the gradual release of responsibility in reading, which they call "next-generation reading instruction." Every chapter dedicated to each of the four instructional contexts has a succinct and helpful table comparing conventional models to the next-generation one. As former educators, Burkins and Yaris understand the importance of application and have included sections on how to implement the model, potential problems, classroom snapshots of the reading in context with several elementary grades, and a chapter summary.

As English, literacy, and ESL teachers, we are often trained that more is better when it comes to using scaffolding to support learning. Not so, argue the authors of this book. While no one would deny the importance of developing independent readers who are equipped with a range of problem-solving skills and strategies, too much scaffolding, they argue, can often hinder students' ability to exercise agency. Scaffolding may even contribute to a sense of learned helplessness. While much of their approach has value, one is left wondering about the lack of attention given to students who often struggle the most, such as ESL and special educational needs (SEN) students.

The authors argue that in next-generation reading instruction, teachers should take a step back from conventional methods of reading instruction where they have traditionally advocated scaffolding to support students in moving from dependence and towards independence. Burkins and Yaris draw on Dweck's (2006) much-celebrated work of growth mindset to suggest that when students reframe difficulty as an opportunity, they become aware of the connection between their effort and their success. This, in turn, helps them develop inner resources to tackle reading difficulties, rather than relying on the teacher.

The authors extol the importance of the teacher understanding each student's reading process through observation to support their growth through vehicles such as (but not limited to) text selection, direct instruction, and conferring. Teachers who have taught Units of Study (as developed by Teachers College Reading and Writing Project, TCRWP) will certainly be familiar with much of what is espoused by the authors: They will find some helpful strategies to engage students through read-alouds, mini-lessons, and strategy groups. Similarly, teachers who engage in conferring – the process of engaging in individual conversations with students to provide targeted instruction and feedback – will find valuable guidance and advice.

To give a greater understanding of the differences between conventional methods of reading instruction and next-generation instruction, I will outline a few points for guided reading (i.e., the dress rehearsal). Guided reading can be challenging for many students because this stage is the application phase of skills and strategies that have been explicitly taught during read-aloud and shared reading. As emphasized by the authors, guided reading is where the integration of print and meaning occurs and when students are encouraged to fall back on their learning and decide which strategies they will use to confront challenges presented by the reading material.

In conventional guided reading, the teacher gives substantial direct instruction and decides which strategies will be used; the teacher also gives specific prompts. In next-generation guided reading, the teacher acts as a facilitator and coach, encouraging students to experiment with strategies and guiding them with more general prompts such as “What might you try?” As stated by the authors, “Next-generation scaffolding aims to find a happy medium between under- and over-scaffolding. It optimizes the benefits of both the grandmother method and traditional prompting” (p. 134).

EVALUATION

While there is much to applaud in this text, including its clear explanations, relevant examples, and lists of strategies for teachers to become proficient in next-generation reading instruction, it may not be sufficient for some common teaching contexts. For instance, although the authors espouse the importance of using next-generation reading instruction at all levels of K–12 education, their examples come only from elementary school. To reach a wider audience, including a more diverse range of “classroom snapshots” of what this looks like in the upper grades would be useful.

Early on in the text, Burkins and Yaris question the value of traditional scaffolding such as pre-teaching vocabulary and summarizing the main idea before reading a text. However, for students whose first language is not English, more traditional and conventional methods may be required. Burkins and Yaris cite the work of Allington (2011), who documented the relationship between reading volume and proficiency, noting that it is a reasonable assumption that the more children read, the more they will grow as readers. In contrast, the work of linguists such as Laufer (1997) has empirically shown for quite some time that for students who are non-native speakers of English, a minimum vocabulary of 3,000 word families is required to be a successful reader. If such students are lacking basic vocabulary, then all the problem-solving skills and strategies at their disposal will be rendered ineffective.

Who's Doing the Work? is a useful step in the right direction for creating successful, independent readers. To ensure that everyone has the opportunity to dance, however, the text would benefit from more depth and consideration for students in the upper grades and those considered ESL and SEN students. That said, this book certainly has much to offer and is a worthwhile read for all teachers who are involved in teaching reading in some capacity, especially those in the elementary grades.

THE REVIEWER

Tania Campbell is the English language literacy specialist for Grade 8 at Korea International School, Jeju Campus, where she has also taught English language arts and global studies. From New Zealand, she completed her bachelor's and master's degrees in anthropology at the University of Otago, her graduate diploma in teaching at the New Zealand Graduate School of Education, and her CELTA in Bali. She is currently enrolled in the College of New Jersey's Off-Site Graduate Program, where she is completing her master's in education with a focus on TESOL. Email: tcampbell@kis.ac

REFERENCES

Allington, R. (2011). *What really matters for struggling readers: Designing research-based programs*. Longman.

Dweck, C. S. (2006). *Mindset: The new psychology of success*. Random House.

Laufer, B. (1997). The lexical plight in second language reading: Words you don't know, words you think you know, and words you can't guess. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition* (pp. 20–34). Cambridge University Press.

Appendices

Korea TESOL Ethical Standards for Research and Publication

ARTICLE I. GENERAL PROVISIONS.

Section 1. Purpose.

The Korea TESOL Ethical Standards for Research and Publication (hereafter referred to as "the Standards"), designed to promote and maintain high ethical standards concerning professional research and publication, shall provide the guidelines for the organization and operation of the Korea TESOL (hereafter, KOTESOL) Board on Research and Publication Ethics, entitled to investigate any wrongdoings against the ethical policies described in the Standards.

Section 2. Scope of Application.

The Standards shall apply to all research related to KOTESOL, manuscripts submitted to the official scholarly publications of KOTESOL, and materials submitted to and presented at scholarly events of KOTESOL. These include the following:

1. *Korea TESOL Journal*
2. *KOTESOL Proceedings*
3. *The English Connection*
4. Korea TESOL International Conference Extended Summaries
5. The Korea TESOL website
6. KOTESOL event program books and website (including international, national, chapter, and SIG conferences, symposiums, and workshops)
7. KOTESOL event presentation content, either in-person or virtual (including international, national, chapter, and SIG conferences, symposiums, and workshops)

ARTICLE II. ETHICAL PRINCIPLES.

Section 1. Ethical Principles of the Author.

(a) The *author* (as defined in Art. VIII) shall perform faithful research.

(b) The author shall make the research process transparent.
(c) The author shall be open to constructive criticism of the author's *work* (defined in Art. VIII) by *reviewers* and the *publication chief* (defined in Art. VIII).
(d) The author shall disclose conflicts of interest and be transparent as to any entity that may be supporting or may profit from the author's work.
(e) The author shall not infringe on the privacy, autonomy, rights, or well-being of an individual through a procedure in execution of a work or through the outcome of a work.
(f) The author shall not publish (*publication* defined in Art. VIII) the work of another as the author's own.
(g) The author shall make a concerted effort to adhere to research and publication ethics set out herein.

Section 2. Ethical Principles and the Work.

(a) A work shall conform adequately to the submission requirements of the *publication* (as defined in Art. VIII).
(b) A work shall conform adequately in contents and organization as prescribed by the publication.
(c) A work shall demonstrate respect for participants' autonomy, privacy, and well-being. This includes the use of language that is sensitive to people and places; the avoidance of deficit-centered perspectives that demean participants; weighing potential risks in relation to benefits of the work and taking steps to minimize such risks, especially when considering working with vulnerable groups; and throughout all aspects of the research, being attentive to the well-being of the participants. All work should make a positive contribution to the body of knowledge and ultimately to society.

Section 3. Breach of Ethical Principles

Breaches of research and publication ethics include the following:

1. Fabrication, the act of falsely creating nonexistent data or outcomes.
2. Falsification, the distortion of content or outcomes by artificial manipulation of research materials, equipment, or processes, including selective reporting; or by arbitrary modification or deletion of data.

3. Plagiarism, the appropriation of another person's ideas, processes, results, or words without giving appropriate credit. This includes self-plagiarism, the appropriation of the author's earlier published ideas, processes, results, or words without giving appropriate credit.
4. False authorship, the allocation of principal authorship or other publication credit that does not reflect, in any justifiable manner, scientific and professional contributions of an individual to a work.
5. Multiple submissions, the submission of a manuscript that has already been published, accepted for publication elsewhere, or concurrently submitted for review to another publication.

ARTICLE III. AUTHORSHIP AND AUTHOR OBLIGATIONS.

Section 1. Acknowledgement of Sources.

An author who submits a manuscript shall include proper acknowledgement when drawing upon the ideas, concepts, words, or research of another, including any additional information obtained during the review and proposal evaluation process.

Section 2. Authorship and Author Responsibility.

An author shall have responsibility for and take credit for only the work to which they have made a substantial contribution.

Section 3. Authorship and Contribution Disclosure.

(a) An author shall clearly disclose their relevant affiliations and positions.
(b) In the case of a submitted work with multiple authors, all contributing authors shall be disclosed.
(c) Authors shall be listed in a descending order of the contribution made to the work. Each author shall be able to clearly justify their role and contribution to the work.
(d) No individual shall be credited with authorship without making a contribution to the work.

Section 4. Submission of Manuscript.

An author shall not be permitted to submit a manuscript for review that has already been published elsewhere, that has been accepted for publication elsewhere, or is being reviewed for possible publication elsewhere. If a case of multiple submission occurs, the author shall notify the KOTESOL publication(s) to investigate the acceptability/ unacceptability of the multiple submission.

Section 5. Revision of Manuscript.

An author shall strive to revise their submitted manuscript in accordance with the feedback and suggestions provided by the *reviewer* (defined in Art. VIII) and *publication chief* (defined in Article VIII) during the review and editing process. This includes revisions in accordance with the publication's style guidelines. If an author disagrees with a requested revision, they shall provide in writing relevant evidence and justification for not making the requested revision, which shall then be taken into consideration by the publication chief prior to a final decision regarding acceptance.

Article IV. Editorial Panel Obligations.

Section 1. An *editorial panel* (defined in Art. VIII) makes decisions regarding the publication of a submitted work. In the decision-making process, each member of the editorial panel shall respect the integrity of each other member as a professional educator, scholar, and/or researcher.

Section 2. An editorial panel shall review fairly the quality of a submitted work and whether it complies with the submission guidelines and review criteria. Submitted works shall be evaluated objectively without regard to affiliation, age, gender, and other personal characteristics of the author.

Section 3. In order to give each submitted work due opportunity to be reviewed and evaluated objectively, the publication chief shall ensure that the reviewer(s) of a work shall have suitable expertise in the area covered by the work, shall be able to make fair and unbiased decisions, and shall not have any conflict of interest with the work or author.

Section 4. The publication chief shall ensure that neither the contents of a submitted work nor the identity of its author be disclosed during the review process to anyone outside that review process. In the case of a blind review publication, the identity of an author shall, in addition, not be disclosed to the reviewer(s).

ARTICLE V. REVIEWER OBLIGATIONS.

Section 1. A reviewer, upon accepting a review request by the publication chief, shall follow the guidelines set forth for review of the work, including the ethical principles described in Articles II and III; complete the review within the designated time frame; and submit the review results to the publication chief.

Section 2. A reviewer shall review a work independently, fairly, and objectively. The reviewer shall explain and support their judgements adequately in the review report made to the publication chief in such a manner so as the basis of the comments may be clearly understood.

Section 3. (a) If the reviewer feels inadequately qualified to fairly and objectively conduct a review of the assigned work, the reviewer shall notify the publication chief of their withdrawal from the review process for the work in question.

(b) If a reviewer detects a possible conflict of interest of any type between the reviewer and either the author or their work, the reviewer shall notify the publication chief of the reviewer's withdrawal from the review process for the work in question.

Section 4. In the review of a work, a reviewer shall respect the author's integrity as a scholar and professional, and respect their right to do independent research.

Section 5. A reviewer shall treat a work for review with the utmost confidentiality. The reviewer shall not disclose any information about the work under review or discuss its contents with a third party during the review process, which culminates with notification of review results to the author.

Article VI. The Board on Research and Publication Ethics (BORPE).

Section 1. Organization.

(a) KOTESOL shall establish a Board on Research and Publication Ethics (hereinafter, BORPE) whose duty shall be to oversee matters (that are in KOTESOL's national scope) related to ethical standards.

(b) The BORPE shall be composed of four (4) permanent members: the Publications Committee chair, the Research Committee chair, the Diversity Committee chair, and the *Korea TESOL Journal* editor-in-chief. When the BORPE is convened to consider a case, up to three (3) additional members may be appointed by the BORPE chair on an ad hoc basis for the duration of the proceedings.

(c) The Publications Committee chair shall serve as the BORPE chair, and the BORPE chair's term of office shall correspond with that of the Publication Committee chair's term of office.

(d) Entities within KOTESOL that are not explicitly managed or facilitated by a national committee, such as chapters and SIGs (special interest groups), may establish their own boards to oversee, investigate, and deliberate matters related to research and publication ethics in the spirit of the standards set forth herein.

Section 2. Duties.

The BORPE shall deliberate matters related to research and publication ethics, including administrative affairs related to the implementation and revision of the Standards, and investigate possible violations of the Standards. In the case where the BORPE determines that a violation has been committed, the BORPE shall recommend an appropriate response to correct the violation; if sanctions against the violator are suggested, the sanctions shall be presented to the National Council for approval.

Section 3. Meetings and Operation.

(a) Meetings shall be convened, either in-person or virtually, as deemed necessary by the Chair or when requested by the KOTESOL President.

(b) A majority of the BORPE members shall constitute a quorum for a meeting. A decision of the BORPE shall be considered valid with the concurrence of a majority of the members present at the meeting. But a BORPE member involved as an author of the work under investigation shall not be permitted to participate in the meeting as a BORPE member.

(c) The meeting shall be held in a closed-door session. The author suspected of misconduct shall be asked to appear at the BORPE meeting if the BORPE deems it to be necessary.

(d) When resolution of a case appears relatively simple and thus does not appear to require intense discussion and deliberation, opinions and suggestions of the BORPE members may be rendered in writing (e.g., via email) when so requested by the Chair, and in lieu of an in-person or virtual meeting. A final written resolution shall be based on the written opinions and suggestions of the BORPE members.

Section 4. Author's Obligation to Cooperation.

An author suspected of a breach of the Standards shall be obliged to cooperate fully and faithfully with the BORPE in its investigation into that possible breach of the Standards. The author's cooperation shall include, but not be limited to, submission of requested documents and appearing before the BORPE (virtually, if necessary) if called upon to do so.

Section 5. Investigation of Misconduct Allegations.

(a) If there is an allegation of a possible violation of the research and publication ethics as set forth herein, the BORPE shall begin an investigation as expeditiously as possible and give the author ample opportunity to respond to allegations within a time period set at up to three (3) months from the date of notification to the author.

(b) The BORPE shall have the right to request that the author provide ample clarification with respect to alleged misconduct or violations of research and publication ethics.

(c) The BORPE shall scrutinize the author's clarifications and judge if the author's provided clarifications are satisfactory. If they are not deemed satisfactory, the BORPE shall ask for further information in order to make a proper judgement with respect to the allegations.

(d) The BORPE shall conduct investigation of misconduct and violation of research and publication ethics in accordance with the procedures set forth by COPE (Committee on Publication Ethics) in its guidelines for journals and publishers (https://publication ethics.org/).

(e) The BORPE shall finalize any investigation and review as expeditiously as possible within a period of not more than six (6) months.

(f) The BORPE shall not disclose the identity of an author or informant involved in an allegation of misconduct until a final decision has been made in the matter. But, the sharing of information shall be allowed if
  (i) there is no response from the author,
  (ii) the response from the author is inadequate as determined by the BORPE chair,
  (iii) more than one publication is thought to be affected,
  (iv) disclosure of such information is necessary to enact the resolution recommended by the BORPE (see, e.g., Section 6(d)).

(g) The BORPE shall report to the President their findings in an investigation of allegations of misconduct along with a description of their rationale and dissenting arguments, and any suggested resolution or remedy to be imposed on the violator(s).

Section 6. Punitive Action

(a) In a case where the BORPE recommends a punitive action of light severity, the President may decide to accept and implement the punitive action or bring it before the National Council for consideration.

(b) In a case where the BORPE recommends a punitive action of considerable severity, the President shall bring it before the National Council for consideration.

(c) In a case brought before the National Council, the Council, taking the recommendations of the BORPE into consideration, is the final arbiter of the matter, determining an appropriate response by a simple majority vote of the Council members present.

(d) The President shall be able to take punitive action ranging from a warning to suspension or revocation of KOTESOL membership of an author found to be in violation of the Standards as set forth herein. The President shall also have the right to notify other organizations or individuals of the punitive action taken. A typical example of a punitive action would be the following: If misconduct is proven, a manuscript already accepted for publication in the *Korea TESOL Journal* shall be rejected, and in the case where the research is already published in the *Korea TESOL Journal*, the research shall be removed (in the case of digital publication) or notification shall be made of cancellation of the research (in the case of print publication). The author of the research shall not be allowed to make a submission to the Journal for three (3) years following the punitive action.

Article VII. Promotion of Research and Publication Ethics.

KOTESOL shall make a concerted effort to make conspicuously available not only these Standards but also materials that an author may use prior to submission of a work to aid in ensuring that research and publication ethics are not breached.

Article VIII. Definitions of Terms.

Terms used in this document shall be defined as follows:

1. *Author* shall refer to any individual(s) submitting a manuscript for review to a KOTESOL publication, submitting a proposal for review for an oral presentation, and/or making an oral academic presentation.

2. *Work* shall refer to any manuscript submitted for review/evaluation, any summary or abstract submitted for review/evaluation, any proposal submitted for review/evaluation, or any oral academic presentation and their accompanying materials.
3. *Publication* shall refer to any listed item in Article I, Section 2.
4. *Editorial Panel* shall refer to the individual(s) designated by a publication to render a decision on acceptance/rejection of a work for publication.
5. *Publication Chief* shall refer to the individual of a publication holding the topmost decision-making powers.
6. *Reviewer* shall refer to any individual(s) selected by a publication chief to evaluate the quality of a work.

Article IX. Amendment of the Standards.

The Standards may be amended in accordance with protocol set forth for amendment of the KOTESOL Policy and Procedures Manual.

Supplementary Provisions.

These Standards shall take effect as of May 24, 2020.

Korea TESOL Journal
General Information for Contributors

As an academic journal in the field of English language teaching (ELT), the *Korea TESOL Journal* welcomes the submission of manuscripts that meet the general criteria of significance and scientific excellence. Submissions should be of practical import, dealing with aspects of the Korean ELT context or directly applicable to it. As a journal that is dedicated to the nurturing of research among ELT practitioners, the *Korea TESOL Journal* also welcomes quality submissions from the early-career researcher.

The *Korea TESOL Journal* invites submissions in three categories:

1. Full-Length Articles. Contributors are strongly encouraged to submit manuscripts of 5,000 to 8,000 words in length, including references, tables, etc.

2. Brief Reports. The Journal also invites short reports (approximately 2,500 words). These manuscripts may present preliminary findings, focus on some aspect of a larger study, or summarize research done in the pursuit of advanced studies.

3. Reviews. The Journal invites succinct, evaluative reviews of scholarly or professional books, or instructional-support resources (such as computer software, video or audio material, and tests). Reviews should provide a descriptive and evaluative summary and a brief discussion of the significance of the work in the context of current theory and practice. Submissions should generally be 800–12,000 words in length.

Manuscripts are accepted for peer review with the understanding that the same work has not been submitted elsewhere (i.e., not pending review or currently under review) and has not been previously published, online or in print.

Manuscripts should follow APA style guidelines (*Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 7th ed.), especially for in-text citations, references, tables, and figures. Submissions should be made with tables, figures, and other graphics included in the manuscript text (and upon request, as separate files). All figures should be created in black and white, and graphs must display distinctive shades or patterning for readability. Manuscripts should be submitted as MS Word (DOC or DOCx) files.

The *Korea TESOL Journal* accepts submissions for two issues annually.

Inquiries/manuscripts to: journal@koreatesol.org

For more information on submissions to the *Korea TESOL Journal*, including paper submission deadlines, evaluation criteria, and formatting requirements, visit:

https://koreatesol.org/content/call-papers-korea-tesol-journal

Korea TESOL Journal

Volume 16, Number 1 2020

KOREA TESOL

KOTESOL
대한영어교육학회