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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), ELTAM/ Mongolia TESOL, MAAL (Macau), HAAL (Hong Kong), ELTAI (India), and most recently with BELTA (Bangladesh English Language Teachers Association. 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.

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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.

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Research Papers

Investigating Reading Strategy Use: Korean University EFL Students in an Intensive English Program

Kay Hong-Nam and Susan Szabo
Texas A&M University–Commerce, Texas, USA

In this study, the researchers explored the metacognitive awareness and reading strategy use of 41 Korean university EFL students attending an intensive English program in Korea. It examined if there were any differences in reading strategy use over the course of the semester as well as differences in reading strategy use by gender and by self-rated English reading proficiency. The study found that Korean EFL students reported using more reading strategies in the pre-test than in the post-test. Problem-solving strategies were the most preferred strategies while support strategies were the least used. Males reported using more strategies than females, although the difference was not statistically significant. Finally, the participants who rated their English reading proficiency as being at the intermediate level reported using more strategies than those students who rated their English reading proficiency at the beginning level, and the difference was statistically significant.

Keywords: metacognition, reading strategies, learning context, EFL, Korean university students

INTRODUCTION

Learning a new language can be challenging and requires a great amount of effort and time to reach a proficient level in the target language. Language learning can be influenced by many factors, such as learning context, motivation, and learner's individual differences (e.g., age, gender, learning styles, or prior linguistic knowledge; Koda, 1994). Among these factors, learning context has a significant impact on learner's language acquisition and development (Collentine & Freed, 2004). For instance, learning a language in a second language (SL) setting where a learner is exposed to the target language all the time can

be easier than learning in a foreign language (FL) setting where a learner is exposed to the target language mainly in a classroom. Research has noted that the learning environment also influences reading in a SL or FL context (Dewey, 2004; Freed, 1998; Huebner, 1995). The consensus of the research studies indicates that readers' reading comprehension, reading proficiency, and confidence were improved when they studied a language in an SL context or an intensive language program context.

Intensive language learning programs have been utilized in the field of English language education as a format of learning as their context allows for significant amounts of L2 contact time. The intensive English program (IEP) is designed to maximize the exposure to the English language and optimize the learning time (Mukundan et al., 2012). Research has found that the intensive learning environment of IEPs has a great impact on English language learners' language learning behaviors and strategy use (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Nasiri & Shokrpour, 2012). It was also noticed that learners in IEPs tend to be more strategic, motivated, and metacognitively aware of their learning by planning and monitoring their learning and managing their time (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006).

Over the decades, numerous research studies have been conducted in order to investigate what readers do when reading in English to increase their comprehension (Hong-Nam, 2014; Hong-Nam & Szabo, 2018; Koda, 1994; Sheorey & Baboczky, 2008). To date, many studies on readers' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies have examined ESL and EFL readers in various contexts. However, little is known about the metacognitive awareness of reading strategies used by Korean university EFL students in an intensive English learning context in Korea. Finding out which reading strategies are employed in an IEP, by which kinds of students, and how they are employed will be helpful to both the teachers and the students themselves in having students become more successful readers.

In this study, three ideas were explored. First, the overall reading strategy use of Korean university EFL students enrolled in an IEP were investigated to determine strategy use before the semester started and at the end of the semester to see if there were changes. Second, the relationship between reading strategy use by gender was examined. Finally, reading strategy use by participants' self-rated English reading proficiency was explored.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Framework

Learning requires that students self-regulate during the learning process. Metacognition is the idea of thinking about one's thinking and adjusting that thinking when new learning occurs that does not match what is already thought (Flavell, 1976, 1979). Metacognition is the ability to self-assess both the knowledge one has and the strategies one uses, and to self-correct when the knowledge does not match existing knowledge or the strategies used are not providing comprehension. In this study, Korean university EFL students were asked how they approached learning tasks and which strategies they used to monitor their comprehension. They were also asked to assess their English reading proficiency.

Reading Strategies

Reading strategies are identified as the actions deliberately used by readers to enhance reading comprehension and manage interactions with text for effective reading comprehension (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). Reading strategies also refer to practices or thought processes that assist readers to comprehend the text (Cohen, 1998; Fazeli, 2011) and "help students make sense of the text they are reading" (Hong-Nam & Szabo, 2018, p. 399). The appropriate use of strategy contributes positively to reading comprehension, and readers use various reading strategies consciously or unconsciously "to make reading easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (Oxford, 1990, p. 8).

Even though there is a wide variety of reading strategies that readers can employ while reading, readers may not be aware of them or not aware of which strategies to use and when to use them. Research in the field of good readers and poor readers in both L1 and L2 reading contexts has found that good readers in both contexts use more reading strategies instantaneously, intuitively, and effectively than poor readers (Pang, 2008; Pressley et al., 1992). Both good L1 and L2 readers are more strategic and more metacognitively aware of what strategy to use and when to use it (e.g., before, during, or after reading; Gaultney, 1995). A number of studies in L2 reader research have shown that good

L2 readers who were more aware of their cognitive process tended to monitor and evaluate their reading process and reported using more strategies than poor readers (Pang, 2008).

Gender

Some research has shown that strategy use is impacted by learner characteristics such as gender (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Wharton, 2000). Unlike the research on language proficiency, the findings of previous research on reading strategies and gender are mixed. Some research has shown that females use more strategies than males (Green & Oxford, 1995; Kaylani, 1996; Sheorey, 2006; Sheorey & Baboczy, 2008), while other research shows that there are no differences between males and females in the strategies they used (Poole, 2005; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Young & Oxford, 1993). The research also found that gender did not have a big impact on how often reading strategies were used or the types of strategies used while reading an academic text (Poole, 2005). Thus, this variable needs to be examined further when studies on strategy use are conducted.

Reading Proficiency

Some research has noted that there is a close relationship between L2 language proficiency, reading proficiency, and strategy use. Research has shown that the level of language proficiency may determine the types of reading strategies used (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Hong-Nam & Szabo, 2018). L2 readers with advanced language proficiency tend to use a wider variety of reading strategies frequently and effectively (Fazeli, 2011; Hong-Nam, 2014; Rao, 2016; Zarei & Baharestani, 2014). The research on the relationship between readers' perceptions of their reading proficiency and reading strategy use has also reported similar findings, indicating that the readers with higher reading proficiency perceptions reported use of a greater number of and more frequent use of reading strategies (Hong-Nam & Page, 2014).

METHOD

This study was designed as a pre-/post-test non-experimental design.

A pre-/post-survey method was employed to collect data from 41 Korean university EFL students who were attending an intensive English program (IEP) in Korea. The Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) was distributed to the participants at the beginning and end of the semester to collect the information about the participants' reading strategy use. Two statistical procedures (i.e., descriptive statistics and a paired sample *t*-test) were used to analyze the collected data.

Participants

The participants in the current study were 41 freshmen university students attending a university in Korea and majoring in various disciplines: humanities (4), social studies (5), science/engineering (6), and art/music (26). They were all native speakers of Korean and learning English as a foreign language. The participants were composed of 15 (37%) males and 26 (63%) females with a mean age of 20.6. The Korean students were asked to self-report both their overall English language proficiency and their English reading proficiency on both the pre- and post-test.

As shown in Table 1, for the pre-test, 22 students (54%) rated their overall English language proficiency at the beginning level while 19 students (46%) reported their English language proficiency at the intermediate level. None of the Korean students felt that they had advanced English language proficiency. However, this changed in the post-test, as 20 students (49%) self-rated their English language proficiency at the beginning English language proficiency level, 18 students (44%) reported themselves to be at the intermediate language proficiency level, and three students (7%) reported their English language proficiency had grown to the advanced language proficiency level.

When asked to self-rate their English reading proficiency, almost half of the participants (20) rated their reading proficiency at the beginning level (49%), and the other half reported that they were intermediate (51%) readers. No one felt they were advanced readers of English in the pre-test. However, in the post-test, 17 students (42%) felt they were still beginning readers, 23 students (56%) thought they were intermediate readers, and one student (2%) felt he was an advanced English reader.

TABLE 1. Self-Rated Overall English Proficiency and Reading Proficiency

Proficiency		Beginning		Intermediate		Advanced	
		n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
Overall English Proficiency	Pre-test	22	54	19	46	0	0
	Post-test	20	49	18	44	3	7
Reading Proficiency	Pre-test	20	49	21	51	0	0
	Post-test	17	42	23	56	1	2

In addition to self-rating their overall English language proficiency and their English reading proficiency, the Korean university students were asked to rate if the IEP was helpful in promoting their English language skills and their English reading skills. Using a 5-point Likert scale, 20 students (49%) either *strongly agreed* or *agreed* that the IEP was beneficial, while 14 students (34%) believed it was somewhat beneficial. Furthermore, 8 students (17%) marked either that they *disagreed* or that they *strongly disagreed* that the IEP was helpful to them.

EFL Context

The study took place at a university and in an IEP in Seoul, Korea. The participants enrolled in at least four freshmen-level university courses (e.g., sociology, psychology, college math, economics, etc.) which were taught in Korean. In addition to the university courses, the students also enrolled in intensive English courses offered by an intensive language institute outside of the university campus. The IEP in this study offered courses in four areas of English language skills (i.e., reading, writing, listening, and speaking), and all courses were taught by native English speakers. The students were given a placement test to determine their English proficiency in the four areas of English before enrolling in the IEP. The program consisted of 20 hours of English classes per week for 16 weeks in both the spring and fall, and 40 hours per week for 8 weeks during the summer. Their English proficiency was measured at the beginning of the first semester. This means that for a year, these students were asked to read, write, speak, and listen in English every day for several hours that included the IEP classes and a few hours outside the classroom in order to complete their homework.

However, the data collection for this study occurred during the first regular semester that they were enrolled in the program.

Instrument

The Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS; Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002) was used to collect the data for the current study. However, for this study, the English version of SORS was translated into Korean to maximize the comprehension of the questionnaire and minimize any possible errors from misunderstanding English.

SORS is a survey used to assess the frequency of reading strategy use of English language learners while reading academic material in English. The SORS uses a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*I never or almost never do this*) to 5 (*I always or almost always do this*). This is a self-reported survey, as the participants are asked to read each statement and circle the number that they believe applies to them. Thus, the higher the number, the more frequent the use of the strategy. The 30 items are categorized into three broad areas: global reading strategies (13 items), problem-solving strategies (8 items), and support strategies (9 items). Global reading strategies are intentional and well-planned strategies for monitoring or managing reading. This category includes such strategies as browsing the text and reading the bolded titles and pictures and/or figures in order to set a purpose for reading and create questions about the text. Problem-solving strategies are the strategies used by the reader when they are working directly with the text to understand the textual information that is being read. This category includes such strategies as staying focused on the text and reading more slowly or even rereading when the text becomes difficult. Support strategies refer to basic support techniques to improve reading comprehension, such as using a dictionary. This category also includes such strategies as taking notes, underlining or highlighting information within the text, and creating a short summary for each section read.

Data Collection and Analysis

This study employed a pre/post design, and the SORS was used to collect data. It was administrated at the beginning of the semester as a pre-test, and the same questionnaire was distributed after five months as a post-test. The pre/post design allowed the researchers to determine if

there were any changes in reading strategy use over the course of the semester.

Descriptive statistics were calculated for summarizing demographic information and describing the participants' reading strategy use. The paired sample *t*-test was used to determine if there were any changes in overall strategy use over the course of the semester and to determine if there were any changes or differences in reading strategies used among the three strategy categories by gender and reading proficiency after one semester.

RESULTS

Overall Strategy Use

The overall total reading strategies used and differences in strategies used among the three major categories are presented in Table 2. As shown in the table, the Korean university EFL students reported using a variety of reading strategies at a medium level (Pre: $M = 3.45$, Post: $M = 3.36$). The paired sample *t*-test revealed the difference in overall strategy use between the pre- and post-test was not statistically significant ($t = 1.19$, $p = 0.24$) at a $p < 0.05$ level. Additionally, it was found that the mean scores on the pre-test were higher than those on the post-test, indicating that the participants reported using strategies more frequently at the beginning of the semester.

Among the three strategy categories, problem-solving strategies (Pre: $M = 3.81$, Post: $M = 3.55$) were the most preferred strategies, followed by global reading strategies (Pre: $M = 3.37$, Post: $M = 3.32$), and finally by the support reading strategies (Pre: $M = 3.18$, Post: $M = 3.23$). When looking at the difference in strategy use in the three categories, the paired sample *t*-test revealed that there were statistically significant differences in strategy use only in the problem-solving strategy category ($t = 2.52$, $p = 0.01$) at a $p < 0.01$ level.

TABLE 2. **Mean Score of Overall Reading Strategy Use and Paired Sample *t*-test**

Variables	Pre-test		Post-test		*t*	Sig.	Difference*
	M	SD	*M*	SD			
Global Reading Strategy	3.37	0.19	3.32	0.25	0.73	0.47	–
Problem-Solving Strategy	3.81	0.30	3.55	0.34	2.52	0.01	Pre > Post
Support Reading Strategy	3.18	0.20	3.23	0.28	-0.46	0.65	–
Total	3.45	0.14	3.36	0.24	1.19	0.24	–

Note. *$p < 0.01$.

Gender

As shown in Table 3, when looking at the total mean scores of reading strategies used by gender, the male students (Pre: $M = 3.53$, Post: $M = 3.41$) reported using strategies more frequently than the female students (Pre: $M = 3.41$, Post: $M = 3.33$), although the observed differences did not reach statistical significance. In addition, among the three categories, both the male and female students reported a higher use of problem-solving strategies. However, only the differences in the male students' scores between the pre- and post-tests (Pre: $M = 3.95$, Post: $M = 3.58$) were statistically significant ($t = 2.48$, $p = 0.03$) at a $p < 0.05$ level.

TABLE 3. Difference in Reading Strategy Use Between Pre- and Post-test by Gender

Gender	Variables	Test	*M*	SD	*t*	Sig.	Difference*
Male	Global Reading Strategy	Pre	3.47	0.19	0.53	0.60	–
		Post	3.41	0.22			
	Problem-Solving Strategy	Pre	3.95	0.22	2.48	0.03	Pre > Post
		Post	3.58	0.39			
	Support Reading Strategy	Pre	3.19	0.17	-0.37	0.71	–
		Post	3.25	0.26			
	Total	Pre	3.53	0.12	0.88	0.40	–
		Post	3.41	0.24			
Female	Global Reading Strategy	Pre	3.31	0.19	0.51	0.61	–
		Post	3.27	0.26			
	Problem-Solving Strategy	Pre	3.73	0.33	1.45	0.16	–
		Post	3.52	0.32			
	Support Reading Strategy	Pre	3.18	0.15	-0.28	0.78	–
		Post	3.21	0.29			
	Total	Pre	3.41	0.15	0.79	0.44	–
		Post	3.33	0.24			

Note. $*p < 0.05$.

As shown in Table 4, when looking at the difference in strategy use among the three strategy categories between the males and females, the study revealed that the differences were not statistically significant. However, it was interesting to note that both the male and female students reported less use of both problem-solving strategies and global strategies at the end of the semester but reported using more support strategies.

TABLE 4. Difference in Reading Strategy Use in Three Categories by Gender

Test	Variables	Gender	M	SD	t	Sig.	Difference
Pre-test	Global Reading Strategy	M	3.47	0.43	1.04	0.30	–
		F	3.32	0.44			
	Problem-Solving Strategy	M	3.95	0.47	1.25	0.22	–
		F	3.76	0.58			
	Support Reading Strategy	M	3.19	0.42	0.07	0.95	–
		F	3.18	0.47			
	Total	M	3.53	0.34	1.04	0.31	–
		F	3.41	0.39			
Post-test	Global Reading Strategy	M	3.41	0.47	0.84	0.41	–
		F	3.27	0.51			
	Problem-Solving Strategy	M	3.58	0.62	0.31	0.76	–
		F	3.52	0.57			
	Support Reading Strategy	M	3.25	0.51	0.25	0.81	–
		F	3.21	0.54			
	Total	M	3.41	0.49	0.50	0.62	–
		F	3.33	0.49			

Note. M = Male, F = Female.

Self-Rated Reading Proficiency

The participant data on self-rated reading proficiency was grouped into three categories (i.e., beginning, intermediate, and advanced level). It was found that no one rated himself or herself as an advanced reader in the pre-test, while one student rated himself as an advanced reader on the post-test. When comparing strategy use among reading proficiency levels, the advanced level in the post-test was eliminated because of the extremely small size of the sample. Therefore, strategy use by the beginning- and intermediate-level students was compared and is presented in Tables 5 and 6.

The paired sample *t*-test results for the use of strategies in the three categories by self-rated reading proficiency is shown in Table 5. As can be seen, the students in the intermediate reading proficiency level reported that they used more strategies in both the global category and the problem-solving category during the pre-test taken at the beginning of the semester. At the end of the semester, they reported using the strategies in the categories less. It was found that the differences from pre- to post-test for both the problem-solving strategy category ($t = 2.99$, $p = 0.00$) and the global strategy category ($t = 1.89$, $p = 0.05$) were statistically significant at a $p < 0.05$ level. It is also important to note that the strategies in the support strategy category were used more, but this difference was not statistically significant.

TABLE 5. **Difference in Reading Strategy Use Between Pre- and Post-test by Self-Rated Reading Proficiency Level**

Level	Variables	Test	*M*	SD	*t*	Sig.	Difference*
Beginning	Global Reading Strategy	Pre	3.15	0.18	-0.84	0.41	–
		Post	3.29	0.22			
	Problem-Solving Strategy	Pre	3.55	0.18	0.34	0.74	–
		Post	3.49	0.36			
	Support Reading Strategy	Pre	3.14	0.23	-0.15	0.89	–
		Post	3.17	0.32			
	Total	Pre	3.26	0.12	-0.22	0.83	–
		Post	3.32	0.26			
Intermediate	Global Reading Strategy	Pre	3.58	0.12	1.89	0.05	Pre > Post
		Post	3.33	0.26			
	Problem-Solving Strategy	Pre	4.06	0.29	2.99	0.00	Pre > Post
		Post	3.57	0.34			
	Support Reading Strategy	Pre	3.21	0.18	0.27	0.78	–
		Post	3.57	0.34			
	Total	Pre	3.61	0.11	1.90	0.06	–
		Post	3.38	0.23			

Note. *$p < 0.05$.

When considering the difference in strategy use among the three strategy categories between beginning and intermediate reading proficiency

levels, the study revealed that the differences were statistically significant in the global reading strategy category (t = -3.49, p = 0.00) and problem-solving strategy category (t = -3.37, p = 0.00) at a $p < 0.05$ level in the pre-test. The difference in overall strategy use between the two groups on the pre-test was also statistically significant (t = -3.16, p = 0.00), indicating more frequent use of strategy by the intermediate readers at the beginning of the semester (see Table 6). There was no statistical significance between the two levels on the post-test, although the mean score of the intermediate readers was higher than those at the beginning reading level.

TABLE 6. **Difference in Reading Strategy Use and Self-Rated Reading Proficiency Levels**

	Variables	Level	*M*	SD	*t*	Sig.	Difference*
Pre	Global Reading Strategy	B	3.16	0.42	-3.49	0.00	I > B
		I	3.58	0.35			
	Problem-Solving Strategy	B	3.55	0.42	-3.37	0.00	I > B
		I	4.06	0.54			
	Support Reading Strategy	B	3.14	0.48	-0.48	0.64	–
		I	3.21	0.42			
	Total	B	3.28	0.35	-3.16	0.00	I > B
		I	3.62	0.33			
Post	Global Reading Strategy	B	3.29	0.47	-0.25	0.8	–
		I	3.33	0.52			
	Problem-Solving Strategy	B	3.49	0.60	-0.41	0.68	–
		I	3.57	0.58			
	Support Reading Strategy	B	3.17	0.56	-0.45	0.66	–
		I	3.25	0.51			
	Total	B	3.32	0.51	-0.41	0.69	–
		I	3.39	0.48			

Note. B = Beginning, I = Intermediate; *$p < 0.05$.

Limitations

There are several limitations of the study that should be kept in mind when interpreting the findings. First, the SORS is a self-reported survey and only reports what strategies learners think they use rather than what they may actually use. The self-reported questionnaire may not report all types of reading strategies and responses can be exaggerated so that students do not feel embarrassed. Second, the study only had 41 participants, which is small, and the participants were EFL students enrolled in an IEP in a Korean context. Consequently, caution will be required when generalizing the findings to a larger group or to other populations in other learning contexts.

DISCUSSION

The data in Table 2 were used to determine what strategies Korean university EFL students attending an intensive English language program in Korea used. It was found that they reported using various reading strategies while reading their English academic texts. When looking at the strategy preference among the three categories, according to the overall mean scores, strategies from the problem-solving strategy category were the most preferred strategies while strategies in the support strategy category were the least favored. However, the only category that had a statistical significance was the problem-solving category. This makes sense, as students were reading in a foreign language and needed to adjust their reading speed, read more slowly, and really focus on the text to guess at the meaning of unknown words, and even reread sections of the text for better comprehension.

The data found in Table 2 were used to determine if there were any changes in the Korean university EFL students' overall reading strategy use throughout the semester. Interestingly, it was found that the mean score of the overall total strategy use decreased after a semester, although the change was not statistically significant. In addition, it was found that the use of two strategy categories (i.e., the global reading strategy and problem-solving strategy categories) went down. Only the use of strategies in the support strategy category increased after a semester. This may be a good thing as this may indicate that reading in English over time became easier, and thus fewer strategies were needed

to help with comprehending the English text. This supports the idea that when one has the necessary schema, it is easier to read and learn from the material. The findings also may indicate that Korean EFL students' application of reading strategies may have become more internalized and used unconsciously. Thus, they did not report what they used, so their strategy use in the post-test appeared to be lower than in the pre-test. These findings support the findings of a previous research study by Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) in which they reported lower language learning strategy use of advanced ESL students in an IEP.

The data in Tables 3 and 4 were used to look at the differences in the Korean university EFL students reading strategy use by gender. It was found that the difference in strategy use between female and male students was not statistically significant, although the male students reported using more strategies in all the categories. Additionally, the male students' use of the problem-solving strategy dropped significantly after a semester. While the consensus of research studies has reported that findings of differences based on gender are inconsistent, they have shown that females tend to use more learning strategies than males (Green & Oxford, 1995). However, the current study found higher strategy use reported by male Korean university EFL students.

The data from Tables 5 and 6 were used to look at the differences in the Korean university EFL students' reading strategy use by their self-rated reading English proficiency. The participants who rated their English reading proficiency as being at the intermediate level reported using more strategies than those students who rated their English reading proficiency at the beginning level, and the difference was statistically significant. These findings are supported by previous research, as research has shown that the levels of language proficiency does impact the reading strategies used (Fazeli, 2011; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Hong-Nam & Szabo, 2018; Rao, 2016; Zarei & Baharestani, 2014).

CONCLUSIONS

About three-fourths of these Korean university EFL students agreed that the intensive English language learning program was helpful and somewhat beneficial. These findings do tend to support the design to maximize the exposure to the English language and optimize the learning time (Mukundan et al., 2012).

Reader's strategy use can be diverse due to their reading proficiency. The current study found that Korean university EFL students at the intermediate level reported using more strategies in the pre-test than in the post-test, and the difference was statistically significant. The intermediate readers also reported more frequent strategy use in the categories of global strategies and problem-solving strategies. This makes sense, as the more you understand a language, the less you rely on decoding and figuring out what the words are and move to strategies that help you with understanding the texts being read. Thus, a better reader uses more metacognitive strategies for learning and understanding the content and can self-regulate the use of these strategies in a better manner (Flavell, 1976, 1979; Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002; Pang, 2008).

Finally, this study found that the males used more strategies than the females. This goes against previous research that showed females use more strategies. It was also interesting to note that the use of the global reading strategy and problem-solving strategy use went down throughout the semester, but the use of support reading strategies increased for both the male and female participants.

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A Theoretical Perspective on the Status of Flow in SLA

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This paper aims to situate Csikszentmihalyi's (1997) concept of *flow* within the SLA literature. Flow is the experience of optimal performance, where concentration is solely dedicated to the task at hand, where the sense of time and the sense of self seem to vanish, and where pure enjoyment is experienced. I first draw attention to the field of positive psychology (where the concept originally emerged), then I focus on the relationship between attention, learning, and flow. The last two notions go hand in hand. The question considered, then, is how important is attention to the experience of flow? If flow is indeed an instance of learning, what type of learning does it fall into with respect to the intentional–incidental dichotomy? After a short examination of the role of affect in the current literature, I turn to the discussion of some major studies that have been done on flow and their implications for classroom practitioners.

Keywords: flow, task-specific flow, attention, learning, emotion, positive psychology

INTRODUCTION

Why do some people seem to learn a language more easily than others? Which variables account for this difference? And how significant is motivation to language learning? Indeed, many factors come into play when learning a second language. We may distinguish language-related impediments, such as its phonological sound system or grammatical complexity; and cognitive factors including, but not limited to, one's ability to comprehend, store, and use information in a targeted manner; interference and influence of the first language (L1) on the acquisition of the second one; or for our purposes, motivation to learn a foreign

language, which is arguably an internal, brain-based drive. In the field of second language acquisition (SLA), motivation has occupied an idiosyncratic place. Because of its multifaceted nature of combining psychology and second language acquisition theory, it has moved through several stages since its introduction to the field of applied linguistics. These stages reflect the shift in linguistics and cognitive science that occurred forty to fifty years ago, when the cognitivist view saw the light, mainly due to works of numerous scholars such as the linguist Noam Chomsky.

In what comes next, we are limiting our discussion to one influential motivational drive, a state called *flow*. We shall first see how flow emerged as an important theoretical concept in positive psychology and then analyze the relationship between it, attention, and learning. Finally, while giving an overview of the main studies on flow in SLA, we draw some possible implications of being in that state, both for students and teachers.

FLOW IN POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY

Evolution endowed our species, Homo sapiens, with complex brains, sophisticated physiology, and innate basic drives to ensure survival. Modern humans have come to dominate the animal world on every possible level. Because of our ease of adaptability to our environments and our use of an elaborate language system, unlike any we have witnessed in the animal world, our ancestors carved megaliths, built pyramids, and not so long ago, composed symphonies that potentially resonate with any human being. But these perks also allowed for significant pitfalls to emerge.

Although our innate physiological and psychological systems might have evolved to enhance the likelihood of our ancestors' survival, their effects may be unwarranted for life in our modern societies. The psychological underpinnings that cause our unhappiness are deeply ingrained in our biological design. Take for example the quest of finding the right mating partner. If our ancestors, indeed, lived in small groups, then the choice of a mate would not have been so excruciating; living in a small tribe entails that one would come to form strong bonds with almost everyone in the community they live in. Hence mate selection is easier and satisfactory. In contrast, in our current societies, we tend to

lead isolated, family-focused lives that limit our interactions. Due to our large populations, the possibilities of finding a potential mate are so endless as to be aleatory. Technology and social networks exacerbate this phenomenon by providing us with limitless ideals that could lead to frustration, depression, and loneliness. More generally, this sharp mismatch between our current and ancestral societies may hinder psychological growth and affect the quality of our lives (Buss, 2000).

The field of positive psychology, thus, was borne out of an acknowledgment of our evolutionary make-up and a desire to transcend it. Psychology traditionally aimed at treating mental illness. In contrast, positive psychology asserts that the former goal is insufficient for achieving happiness in life. By focusing on one's subjective experience, the question that guides researchers in this field is "what makes life worth living?"

Martin Seligman and Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi gave solid foundation to the field in their introductory paper "Positive Psychology: An Introduction," published in the *American Psychologist* in the year 2000. The authors ascertain their high confidence in the inception of the field: "We believe that a psychology of positive human functioning will arise that achieves a scientific understanding and effective interventions to build thriving in individuals, families, and communities" (p. 13). As the authors predicted, the field has grown to be quite influential on all of those three dimensions. Organizations such as Gallup are constantly measuring "well-being." Moreover, insights from the field have been applied across several disciplines, including economy, business, sports, and education, both on an individual and a collective level.

A major experience that has proven to be a positive contributor to happiness and well-being is Csikszentmihalyi's concept of flow. Upon interviewing and observing people from several disciplines, including musicians, athletes, and physicians, Csikszentmihalyi (1997) defined flow as a state of "optimal experience" that occurs when people feel "the sense of effortless action ... in moments that stand out as the best in their lives" (p. 29). When we are in flow, our attention is solely focused on the task at hand, the sense of time seems to disappear along with a dissolution of our identity, and the experience itself rewards enjoyment and aliveness.

But there are a few conditions required for flow to happen. First, when performing an activity, the goals need to be crystal clear. Moreover, the individual has to receive immediate feedback on his

actions. Finally, one has to have enough skills to meet the challenges presented. A highly skilled chess grandmaster might get bored if facing the average chess player. Alternatively, the chess player might become anxious when confronting the grandmaster. Therefore, it is crucial for the activities to provide enough balance for flow to emerge.

Education is one area where flow could have a notable impact. Teachers often complain that their students don't pay attention in class; blame is often assigned to the students because of their incompetence, background, or laziness. But these critics are missing the point: We learn when we are deeply invested in the material in front of us. Although not all students share the same interests, the way teachers present the activities and how they conduct them are the defining features of a successful classroom. More specifically, to eliminate all doubts, I would argue that learning can only occur once the students are in a state of flow.

In what comes next, we shall focus on the main research that has been done on flow, specifically as it relates to second language acquisition and the teaching of English as a second language. Before doing so, we first consider the relationship between flow and learning with a focus on attention.

ATTENTION, LEARNING, AND THE ELEPHANT IN THE ROOM

What is the role of attention in learning a second language, and how does the state of flow influence learning and attention?

In his seminal paper, "The Role of Consciousness in Second Language Acquisition," Schmidt (1990) argues that "noticing" is a necessary condition for learning a second language. When we notice something, we are aware of it from a subjective point and can, in principle, compare it to other noticed objects in the environment. Furthermore, Schmidt posits that the more we notice and "pay attention," the more we can learn. "Incidental learning," which happens when one has no intention of learning, is desirable and effective when the task at hand demands heightened attention.

It is tempting to claim that being in flow is a form of incidental learning. However, just because there is no deliberate control of attention does not mean that one is not aware of what is being learned. When we are absorbed in an activity to the point of being in flow, the cognitive

effort required to exercise control over attention is relinquished and is transferred to other cognitive mechanisms that directly interact with the main task (Kahneman, 2011). In other words, noticing is not a condition for learning while in a state of flow. We may, therefore, speak of "unconscious noticing" to designate those moments where the internal second language prototype undergoes instances of modification and amelioration to match an unconscious conceptualization of the second language as represented in the minds of its native speakers. Whether or not the subjective agent is aware of this process should not influence the learning of the second language.

For Csikszentmihalyi (2014), the state of flow is an instance of intentional learning that is intrinsically motivated and autotelic, which is to say that it is pursued for its own sake, not because of some extrinsic reward. Learning, in his view, should emphasize the acquired knowledge as well as the emotional current experienced and its effect on one's growth and flourishment, and being in flow exemplifies these three dimensions.

Recent publications in SLA are now shifting the focus of the field towards a more positive, hedonic perspective. In a recent issue, Matthew Prior (2019) compares the status of emotions in SLA to the elephants in the room, a metaphor he borrowed from Swain. He observes that the field has been characterized by two facts: a focus on language, its use, and its relation to the human brain; and a misunderstanding of the role of emotions. Therefore, SLA is now undergoing an "affective turn" aimed at restoring the "imbalanced relationship" between cognition and emotion (Bigelow, 2019, p. 516), and this turn is not solely constrained to SLA.

At this point, we may go back to the evolutionary origins of affective variables, if only to point out how scientists in general are becoming more aware of the role of affect in our understanding of the human condition. The neuroscientist Antonio Damasio, for instance, has much to say about this topic. In a podcast with quantum physicist Sean Carroll (2019), Damasio shared Prior's concerns about the focus on cognition in research. He asserts that we have gone too far to the point where we have forgotten that "there is something that from a point of view of evolution precedes all of that cognitive development. And that has to do with feeling, with affect" (0:03:45). Our states of affect are engendered by a combination of bodily and nervous system processes. Damasio argues that these states of affect are the product of our organism when it tries to achieve *homeostasis*, a dynamic (not a stable)

process that keeps the organism alive and functioning. Central to his proposals is the distinction between emotions and feelings. Emotions, for Damasio, emerged long before feelings. They are a set of actions (primarily originating within the body) created by evolution and "complemented by a cognitive program" (Damasio, 2012, p. 88). Whereas feelings are states that describe the reflections on those actions by the agent experiencing them, along with a simultaneous reflection on our mental states. In so doing, we are able to navigate a continuum of homeostatic states that we can describe as good or bad, optimal or undesirable. In the same podcast (Carroll, 2019), Damasio draws our attention to *well-being*, a term that "describes something that in the general distribution of states of life goes towards the good" (0:17:13).

Some might contend that emotions are nothing more than non-physical mind constructs that get their meaning from other related concepts (Schuman, as cited in Bigelow, 2019). But this claim presupposes an answer to the hard problem of consciousness (Chalmers, 1996). We still do not know how consciousness relates to the physical world. However, we can say, with a high degree of confidence, that there is such a thing as to experience anger, joy, and sadness. Moreover, we know, as a matter of empirical neuroscientific inquiry, that these states correlate positively with brain activity in several regions in the brain, including the visceral motor system, the limbic system, and especially the amygdala (Purves et al., 2004).

MAJOR STUDIES ON FLOW IN SLA AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS

In the field of second language acquisition, *flow* is a relatively new concept that has been seldom studied. Within the theoretical framework of SLA, flow can be considered a form of intrinsic motivation, an "inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one's capacities, to explore, and to learn" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 70). Intrinsic motivation is a main component of self-determination theory, which asserts that human beings have three innate drives or needs that foster well-being: competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Whereas "competence" refers to one's perception of her abilities, "autonomy" designates the feeling of control that all humans share, and it could be synonymous with freedom of will. "Relatedness," not least, denotes our sense of community and belonging.

Correlating these intrinsic and extrinsic factors with the dominant orientations in L2 theories was one of the main objectives of researchers advocating for self-determination theory (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015).

Flow also denotes the experience of optimal engagement with a task. Philp and Duchesne (2016) acknowledge the implicit assumption within SLA that engagement (in some form) does lead to "optimal learning" but stress that the concept has rarely been studied nor formulated into a coherent theory. To that effect, they propose a multidimensional model of engagement: cognitive engagement (relating to cognitive mechanisms that require effort and deliberate control), behavioral engagement (characterized mainly by the duration of time spent on the task), emotional engagement (the extent to which one's "states of affect," to borrow Damasio's term, influence their own perception of learning and their learning environment), and finally social engagement (referring to the actual environment of study and how it affects learning, including peer-interactions). Under this conceptual light, Philp and Duchesne (2016) suggest that flow is what happens when all these dimensions come into play; it's the "ultimate in engagement" (p. 59).

Because of their modern nature, the studies conducted on flow focus mainly on the frequency of its occurrence. Some studies also investigate classroom versus task-based flow. While the former designates instances of flow that happen when one is in the foreign language classroom, the latter aims to find correlations between tasks (including designs and features) and reports of flow experience while doing them.

Abbot (2000), for instance, examined the relationship between flow and writing. In her case study of two boys in fifth grade, she collected data (interviews, field notes, writing samples) over a period of four months. The data showed that the boys conveyed their flow experiences through similar descriptions to those used by adolescents and adults in previous studies on flow. Moreover, these descriptions are consistent with some conditions of flow, namely, a merging with the self with the activity, high concentration while writing accompanied with confidence in the ability to do so, and "obliviousness" to the sense of time. In addition, the social context greatly impacted the frequency of being in flow. When the boys were in fourth grade, they had an enthusiastic teacher who applauded critical and independent thinking; consequently, the boys reported experiencing more flow in her classroom. In contrast, when the boys moved to fifth grade, their teacher, unfortunately, was quite controlling in comparison, both on the level of instruction and

interaction. To find their affective (i.e., homeostatic) balance, one boy decided to move to another school, while the other searched for ways to work on his personal writing in the classroom. Abbot concludes that teachers might want to consider giving learners more autonomy and control over the tasks and to avoid conflict.

That autonomy-promoting settings allow for flow to emerge has been corroborated by subsequent studies. In a series of interviews with ten teachers who reported experiencing flow in the EFL classroom, Tardy and Snyder (2004) observe that two characteristics of teacher flow, "authenticity" and "spontaneity," might be responsible for fostering the ideal circumstances for flow to occur primarily for teachers but also for students. On authenticity, one teacher in describing her flow experience reported that it happened when the classroom discussions "became real, like it wasn't discussing these artificial things for a purpose anymore, but really discussing things that they were interested in" (p. 121). Another participant in reporting whether teachers should consciously aim to attain flow stated, "I think you can plan toward it, that you can be very well prepared and just sort of hope that it happens," suggesting that spontaneity is more favorable than control (p. 121). The authors allude to the fact that teacher autonomy offers a degree of flexibility in leading the course and in designing lesson plans, and hence giving opportunities to their students to engage in activities and topics that appeal to them. This focus on cognitive and emotional engagement may, in accordance to Philp and Duchesne's (2016) multidimensional framework, lead to more students experiencing flow.

But perhaps the pioneering study that applied flow theory to language learning is Egbert's (2004) examination of 13 high school students learning Spanish as a second language. Based on the works of Csikszentmihalyi, Egbert proposed four variables related to the emanation of flow: (a) a balance of challenge and skills that attracts one's attention to be focused on the task, (b) a subjective cognizance that attention is dedicated to the task at hand, (c) the learner finds satisfaction and pleasure in carrying out the task that is both interesting and authentic, and (d) the learner feels control over the activity. Relying on a mix of qualitative and quantitative methods, including interviews and questionnaires, participants' flow was measured based on their performances on seven tasks. The results showed that 92% of the participants experienced flow in at least one task. Furthermore, the same percentage of students went through the "optimal experience" of flow as

they were doing Task 5, in which they needed to interact via a computer with native Spanish speakers about a topic of choice. Although the success of this task might be attributed to an increased sense of control and autonomy, Egbert cautions against interpreting this finding as giving control more weight in comparison to the other three variables; at the same time, she deduces that it is permissible to evoke the notion of flow-inducing tasks, since more or less the same regularities of flow were observed across all tasks (Egbert, 2004).

A relatively recent study of 85 first-year EFL college students at a Hungarian university sheds some light on the interplay between classroom flow and task-specific flow. In a quantitative investigation that relied on questionnaires as its data input, Czimmermann and Piniel (2016) concluded that more than two thirds of the participants − all of whom had an upper-intermediate level in English or higher − experienced classroom flow. To arrive at this finding, the researchers presented a scale of 11 items to which participants were given a 5-point scale response range (from *rarely* to *almost always*), by which the authors could estimate the degree to which Egbert's defining characteristics of flow (skill/balance, attention, interest, control) were present. As for the second type, task-specific flow, a similar questionnaire was administered, after the participants completed a task in which they had to rearrange pictures in a specific order that told a story. This time, participants had to use another 5-point scale to express their agreement or lack thereof (from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*) vis-à-vis 15 items. Again, data analysis indicated that about 71% (more than two thirds) of the students experienced task-specific flow. A minor correlation was also established between the two types of flow as well as between their individual components, leading the researchers to conclude that both types are related but not the same construct (Czimmermann & Piniel, 2016). University EFL students, not least, were found to have a higher tendency to engage in flow experiences than their high school counterparts (from a previous study). The reasons might be that university students, in general, tend to focus on areas of inquiry that appeal to them, and in which they have a decent amount of knowledge and skill, factors that may foster more conditions for flow.

FLOW IN THE ESL CLASSROOM

In order for teachers to increase the likelihood of flow occurrences for their students, they first need to be able to identify it as it happens. This process is important because it not only challenges the teachers' understanding of flow but also reminds them that teaching, at its core, is a moment-by-moment experiential endeavor. Therefore, there can only be one place where students and teachers meet: the present moment. And in that space, the signs of being in flow will reveal themselves. A teacher, for instance, might notice that shortly after presenting an activity, students seem completely engaged in it. Or that, while leading a whole classroom discussion, every students is being attentive, inquisitive, and seems on the verge of contributing their opinions. Also, students can feel challenged by each other and not necessarily by the teacher, if they reply to each other's comments without any interference from the teacher. These are the moments of flow that we need to pay attention to.

Still, teachers need to aim, as much as possible, to design tasks that meet the flow criteria. One suggestion here is to incorporate "gameful learning" (Reinhardt, 2019). Games can be an effective and engaging way to induce flow, provided that the challenge level meets students' skills. Moreover, games have a particular feature that distinguishes them from other activities: They give a sense of agency to the player, even if at times that sense may be illusory. When we know, as a matter of experience, that our actions matter and that they have an effect, then we are more likely to push our cognitive abilities to their limits, while also focusing our attention – features of a flow experience. Under this light, it makes sense that learners would more likely be in flow if game tasks are given in a free order rather than arranged in a particular sequence (Reinhardt, 2019).

More generally, game design can inform our L2 curriculum and materials design. For starters, we could strive to make agency a core principle of lesson planning. We are more likely to learn content if we feel that it is relevant to us on a personal level. In practice, and depending on their students' backgrounds and interests, teachers have a responsibility to select content that students can build on and are familiar with, at least in the early stages of the course. Adopting an "old then new" approach to course design reduces demands on one's cognitive resources, which in turn facilitates engagement. Agency also presupposes

choice and acting on that choice. In this respect, we can envision a "open world" game-inspired course, where both the teachers and the students agree on the rules, and where students act on their sense of autonomy to decide which activities to do and when to do them. Not surprisingly, learners are more likely to be in flow if the game tasks are given in a free order rather than arranged in a particular sequence (Reinhardt, 2019). This approach, however, might work best in a small class as opposed to a bigger one, but teachers can always choose to make autonomy one of the main driving principles for course design.

And even if flow does occur in the language classroom, teachers will still need to acquire a myriad of strategies for dealing with and responding to it. In some cases, the teacher might choose to extend the duration of a flow-inducing activity as much as possible, while also making sure that doing so will not affect the students' learning outcomes for that lesson. If the teacher feels like they have to end that activity after a period of time, then they can build on it and give students a slightly challenging activity that improves their skills in other areas of language learning.

Unfortunately, there are certainly various limitations that can prevent flow from happening. Predesigned curricula imposed by institutions may limit the teacher's options when selecting learning activities, many of which may be either too difficult or too easy for students to do; consequently, they disrupt the skills–challenges balance required for flow to emerge. Additionally, students' placement might not be ideal for flow. If a class is not homogeneous enough, then the teacher may spend more time working with students individually rather than collectively. Another impediment, not least, is the students' subjective state itself. If one is feeling depressed or anxious, then they may not want to engage with learning at all. One wonders, however, whether the activity can be so engaging as to capture the student's interest regardless of their emotional states; many creative works of art arose out of a state of deep sorrow and sadness. Can learning a language be an art form?

CONCLUSIONS

Owing to its interdisciplinary nature, I have tried to approach the topic of flow in SLA from different perspectives. Flow is the ultimate intentional learning experience, where attention is dedicated to the task

at hand, albeit unwillingly. In the second language classroom, both students and teachers reported having gone through the experience. Age does not seem to be a deciding factor for it to happen. Young learners, adolescents, and adults all potentially engage in such a state. Students and teachers alike are cognizant of the changes in their homeostatic states, and they can discern a flow experience from a non-flow one. This suggests that well-being and learning (in this case a second language) are inextricably linked. Finally, we should remind ourselves of the real purpose in pursuing this line of inquiry: "to make language learning and teaching personally meaningful and enjoyable and to help learners (and teachers) become more resilient to various challenges" (Bigelow, 2019, p. 522).

THE AUTHOR

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Using Online Lectures to Solve Real-World Learning Challenges During the COVID-19 Pandemic

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In response to the COVID-19 outbreak, the South Korean government mandated that all universities and schools deliver courses online to minimize transmission of the virus. In order to provide insight into the experiences of those implementing this sudden and drastic shift to online teaching, the vignettes of three educators are presented. Examination of these cases revealed three key themes. First, teachers should provide at least some portion of their class online at all times as a contingency plan for disasters necessitating fully online course delivery. Second, technology-enhanced communication experiences can enhance faculty members' online teaching ability and self-efficacy. Third, educational administrators also bear responsibility in enhancing the preparedness of institutions for the transition to online teaching in response to a disaster. The paper concludes with suggestions on how teachers and administrators can increase their preparedness for disasters like COVID-19 through the use of and support for online teaching.

Keywords: COVID-19, online teaching, Zoom, online lecture videos, Korea

INTRODUCTION

Although information communication technology has been posited as

a tool to facilitate greater agility in educational providers' response to pandemics, to date, advice remains sparse regarding the issues associated with the implementation of such a response (Ekmekci & Bergstrand, 2010; Heng, 2013; Joye, 2005; Murphy, 2006). This deficit is notable given that crisis management requires proactive strategies to counter the impact of crises such as pandemics on institutions and their stakeholders, that is, students (Henderson, 2002; Ritchie, 2004). Subsequently, the onus is on education providers to prepare contingency plans to offer clear directions to follow, given the chaos and challenges posed during a crisis such as the currently unfolding COVID-19 pandemic, where a deadly flu-like contagion rapidly spreads through human populations, necessitating social distancing. One of the contingency plans that has been implemented in response to the recent outbreak in South Korea is the mandated migration of offline courses to online format (Yonhap, 2020). However, as this contingency has been abruptly deployed, a number of critical issues inherent in online education may not be carefully reviewed and addressed, thereby limiting the effectiveness.

Despite rapid growth in online learning, ubiquitous access to affordable high-speed internet and pervasive use of computing devices in South Korea (Jung & Lee, 2018), challenges have persisted in producing accessible and affordable learning opportunities that are of sufficiently high quality to be part of traditional institutions (Lee & Lee, 2015). For example, students without an appropriate level of self-regulated learning skills have experienced difficulties with learning online due to a lack of social interactions and a low sense of social presence in their courses (Fanguy et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2019). The negative impact of these issues on students' learning experiences and motivation has been well-documented in the related literature (Lee & Choi, 2010). A number of previous studies that evaluated the readiness of teachers and students for the adoption of online education have also presented rather negative conclusions (Corry & Stella, 2018; Wingo et al., 2017). That is, there is a lack of adequate preparation for online education among multiple groups of educational stakeholders including teachers, parents, and students. In addition, there are many challenges to online learning, including the development of effective online learning materials that can match or surpass the quality of offline learning situations (Breslow et al., 2013). Nevertheless, the current COVID-19 outbreaks on a global scale have pushed schools and universities to quickly adopt online learning as an alternative to face-to-face teaching. Given the velocity of the shift to

online learning as a sudden contingency plan and the subsequent challenges experienced by many educators and students, it is important to take a close look at some of the successful examples of quick implementation of online learning in traditional education settings. To this end, a useful guidebook was recently produced by UNESCO on how to adapt education during the pandemic through examination of successful cases of online instruction in China (Huang et al., 2020), the first nation affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. Similar examination of how Korean educators successfully migrated their courses online seems warranted.

As South Korea was one of the first countries in the world to experience a widespread outbreak of COVID-19, it was one of the first to adapt its educational policies and practices in response. However, as the COVID-19 pandemic is still recent and ongoing at the time of writing, there have been few studies that have examined the experiences of educators in South Korea who were responsible for adapting their learning environments during this period. It is, therefore, useful to examine the early experiences of educators in this context who faced the prospect of creating and teaching courses online for the first time, as educators currently are facing this dilemma worldwide. Through identifying some shared characteristics of these positive scenarios and common challenges faced by the implementers, the present paper aims to provide useful recommendations and feedback to educators and educational administrators. The findings of the paper will be examined to further provide practical suggestions on how instructors and administrators can increase their preparedness for disasters like the coronavirus outbreak through the effective adoption of online teaching.

The Present Study: Research Context

On January 20, 2020, the first case of COVID-19 in South Korea was confirmed, with the second case occurring three days later (Korean Center for Disease Control, 2020). As the prevalence of the COVID-19 increased in early March of 2020, there was widespread panic among the population of Korea (Blatt, 2020). During an evolving pandemic, community contagion mitigation strategies such as social distancing are advocated in order to slow down virus transmission within educational settings and surrounding communities (Berkman, 2008; Qualls et al., 2017; Sadique et al., 2007; Weber & Stilianakis, 2008). Given that the

traditional classroom setting is a socially dense environment, cancelation of face-to-face classes is an advisable step when faced with a potential pandemic, necessitating that offline classes migrate to an online setting. Subsequently, the Korean government announced the nationwide closure of schools and universities, and a majority of education providers have elected to commence their semesters online rather than holding physical classes (Guilford et al., 2020; Park & Lee, 2020). South Korea seemed particularly well suited to handle this rapid and drastic change, as over the past few decades, South Korea has developed a strong e-learning infrastructure (Teo et al., 2020), having been ranked first among Asian nations in terms of ICT (ITU, 2017) and e-learning (UNESCO, 2011). However, a recent nationwide survey by the Association of Student Council Network indicated that 80% of Korean university students have concerns about the efficacy of substituting their offline classes with online delivery modes (Bahk, 2020). The results of the survey demonstrate the difficult challenge posed by this difficult and sudden migration to online courses during the pandemic; leading up to the Spring 2020 semester, there was substantial apprehension and doubt, even in a technically advanced nation with a strong history of technology-enhanced learning.

METHOD

To gain a deeper understanding of the quick online shift under the COVID-19 outbreaks and the subsequent concerns over the quality of online teaching, the present authors have embarked on a large-scale qualitative case study, investigating how the transition has happened in different educational contexts in Korea. As of the time of writing the present paper, a total of twelve teachers (including three administrators whose role is to lead a department or tutor team) have been invited to the project using a purposive critical sampling approach, in which a small number of cases are selected by researchers in order to reveal useful insights into other related cases (Creswell, 2014; Emmel, 2013). We purposely selected three cases from different EFL teaching contexts that are particularly helpful for us to construct a comprehensive understanding of EFL teachers who, as individuals and as a group, have transformed their practice in response to the challenges faced by the COVID-19 pandemic. The recruitment of participants continues using

snowball sampling strategies.

Following interpretive orientations towards case study, utilizing "naturalistic, holistic, ethnographic, phenomenological, and biographic research methods" (Stake, 1995, p. xi), qualitative data have been collected through conducting semi-structured interviews with the participant teachers. Participants have also been writing a short online diary entry each day to record and share their experiences of moving online. The ethics approval has been guaranteed by Lancaster University in the UK that oversees any ethical concerns that might emerge during the project period. It is important to note that the data presented in this paper are a selected summary of the authors' early findings drawn from a growing set of data. The research participants are still in the process of converting their classes into an online format and are in the early stages of teaching fully online after the outbreak. To provide a comprehensive outline of the fast evolving situation in Korea, the authors have chosen two teachers and one administrator from the twelve participants in different educational contexts. The selected participants' online educational experiences will be presented in the form of vignettes.

To increase the trustworthiness of our claims drawn from the three participants, we have shared the draft vignettes with the participants as a form of member-checking (Carlson, 2010; Creswell, 2014), and we have received more detailed accounts of their experiences and supporting evidence (e.g., screenshots).

Vignette 1: A Private Teacher's Perspective

Teacher X teaches supplementary English classes to Korean public school students in the evening after their regular school classes. The classes that Teacher X offers provide a way for students to improve their English abilities, specifically in reference to the Korean college entrance exam. These classes are generally small (only two or three students) and focus on the skills most commonly tested in Korea (grammar and reading). These classes are normally conducted in the instructor's home, with students coming and going according to their pre-arranged class schedules. While the students were given homework, this class previously had no online component. Although private English classes were not covered by the government mandate to desist with face-to-face meetings, concerns regarding students attending these classes were also prevalent among parents, students, and instructors. In this case, stakeholders were

in a situation whereby it would be better for all if classes were to continue, but meeting face-to-face carried some risk.

The teleconferencing program Zoom was chosen as it is easy to use and allows screen sharing with students and teachers being able to easily write over another's work in a shared document. Students were asked to download Zoom and, with some help from their parents and the instructor, were able to use it. Zoom allows the sharing of either the teacher's or the student's screen. The interface is easy to use, whereby students or the teacher can write over a shared screen PDF or a teacher's PowerPoint. For example, the teacher may share their screen containing a reading passage with cloze test items below it. The students can simply click on the "text" icon in Zoom, click on the place in the document they wish to, and write their answers. The teacher can follow a similar process to correct the student or give feedback. Students remained focused using the new technology, and the ability of the instructor to see the students easily through the shared video screen function helped her to keep them on task. It is worth noting that Teacher X's students were all 13 or older and that some of her peers who teach younger students reported that the students were too young to use the technology without a great deal of support, which rendered online teaching too difficult.

Teacher X reported that discipline was easier to manage as the students were physically separate from each other, so unfocused chatter was reduced. Some students had the issue of not having laptops with cameras, and this was solved by their parents rigging their desktop computer to share the screen and using their smartphone as a webcam. While Zoom is easy to use, troubleshooting issues like this require the help of the students' parents. It is worth noting that Teacher X's classes are English as a foreign language (EFL) and the shared screen along with typing matched well to the technology. This means online teaching may be easier to apply to certain subjects such as language teaching as opposed to other subjects as all that is required is a voice and typing function in general; for example, Teacher X reported that peers who taught private math lessons that require frequent writing of equations by hand found their lessons substantially impeded by the technology, as it requires all students to have a tablet. A possible workaround would be students first writing by hand and then uploading their work, though this would not be in real time and would limit the teacher's ability to correct the students as they go through an equation, for example.

Initially these classes were seen as a stop-gap measure, something

that was "better than nothing"; however, both the instructor and students found the classes to be better than offline classes in some ways. Specifically, as heavy users of the internet and smartphones, the students found that being able to type their answers was a more familiar means of communication. A number of students noted that being able to type increased both the length and clarity of their answers. Teacher X noted that typing also increased the participation rates of shy students in class discussions, a result that has been noted repeatedly in the research (Hirschhel, 2012; Shana, 2009). Furthermore, students' use of font colors made the work much easier to identify, check, correct, and give feedback to, as shown in Figure 1. Students and instructors are able to choose their colors for typing into a document (e.g., green for student A, red for student B, and purple for the teacher). This allows for an easy-to-read document that the students and the teacher find easier to comprehend. Despite the challenges in setting up the lessons, the online classes have been a success overall, and there are plans to continue with some online lessons after the COVID-19 outbreak has subsided. Make-up classes are often run on the weekend, and in discussion with parents and students, it was decided that these make-up classes would be online in the future. Furthermore, Teacher X has recently enrolled her first online student. This student and Teacher X have never met face-to-face, with

FIGURE 1. Teacher X's Live Online Video Lecture
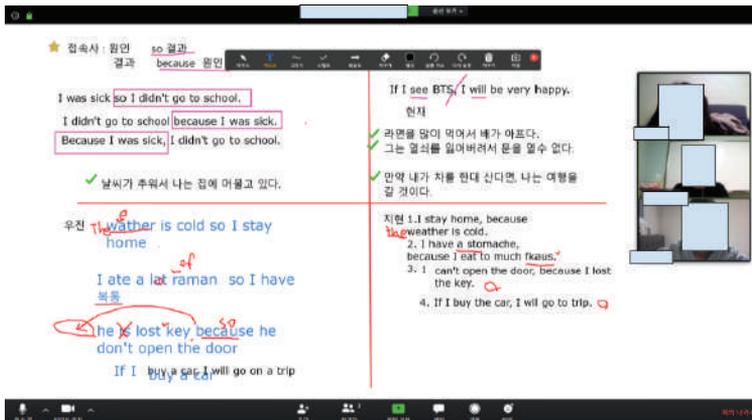
Note. Boxes and underlining in upper-left and upper-right quadrants are in violet, and checkmarks are in green. Larger font size in lower-left quadrant is in sky blue, and handwritten marks in lower-left and lower-right quadrants are in red.

the student living in another city. Teacher X and this student have resolved to continue to study together online regardless of the progress of COVID-19.

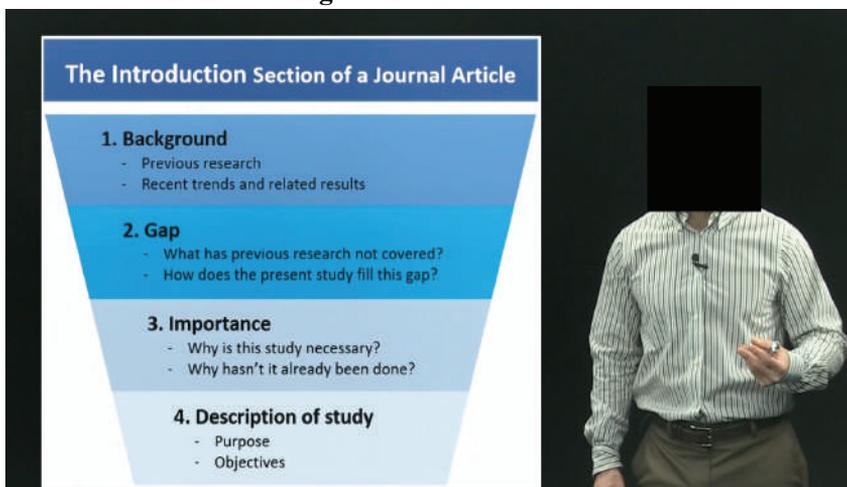## Vignette 2: University Teacher's Perspective

Teacher Y leads a graduate Scientific Writing course at a university in South Korea. In order to provide greater access to graduate students, Teacher Y's course is offered in a flipped format. Instead of presenting live lectures to a smaller number of students using Zoom, as was the case in Teacher X's private class, pre-class lectures in Teacher Y's flipped Scientific Writing class are presented asynchronously in the form of online videos (see Figure 2) so that students can watch them before the once-weekly, face-to-face class meeting. On February 27, 2020, just two and a half weeks before the start of the new semester, the provost of Teacher Y's university sent an email informing the faculty members and students of the government's decision to move all course instruction online and that teachers could do so by using teleconferencing software such as Zoom and/or by creating prerecorded online video lectures. On March 3, the university administration provided all teachers with a manual for creating and delivering online courses. The university also provided a license for Zoom teleconferencing software so that live lectures could be given online.

As faculty at the university where Teacher Y is employed had varying degrees of familiarity with blended and online instruction, there were a variety of reactions to the government's decision to move all courses to an online format. Those who had previous experience delivering online and flipped instruction felt more comfortable with the change, while those who had never delivered instruction online felt that the change was too sudden and difficult. One difficulty often mentioned was the need to learn how to use new software, such as Zoom. Many professors felt intimidated by the new software and instead elected to try prerecording audio lectures using software they were more familiar with, namely Microsoft PowerPoint. By narrating a lecture with a timed slide presentation, these professors could create online lectures in a relatively short amount of time. While this method of creating course materials is quite efficient and easy to learn for novice creators of online content, there are some issues to consider. One such consideration is that narrated presentations made in this manner do not show the instructor's face.

Prior research has shown that video lectures that show the instructor provide learners with important social cues and emphasis through the instructor's use of body language and gestures (Fanguy et al., 2017; Fanguy et al., 2019; Kizilcec et al., 2014).

Although Teacher Y had never taught a fully online credit course, he felt relatively well prepared to manage this top-down directive to suddenly change the instructional style of his course due to his experience with teaching flipped courses. While teachers offering their courses only in traditional formats would have to entirely change the mode of instruction from offline to online, Teacher Y felt that his adaptation of a flipped course into a fully online course would be somewhat easier. Teacher Y's production of the course videos took place before the onset of the epidemic, so that he was able to provide any further supplemental videos that were needed without the need to rush. As shown in Figure 2, the quality was considerably higher than the quick and easy "narrated slideshow" videos described earlier and utilized by some faculty members of the university. Teacher Y's face and hands are clearly visible to the students to provide emphasis and social cues during the lecture. Since his course was already a relatively even blend of online and offline instruction, it was only necessary to adapt the group and peer writing activities that were traditionally done during the face-to-face component of his course. Teacher Y decided to have students complete these activities in Google Docs shared with him and the fellow group members. In this way, he could monitor and provide assistance to students working in groups while maintaining the collaborative atmosphere of the course.

FIGURE 2. Screenshot of an Online Lecture Video in Teacher Y's Flipped Scientific Writing Course

Note. Teacher Y's face was visible in the actual online lecture videos of the course.

Vignette 3: University Administrator's Perspective

Dr. Z is the chair of a large academic department at a university in South Korea whose department will move approximately 80 courses from offline to online due to the outbreak of COVID-19. The preceding vignettes highlighted implications of this response for teachers who are responsible for the delivery of the newly required online courses, while this section focuses on issues associated with the management of this mass transition from offline to online instruction. During a crisis such as the COVID-19 outbreak, university administrators such as Dr. Z are responsible for the institution's state of preparedness and to remedy deficiencies in this preparedness once a response to a crisis has been initiated. In regard to the transitioning of offline courses to online modes, Dr. Z has two primary concerns: the existence of the required technology infrastructure and the preparedness of the teachers to be able to effectively utilize this infrastructure. With regard to the former, given the widespread utilization of online courses in Korea, including at his own institution, he presumes Korean universities have an adequate technology infrastructure to facilitate the rapid deployment of courses to an online format. In regard to the latter, Dr. Z envisages the human component as likely to be the bottleneck in the effectiveness of this

transition to online teaching.

Dr. Z is aware of the gap in general between the existence of technology and the human acceptance and adoption of that technology (Chau, 1996; Chau & Hu, 2001; Surendran, 2012), and Dr. Z has observed this gap to vary greatly amongst his faculty. Although online delivery has increasingly been adopted by a number of his faculty, the traditional classroom setting remains the dominant teaching method used in his department. Consequently, Dr. Z has to manage a proportion of faculty through this crisis who have no or limited experience with any form of online course delivery. Due to variance in the levels of preparedness, Dr. Z foresees that he will not be able to apply a homogeneous strategy to ensure faculty readiness for online courses. Although ideally Dr. Z would have put in place proactive training for online course development and delivery prior to the crisis, in the present rapidly developing crisis, he is aware that more reactive training and support interventions will be required.

A compounding issue for Dr. Z in facilitating the faculty's transition to online delivery was that during a pandemic, students cannot gather and interact in a classroom. As a result, faculty would be unable to attend physical courses to assist them in the transition to online delivery. In addition, as faculty also telecommuted from off campus during this period, peer knowledge sharing related to online delivery between faculty members was also impeded. Thus, he implemented alternative measures to address relevant faculty skill gaps, including adequate online instructional resources, appropriate communication channels, and appropriately staffed call centers able to assist faculty with issues related to their transition to online course delivery. To support these initiatives, Dr. Z enlisted the support of faculty members experienced in online education to mentor less experienced faculty through the transition to online course delivery.

In order to effectively facilitate this transition, Dr. Z was required to acknowledge a variance in faculty preparedness for online course delivery. In recognition of this variance, three potential modes of online delivery coupled with appropriate assessments were advised: Mode-1, live-streamed, interactive lectures via Zoom (preferred); Mode-2, prerecorded lectures available online with integrated PPT via LearningX (the university's online learning management platform); and Mode-3, online self-study utilizing secondary resources, that is, publicly available online content generated by other providers (least preferred). The prescribed hierarchy

of delivery mode preference is based on the premise that a live interactive delivery mode will more closely replicate the learning dynamic of an offline class, whereas the provision of static learning resources online will provide a relatively poor substitute for face-to-face classroom interaction. Dr. Z accepted that a lack of standardization between courses might be problematic but also understood that due to the time constraints, this was an effective means for faculty to provide quick online content to students.

As aforementioned, Dr. Z faced an additional issue when seeking to facilitate his faculty's transition to online delivery, as faculty would be telecommuting to work during this period in order to comply with social distancing directives. Thus, Dr. Z was concerned regarding the limitations this lack of physical presence imposes, for instance he was aware that an integral part of an effective telecommuting program is the ability to access and provide feedback on the performance of off-site employees. Hence, at minimum, he required a mechanism to ensure online courses were being delivered appropriately by faculty in order to be able to provide feedback and corrective actions as required. The university guidance was that faculty should utilize the university's online learning platform, LearningX, allowing for enrolled students and faculty accounts to be linked automatically whilst providing functionality and consequently a degree of transparency to university administrators. However, some faculty were unfamiliar with this platform and had previously utilized alternative online channels for their classes (e.g., Facebook Groups, Google Classrooms, or email). Hence, they were resistant to move to the university-prescribed channel for their online courses, thus providing Dr. Z with no real-time means to monitor online delivery and provide feedback. Therefore, Dr. Z mandated that these alternative online channels had to be used in tandem with the university learning platform; for example, the links to external content should be provided though the university channel and core interactions with students conducted via this platform. Doing so was helpful in reducing the complexity and burden of learning on several platforms simultaneously for both students and teachers in an already anxious context. For an administrator, finding the balance between flexibility and standardization is a key consideration in the successful transition from traditional to fully online instruction.

DISCUSSION

The array of technological tools available to educators is ever widening (Castañeda & Selwyn, 2018). Learning management systems, such as Google Classrooms, provide excellent platforms to connect with students online free of charge. Free software, such as Zoom and Skype, allows for synchronous communication with students, while video editing software, such as Camtasia, allows teachers to provide students with online lecture videos. Online word processors, such as Google Docs and Microsoft OneNote, provide spaces for students to write collaboratively online, both synchronously and asynchronously. While the availability of such tools can be a great boon to educators, online teaching requires more than simply learning and using tools. Despite the time pressure of the prompt shift in their instructional format, the three participants in this study have been able to manage the shift more smoothly than would normally be expected. Table 1 highlights the primary changes made by each of the three participants and the motivations for implementing them. There are three themes emerging from the observations of these three vignettes.

The first is that it is likely easier for teachers to move from a blended to a fully online course rather than starting from a fully face-to-face format. Particularly in such a pandemic situation, to properly but rapidly select technological tools, teachers need to have some previous experience using those tools, not necessarily for pedagogical purposes but at least for social purposes (e.g., using Skype to talk to family abroad). That is, a basic level of familiarity with one or more online teaching tools is a shared condition among the actors for their successful online transition. This can also be explained by the notion of teachers' self-efficacy (Holzberger et al., 2013; Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Klassen & Tze, 2014; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007) − teachers' belief about their ability to carry out a particular course of action successfully. Considering this, teachers would be well advised to include at least one online learning component in their courses.

Tᴀʙʟᴇ **1. Overview of Instructors' Online Adaptions in Response to the COVID-19 Outbreak**

Case	Context	Status Quo	Adaptation Due to COVID-19	Reason
Teacher X	Private English class taught at home	Face-to-face class meetings with no online component	Fully online classes presented via Zoom	Teacher X and parents decided this solution was acceptable given the risk of viral transmission.
Teacher Y	Scientific Writing class presented in flipped format at a university	Online lecture videos viewed asynchronously	N/A	Government and university directives forced all classes to be given online. Lecture videos were already made for the flipped version of the course and were available for use in the online course.
	Scientific Writing class presented in flipped format at a university	Face-to-face collaborative group writing	Collaborative group assignments completed by students via Google Docs	Teacher Y wanted to maintain collaborative aspects of the course because online learning can be isolating for students.
Dr. Z	University department	Face-to-face course delivery with supplemental online resources such as PPT files	Three options of instructional delivery offered to teachers: **Mode-1:** Online classes delivered via Zoom in real time followed by online assessment via LeaningX **Mode-2:** Video lectures with integrated PPT, downloadable via LearningX and	Mode-1 is the mode advised by the university and encouraged by Dr. Z to faculty, as this model most closely replicated face-to-face class delivery. However, Dr. Z understands that this mode may be difficult to implement for some faculty and for large classes. Thus, Mode-2 and Mode-3

followed by online assessment via LearningX **Mode-3:** Learning resources made accessible online, coupled with an online assessment via mixed online channels.	were in order of preference and were offered as alternatives.

The second theme is that all three vignettes focus on enabling and facilitating online communication and interaction between teachers and students. That is, the participants in this study have not approached online learning as teacher-centered, mono-directional lecturing. The private English teacher, Teacher X, encouraged students to write (type) answers and ask questions during Zoom lessons; the university teacher, Teacher Y, enabled students to engage with collaborative writing tasks on Google Docs; and the university administrator, Dr. Z, organized mentoring exercises between experienced and novice online teachers while providing faculty members with multiple online communication channels. Such technology-enhanced/-mediated communication experiences can positively impact faculty members' online teaching ability as well as self-efficacy (Gilakjani, 2013; Koh & Frick, 2009; van Dinther et al., 2011).

The third theme from the vignettes of Teacher Y and Dr. Z is that in large educational institutions such as universities, the burden of ensuring proficiency in online teaching should not fall in its entirety on course teachers, as educational administrators also bear a responsibility in enhancing preparedness for the transition to online teaching in the event of a crisis. Even in non-crisis times, inexperienced instructors are often charged with migrating their offline courses to online formats (Cicco, 2013; McQuiggan, 2012). Prior research has shown that preparing instructors for online teaching for the first time is crucial in creating effective courses and in enabling students to succeed in these environments (Baran & Correia, 2014; Cicco, 2013). This may take the form at an institutional level of mandating that a percentage of all offline courses are delivered online at all times and, as has been suggested in prior research, providing adequate support and incentives for developing

such components (Hoyt & Oviatt, 2013; Kebritchi et al., 2017). At a departmental level, teaching and administrative workloads may need to be reallocated to better recognize the time required for developing online courses, as prior research suggests that instructors may prefer a decreased workload to monetary incentives when developing online courses (Herman, 2013; Parker, 2003). As mass cancellation of classes due to pandemics or other unforeseen events, such as natural disasters, may recur in the future, contingencies including a transition to online course delivery should be integrated proactively into an education provider's crisis management planning. This planning may require designated faculty members on a university and departmental level and/or a committee to be responsible for enhancing preparedness for large-scale online course delivery and to act as a focal point for managing this transition to online delivery during a crisis when attending physical classes is neither a feasible nor prudent course of action for educational providers.

CONCLUSIONS

The findings stress the importance of the wider adoption of online learning in non-emergency circumstances, meaning that at least some components of instruction should be provided online in traditional face-to-face courses. Doing so is advisable for two reasons. The first is that when contents are provided online, particularly asynchronously, this can increase students' opportunity to access the materials. Online videos, online lecture notes, and online quizzes provide students with access to meaningful learning resources that they can access at their convenience. Particularly when learners have other social obligations, such as work or family, online components in traditional classrooms can be a valuable tool. The second reason for including online activities is that doing so may be an appropriate precaution for disasters. By including online elements into traditional courses, teachers will have more opportunities to use and become proficient with learning technologies and in turn will be able to help familiarize students with online learning. Doing so will better prepare students for the changes that may be necessary during the occurrence of disasters, including global pandemics like the COVID-19 outbreak.

While the present study offers a useful opportunity to examine how

online instruction was implemented in South Korea, one of the first nations affected by the COVID-19 pandemic, there are a number of limitations that must be considered. The three contexts that were examined were all quite different from one another. Specifically, one context deals with the after-school instruction of young learners, while the second and third cases deal with higher education contexts. Moreover, the first two cases relate stories of how teachers implemented online instruction, but the third case relates more to teacher training and department-level management. Such differences offer a wide-ranging perspective on the adaptations taking place in learning contexts in South Korea but also limit the number of specific conclusions that can be drawn from them. Nevertheless, it is hoped that this paper has provided useful and generalizable examples of how educators can adapt their instruction to an online format during crisis situations, such as the COVID-19 pandemic.

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Online Versus Remote Learning: Past, Present, and Potential Future

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From Caleb Phillips' shorthand postcards of 1728 to phonographs, radio, television, intranets, and the internet, distance education and online education have a long history. However, sometimes the technology outpaced the methodology or the methodology just could not be successfully adapted to the technology that was available. Nevertheless, the appeal of online education for a relatively small groups of users has given way to the necessity for remote education or learning during the COVID-19 pandemic. The target audience has become nearly all university and college students and, thus, there is a need to adapt or create a suitable model that meets the needs of both students and faculty for 2020−2021 and beyond. From flipped classrooms to blended learning and flex or hybrid models, there are a number of viable options, but the best will successfully balance educator and student needs while incorporating as much of the traditional classroom experience as possible into a primarily online classroom.

Keywords: online education, distance education, remote education, university, technology, history, models

INTRODUCTION

In the necessary reading done in order to create online classes that cover the essential skills of their offline counterparts, there seems to be some confusion about the distinctions between the terms *online learning/education* and *remote learning*. According to Geneva College's website (2020), online education happens online, uses video lectures or self-paced courses, and may help towards certification or a degree. Others are intended for adult learners who want to update or gain a new skill (para. 3). However, remote learning strives to re-create the classroom

environment utilizing the computer to view lectures or participate in group learning activities (para. 8). Due to the coronavirus, remote emergency learning by universities involves students sitting at home watching lectures by faculty who are still expected to teach at the normal times (paras. 8–9).

While there are numerous issues to be addressed related to educating students during the COVID-19 pandemic, this paper will discuss briefly the history and evolution of these two terms, their applications to creating meaningful classes and learning experiences for our students through technological advances, and the implications for the next phase of remote (online) learning and whether it truly can replicate the classroom experience as the tools rapidly evolve.

THE PAST

The first recognized attempt at education through correspondence appeared on March 20, 1728, with an ad in the *Boston Gazette* placed by Caleb Phillips providing lessons in shorthand for any "Person in the Country desirous to Learn this Art, may be having several Lessons sent Weekly to them, be as perfectly as those that live in Boston" (Philipps, 1728, as cited in Kentnor, 2015, p. 23).

Isaac Pitman pioneered distance education for the same subject as Phillips by using postcards with transcriptions of Bible passages in shorthand in Bath, England, in the 1840s (Kentnor, 2015, p. 23). By 1843, the Phonographic Correspondence Society was founded as a predecessor to Sir Isaac Pitman's Correspondence College. In 1858, the University of London became the first university to offer distance learning degrees. According to their website (2020), they are the birthplace of long-distance learning, allowing students to study for degrees outside of London and around the world. They introduced university subjects, including modern languages and laboratory science, and were the first to give external students the opportunity to continue to earn a living while studying without coming to London (para. 4–5).

By 1873, Anna Eliot Ticknor founded the Society to Encourage Studies at Home in Boston, Massachusetts. Within a year, Wesleyan College was the first academic institution to offer degrees "in absentia" (Emmerson, 2004, as cited in Kentnor, 2015, p. 23). Starting in the mid-1800s, Oxford and Cambridge offered home-study correspondence

courses. In 1883, a Correspondence University was established in Ithaca, New York. Almost simultaneously, William Rainey Harper developed the Correspondence School, but the United Kingdom's Open University, which was the world's first university to teach only at a distance, perhaps holds the distinction of being the first true institute of higher education to foreshadow what is increasingly being done today (Fine, 2016). Finally, in 1892, the term "distance education" was first used in a pamphlet from the University of Wisconsin-Madison in the USA (Ferrer, 2019).

By 1906, the same university was sending course materials and lectures on phonograph records to distance learners, embracing new technology as a means of providing distance education. In 1922, the Pennsylvania State University was the first college or university to broadcast courses over the radio, increasing the speed and efficiency of contact between distance learners and course content, and the University of Iowa began offering course credit for five different radio correspondence courses in 1925 (Ferrer, 2019).

John Logie Baird invented the first television, called "the televisor," in England in 1928 (Staufenberg, 2016). On December 30, 1930, the National Committee on Education by Radio (NCER) was formed in the United States

> to protect radio for educational broadcasting by promoting and coordinating experimental use of radio in school and adult education, by maintaining a Service Bureau to help procure licenses, to share information through weekly bulletins, promoting research in education by radio, and as a research clearinghouse. (National Committee on Education by Radio, 1931, p. 1)

By 1934, the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) was formed. Under the influence of the Association of College and University Broadcasting, they helped to keep frequencies open for collegiate broadcasting (Ferrer, 2019).

During the early 1940s, both the German Z3 and the allies Colossus were built as programmable digital computers for code breaking during World War II, but since much of this technology was used for covert operations and purposes, it was destroyed (Ferrer, 2019). Meanwhile, television was finally making a place for itself as an educational platform by the 1950s when WOI-TV of Iowa State University went on

the air with the first non-experimental, educationally owned television station (1950) and the University of Houston began offering course credit for television correspondence courses in 1953 (Ferrer, 2019).

Television broadcasting for educational purposes was slow to catch on and evolve. Even though technology and the use of video as a teaching medium continued to develop, there were still many barriers in using television for distance education. In 1948, the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) imposed a moratorium on the awarding of new television licenses to address problems of conflict and distribution resulting from the flood of applications for licenses (Kentnor, 2015).

By 1950, educational institutions had begun to recognize the potential of television as a medium for teaching and learning, but they were "not organized as a unified educational body" and were unable to influence the FCC's decision regarding educational television frequencies (Koenig & Hill, 1967, p. 5). Finally, in 1952, the FCC answered the educators' requests to reserve television channels for the exclusive use of education in the *Sixth Report and Order* (Federal Communications Commission, 1952). Pursuant to the report, a total of 242 channels were reserved initially, with 632 channels reserved by 1966 (p. 27). In the late 1960s and 1970s, distance education television courses were poorly produced, and few watched them. They normally involved the instructor reading notes. But in the mid to late 1970s, the BBC set standards for American television course developers. Simultaneously, computers for delivering education were catching on, but educators were slow to accept them, as they had been for previous technologies (Kentnor, 2015, pp. 27 −28).

The evolution of the internet started in 1958 when the Advanced Research Projects Agency (ARPA) was created by the U.S. government in response to Russia's Sputnik space program. The ARPA would later play a major role in establishing the groundwork for the internet (Ferrer, 2019). In the absence of the yet-to-be-imagined internet created by the Department of Defense in 1969 and called ARPANET, the University of Illinois created an intranet for its students in 1960. It was a system of linked computer terminals where students could access course materials and listen to recorded lectures (Tom, 2017). Even more significant was the development of

> PLATO (Programmed Logic for Automatic Teaching Operations) as the first computer-assisted instruction system. Begun in the early

1970s, it had over 1000 global terminals. Built by the University of Illinois, and running for 40 years, elementary through university coursework was provided to UIUC students, local schools, and universities. *PLATO pioneered key concepts such as online forums and message boards*, *online testing*, *email*, *chat rooms*, *picture languages*, *instant messaging*, *remote screen sharing*, *and multi-player online educational games* [emphasis added]. (Culatta, 2011, para. 1)

From 1970 to 1972, the Coordinating Commission for Higher Education in California funded Project Outreach to study the potential of telecourses. The study included the University of California, California State University, and the community colleges. According to the Project Outreach proposal (1973) by the California State Coordinating Council for Higher Education, Sacramento they

aimed to offer educational opportunities to a large segment of the community without access to continuing education, community service programs, or course work for college credit. Through televised programming, correspondence materials, individual tutoring, study center-based activity, and counseling, the plan enabled educators to offer such education. (p. 2)

This study led to coordinated instructional systems legislation allowing for the use of public funds to support non-classroom instruction and opened up a means for the emergence of telecourses as the precursor to the online courses and programs of today. The Coastline Community Colleges, the Dallas County Community College District, and Miami Dade Community College were the leaders in this endeavor. The Adult Learning Service of the U.S. Public Broadcasting Service came into being and the "wrapped" series, as well as individually produced telecourses for credit, became a significant part of the history of distance education and online learning. According to Walther (1981, p. 62), the

Public Broadcasting Service converted living rooms into classrooms for those stuck at home or studying part-time around their jobs. Nine courses were offered on 208 TV stations by universities and colleges who provided support and study materials; *students had to visit the campus at least three times for examinations and review of their progress* [emphasis added].

The increasingly ubiquitous nature of computers and the internet makes it a bit difficult for the modern-day student or teacher to understand why they have been so slow in finding their way into the typical classroom, never mind as an online or distance learning platform per se. By 1984, the Electronic University Network (EUN) was a leader in online education. It created an online educational network that would be highly accessible and attracted the attention of several large universities. As many as 1700 universities offered credit and degrees for courses taken through EUN. Again, the target audience were those not traditionally best served by colleges and universities (Etherington, 2018).

That same year, the University of Toronto offered the first fully online course for credit entitled "Women and Computers in Education" through its Graduate School of Education (previously the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education; Harasim, 2016). By 1994, access to the internet was truly taking off with companies like America Online (AOL), Delphi, and CompuServe among other local internet providers connecting desktop computers to the World Wide Web. The increasing number of such users allowed the small, offline adult learning center known as the Computer Assisted Language Center (CALC) to transform into the CAL Campus offering the first truly "online" courses involving real-time instruction and interaction over the internet (Tom, 2017).

In Barcelona, Spain that same year, the first new and entirely online university, the Open University of Catalonia, was founded. In 1997, two innovations occurred that would have far-reaching impacts on the evolution of online education. The first was the founding of the California Virtual University (CVU) as an online clearinghouse for students, providing information about online course offerings available from accredited colleges and universities in California. Despite folding after only two years, it inspired numerous others to offer similar services (Tom, 2017). Second, the *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks* was founded by the Sloan Consortium as a peer-reviewed publication focusing solely on online education (Tom, 2017). In 1999, Jones International University was launched as the first fully online university accredited by a regional accrediting association in the U.S.

In the early 2000s, the Open Education Resources (OER) movement was born in the United States. While others may have been involved earlier on in a less visible way, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) is cited as the pioneer of making courses available on the internet (Rollins, 2018). In 2002, MIT's Open Courseware Project

started offering lectures and online materials virtually free of charge to anyone with online access with the goal of offering all of MIT's courses online. While the legal issues of intellectual property rights did slow the project down, the Creative Commons License system allowed the program to offer over 2000 graduate and undergraduate courses by 2010 and reached 2400 courses and 500 million visitors by January 2020.

With regard to Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs), Rollins (2018) writes that the first MOOCs began in 2008 with online courses at a number of North American universities. Course content involved numerous online forums and tools with some students even discussing course material via the Second Life virtual world. By 2011, Google got involved with a course on AI that had 160,000 students and lead to familiar names like Coursera, Udacity, and EdX. Rollins goes on to say that MOOCs are available online, often free of charge, and provided by recognizable institutions. They meet the following four characteristics: They leverage web formats, are collaborative, contain evaluation modules, and are limited in time and utilize the various online tools together.

The Present

From postcards to radio to TV and the internet, the evolution of remote education has been clear but also perhaps slower than it should have been at times. Whether through FCC restrictions, intellectual property issues, or simple fear of something new and unknown, true online and remote education has been more of an alternative to traditional education than a mainstay, and perhaps with good reason when the majority of institutions of higher learning are predominantly brick and mortar. Empty classrooms and underemployed faculty and staff are not conducive to solid finances, and the COVID-19 situation has only made these issues more urgent and serious than they might have been otherwise.

During 2019 and 2020, higher education faces a crisis, but it also faces an opportunity. Dennis (2020) stated that "forecasts for the long-term implications of COVID-19 range from a five-year disruption to one of six month ... [and] anywhere from a 15% to 25% decline in enrolment" (paras. 7 & 12).

A 2019 survey of 1,500 online student respondents showed that the

top reasons why students choose online programs included the affordability of the course, the reputation of the school/program, and how a program offers the quickest path to acquiring a degree. As for the providers and faculty members, the top reasons they consider when offering a new online program include employment, demand for specific skills, and demand from students (Duffin, 2020). Inside Higher Ed's 2019 survey of faculty attitudes on technology, discussed in Lederman (2019), found that when asked about their comfort level with educational technology, 86% of digital learning leaders said they fully support it. Those opposed to the use of academic technology do so for a variety of reasons, including "instruction delivered without using technology most effectively serves my students" (65%), "there is too much corporate influence" (47%), "I don't believe the benefits to students justify the costs associated with adoption" (41%), and "faculty lose too much control over the course when they use technology" (35%), (para. 36).

Furthermore, school administrators from public and private institutions report that online education programs mostly target adult students who hope to return to school after an absence as well as transfer students (Duffin, 2020). Obviously, the target audiences must be reconsidered at this time, as the online classes may be the only way for colleges and universities to stay viable and competitive for the foreseeable future. McFall-Johnson (2020) reports that all undergraduate courses at Harvard University will be delivered online through the spring of 2021 and that they will allow up to 40 percent of the students to live on campus in the autumn if they agree to get tested for the coronavirus every three days. However, just 8% of colleges are taking the online approach according to *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. "*Most schools − 60% − are planning for in-person classes, while others are considering a hybrid approach, with some classes online and some in-person, or with blended classes*" [emphasis added] (para. 6).

THE FUTURE

The answer to the future of higher education is a mixture of remote and online education incorporating at least some aspects of the prevalent models, it would seem. Building on the successes of blended learning, for example, and moving through the flipped classroom to a flex or hybrid approach offer the best opportunities for success. To quickly

summarize the various educational models used up until the present, Caner (2012) offers the descriptions in Table 1.

TABLE 1. Classifications of Blended Learning Proportion of Content Delivered Online, Type of Course, and Typical Description

Content Delivered Online (%)	Course Type	Description
0	Traditional	Course with no online technology used. Content delivered in writing or orally.
1 to 29	Web-Facilitated	Course with web-based technology to facilitate what is essentially a face-to-face course. Uses a course management system (CMS) or web pages to post the syllabus and assignments, for example.
30 to 79	Blended	Course that blends online and face-to-face delivery. Substantial proportion of the content is delivered online, typically uses online discussions, and typically has some face-to-face meetings.
80+	Online	Course in which most or all of the content is delivered online. Typically has no face-to-face meetings.

Adapted from Caner, 2012, p. 27.

As can be seen in Table 1, in moving from traditional (0%) to online (80+%) education, there is less and less face-to-face interaction time between students and educators. This means that the face-to-face time has to be replaced by synchronous online interactions or that the actual face-to-face time has to be of the highest quality to ensure that truly meaningful education is occurring both online and off. The blended learning models discussed below offer some different ways of accomplishing this. Prasad (2020) offers four core blended-learning models (see Table 2).

TABLE 2. The Four Core Models of Blended Learning

1. Rotation Model	2. Flex Model	3. Enriched Virtual Model	4. À La Carte Model
The training program uses different learning modalities, one of which is online learning. Learners are required to follow a fixed schedule that alternates between different training methods such as classroom training, e-learning, and even collaborative group activities and discussions.	Unlike the rotation model, online training is the main component in the flex blended learning model. It also includes a certain amount of group instruction in the form of group activities, group projects, or individual tutoring by an instructor. The flex model offers a customized training schedule, unlike the rotation model, which follows a fixed schedule.	In this blended learning model, learners primarily learn online with a mandatory face-to-face component included. This could happen in a brick-and-mortar classroom or through virtual instructor-led training (VILT). *Courses are primarily completed online with only intermittent face-to-face interactions* [emphasis added].	In the à la carte blended learning model, learners complete part of the training through traditional classroom training, which is then supplemented by online training. *A major part of the training is completed through instructor-led training (ILT), supplemented by online resources* [emphasis added].

Within blended learning, there are a number of models based on the four models in Table 1, but the flipped classroom and hybrid models are probably the most promising. The flipped classroom is subsumed under the rotation model by Prasad (2020) and is described as

> a reverse (flip) of traditional classroom training where learners go through online training before they come to the classroom. This equips learners with the prerequisites for classroom training and familiarizes them with the needed concepts. The classroom is then used to deliver in-depth learning or facilitate learners to apply their knowledge. (para. 6)

While most of these models look promising, the rotation model is the most "traditional," and the flipped classroom is perhaps closest to what many had in mind for the utility and future of online education before COVID-19 came along. Nevertheless, the enriched and à la carte models come much closer to what educators are in need of − keeping the italicized points in mind. Many colleges and universities are using

blended learning models as the "best" approaches to dealing with the realities of the COVID-19 pandemic and its impact on higher education, but the obvious problem here is that every iteration of blended learning involves some form of brick and mortar, face-to-face option which − while preferable in theory − may not be practical or advisable when COVID-19 is still spreading, and no vaccine or other remedy is available.

The final model that comes to mind is the hybrid or flex model, but there appears to be some confusion about whether this is actually a different model from blended learning and how they differ. According to the Pennsylvania State University (2019) website, a "hybrid approach to course delivery combines face-to-face classroom instruction with online activities. This approach reduces the amount of seat time in a traditional face-to-face course and moves more of the course delivery online." ... "Hybrid learning, also referred to as blended learning..., may have varying definitions ... [such] that the percentage of classroom [contact may be] essential [or] not" (para. 1 & 2).

Finally, in terms of models, the needs of university administrators, faculty, and students can be best met by one or a combination of both the blended (or hybrid) course options and the fully online course option. In this vein, Sener (2015), echoing Caner (2012) for the most part, describes blended (a.k.a. hybrid) online courses as "most course activity is done online, but there are some required face-to-face instructional activities, such as lectures, discussions, labs, or other in-person learning activities (para. 12). Sener describes online courses as "all course activity is done online; there are no required face-to-face sessions within the course and no requirements for on-campus activity (para. 14 & 15).

CONCLUSIONS

While it could be argued that it has been the educators that have slowed the evolution of education and educational technologies, as appeared to happen with television in the 1960s and 1970s, it appears to more often be more a case of the technology and methodology not keeping up with each other. As an example, the EUN experience was less than seamless in the 1980s when, as Etherington (2018) notes,

this early online learning network was plagued by a few bugs. One user enrolled in three courses and reported that a few features of the

system remained onerous. In one case, the author noted that it took four days for a message to reach their instructor. Another complaint was the inability to compose an essay using a word-processing program and transfer it to the system's built-in text editor. (para. 4)

Nevertheless, the current educational environment, under pressure from the COVID-19 pandemic and its effects, make this effort a necessity rather than an option. A few conclusions will be offered here that seem inevitable based on the overview of the past and present circumstances of remote and online education offered in the above sections of this paper.

Firstly, the blended (or hybrid) learning models appear to offer well-researched and grounded approaches to allow for a flexible combination of online and offline interactions for faculty and students to ensure that everyone's needs can be met. The hybrid online and the fully online course models mentioned in the previous section, or some combination thereof, offer the best approaches for educators' current needs. As Caner's (2012) ideas summarized in Table 1 show, there is a graded progression or continuum of balance between offline and online content from traditional to online education that never quite reaches 100% online (but certainly could as implied by the "80+%" next to online education).

Secondly, if the offline component of higher education classes must be avoided due to health, safety, or other concerns, technology now offers other options for classes to be conducted online, including Zoom Meetings, Microsoft Teams, and Google Meet. As the Sevilla (2020) comparison of all of the available options suggests, while Zoom Meetings is superior in many ways, Google Meet is also well worth considering as an option in terms of price; ease of set up; and use, features, and functionality.

Thirdly, training will be required for those faculty and students who are less familiar with the technologies available and how best to use them to conduct quality online classes. It is unreasonable to assume that students are fully capable of making the most of learning technologies or that older faculty in particular can seamlessly transition to fully online or remote class models. Expecting them to provide the equipment and continue to learn on the job with little or no support from IT or other departments − not to mention footing the bill for paid versions of the services and tools mentioned in the previous section, when free or basic

memberships are not adequate − is also a lot to ask on top of all the usual tasks of grading, lesson design, course creation, and communicating regularly with students.

Fourthly, the distinction must be made between simply moving classes online or conducting them remotely and the emergency remote education that had to be created during the spring 2020 term and continues to be in effect for the fall 2020 term. Writing early in the pandemic, Hodges et al. (2020) describes this distinction:

> Online learning is supposedly lower quality than face-to-face learning, despite research showing otherwise. These hurried moves online by so many institutions could seal the perception of online learning as a weak option, when in truth nobody making the transition to online teaching under these circumstances will take full advantage of the possibilities of the online format. (para. 4)

> [E]mergency remote teaching (ERT) *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* [emphasis added]. (para. 13)

Faculty and students are still recovering from the uncertainty that the pandemic has brought with it, and a few weeks or months of vacation are unlikely to allow them to fully recover or prepare, especially since some institutions have yet to fully commit to online or remote classes. Even those that have done so may reverse their decisions once the situation changes for better or worse.

Fifthly, the days when online education was simply a means for those unable to attend regular college or university classes due to work, family, or other commitments are over. Education has been forced to take cyber universities and online educational options more seriously and explore how best to incorporate them into a "normal" education at all levels. It can no longer be viewed as a lesser alternative or simply aimed at a small group of potential users. It needs to be treated and viewed as a valid and meaningful component of and tool for meeting the needs of students, instructors, faculty, and other stakeholders for the present and future. In order to achieve this goal, faculties need support and professional training to achieve this transition successfully. They are most likely to embrace this if their preferred tools and approaches are

the ones being utilized and supported by institutions of higher education and those who make short- and long-term decisions about curriculum, incentives, course design requirements, and the panacea of other choices that are often out of faculty and students' hands (see Nilson & Goodson, 2018, chapter 8 for more details on this).

Sixthly, no matter what happens in 2021 and beyond, higher education is not going back to the pre-COVID-19 "normal" any time soon or perhaps ever. While there have been many predictions about this, Taylor (2020) reported that the "coronavirus is likely to last between 18 and 24 months, scientists at the University of Minnesota have predicted" (para. 1). Administrators, staff, faculty, and students alike must come to terms with this and adjust their expectations for the curriculum, program, and class levels to these inevitable and long-term effects and find ways to move forward that will keep higher education viable for the foreseeable and unforeseeable future. Undoubtedly, most educators will adapt as Whitaker (2020) did and come up with a list of strategies to make them a better teacher and help their students learn more effectively, including using pre-existing material, learning more about educational technologies, collaborating more, creating more diverse and better organized curricula, supplementing more, allowing students to see more of the nuts and bolts of how assignments are graded and what the instructor is looking for in assignments, providing more guidance and various versions of the syllabus, offering more frequent assignments with opportunities to resubmit at least some of them, creating study groups and encouraging a sense of community, asking students to set up group discussions and chats, polling students for their input and feedback, using online classes for questions and discussions rather than lectures and presentations, and conducting online office hours for students who need more help.

As this overview of the evolution of distance, online, and remote education has attempted to demonstrate, much of what educators are wrestling with during the COVID-19 pandemic is neither new, untried, nor untested. Despite clear confusion over the scope and proper applications of terms like "distance learning," "online learning," "remote learning," and finally, "emergency remote learning," it is clear that many of the tools and approaches instructors are struggling to use and incorporate effectively into their classes have a proven track record of success prior to the current less-than-ideal situation that education at all levels finds itself in.

The questions are not if, when, or how to incorporate the best of online and remote learning principles and tools into the classroom experiences of ourselves and our students, but rather why it is such a challenge and obstacle for so many to do so. Understanding the history of these phases of education and how successful many have been in incorporating some or all of the technologies and tools discussed in this article into their classrooms will ideally give those who read and understand the roots of distance education and the modern iterations thereof a clearer idea of how best to do the seemingly impossible and meet the needs of our students to the best of our ability in a truly unprecedented time in higher education. While it may not be easy to go forward under these circumstances, it is quite clear that there is little chance of ever going back to the traditional brick-and-mortar classroom without some changes, based on what is being experienced by students, faculty, and administrators at a time like this one.

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The Native English-Speaking Teacher as an Agent and a Professional: A Reflection on Current Research and Paths Forward

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Native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) occupy an often contested position within the Korean public school system; however, every year programs such as English Program in Korea (EPIK) continue to hire new NESTs from English-speaking countries. Despite the fact that NESTs have been working in Korean public schools for over two decades, research studies regarding the NEST and their lived experiences continue to be few in number, particularly those that explore their conceptualization of professionalism and agency. To the best of this researcher's knowledge, NEST-related literature also has yet to be synthesized in a comprehensive literature review. This integrative literature review is intended to help to fill this gap and to provide suggestions for future empirical research studies. This review analyzes eighteen empirical research studies and synthesizes current findings under the conceptual framework of the NEST as an agent and a professional. Findings assert that there are a number of barriers that may have a negative effect on NEST development as professionals and agents, with many of these barriers systemic and contextual in nature. This review concludes with implications for future research and suggestions for paths forward, which include not only potential topical areas for empirical research studies but also a suggestion for disseminating research so that it reaches a wider audience.

Keywords: native English-speaking teacher (NEST), professionalism, teacher agency, native-speakerism, English language teaching (ELT)

INTRODUCTION

Globalization and the resulting spread of English as the world's lingua franca has led to an increased demand for English language

educators. This demand has led to English speakers becoming a commodity in the global economy, particularly those who speak English "natively" (Jeon, 2020, p. 2). Korea has responded to this by creating government-sponsored schemes to hire native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) from a select seven countries that include Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa, the United Kingdom, and the United States (Jeon, 2009). Hiring requirements for these programs often do not require teaching experience or specialized education − candidates usually only require a bachelor's degree, which may be in a field unrelated to English education (Jeon, 2009). This has become a topic of contention, ranging from debates regarding what professional qualifications potential teachers should have, to discussion of discrimination based on race and nationality (Ruecker & Ives, 2015), to debates regarding the usefulness of NESTs in general (Han, 2005).

Additionally, Holliday's (2005) seminal work regarding native-speakerism has led to questions regarding whether the NEST should have a place in Asian school systems. Native-speakerism as a concept is complex and far-reaching, but the term itself can be defined as a belief that NESTs "represent a 'Western culture' from which springs the ideals both of the English language and of English language teaching methodology" (Holliday, 2005, as cited in Holliday, 2006, p. 385). Despite these questions, many Asian countries continue to hire large numbers of NESTs. Korea specifically had plans to hire ninety new NESTs for Seoul public schools in 2019 (Ock, 2019, para. 1).

Yet, while NESTs may enjoy the prestige afforded to them by native-speakerism, their status as outsiders may lead to feelings of not belonging within their teaching communities, lack of agency, and confusion about their status as teaching professionals (Sim, 2014; Yim & Ahn, 2018). Though the number of NESTs also continues to grow in Korea, research studies focusing explicitly on their lived experiences, particularly in regard to professionalism and agency,[1] are few in number (Ellis, 2016; Sim, 2014; Yim & Ahn, 2018) and data is rarely drawn from the NEST themselves (Copland et al., 2019). This points to a need for more research that focuses on the NEST, despite their contested position in the Korean education system. Numerous calls for improved research exist in multiple papers across the field of TESOL, but to the best of my knowledge, existing literature regarding the NEST in Korea has yet to be synthesized in a comprehensive literature review. The intention of this integrative literature review is therefore to synthesize

existing literature and to identify directions that future studies may take. This is conducted through the lens of the NEST as an agent and a professional.[2]

THE KOREAN EDUCATION SYSTEM

While the Korean education system is not the focus of this literature review, it is important to understand how the system is structured and the role that the NEST is intended to fulfill within this structure. Despite the fact that recent literature contests the inherent value and possibility of speaking English "just like a native speaker," many Koreans continue to seek native-like mastery of the language (Ahn, 2014). This has had a number of effects on language education and society at large. English proficiency has become a marker of social class, and distrust of public school language education has led to a two-tier education system in which the "best" English language education is a commodity accessible only to the elite (Piller & Cho, 2013).

In turn, this led to reform in public school English language education, namely in the form of shifting from the grammar-translation method to more communicative teaching methods (Ahn, 2010, p. 239). This shift to communicative language teaching coincided with the placement of more NESTs in Korean public schools. The official government plan included the placement of at least one NEST in every public school (Jeon, 2009, p. 235). The rationale of this plan was to provide students with more English input, to create a more authentic language-learning environment, and to help foster "greater cultural understanding" (Jeon, 2009, p. 235).

Response to language education reforms in the public school system has been mixed, and as a result, the implementation of these reforms has been inconsistent. Reasons for these inconsistencies include institutional constraints such as large classroom sizes, classroom management needs, existing norms for learners (including learning styles and language use), lesson goals, teaching methods, and teaching to tests (Ahn, 2010, p. 243). Every Korean student who wishes to attend university must take a high-stakes entrance exam known as the *Suneung*, which assesses English grammatical knowledge and reading comprehension, but not productive skills (Kim, E.-J., 2010, p. 226). As such, the *Suneung* strongly influences the choice of language pedagogy and learning

strategies used in secondary education, though the exam arguably affects the entire education system due to the fact that many Korean students start preparing for the *Suneung* before they start elementary school (Moodie & Nam, 2015, p. 64). This creates added pressure for teachers, and results in a teaching culture in which what is learned in teacher education coursework differs from actual classroom practices (Ahn, 2010, p. 239). Additionally, teachers' past history as learners may be "in conflict with the new curriculum" (Kim, E.-J., 2010, p. 234), or teachers who began their careers prior to reform may not feel that they have adequate teacher education or language proficiency to achieve the goals of the new curriculum (Kim, E.-J., 2010, p. 232). Some teachers cite their unchanged teaching activity as being due to a lack of a supportive community that may help scaffold learning and/or teaching; rather, the community supports exam-based learning (Kim, E.-J., 2010, p. 236). Further, the Ministry of Education appears to ignore the "broader macro-structures that shape the nature of activity within the context of 'real' English language classrooms in 'real' schools," which some attribute to curricular reforms not meeting initial expectations (Ahn, 2010, p. 253).

It is important to become familiar with current language education practice and the status of reform because this all arguably has a direct effect on the NEST. These effects include not only their role within the system, but also their overall utilization. Like the implementation of CLT or the Teaching English through English (TEE) policy, despite the fact that the government continues to make large investments in employing NESTs, the government has provided little guidance on how to utilize these teachers and few resources are provided to ensure that they are properly utilized (Moodie & Nam, 2016, p. 85). Additionally, the inexperience of many NESTs is "in conflict with program goals of improving teaching methods and developing materials" (Moodie & Nam, 2016, p. 82). Though the focus should be on hiring experienced NESTs, many Korean schools instead hire these teachers on the basis of easy access and cost effectiveness, which creates a conundrum of "cheap" teachers resulting in "cheap" outcomes (Han, 2005, p. 253).

The Role of the NEST in Korean Schools

In order to work in a Korean public school, prospective NESTs may apply to the English Program in Korea (EPIK), a government-sponsored

program that covers large parts of the country[3] (Jeon, 2009, p. 236). The most basic requirement for the EPIK program is that potential candidates hold a bachelor's degree and citizenship from one of seven countries[4] (Jeon, 2009, p. 236). EPIK has developed more stringent hiring qualifications in recent years, including the requirement for candidates to have either an education degree, past teaching experience, or a TEFL/TESOL/CELTA certificate (English Program in Korea, 2013b, Table 1). Those who have higher qualifications command a higher salary (English Program in Korea, 2013b, Table 1).

In most public schools, NESTs are required to team-teach with a local Korean teacher (Jeon, 2020, p. 9). The role that each teacher takes is highly dependent on context as well as the dynamic between the NEST and the Korean co-teacher. In some co-teaching relationships, the co-teacher may take more of a background role where they support the NEST's teaching (Kim, M., 2010), while in other co-teaching relationships, the co-teacher may take more of a central role while the NEST acts as an assistant teacher (Yim & Ahn, 2018). The role that the co-teacher takes can often be attributed to their own teaching beliefs and teaching context (Carless, 2006; Kim, M., 2010). Some school administrators may ask Korean co-teachers not to use English in the NEST's classroom (Yim & Ahn, 2018, p. 217), some co-teachers may not be able to afford additional responsibility on top of their busy schedule (Sim, 2014, p. 132), and others may be less interested in team-teaching due to low English proficiency (Jeon, 2009, p. 238). The relationship that they have with their co-teacher arguably has a profound effect on the NEST. Co-teachers often help NESTs adapt to their school, help NESTs to grow as professionals (Lee & Chowdhury, 2018), take care of the NEST's affairs (both within the school and often outside of the school), and may act as direct supervisors who have an effect on the NEST's continued employment at the school (Sim, 2014; Yim & Ahn, 2018).

Role of the Researcher

I am brought to this research by my own experience as a NEST working within the Korean public school system. I worked at two different elementary schools in the early to mid-2010s. When I started at my first position in Korea, my qualifications consisted of a newly minted bachelor of arts degree unrelated to education or English

language, and a TEFL certificate that I attained through a short online program. Throughout my four-year sojourn, I struggled with feelings of "authenticity" regarding my status as a teacher, particularly as I felt that my professionalism was questioned by local teachers at my schools. I was keenly aware that I was replaceable, that I was not seen as a real teacher by many of my colleagues, that my students did not see me as a real teacher, and that despite the fact that I put in my best effort and did my job well, many saw me as underqualified. This, along with my interest in English as a lingua franca (ELF), native-speakerism, and the status of English in South Korea, led to research interests regarding NEST's lived experiences and the effect that experiences in their roles have on their overall sense of professionalism and agency as a teacher.

With this in mind, I have been careful to not allow my own experience as a NEST affect my interpretations of my data. It is inevitable that my interpretation has been shaped by my own experiences, but I believe that my experience as a NEST has given me valuable insight that has aided my analysis more than it has harmed the overall validity of my review.

METHODOLOGY

Initial Review of the Literature

I first conducted an initial review of the literature in order to arrive at potential themes or areas of interest within the field as well as to look for any pre-existing literature reviews that synthesize current findings, identify deficiencies in current research, or offer suggestions for future research. This initial review of the literature, which included Jeon (2009), Han (2005), Sim (2014) and Yim and Ahn (2018), provided enough information to arrive at a conceptual framework that helped to inform a later, more in-depth review of the literature. This initial review of the literature did not reveal any existing literature reviews that synthesize studies specifically concerning NESTs, though a later search led to the discovery of Moodie and Nam (2016), which synthesizes recent research regarding English teaching in South Korea. The references section of Moodie and Nam was a helpful resource and their literature review overall helped me conceptualize how I would perform my own review of the literature.

The apparent lack of synthesis of existing studies directly related to the NEST, along with the fact that research related to NESTs continues to be highly relevant to Korean contexts, led to my decision to conduct an integrative literature review. An integrative literature review is intended to address "new or emerging topics that would benefit from a holistic conceptualization and synthesis of the literature to date," with "knowledge from the literature synthesized into a model or conceptual framework that offers a new perspective on the topic" (Torraco, 2005, p. 357). I conceived of a conceptual framework regarding the NEST as an agent and a professional, and conducted the review under the theory that while the NEST may benefit from native-speakerism, they often face isolation within their teaching communities and lack agency, and their status as teaching professionals is often questioned (Sim, 2014; Yim & Ahn, 2018).

Search Keywords and Emerging Themes

While there is a wealth of information regarding English language teaching in Korea, there do not seem to be so many studies regarding NESTs specifically; therefore, the literature search was expanded to include NESTs teaching in other areas of Asia. To narrow the scope of the literature search, the following keywords and search terms were used: "native English-speaking teachers in Korea," "English language teaching in South Korea," "native-speakerism," "native English-speaking teachers in Asia," "professional English teacher Korea," and "English program in Korea." Some of these search terms may seem broad, however, given the limited scope of papers specifically regarding NESTs working in Korea, broad search terms seemed necessary in order to capture a larger number of articles. My intention was to keep information manageable regarding the "native English-speaking teachers in Asia" keyword, therefore I initially decided to include only studies conducted with NESTs teaching in Hong Kong. The goals of Hong Kong's NEST program are similar to the goals of Korea's − both aim to hire NESTs to enhance public school English language education, albeit have different hiring requirements[5] and both NEST programs are equally contested (Carless, 2006; Jeon, 2020). After my initial analysis of the data, I thought that my interpretations would be better informed if I included papers from other locales; therefore, I made the decision to also include some papers that analyzed NESTs' teaching experiences in Japan. NESTs working in

public schools in Japan and Korea are both required to team-teach with a local teacher, which creates a similar teaching context – additionally, the programs have similar hiring requirements (Jeon, 2020).

My review included papers published in the last twenty years. I chose to disregard papers older than this in order to ensure that the data collected was as relevant to the current NEST experience as possible. I initially searched the library databases of two large Canadian universities, then expanded my search of the databases to include Google Scholar and ERIC. My initial search keywords led to twenty empirical research studies and one literature review. In order to find more relevant papers to inform thematic analysis, I looked at the references section of these articles and was able to find another ten empirical research studies. I later participated in a writing consultation with one of my graduate school professors, who suggested additional readings. This led to the discovery of six additional articles.

The abstracts of the empirical studies were then evaluated according to topical relevancy. Those papers that did not fit the scope of my conceptual framework were eliminated. The studies that appeared to fit these parameters were read in full, and details regarding the study (including its methodology, sample size, and main findings) were recorded in a literature review organized grid system (Crossman, 2019). I also made notes regarding the studies in a separate research journal, organizing the notes according to emerging themes. After I read the studies in full, I then read over my literature grid and eliminated papers that were irrelevant to my main research topic, had unclear methodology, or relied heavily upon research published beyond the last twenty years. After completing this process of elimination, eighteen papers remained for data analysis. (See Appendix A for a list of these studies.)

As I continued to read and take notes, common themes and commentary began to emerge. These themes and related commentary included the Korean education system (both the public and the private sector), NEST teacher education, native-speakerism, professionalism, agency, community, team-teaching and cultural competence. I then decided to conduct further analysis based on the principles of thematic analysis, which is a theoretically flexible method for identifying and analyzing patterns in qualitative data (Clarke & Braun, 2013). Thematic analysis was guided by Clarke and Braun (2013), Maxwell (2005), and Swain (2018).

This literature review had a few limitations. The studies reviewed

overwhelmingly followed a qualitative methodology, with few utilizing mixed-methods or quantitative data. Many of the studies relied upon interviews and reported experiences rather than observation, which may create concerns for reliability and validity. I was limited in the databases that I was able to search, and my access to Korean databases and journals was restricted. This review is also limited to those studies published in English; it is possible that sources published in Korean may have additional relevant data to offer. Further, though the focus was a Korean context, there is a limited number of existing studies that specifically focus on a Korean context. I attempted to overcome this by including studies that focus on other relevant contexts (Hong Kong and Japan), though this may have introduced some unreliable interpretations of the data.

DISCUSSION

The NEST's Professional Identity

In the Korean context, one of the most easily identifiable barriers to the NEST's professional identity is lack of proper training for those without teaching experience and without a teaching certificate (Jeon, 2020, p. 9). Those who lack these qualifications often face conflict from local teachers and administrators as well as students. From local teachers and administrators, conflict often ensues because the NEST is unable to meet the expectations of local teachers when they inevitably struggle to fulfill their teaching role (Jeon, 2020, p. 9), while conflict may ensue between NESTs and students because students do not perceive NESTs as legitimate teachers (Han, 2005; Jeon, 2009; Lee & Chowdhury, 2018). Yet, the inherent irony of the Korean context is that even teachers who have past teaching experience and training may have a similar experience. One reason for this is the fact that practices in the Korean education system often contradict what teachers have learned and practiced in other contexts (Lee & Chowdhury, 2018; Yim & Ahn, 2018). Thus, like the inexperienced NEST, even those who are considered experienced teachers may rely heavily upon their co-teachers to develop their teaching style and instructional pace (Yim & Ahn, 2018, p. 132). Research suggests that it may be beneficial for experienced teachers to also receive formal training and professional development in

order to adapt their professional practices specifically to a Korean context (Lee & Chowdhury, 2018, p. 98).

Aside from teaching experience, perceived illegitimacy of the NEST may be attributed to the role that each teacher takes within the classroom. The task of classroom management and responsibility for students' academic success usually falls upon the local co-teacher, while NESTs are generally responsible for incorporating CLT in the classroom (Lee & Chowdhury, 2018, p. 97). These CLT-based tasks involve engaging learners with games, promoting learning strategies that build relationships between teacher and student, and improving students' confidence when interacting with native speakers (Lee & Chowdhury, 2018, p. 97). This creates a dichotomy of "serious teacher" versus "fun teacher," with the co-teacher often taking the former role and the NEST being relegated to the latter (p. 98). While the "fun teacher" role may seem positive, in reality it may make it more difficult for NESTs to gain their students' respect (p. 98). This is true for other contexts in Asia – Robert Kiczkowiak, a scholar who formerly taught in Japan, posits in a duo-ethnography that "[in Japan] foreigners are just for communication practice, or entertainment," while Japanese teachers teach "actual English" (Lowe & Kiczkowiak, 2016, p. 9).

With this in mind, while it is tempting to blame the NEST and their shortcomings as teachers for the obstacles that they face regarding professionalism, there are clear systemic issues that exacerbate the problem. One inherent issue is the fact that public school teaching programs for NESTs have low eligibility requirements, along with lower salaries in comparison to other NEST schemes in Asia (Jeon, 2020, p. 9). Another issue is that the official title of NESTs working within the EPIK program is "assistant language teacher," which semantically leads to questions about their perceived professionalism (Jeon, 2020; Yim & Ahn, 2018). Additionally, NESTs are often underutilized, which leads to both the native teachers themselves and other program stakeholders thinking that they are overpaid for what they do (Jeon, 2009; Han, 2005). Further, there is no upward mobility for NESTs within the school system (Yim & Ahn, 2018). This not only offers little to motivate experienced teachers to seek employment in Korea, but also offers little incentivization for those working within the system to develop effective professional practices.

Here it is important to note that this is not a problem unique to the Korean context. NESTs in Hong Kong and Japan also report a lack of

upward mobility as a barrier to professionalism and report that they are often not treated as professionals, which may lead to frustration and demotivation, and ultimately to them leaving the profession (Geluso, 2013; Moorhouse, 2017). This is one of the plights of NEST systems. NESTs are perceived differently from local teachers for a number of reasons, including an assumption that they will only be at their schools for a short time (Jeon, 2009; Kim, M., 2010), yet little has been done to help retain experienced teachers, which perpetuates the cycle of hiring inexperienced teachers to fill empty roles. Further, few opportunities are provided for professional development – one participant in Sim (2014) cited feeling that all responsibilities for professional development fall upon individual NESTs and their co-teachers, which indicates a lack of systematic support (p. 132). This is corroborated by Lee and Chowdhury (2018) in which one participant (a local teacher) posited that the role of the co-teacher is "crucial" because NESTs may see little improvement in their teaching practice if their co-teacher does not act as a mentor (p. 90).

The NEST's Development of Agency and Community

One of the most common reoccurring themes in the literature is reports of the NEST's isolation from teaching communities within their schools (Erling, 2017; Jeon, 2009, 2020; Kim, 2011; Yim & Ahn, 2018). This finding has been corroborated by studies conducted with NESTs in Hong Kong (Chu & Morrison, 2011; Moorhouse, 2017; Trent, 2012). In Kim (2011), participants reported this sense of isolation as something positive. NESTs in this study posited that the separation between Korean faculty and themselves had a positive effect on their sense of community and overall development of agency as autonomous teachers (p. 135). In most other studies, however, isolation has been reported as a negative experience for the NEST because it often leads to increased feelings of powerlessness and may negatively affect agency. There are two possible reasons for this: One, participants in Kim's study taught as part of a faculty of NESTs in a university setting, while many working in public school systems are the only NEST working at their school (Moorhouse, 2017; Yim & Ahn, 2018); two, participants in Kim's study were given more autonomy in their teaching, with the freedom to teach alone, to design their own syllabi, and to implement their own lessons (p. 134). This is in direct contrast to some public school contexts where the NEST

is forced to teach to the textbook and may not even know the curriculum requirements that their co-teachers follow (Jeon, 2009, p. 238).

While some NESTs may eventually embrace this sense of isolation and find agency in other aspects of their roles (Yim & Ahn, 2018), Erling (2017) pointed out that NESTs are often framed "in an active position of maintaining distance from colleagues in foreign countries," despite the fact that it often may not be of their own choice or doing (p. 96). NESTs may often feel not expected or not welcomed to socialize or work with their Korean colleagues (Erling, 2017, p. 96) and may feel that this "othering" or disconnectedness is imposed upon them (Jeon, 2009, p. 239). This isolation is further enforced in teaching contexts where the NEST's class is disconnected from the regular curriculum, particularly at the secondary level, where there is pressure to teach according to the *Suneung* (Jeon, 2009, p. 238). The NEST's instruction often does not have a direct effect on students' grades, the NEST is rarely given responsibility regarding student assessment (Kim, M., 2010, p. 197), and the NEST often takes a limited role in classroom management (Lee & Chowdhury, 2018, p. 90), which often leads to students not taking NEST-led classes as seriously. In turn, this may lead to less perceived legitimacy of the NEST and increased classroom management issues (Jeon, 2009; Kim, M., 2010).

One effect on NEST agency that has been put forth by recent literature is native-speakerism, specifically as it is experienced by NESTs working in non-Western contexts. Traditionally, the discourse assumes that the native speaker is privileged and powerful (Holliday, 2006), which ignores the reality of those working in Asia. For NESTs working in Asian contexts, native-speakerism is often a "double-edged sword" that may help them become an English teacher without much training or experience (Yim & Ahn, 2018, p. 218) but often leads to their position being challenged by co-teachers and students (Geluso, 2013; Lowe & Kiczkowiak, 2016; Yim & Ahn, 2018). NESTs seem to gain ideological legitimacy due to native-speakerism but often face imposed teacher identities that they do not actively construct. One of these identities is "just another expat native speaker" (Lowe & Kiczkowiak, 2016, p. 10), while another "pre-determined construct" is "that of a language verifier or linguistics model but seldom a 'teacher'" (Geluso, 2013, p. 97). NESTs "are also stuck with an image of being free-riders" (Sim, 2014, p. 221) or "back-packing" teachers, which suggests that they are not serious about teaching English or about integrating into local

communities (Copland et al., 2019, p. 6). This is not only damaging to credentialed, long-term NESTs within the community but also further negates the NEST's teacher identity (Sim, 2014, p. 221). While there are undeniably some teachers who fit these profiles, there are others who have made or intend to make teaching EFL or ESL a career (Copland et al., 2019; Ellis, 2016; Jeon, 2009). Thus, while the focus of the discourse is often on the non-native English-speaking teacher (NNEST), who is assumed to be looked down upon as a deficient English speaker and assumed to face powerlessness (Moussu, 2010), in the context of the Asian public school, the situation is often the opposite. Instead, local English teachers are given the power to decide whether to team teach and to tell NESTs what they can and cannot do, while these choices are not usually available to NESTs, despite their status as more "powerful" speakers of English (Copland et al., 2019, p. 18). Native speakers may have "an authentic voice but not an authoritative voice," (Lowe & Kiczkowiak, 2016, p. 10). NESTs' "authentic voices" may open up teaching positions for them, but their positions "are often peripheral and serve to marginalize the teacher in relation to the larger learning community or school" (Geluso, 2013, p. 97).

Another factor that may have a negative effect on some NESTs' agency is the monolingual native speaker fallacy.[6] This fallacy may lead to the assumption that NESTs will speak English only (Copland et al., 2019, p. 17) and the assumption that NESTs lack an understanding of Korean language and culture, or possibly even view Korean culture as "beneath" them (Han, 2005, p. 206). While there are NESTs who may fit this profile, assumptions such as these "strip" the NEST of their individual identity (Geluso, 2013, p. 99) in favor of a general group identity that may not be entirely fair nor true. This serves as yet another means of "[projecting] previously formed opinions about their countrymen upon [NESTs] before individuals have had a chance to present themselves on their own terms" (Geluso, 2013, p. 99). Further, the fallacy of the monolingual language classroom may cause NESTs to be unable to share their bilingualism with the class (Copland et al., 2019, p. 12). Previous research has shown that some NESTs believe that speaking the local language is highly important (Carless, 2006, p. 346). In Copland et al. (2019), most of the participants spoke the language of their host country to some degree (p. 16). Ellis (2016) cited her previous research, which found that many teachers had decided upon a career in TESOL "because they identified as a language person, a language lover,

or a keen language learner" (Ellis, 2004, as cited in Ellis, 2016, p. 598). However, their other languages either atrophied during their career due to demands to use only English in the classroom (p. 598), or their other-language repertoire became "largely invisible" (p. 622). Ellis also posited that "practices that draw on linguistic identity as pedagogy are not a normal part of the discourse among TESOL professionals," which may in turn perpetuate the monolingual native speaker fallacy and also affect the agentive action of bilingual NESTs (p. 622).

Copland et al. (2019) questioned the popular belief that NESTs often act with insensitivity or cultural incompetence, given the fact that the local English teachers they interviewed for their study did not report resentment towards NESTs (p. 19). Their data showed that NESTs "can also be sensitive, interculturally aware, adaptable, and often able to work within and adapt to local norms, though this may take time" (p. 19). However, the researchers claimed that they were not suggesting that this is true for all NESTs but that "the picture is more complex" than what has traditionally been suggested by the literature.

Summary of Findings

Most of the Korean context-based studies that I reviewed have centered around NESTs working in public schools. Two articles were an exception, as these examined NEST contexts at a private academy (Erling, 2017) and at a university (Kim, 2011). The focus of this review and preceding arguments therefore centers upon the NEST working in the public school system.

Thus, analysis of the literature leads to a number of reasonable conclusions regarding NESTs' experience working in public schools. The literature identifies a number of clear professional barriers for the NEST, including systemic issues such as a role that is subject to interpretation, depending on school administration and the NEST's co-teacher; underutilization in the classroom; lack of adequate professional development for experienced NESTs and lack of proper training for unexperienced NESTs; lack of incentives to improve NEST retention; and lack of involvement within curriculum planning and/or classroom management, which may lead to students not seeing NESTs as "real" teachers. With regard to agency specifically, barriers for NESTs include isolation from the teaching community within their school, powerlessness

in their roles, native-speakerism, and the monolingual native speaker fallacy. These barriers have been well identified, but the next question is "Where should research go from here?"

Deficiencies in the research have been well-documented throughout the literature. The biggest issue is the fact that many studies regarding the NEST, particularly in the Korean context, are often not conducted from the point of view of NESTs themselves but rather based on the opinions of local teachers or learners. This has resulted in a body of literature that overwhelmingly portrays the NEST as an inexperienced, unqualified, monolingual teacher (Copland et al., 2019; Erling, 2017). A lack of focus on the NEST and their lived experiences is undoubtedly due to the overall debate regarding native-speakerism and whether native speakers have a place in foreign education systems. Instead, literature has pivoted to the NNEST, and rightfully so. However, justifying this focus with the vilification of NESTs ignores the reality of NESTs who would be considered immigrants in any other context, who are bilingual, bicultural, and "consider the country in which they work home" (Copland et al., 2019, p. 21).

IMPLICATIONS

Many studies (including Copland et al., 2019; Houghton & Rivers, 2013; Lowe & Kiczkowiak, 2016) argue that the imposed dichotomy between NESTs and NNESTs is "dangerous" because it reinforces a distinction between teachers (Copland et al., 2019, p. 4) and creates the fallacy that NNESTs may be inherently more qualified to teach English "simply because they have learned it as a second language" (Copland et al., 2019, p. 8). Jeon (2009) stated that the "focus should shift from 'Who is better' to 'Who knows and can teach what' and 'Who can reach what?'" (p. 201). More attention should be given to how all language teachers can contribute to a productive educational environment that focuses on learner needs and interests while developing cross-cultural understanding (Jeon, 2009, p. 201).

With this in mind, it is important to acknowledge the effects of native-speakerism on hiring decisions in Asian contexts. It is also important to critically examine why there is such a drive to hire native speakers, particularly those who fit the "image" of the native speaker, which is usually a person who is young and white (Ruecker & Ives,

2015). However, this does not render research regarding the NEST dangerous nor "useless," particularly when one considers experienced NESTs who take the profession seriously.

Here are some potential avenues for future research:

1. What are the lived experiences of *experienced*, *qualified* NESTs working within the Korean public school system?
2. How can the NEST be better utilized within the school system?
3. What effects do native-speakerism have on the NEST working in the Korean public school system?
4. What are the lived experiences of multilingual, multicultural NESTs working within the school system?
5. Why did the NEST choose to become an English teacher in Korea?

The last potential area for research is a question that I admittedly ask based on my own reasons for taking my first job as a NEST − I took the job based on a genuine interest in Korean language and culture, which later morphed into a genuine love for language education. Based on my knowledge of fellow NESTs in my network, it is clear that I am not the only NEST who took their first teaching job for this reason; therefore, I think this area bears more exploration in the literature, even if to simply dispel the "back-packing teacher" myth.

While research currently points to a number of issues in English education at Korean public schools, this information seems to only reach interested researchers rather than individuals who are able to affect change within the education system. This leads to the question of how this information could be made more accessible. Participants in Ahn (2010) noted that the Ministry of Education seems to ignore the realities of "real" issues faced in "real" schools, but how can we encourage relevant stakeholders to acknowledge these issues?

The answer to how this information could be made more accessible to administrators and other relevant stakeholders in the Korean education system is complicated and likely would require further research to determine.

CONCLUSIONS

In their paper titled *Native English-Speaking Teachers in Cultures Other Than Their Own*, Barratt and Kontra (2000) suggested a number of implications that their research could have for EFL administrators, colleagues, and teacher educators, which included helpful advice such as "hire carefully," "have orientations for new [NESTs]," "make language lessons available to [NESTs]," and "do not recommend unqualified students to be [NESTs working in EFL contexts]." While some of these suggestions have been utilized by the EPIK program, including the implementation of an orientation for NESTs and the implementation of some professional development (English Program in Korea, 2013a, para. 1−2), twenty years after the publication of Barratt and Kontra's paper, a number of their suggestions have remained unaddressed by many EFL education systems. This points to an apparent disconnect between research and practice.

While the literature synthesized in this review is valuable research and knowledge to have, if the education systems to which the research is directed do not utilize findings of these studies, they serve to only remain in an echo chamber of academia. Thus, how can these findings be utilized? How do we ensure that these findings are well circulated so that they are easily utilized? There are a number of ways in which this can be achieved, but perhaps an important first step would be for the information to be disseminated in such a way that it is more accessible to relevant stakeholders. Perhaps what is needed is activism on the part of a team of researchers and teacher educators in order to enact change within the Korean education system that would lead to the improvement of NEST schemes and clarification of program goals. Once this has been accomplished, this could lead to new professional development programs for administrators, local English teachers, and NESTs alike regarding roles and expectations, utilization of the NEST in the classroom, cross-cultural adjustment, and other relevant topics. Rather than continuing to focus on the ineffectiveness of the NEST, energies would arguably be better spent on taking active measures that would help to ensure that the money spent on NEST schemes is not wasted on what is essentially ineffective language teaching. The issue in attempting such a feat would be finding individuals who not only would be able to but also would be willing to undertake a significant reformation of existing programs.

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FOOTNOTES

[1] The meaning of the term *professionalism* is dependent upon individual interpretation, but for the purpose of this research, I take the stance that professionalism is something that individuals themselves practice, not something that other stakeholders expect them to practice or "imagines they are doing" (Evans, 2008, p. 27). In this context, *agency* refers "to the human capacity to act and make choices, [which] is constrained by some degree by the social constructs inherent to any given time and place" (Smolcic, 2010, p. 18). Agency is therefore not a static aspect of an individual's identity but rather something that is constantly evolving, depending upon the social system in which that individual resides and/or works.

[2] This review assumes the definition of an *agent* as an individual who acts and makes choices, while a *professional* is assumed to be an individual who belongs to and/or ascribes to a professional practice. This is in accordance with the previously defined terms *professionalism* and *agency*.

[3] It is important to note that while most of the research concerning NESTs in Korea centers on those employed by the EPIK program, EPIK does not cover all areas in Korea. Some provinces or municipalities elect to recruit their own NESTs, while others may be hired by their individual schools. The teaching situation as described by EPIK teachers arguably matches those teaching in public schools not covered by the program, however, this has yet to be corroborated by the literature. I merely assume this to be the case, based on my own personal experience as a NEST hired by my individual schools and not by the EPIK program.

[4] These countries include Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

[5] For most public school NEST programs in Korea, candidates are required to have a bachelor's degree in any discipline, while "extra" credentials such as a TESOL certificate or teaching experience are not always required (Jeon, 2009). In contrast, Hong Kong's NET program requires candidates to have teaching experience and/or teaching credentials (Carless, 2006; Jeon, 2020).

[6] The concept of the monolingual native speaker fallacy was first introduced into the discourse by Phillipson (1992, as cited in Phillipson, 2016). It refers to the false ideology that the best teacher of English is a native speaker, and that the most effective English classes are those taught monolingually. While a monolingual approach to language teaching may seem "common-sense," it "is invalid cognitively, linguistically, and pedagogically" (Phillipson, 2016, p. 86).

APPENDIX A

Key Literature

Author(s), Year, Journal	Search Keywords, Database
Ahn, Kyungja (2010) *Research on Second Language Teacher Education: A Sociocultural Perspective on Professional Development* (Book)	NESTs in Korea University Library
Carless, David (2006) *System*	NESTs in Korea University Library
Chu, Chau Kan, & Morrison, Keith (2011) *Educational Studies*	No search keywords. Reference was found in another study (Moorhouse, 2017). University Library
Copland, Fiona; Mann, Steve; & Garton, Sue (2019) *TESOL Quarterly*	English Program in Korea University Library
Ellis, Elizabeth (2016) *TESOL Quarterly*	No search keywords. Reference was found in another study (Copland et al., 2019). University Library
Erling, Elizabeth (2017) *Perspectives on Language and Globalization* (Book)	No search keywords. Reference was found in another study (Yim & Ahn, 2018). University Library
Geluso, Joe (2013) *Native Speakerism in Japan* (Book)	No search keywords. The book was recommended to the researcher. Google Scholar
Han, Song-Ae (2005) *Australian Journal of Education*	Korean learners' views of NESTs University Library
Jeon, Mihyon (2009) *Language, Culture, and Curriculum*	English Program in Korea University Library
Jeon, Mihyon (2020) *System*	NESTs in Korea University Library
Kim, Myonghee (2010) *English Teaching* (영어교육)	No search keywords. Reference was found in another study (Moodie & Nam, 2016). Google Scholar

Kim, Shinhye (2011) *English Teaching* (영어교육)	No search keywords. Reference was found in another study (Moodie & Nam, 2016). Google Scholar
Lee, Ke Hyang, & Chowdhury, Raqib (2018) *Korea TESOL Journal*	No search keywords. Paper was found while reviewing back issues of the *Korea TESOL Journal*
Lowe, Robert, & Kiczkowiak, Marek (2016) *Cogent Education*	Native Speakerism University Library
Moorhouse, Benjamin (2017) *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*	Professional English Teacher Korea University Library
Sim, Mikyung (2014) *Multicultural Education Review*	NESTs in Korea University Library
Trent, John (2012) *TESOL Quarterly*	No search keywords. Reference was found in another study (Moorhouse, 2017). University Library
Yim, Su Yon, & Ahn, Tae Youn (2018) *System*	NESTs in Korea University Library

Learning Investment as a Means of Shaping Learner Identity in Higher Education

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Despite the growing number of research studies on identity and investment in EFL countries, there seems to be insufficient research on the investment and identity in Asian contexts, and research is extremely sparse in the Indonesian context. To fill this void, this study aims to investigate how an Indonesian learner's investment in English shaped her identity as an English language learner. This study was carried out through an in-depth interview both offline and online. Additionally, a narrative analysis was used to examine the Indonesian learner's investment and identity in learning English with regard to her complex real-life experiences. The data were analyzed by referring to learner identity and learner investment as frameworks for the case study. The outcomes of the study found that the learner's professional and well-educated parents supported her investment in terms of time, support, and money for learning English, and as a consequence, the learner was motivated and felt a connection to the language, which gradually shaped her identity across diverse communities as an English language learner. These findings have the pedagogical implication that educational practitioners need to consider not only curricular activities but also extra-curricular activities to facilitate effective learning while fostering investment. Since in many Asia contexts there is a financial component to English language education instruction beyond regular schooling, the parents' view of English language education plays a critical role. This directly impacts a learner's perception of English, their English instruction, and their investment in the language. This study suggests implications for the Southeast Asian and Asian classrooms, considering factors outside the classroom.

Keywords: learning investment, learner identity, higher education, English learning, Indonesian learner

INTRODUCTION

Current studies on investment in language learning and the learners themselves are essential to explore how an individual understands themselves as an EFL learner, as it has impacts on their engagement in the process of learning English. Some scholars have tried to conduct research related to this issue. Norton's (1995, 1997, 2013) work highlights the socially and historically constructed relationships between learners and the English language, which influences their connection to the language and desire to pursue its acquisition (i.e., investment). Lee (2014) revealed that a previous background in learning English from primary school to college is helpful to understand the learner's investment, increasing investment or diminishing it. In the case of increasing investment, the idea is that since the learner has dedicated extended time to learning English through participating in various extracurricular learning opportunities and activities that aim to build English proficiency, and has been rather successful, they may feel a sense of minimal effort spent as well as the absence of language as part of themselves and, therefore, feel a disconnect with the target language community. In the case of diminishing investment, it is essentially the reverse of the above. Despite putting in effort and time, the learner feels unsuccessful, creating a barrier to learning and connecting with the language. Either way, these individual experiences shape the learner's identity over time. The teacher's role is to understand the influence these factors have on students and how they may influence their acceptance of, or resistance to, learning strategies used and topics presented within the context of communicative competence. Furthermore, Teng (2019) found that there is an interrelationship between investment, language learning, and identity development. First, learner identity is historically and socially shaped, and learner identity influences EFL learning. Second, the process of EFL learning is a social practice in which experiences are organized and identities are negotiated during interactions. Third, EFL learners are constantly transitioning from engagement and investment from their old communities (primary school and secondary school) to new communities (university), and display their identity flux within and across diverse communities. In sum, identity is fluid and based on family, educational, social, cultural, and political factors.

In addition, Gu (2008) continued to broaden the view, but in line

with Norton (1995, 1977, 2013), and stated that English language learning entails complex and interrelated issues of motivation, identity, and culture. Likewise, behind some students' participation lies a struggle between identity, culture, ideology, and power. From the current research, it is concluded that the issues of identity and investment in EFL learning are dynamic, not static, and have a uniqueness in the individual identity construction process. As this study engages with renowned literature addressing a broad view of identity involving positive identity, negative identity, and identity conflict, it permits the study's findings to be discussed more than just locally (e.g., in Indonesia) with respect to one English language learner. This study's findings are also applicable more broadly to similar Asian EFL contexts due to the dynamic nature of identity and due to investment in language learning not being generated solely from the individual learner but extensively through family, education, society and government.

In the Indonesian context, where her case study was conducted, Wirza (2018) found that the emergence of identity of Indonesian EFL learners was influenced by the social, cultural, and political dimensions. These factors reshaped their identity even though English was not selected as a foreign language by their choice, but instead, it was imposed through the school curriculum, in which English is a compulsory subject. Al Mubarokah and Prasetya (2020) also describe how Indonesian EFL learners constantly reshape their identity through various learning experiences from the primary school to the university level. In particular, they found that parental support, school policy, and the environment play an essential role in dynamic development of learner identity.

However, despite the growing interest, and consequently the increasing number of research studies, on identity and investment in EFL countries (e.g., Gearing & Roger, 2017; Hajar, 2017; Lee, 2014; Norton & Gao, 2008; Teng, 2019; Vasilopoulos, 2015), there still appears to be insufficient research on investment in language learning and the negotiation of identity in Southeast Asian and East Asian contexts. In particular, the topic has been minimally discussed and/or researched in the Indonesian context (Al Mubarokah & Prasteya, 2020; Wirza, 2018). However, Indonesian learners, like other Southeast and East Asian learners, face a daunting challenge because of the educational, social, and political parameters driving English education in each country, and of course, English is not the dominant language in those countries (Doro,

2007; Manchon, 2008). In addition, English is also increasingly used as a medium of instruction in schools and universities (Lauder, 2010). These conditions make Indonesian EFL learners more reliant on English proficiency and require them to put a significant effort into learning English. The same is true in many countries in East Asia, like Korea where English medium instruction was introduced at various educational levels and took hold in many of those sectors. The contextual insight, the established literature, and the findings from one case presented have pedagogical implications that educational practitioners can consider for not only curricular activities but also extra-curricular activities to facilitate effective learning investment. Thus, it is useful to understand learners' coping strategies regarding investing their time, energy, and various other factors into learning English and constructing their EFL identity.

This research started at the beginning of 2020 in accordance with parental support in examining the learner identity of their child based on established similar work (Al Mubarokah & Prasetya, 2020). The context has potential relevance to the broader context of Asian countries, especially in terms of learning investment models. Although this research solely examines an Indonesian learner's experience in negotiating identity and her investment in learning, the findings offer wider implications for Asian EFL countries when understood within the framework of the established literature addressed.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Learner Identity in Language Learning

Identity and language are interrelated. They are not only abstract and theoretical, but they are also essential elements in the process of language learning and teaching. As Norton (1997) stated, identity has interconnected elements relating to the person, their activity, and the local and global social circumstances. As a consequence, the dynamic nature of identity creates the construction of identity across time and space. Also, there is the possibility that individuals see many limited opportunities for their future, impacting investment in language learning and hence, identity. More specifically, Morgan (1995) asserted that identity is dynamic across time and place, which means that the learner

is constantly changing throughout their lives; it might be moving from one institution to another, from one country to another, or from one community to the next, and so on. Therefore, identity is a construct and a guide for the learner to negotiate their place in familiar and new, larger social processes (Teng, 2019).

Further, the possibilities for learners' future success have a significant effect on their level of identity and language learning investment. A simple illustration of this view is that of an immigrant learner's experiences in their home country that may have a significant impact on their identity, but then their experiences are constantly changing and are constructed by their experiences in the new target-language country, transcending across the workplace, school, community, and more (Norton, 1997). Based on this viewpoint is the process of exchanging knowledge, information, and insight into a person who has interaction in their social life while using or learning the target language. Also, they may continuously shape or reshape their identity based on who they are and how they relate to the larger social group or society.

Imagining the desired community is one of the options for increasing multiple identities in the future (Norton & Gao, 2008). Teng (2019) also stated that the classroom is the most likely place for identity construction to occur and depicts sites of identity negotiation and struggles. This is because of the pressures of language learning, which are socially, culturally, politically, and historically situated (Kim, 2003; Lee, 2014; Teng & Bui, 2018). Consequently, students might build up their individual identity and struggle finding ways to recreate or re-shape it within the community they belong to and/or the EFL community of students within the classroom (Lobaton, 2012). Based on everyday situations, language learners seek a more positive environment to modify their language use in the target language and also join the dominant group. This dominant group depends on the context of the learner and oscillates as an individual moves throughout the day and their contexts. Therefore, it is worth noting that negative identity or identity conflict is possible, and common, in the course of an individual's journey in language learning.

The framework guiding this research is that language and identity are dynamic and ongoing processes, accompanied by extraordinary learner experience, and resulting in more than one identity constantly in familiar and new larger social contexts (Teng, 2019). The aforementioned

Indonesian studies suggest the existence of diverse findings. Wirza (2018) revealed that two Indonesian EFL learners were influenced by the sociolinguistic and political landscapes. The participants were struggling to deal with their situations, which were indicative of their agency and investment to overcome the challenges. The participants' personal stories that were unique, rich, and nuanced with the interplay of social, cultural and political dimensions (re)shaping their experiences.

However, Hajar (2017) reported on the effects of teachers, family members, and peers as mediating social agents for two Syrian learners who studied in the United Kingdom in reconstructing their learner identities. He further indicated change in learning motivations and beliefs after going through different teachers' instructional practices with different parental support for each participant. Additionally, Ishiki (2013) revealed how a Filipino American negotiated his identity. Ishiki explained that the participant pretended to be a struggling English learner to fit in with his class, where he was placed with other struggling learners despite his good English proficiency. Furthermore, the participant was excluded from Tagalog-speaking Filipino American classmates due to his lack of fluency in that language, while being accepted in a Japanese-speaking community at his school for his struggle to fit in through learning the language.

Learning Investment in Language Learning

Identity is related to the concept of investment. Norton (2000) pointed out that it is a complex connection between power, identity, and language learning. Language learner identity involves emotional and cognitive processes, and a more powerful identity is constructed through effort and commitment in learning a language, which is termed *investment* (Norton, 2015). In addition, investment is influenced by the learner's desire to engage in social interaction and community practice (Norton, 2000). Based on Norton's work and others, there has been significant attention to the theory of investment in SLA. Ellis (1997), in his book *Second Language Acquisition*, comparing the investment theory of Norton (1995) and that of Schuman (1978), mentioned that investment is learner commitment to learning L2, which is viewed as related to the social identities they construct for themselves as learners. This means that investment is not unitary or static because these cases are holistically depicting the socially and historically constructed relationships between

learner and the target language in the social world without barriers, and with unmeasured spatial and temporal dimensions.

The main reasons for learners to invest in a target language is related to symbolic resources and material resources (Norton, 2013) that can be acquired to permit access to particular communities and/or enhance their learner identities. Symbolic resources means that learners may build their friendships, learning language to master proficiency, and/or gain a high education level through investment. Furthermore, material resources (e.g., capital goods, real estate, and money) mean that when the learner moves across a community, institution, or even country, the value of their cultural, economic, or social capital constantly is changing. Also, it shifts the dimensions of the spatial and temporal (Teng & Bui, 2018). On the other hand, these conditions are contingent on the extent the language learners are willing to invest in a target language, from which they know or come to understand what kind of benefit or impact they will receive for their effort. Thus, the ideas of identity, investment, and imagined community are vital to examine to help language teachers and researchers support learners.

The framework guiding this article and the research on which this discussion is based is that Indonesian learners as well as Asian learners (e.g., Korean learners) have unordinary experiences in using and investing in learning English in the local context and display their flux within and across diverse communities or environments (Al Mubarokah & Prasetya, 2020; Vasilopoulos, 2015). This is because there is a connection between the language learner and dynamic social world, the complex community, and the effort and commitment of the learner in learning a language. This model contains four factors: learners' cognitive awareness/ideology, perceptions of affordances in the English learning community, learners' sense of agency, and disparities between the practiced community and the imagined community (Darvin & Norton, 2015). It is important to note that investment is multifaceted because it is dependent on the capacity and ability of the learners themselves.

The previous studies on this issue present diverse findings. Man, Bui, and Teng (2018) explored the relationship between social learning environments, investment, and the identity development of learners based on their Japanese and English learning experiences. The findings revealed that the investment in language learning was unfixed, dynamic, and subject to the changing context.

As depicted in Darvin and Norton's (2015) model, investment is

located at the intersection of identity, capital, and ideology (see Figure 1).

FIGURE 1. Model of Investment (Darvin & Norton, 2015)
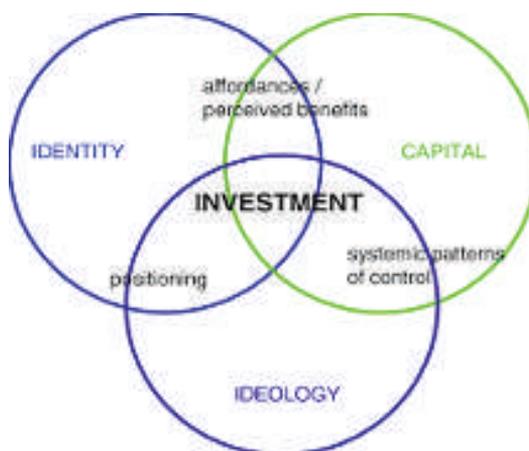
Language Learning, Learner Identity, and Investment in the Asian EFL Context

The construction of English learning identity has been an attractive issue in Asian EFL countries. In this section, I present previous studies on how English learning identities have had a connection to how learning investment was sought or somehow planned. Three countries are presented here − Indonesia, South Korea, and Taiwan − as these countries have been categorized as having increased English fluency. Globalization in the Asian EFL context has been campaigned for in 1995 by the governments of the countries concerned (Vasilopoulos, 2015). For this reason, English has been positioned as being the foundation for global success, particularly in terms of economic development and education (Nam, 2005). Therefore, this issue brings Koreans to be more concerned about their English proficiency. In Korea, the use of English in public spaces builds self-enhancement, with some EFL learners even repositioning themselves as educated and "part of the elite" (Kramsch, 2009). Since the ability for Koreans to be Korean−English bilingual is the most desired skill, excessive private tutoring is an alternative for elite

Koreans to gain the best private English instruction (Kim, 2012). A Samsung Economic Research Institute poll revealed that more than 65 percent of household expenditure in Korea was used for private education expenses because of prestige and competition for a high social level (Piesse, 2015). In many cases, Korean families send their child overseas to gain international exposure, and they believe that it is the best way to gain a better career in the future. It has been shown that Korean students are the third-largest group of international students in the United States after Chinese and Indian students (Dhawan, 2021; Vasilopoulos, 2015). In other words, the craze of high financial spending on global education, especially in learning English, creates a gap in Korean society in family income and social issues.

In a similar vein, the phenomenon of "education fever," also called "educational obsession," has become a controversial issue (Lee, 2006). On one hand, this phenomenon creates educational opportunity expenses, promotes growth in scope of the political and socio-economic areas, and increases the socio-economic position through higher education. On the other hand, there exists an egoistic attitude among individuals in terms of successful career and life, a competitive education system, and excessive private tutoring (Lee, 2002, 2006). In Indonesia, English enthusiasm can also be understood as an attack on Indonesian learners, especially for the elite in international schools. The establishment of a national identity is part of schooling, particularly in the early years in elementary school. Also, as a consequence of personal experiences, children most often feel comfortable and loyal to what is familiar (i.e., the Indonesian culture and language). Therefore, most learners need to negotiate their English identities based on their core identity derived from their assumed first-language culture (Zacharias, 2012). These phenomena indicate that there is an interrelation of conflict presented by English education fever and English enthusiasm within and EFL context.

In the process, the investment in learning English has affected EFL learners' identity. Many of the same broader factors discussed in the literature presented for all EFL learners have influenced the learner in this case study, but sociocultural context plays an influential role (Park, 2012). For example, if EFL learners have gained overseas experiences and have friendships and online communication with individuals in English-speaking countries or communicate with an English-speaking community as part of the home country context, they then can be more familiar with negotiating themselves and their identity to adapt to new

environments. The uniqueness of identity negotiation highlighted by Gu (2008) entails complex and interrelated issues of motivation, identity, and culture. As the social context shifts and as the cultural contexts move (e.g., micro-culture: family; group culture: skateboard group; macro-culture: school), so do the dynamics of multiple identities held by the learner and how they negotiate their identity and themselves. Likewise, Gu (2008) highlighted that behind some students' participation lies a struggle between identity, culture, ideology, and power within and across these primary and sub-groups.

Since identity and investment in EFL learning are dynamic rather than static and have uniqueness in the individual identity construction process, it is essential to consider identity and investment in the language learning context as well. Therefore, research in the Korean context on these topics is shared, moving beyond the Indonesian context, yet the discussion highlights how they relate to work cited in the Indonesian context. Despite distinct social, cultural, and political contexts between the two ELT nations' contexts, Hofstede (2001, 2005) and Morgan (2006) have extensively shared paradigms that have been published to establish and share sociocultural norms between the two nations and their ELT contexts.

METHOD

The Participant

To preserve the confidentiality of the case study participant, the name of the participant herein is a pseudonym (female, Kayla), and the participant was recruited for this study. Kayla came from a modest but economically stable family background. Her family's social status due to both parents having professional jobs is upper-middle class but not wealthy. Regardless of external factors, her parents were not particularly focused on academics. Kayla grew up and lived in Samarinda, East Kalimantan, Indonesia. Samarinda is the capital city of the Indonesian province of East Kalimantan on the island of Borneo. The city is the most populous city on the entire island of Borneo within Indonesia but is still provincial in lifestyle in many ways compared to the island of Java and the capital, Jakarta.

The environment itself has a vernacular language called Banjar, but

Kayla's first language is Indonesian (Bahasa Indonesia). However, Kayla used Indonesian with the Banjar dialect to communicate with her local friends. In primary school, she learned Indonesian (Bahasa Indonesia) as a medium of instruction. In secondary school, she enrolled in an international school called RSBI (Rintisan Sekolah Berbasis Internasional). The medium of instruction was still Indonesian, but the textbooks were in the English language, and international exposure and activities were facilitated by the school. Further, from primary to secondary school, she took some English courses outside of school because her parents realized that she had low grades in English as part of the school curriculum. At the time of this study, she was enrolled in an international program at a private university in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, in which the program implemented English as a medium of instruction. One of the requirements for enrolling in an international program is to have at least a Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) score of 450, and her score was 545. This is possibly in part due to her actively having participated in competitions both national and international, student exchanges, international conferences, and similar events.

Data Collection

Data collection was carried out through an in-depth interview both offline and online. A narrative analysis was used to examine the Indonesian learner's investment and identity in learning English with respect to her complex real-life experiences. Connelly and Clandinin (1999) stated that identities are established through stories that are lived and by exposing learner's underlying personal realities. The use of narrative analysis accommodates personal internal dialogues that are manifested in narratives, revealing identities and unique combinations of the learner's experiences during learning language (Sfard & Prusak, 2005). The participant was guided to reflect on her experiences learning English over time and the participant's perspective in various EFL groups and communities. Since the participant was cooperative, the interview was conducted for more than two hours through an offline interview at her university. Then, there was mixed-meaning data, which required more in-depth information through interviews. The follow-up interviews were conducted online for more than an hour. Thus, it helped to investigate the participant's identity from various perspectives. Further, the researcher used a semi-structured interview technique to

make the situation more comfortable when conducting the interviews. Afterwards, the data were analyzed using Teng's (2019) perspective and Norton's (2013) work on investment and identity.

Data Analysis

Data collection and analysis were conducted in using a thematic analysis. This thematic analysis emphasized identifying, analyzing, and interpreting meaning from what the participant said during the collection of data (Riesman, 2003). In this experience-centered narrative study (Benson, 2014), the participant's stories were examined across her individual account. Since the interviews were conducted several times, the researcher coded the interview transcripts over time. Data analysis was focused on the learner's identity and investment in EFL learning and categorized into certain thematic headings. Second, the results of research and interview transcripts were given to the participant to confirm. The data were repeatedly examined to identify statements related to construction of learner identity or learning investment.

FINDINGS

EFL Learning in Primary and Secondary School: Kayla's Story

Kayla came from an upper-middle class family. Her mother worked at a state-owned corporation and her father worked as a provider of heavy equipment for mining. Likewise, her mother graduated from a management degree program and her father from a law degree program. This afforded Kayla to grow up in a family environment that paid significant attention to education. Moreover, English was something familiar to Kayla's family. This was because some of her family selected to pursue their careers abroad, such as in Singapore and Canada, where English was the first language. Sometimes, Kayla visited them during school holidays or for other purposes like conferences, competitions.

Indirectly, Kayla was exposed to English by her family, however, formal education in primary school was the first place where she learned English. It should be noted that English was one of the compulsory subjects in primary school as regulated by the state curriculum. However, in the second grade of primary school, she said that her English score

was lower than others in the class. Her parents were worried that Kayla was unable to participate in English class learning activities, and specifically EMI (English as a medium of instruction) subjects in the future. Consequently, Kayla joined additional English classes at school, and later outside of school at her parents' request. Indeed, the school provided additional English classes, but these were not required. The school's extra English instruction was conducted every day after school for an hour with the same teacher and peers. However, attending these classes did not last for more than one month because Kayla thought there was no improvement. She thought that the learning activities were boring and tiring, and that the teacher provided a lot of homework.

EFL Learning in an Additional English Course

Kayla's parents searched for other English courses outside of Kayla's school. Eventually, they found one at a local private English institute in Samarinda. Her parents paid the registration fee and also bought an expensive textbook for the Indonesian context. However, Kayla was required to change the textbook for the next chapter every month. Indeed, the price of the course was expensive, and the parents were willing to pay more for Kayla's development for her to gain the best English score in school. During the course, her parents realized that Kayla's competence in terms of English increased, and it had a positive impact on her schooling overall. However, this situation lasted for approximately only one year because over time Kayla looked bored and lost interest to continue her English learning at that private institute. She claimed that new companions and her parents' support were the main reasons she was staying there. In addition, she confessed that the course content there was the same as in her principle school context, which was based on textbooks and was extremely theoretical. Apparently, Kayla's parents observed that Kayla's interest in English was more than just wanting to gain a good score in school. As before, they eagerly began to look for the most renowned English courses at private institutes in Samarinda.

Financial matters were no longer an obstacle for Kayla's parents as long as Kayla was able to learn English well: She would be able to apply her English in the real world, and it would be beneficial to her in the future. Kayla recounted,

"My parents always give support to me to focus on learning English, and they have a big role for my current achievements in English, especially in terms of financial. I know that they spent much money for all I need to learn English. And they always say if you have opportunities, just take it."

Eventually, Kayla's parents found a highly regarded English course at another private institute in Samarinda. This was a reputable English institute with a lot of branch locations in Indonesia and worldwide. As well, the English tutors were Indonesians and foreigner instructors from an inner circle country (i.e., a country where English is a first language). In other words, the English course was credible, trusted, and there was a wider opportunity to go abroad to learn English intensively. Indeed, this English course was high-priced compared to other courses, yet according to Kayla, as financial matters were no longer an obstacle for her parents, they enrolled her. During the institute's program, Kayla was enrolled in a high-level class because her English competencies were above average when adjusted for her age. Subsequently, Kayla's competence in English increased sharply both in terms of accuracy and fluency. Then, she gained the chance to go to Singapore for a summer camp organized by her English institute. Yet, the program was self-funded and her parents were required to pay the costs. Furthermore, by the time that the summer camp opportunity arose, Kayla had participated in this English institute for approximately five years, which was a lengthy period to participate in an English program outside one's principle school.

This improvement not only helped Kayla to gain a good score at school but also provided her with a lot of privileges from the people around her. During middle school, Kayla became the prominent student in her English class because she always spoke English more fluently than other students. Hence, she often represented her school in competitions such as conferences, biological sciences, and English debate at either the national or international level. As a result, her teachers and her companions recognized her English competencies even though sometimes she still struggled to understand all of the content of English, when she joined competitions. Apart from this, she made a lot of friends from other countries and currently still is connected with them through social media.

EFL Learning in College

Kayla enrolled as an accounting major in a regular program at one of the private universities in Yogyakarta City. Suddenly, her mother offered her the opportunity to move to a university with an international program that implemented EMI. Kayla doubted her ability to participate after she had taken the TOEFL as one of the requirements. According to Kayla, her mother asserted,

> "What are you waiting for? You have a good basic understanding of English, so the TOEFL was not supposed to be an excuse. If you procrastinate to join an international program, it will be difficult because you will miss a lot of subjects. Now or never, kid."

Eventually, Kayla was accepted as an accounting major in the EMI international program. This condition forced Kayla to learn to adapt to a new environment, residence, friends, teaching–learning atmosphere, learning materials, and other new things.

DISCUSSION

This study drew upon an Indonesian learner's lived experiences during the investigation of her English language lived experiences of instruction over time, which shaped her identity as an English language learner within the self and society. Findings indicate that professional and well-educated parents supported the learner's investment in terms of time, effort, and money into learning English consistently and that the learner shaped her identity across diverse communities gradually as an English language learner. As previously explained by Norton (1997), that identity is interconnected with the person, activity, and larger social community in the world. Thus, it is common for an English learner to embrace themselves in local and global social circumstances and be adaptable to the people and underlying activities. To this extent, Norton (2013) also emphasized that the dynamic nature of identity makes identity constructed across time and space. Kayla recounted,

> "I learned English due to English as a compulsory subject in my primary school, then I joined an additional English class conducted

by my school, but it didn't take more than one month. I moved to a local English course in Samarinda City, and it took approximately one year. During the national exam, I paused my English course [extracurricular study] then continued to the international English course [institute] in which some tutors were native English. In this English course [institute], I felt confident and lasted up to more than five years. Afterward, I studied in an international based junior high school and regular senior high school. Currently, I study in an international program university. Thus, I am confident and dare to join some international programs both in Indonesia and abroad."

As evident in the analysis, this concept is found throughout the interview. Kayla starts learning English from primary school, continues in various English schools, and then joins some study abroad programs. She also negotiated her identity when moving from one English course to another, from one formal school to another, from a regular program in university to an international program university, from a narrow social environment to a wider environment. For instance, when she studied in a regular program in university, her identity was that of a university student. Then, when she enrolled in a university with an international program study, her identity was that of an international student. Likewise, when she enrolled in some English institutes and schools, she was an English learner. Furthermore, when she joined an international conference or international competition, she was an international delegate. This is in line with Morgan's (1995) perspective that the learner continuously transforms throughout their life through moving from one country to another, from one institution to another, from one community to the next, and so on. It is also important to point out that identity is a key for learners to negotiate their place or environment in a larger and more diverse social sphere (Teng, 2019). Additionally, Wirza (2018) revealed that political landscapes influenced EFL learners' identities, going beyond solely linguistic and social spheres.

Another point that is worth mentioning is that classrooms and another EFL learning community are the places where it is most possible for learners to struggle and rebuild or reshape their individual identity during the teaching and learning process (Lebaton, 2012; Teng, 2019). As revealed in this study, when she first started to learn English, Kayla felt difficulties in learning English and felt the need to study even harder than others. At some time, she was required to reshape her identity when joining an adult-level English class because her score was above average

when adjusted for age. She had to adapt to a new environment because sometimes the learning material was complicated, and it took some time to understand the flow of communication when attempting to talk with her adult classmates. What is important is that the learner gained an understanding of and resiliency in language learning in terms of culture, politics, social circumstance, and history. Thus, the learner had no choice but to negotiate and recreate her individual identity within the classroom (Kim, 2003; Lee, 2014; Teng & Bui, 2018).

It is important to note that based on Norton's (1995) and Schuman's (1978) theory, investment is not unitary and static. As mentioned, it is dynamic because individuals are holistically depicting their socially and historically constructed relationships between themselves as the learner and the target language in the social world without barriers or unmeasured, partial, and temporal dimensions (Ellis, 1997). In Kayla's case, her parents were successful in creating an environment in which she was in an inner circle of people who were learning English. Her parents struggled to find the best English program and invest their money to provide the best English learning facilities for their child. In the same context, in some Asian EFL countries such as Korea, attending English academies for EFL learners increased because of associated prestige and increased social status; it is even common to send children abroad to study with the intention of the child having the opportunity for a better career in the future (Dhawan, 2021; Piesse, 2015). Kayla related,

> "I always share and tell my mom if something happens to me during learning English either in school or my English [academy] courses. My mom always understands me if I complain about my English teacher or tutors, my friends in school and English courses [academies] when it is difficult to adapt with them, and I am so happy to have her."

Equally important, Kayla had valuable communication with her parents. Her parents were always good listeners when Kayla conveyed her story on any topic. For instance, Kayla always told them how she was feeling, what happened with her academy companions, or what she had just learned. Afterward, Kayla's parents provided her with advice. Thus, these kinds of communication gave Kayla ample confidence to learn English, and it affected her perceptions of affordances in the English learning community (Darvin & Norton, 2015).
This corroborates Norton's (2015) perspective that language learner

identity involves emotional and cognitive processes. Likewise, investment occurs when the learner makes an effort and a commitment to learning a language. In Kayla's case, she had been learning English for approximately fifteen years continuously:

> "There were a lot of ups and downs during learning English. I felt embarrassed by teachers and friends when I failed to win. Also, there was an international science competition and even though science was not my expertise, I selected because my English proficiency is good and it made me more effort to study. Then, I felt uncomfortable with others because I am the only one junior who was selected in every competition."

The expression that best represents Kayla's journey in learning English is "From writing 'bubble gum' to going abroad." When she was first learning English, she did not know how to spell *bubble gum* in English, and from then, she struggled to learn and gain confidence in English. Ultimately, she joined international competitions in many countries as her school's representative and gained confidence. However, there were ups and downs. At times Kayla found herself in an unaccepting English community, and when she failed to win a competition, her surroundings make her feel inferior when she spoke in English. There were times when Kayla felt bored and became tired of learning English and the time it consumed. In a similar vein, these results are somewhat similar to the findings presented in Man, Bui, and Teng (2018). They are similar in terms of how social learning environments benefit or unravel the construction of learner identity. However, this study highlights the role of parents as one principle factor in an EFL context in creating the foundation to foster an investment in English, which in turn couples well with the learner's negotiation of identity over time, by having a supportive social learning environment. Thus, the parents' investment in their daughter's education and learning process was successful in shaping the participant's learner identity. Therefore, it can be stated that not only an educational role model and scholastic experiences inform learner identity and investment, but so does the home environment. Parents play considerably equal roles as contributors in the construction of learner identity. What can be seen in this analysis is that there were a lot of contributing factors to the participant's past experiences, leading up to the current exploration of her ups and downs in her journey. Ultimately, the learner (i.e., the participant) perceived and acknowledged the benefit

of learning English as part of her identity.

Further, the main reasons for learners to invest in the target language is to gain symbolic resources and material resources (Norton, 2013). As revealed in this study, Kayla requires, and acquires, symbolic resources in terms of building social relationships with English learners and staying connected with her English tutors, international friends, and English classmates in order to master English speaking, gain a higher academic record in the skill, and obtain international opportunities and exposure in the local community. In doing so, she acquired tangible and symbolic resources by moving through diverse English communities and gaining cultural exposure and values when taught by her foreign native-speaking English instructors. What is important is that the learner's (i.e., the participant's) cognitive awareness of her identity development and her perceptions of the affordances of English in particular communities were dependent on her capacity and ability, which is confirmed by the literature (Darvin & Norton, 2015).

What can be seen in the analysis is that there is a similar context between two nations (i.e., Korea and Indonesia) in educational inequality in terms of financial issues, level of education, and social status caused by education fever and English enthusiasm (Seth, 2002). Korean parents are able to send their children to school according to financial ability. For instance, families with mid to low financial status are most often only able to send their child to regular public schools and common cram schools (i.e., as opposed to affluent and well-regarded study institutes). Also they are less likely to send their children to international schools or to attend higher education abroad like many families with mid- to upper-level financial status. There is a stereotype among Asian countries that a high-level education with English proficiency allows a student to obtain a successful career in the future and experience a happy life (Dhawan, 2021; Lee, 2006; Piesse, 2015). On the contrary, people with low-level, manual jobs or the unemployed lack social prestige and respect. In other words, one's level of education determines a person's future career success and social status. Consequently, as is common in Asian collective societies, where public face is primary, depression often occurs because these individuals fail to gain their desired job. Society, and family, view them differently, and their interaction with both is altered. Additionally, English enthusiasm, the "English fever" (Seth, 2002) makes excessive private tutoring common among the most elite Asian students (e.g., Koreans and Indonesians), who are able to gain

entry into the best private English institutes (Kim, 2012). Piesse (2015) and Lee's (2006) analysis revealed that education fever and English enthusiasm are symptoms that tend to have a negative impact rather than a positive one. These phenomena impact English learning investment and EFL learners to shape their identity. As Gu (2008) highlighted, along the learner's journey in learning English lies a struggle between identity, culture, ideology, and power within these primary and sub-groups. Behind the success of English learners, there is a contribution in the past, which means learning investment. In other words, the right investment will shape the learner's identity as well. Since Korea is historically known for having a good educational system, Koreans have an opportunity to make the right decisions as to where or in what way they invest for their child rather than struggle to build the child's motivation to learn.

To respond to the phenomenon of education fever and English enthusiasm in the Asian EFL context, particularly in two nations (i.e., Indonesia and Korea), the author first makes an over-arching suggestion based on the case study: The negotiation of identity of learners and its challenges for EFL learners in a specific context need to be explicit. It needs to be properly monitored and supported by parents, teachers, and community members, and by the learners themselves. For example, parents, teachers and community members can educate each other informally and formally to develop a sense of safety in a student's English identity and investment in their language skills, without fear of negative issues arising from social status, job, etc. Likewise, assistance for EFL learners to develop core confidence in their language abilities instead of having to rely on their parents' advocacy for English education can build maturity and autonomy. Teachers can be supported and trained to be more capable in handling various student characteristics, language abilities, and dynamic identities to facilitate classroom learning. In practical terms, they can be better guided to build good communication and bonding with their students and to support investment and identity development. It is important to acknowledge that this study was conducted on a small scale (i.e., one participant) and does not reflect the investment and identities of all Korean and Indonesian English learners in local or global contexts. However, the findings are able to offer new insight into learning investment and learner identity in the EFL context.

CONCLUSIONS

From the discussion, it is suggested that in the EFL context, especially in Indonesia but also Korea, parents' acknowledgement and development of English language learning investment plays a significant role. By having access to an above-average education (i.e., private school, and/or private institutes/*hagwon*) and parents with professional employment and higher salaries, often matched with social connections, learners are likely to more easily identify the value in learning English. There is no evidence here that closely identifying with the value of English produces increased investment. However, the assumption of a correlation appears logical and could have impacted the case study participant, as well as others with investment in English learning. Effective learner investment creates an understanding of purposeful financial, time, and effort investment for English learning. In this study, the investment was then re-learned by the participant to start building her learner identity in English proficiency.

This study has the pedagogical implications that educational practitioners can consider not only curricular activities but also extra-curricular activities to facilitate effective language learning in connection with the process (i.e., investment) as well as connection within learners individually (i.e., identity). It is important to point out that not all EFL learners can succeed in attaining a high level of language proficiency even if their parents have invested as much as they can afford into such efforts through materials resources and financial support.

Differential access to English education, as discussed in this paper, and with societies' distinct lenses on the value of social and personal identities, as presented here, the question remains as to what instructors in the classroom can do as EFL educators to promote investment and identity negotiation in a healthy manner. This study was limited to a participant with above average financial support, but it serves many sectors and is reflected in the literature, making one individual's experience transferable in part to many that may have similar contexts. It also informs understanding of others in a distinct context, based on the perception of the role that access to English instruction has on the negotiation of identity.

Sociologists seek to uncover the structures and mechanisms that

produce and reproduce the social and economic stratification of different groups of people. Education and schooling systems in modern society are key sites of such socio-economic and cultural production and reproduction." (Lin, 2008, p. 205)

Regardless of the national context, the sociopolitical context of each country and educational context have a focus; it is helpful to consider that instructors can build investment and identity among students. Nonetheless, since the issue of financial spending for education in Asian EFL contexts (e.g., Indonesia and Korea) is growing, further studies are suggested to explore how successful English learning investment by a family with mid to low financial support may be and how identity is constructed.

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Brief Reports

The Monitor Model: A Critique of Its Concepts and Impact

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When considering what makes for a good second language learning theory, Mitchell et al. (2013) wrote that valuable theories are "collaboratively produced, and evolve through a process of systematic enquiry, in which claims of the theory are assessed against some kind of evidence and data" (2013, p. 3). Assessment of second language learning and second language acquisition theories can be carried out in a multitude of ways, ranging from formal experimentation to ecological procedures, in which data can be collected for analysis as it happens in a more natural setting (Mitchell et al., 2013). This essay aims to precisely describe the main ideas and concepts of, and then go on to critically evaluate, Stephen Krashen's (1981) Monitor Model. Finally, this paper discusses the implications that the Monitor Model brings to TESOL practice.

Keywords: affective filter, comprehensible input, monitor, natural approach, second language acquisition

INTRODUCTION

Second language learning (SLL) and second language acquisition (SLA) have been around for hundreds of years with early practices evolving around monastery and marketplace interactions (Howatt, 2008). However, more modern, systematic, and thoughtful exploration into SLA theory and methodology originates in the last century. An early SLA theory was Behaviorism, which posited that language learning is an unconscious and automatic process (Skinner, 1957). This theory was very much in vogue in the 1940s and 1950s with teaching methods like the Direct Method and the Audiolingual Method supporting a Behaviorist point of learning. However, Chomsky's (1959) withering critique of

Skinner's *Verbal Behavior* (1957) dealt Behaviorism a blow from which it never truly recovered (although it is still practiced today; e.g., the Callan Method). Chomsky's comprehensive critique of Behaviorism led to a vacuum in SLA theory until the 1970s and 1980s, when there was more of a shift towards more natural, humanistic approaches to SLA.

THE MONITOR MODEL

It was the shift in direction from the idea that language is a learned behavior to language being more innate that led to the rise of SLA theories like Krashen's (1982) Monitor Model (also known as the Input Hypothesis), Chomsky's Universal Grammar (UG), and Long's Interaction Hypothesis (IH). Krashen's Monitor Model is the following set of five SLA hypotheses, which emerged out of much research into SLA.

The Acquisition–Learning Hypothesis

According to Krashen's Acquisition–Learning Hypothesis, acquisition is a rough-tuned, unconscious action. This is the opposite of learning, which is absolutely fine-tuned, is a conscious act, and refers to a learner's knowledge of particular grammatical rules and their ability to use them (Gregg, 1984). Because of this, the learning of a language usually takes place in controlled environments through formal teaching. Krashen states that acquisition and learning are in fact different systems, and that they should stay in contrast with one another (Krashen, 1981).

The Natural Order Hypothesis

The Natural Order Hypothesis puts forward the idea that there is a certain order to the acquisition of L2 structures, regardless of a learners' L1, ability, age, and the condition in which learners are exposed to a language. Evidence of a natural order had been previously reported by other researchers (Bailey et al., 1974; Dulay & Burt, 1974; Gleason, 1958).

The Monitor Hypothesis

The Monitor Hypothesis states that when learners desire greater

accuracy in their spoken or written discourse, they will utilize their internal "monitor." This monitor could be described as a sort of mental accuracy-checking device that checks learners' output and makes sure it is as error free as possible. The monitor is employed less when learners wish to communicate more freely, meaning accuracy is sacrificed. Krashen (1981) posits that there are three types of monitor users. Learners who regularly utilize the monitor are named "over-users," learners who either do not have an ability to or choose not to use conscious knowledge are named "under-users," and learners who make appropriate use of the monitor (i.e., when use does not impede one's communication) are named "optimal-users." The monitor works optimally when three certain circumstances are met: There is enough time for usage, the communication is focused on form rather than meaning, and the learner knows the structure (Krashen, 1981; Schulz, 1991).

The Affective Filter Hypothesis

The Affective Filter Hypothesis claims that the learner is well placed in the language acquisition process when the affective filter is low, that is, if the learner is motivated, self-confident, and has low anxiety levels. In instances where a learner may be feeling stressed, tired, or having difficulties with the language, the affective filter will be high, meaning very little input will be processed (Krashen, 1982). Krashen states that the affective filter "explains why it is possible for an acquirer to obtain a great deal of comprehensible input and yet stop short (and sometimes well short) of the native-speaker level (or 'fossilize'; Selinker, 1972). When this occurs, it is due to the affective filter" (p. 32).

The Input Hypothesis

The Input Hypotheses claims that not all input needs to be fully comprehended by the learner, but the learner, however, should be exposed to large amounts of both listening and reading input (Krashen, 1981). Language is thought to be most useful and acquirable if it is at a level that is "a little beyond" (p. 66) that of the learner's current proficiency level (i.e., $i + 1$; where i represents *interlanguage*). This acquisition is said to happen through the help of context and further linguistic information (Gitsaki, 1998). Krashen (1981) claims that the

Input Hypothesis is evidenced by how effective certain types of graded speech are. For instance, caretaker speech from a parent to their offspring, teacher talk from an educator to their second language learner, and foreigner talk from an understanding native speaker to the language acquirer. Also, Krashen (1982) believes that the so-called "silent period" (p. 26) in early childhood development, before children start to formulate words, is proof of them acquiring growing amounts of comprehensible input.

A Critique of the Monitor Model

In a recent interview (Matt vs. Japan, 2020), Krashen still asserts that we acquire language in only one way, when we understand language through exposure to comprehensible input. He goes on to say that we do not acquire language through correction, that we do not acquire language when we speak, and that we do not acquire language when we study it. This seeming lack of evolution and enquiry into his own theory would possibly not make for what Mitchell et al. (2013) call a good second language theory. It has been left to others to evolve and add to the Monitor Model. Swain (1985) criticized the simplicity of comprehensible input leading to acquisition and stated that this was not enough. Her investigation into Canadian immersion programs showed that even though learners were exposed to vast quantities of comprehensible input, seemingly the perfect environment according to the Monitor Model, the rate of acquisition was still relatively stunted. It is possibly fair to say that Krashen's Monitor Hypothesis is an attempt to further explain Chomsky's Language Acquisition Device (1959), however Swain's research seems to indicate that there is still much more to acquisition than Krashen's theory.

At its core, the simplest way to understand the Input Hypothesis is that if one is exposed to comprehensible input, this leads to language acquisition, which in turn, allows for the emergence of output. This could be said for L1 acquisition in an infant's mother tongue as it can be said that we all have an innate "abstract knowledge of language" (Ellis, 2015, p. 175) and an access to UG. Krashen takes this further and posits that the principles of UG also allow us to acquire second languages as well as our L1, if input is comprehensible. However, there are some problems regarding this, such as how input can be made

comprehensible. Long (1996) agreed with Krashen that comprehensible input is needed for the acquisition of L2 but instead believed that interaction and negotiation of meaning between interlocutors is key for input modification and acquisition. For me, this idea seems more intuitive than Krashen's assertion that all one needs for acquisition is vast amounts of listening and reading, and Krashen does not seem to account for the role of interaction and output.

A significant issue, if not the most significant problem, that one may see in Krashen's work is that there is a methodological issue with it: The Monitor Model cannot be scientifically proven or disproven through testing, thus making it unfalsifiable. This has led to some questioning this theory because of its lack of academic rigor (Ellis, 1990; Gitsaki, 1998; Gregg, 1984; Sampson, 2005). For example, Ellis (1990) states how Krashen "provides no evidence to show that the methods he believes are facilitative of acquisition" (p. 127). More recently, Sampson (2005) explained how he is highly dubious about the innatist perspective and seems to regard UG as a kind of pseudoscience. If this is true, it would call into question much of Krashen's theory. However, the concept of a UG, particularly in L1, seems logical to many, but there does seem to be a lack of both descriptive and explanatory validity for how it works in L2. The key question is possibly do we have continual access to an innate UG during SLA (Ellis, 2005). This is yet to be fully answered.

It has been said by some researchers that the Affective Filter Hypothesis also falls victim to a lack of clarity when it comes to explaining how and when it affects second language learners. It has been almost thirty-seven years since the seminal book *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences* (1983) was published. In this book, Gardner challenged the idea of a single form of intelligence and posited that there are seven different intelligences: naturalist, musical, mathematical, linguistic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and bodily-kinesthetic intelligences. The Monitor Model (1981) does not seem to take any of these differences into account and does not seem to indicate how an affective filter would manifest in different learners with different intelligences. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) state that for Krashen to support the Affective Filter Hypothesis with empirical evidence, he would have to clearly identify what the variables are for different learners at different levels and what type of learner they are. Currently, there seems to be no clear evidence to support the Affective Filter

Hypothesis. Though, it does seem more than plausible that learners find acquisition easier if, for example, they are not stressed and in a comfortable, anxiety-reduced setting.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

The influence of Krashen's work on English teaching classroom practices is undoubtedly widespread. Many subsequent teaching methodologies and practical classroom ideas have much of their rationale based on parts of Krashen's Monitor Modal theory.

Extensive reading (ER) is one such way of language learning that is thought to facilitate language acquisition through the reading of large amounts of foreign language material. The main idea for ER is that the material learners read is, first and foremost, comprehensible − it should be slightly below to barely above their current language level. Many have supported the efficacy of ER in expanding learners' lexical range (Cobb, 2007; McQuillan & Krashen, 2008); however, there are contrasting perspectives as to what extent ER can be solely responsible for lexical acquisition. ER is a well-researched area of SLA, and much has been written about it being a fun, motivational, and engaging teaching practice. Furthermore, with the advent of technology like QR codes, digital libraries, and podcasts, we are seeing the proliferation of extensive listening more and more. When coupled together, ER and EL (extensive listening) can provide learners with double the amount of comprehensible input (Stephens, 2011). I believe that it is the role of the educator to provide as much comprehensible input as possible to language learners. This is of greater importance in language-poor environments like non-English-speaking environments and monolingual contexts, as well as in times of crisis such as during the COVID-19 pandemic, where students are being asked to learn remotely. The provision of comprehensible listening and reading can go some way toward making up for the lack of live exposure to comprehensible input and is something I have tried to make more available to my students during the pandemic.

As mentioned earlier, the idea of learners being affected by a high or low affective filter does seem logical. It could be said that at any stage of education, it is imperative that learners can benefit from a safe, relaxing, and welcoming atmosphere in the class. If this can be achieved,

it can lower the affective filter, thus making acquisition an easier process for the learner. This can be done in a multitude of ways: through humor, using students' names, making eye contact, giving positive feedback, interacting with learners outside of the classroom, etc. Some older classic teaching methodologies such as Lozanov's Suggestopedia (1978), which incorporated Baroque music into the classroom for its calming effect, and Curran's Community Language Learning from the 1950s, where the consideration of the students' feelings and fears was put at the front of a teacher's mind (Entwistle, 2020) may have faded away, but a shift toward more humanistic teaching is very much a key part of the modern classroom experience. Students need to feel at ease in the classroom and feel safe to make errors and mistakes. This is arguably more important in certain contexts where students are not used to having to speak up in class, as in some East Asian contexts like Japan (Marwood, 2019).

With regards to the Monitor Hypothesis, in a second language classroom promoting both fluency and accuracy in our learners can be a particularly tricky balancing act for the teacher. It is often quite difficult to have learners produce both fluent and accurate utterances at the same time. Task-Based Learning (TBL) is one such teaching practice where the focus is less on form and more on meaning. As learners work on a main "task," it is the teacher's job to input extra, often upgraded, language that the students may be struggling to produce. In this way, it could be said that the teacher acts as an input provider, or the $i + 1$ provider, of the language "a little beyond" (Krashen, 1981, p. 66) the students' reach. Another job of the teacher is to be cognizant of their students learning variables (e.g., age, motivation, language level) and to help them to be an optimal user of their monitor. The goal of an ESL course is to provide the students with the language that they need to effectively communicate, and the goal of the teacher, as an $i + 1$ provider, is to create the opportunity for greater language acquisition.

The Natural Order Hypothesis has implications, as the name suggests, on the order in which certain grammatical forms and structures should be included in the class as to make them most conducive to acquisition. As a general rule of thumb, easier language concepts should be introduced first and then built upon through scaffolding to introduce more complex and difficult structures and concepts. While this seems totally intuitive, rigid syllabi often move on to the next "grammar point" without learners fully comprehending the previous one. A widely used teaching approach, though not lacking in its own detractors, is

Presentation, Practice, Production (PPP). PPP is a simple, a widely used teaching approach that supports the notion of direct instruction and is at odds with Krashen.

Another implication of the Monitor Model is the lack of drilling, explicit teaching of grammar rules, and error correction. This is more in line with how we acquire our L1 and the result is that learners naturally acquire the language in a low-stress, anxiety-free way. This was outlined in Krashen and Terrell's 1983 book, *The Natural Approach*. This way of teaching is still widely popular as it is simple to understand, easy to implement as educators are given freedom to try the method along with their current practices, and it has been clearly demonstrated by Krashen (Markee, 1997). This approach is a clear reflection of the Affective Filter and the Natural Order Hypotheses. I agree with Krashen that constant error correction is demotivating to many students. Focusing on meaning over form can be beneficial in many contexts, particularly ones where the wants and needs of the learners are that of effective communication rather that absolute accuracy. However, Terrell (1983) does believe that some degree of the conscious learning of grammar rules has a place in the classroom. This is something I also tend to agree with, particularly at lower levels to provide learners with the fundamental metalanguage around grammar.

CONCLUSIONS

From the critique and implications outlined in this essay, it is clear that Krashen's Monitor Model has been somewhat controversial in the field of SLA. However, I think it can also be said that this SLA theory has been of great influence on many other SLA theories and second language teaching practices. Although, it may be somewhat harsh to describe the theory as a bucket full of holes (Ellis, 1990), there are some major problems limiting both its descriptive and explanatory validity. The question posed in the introduction of this essay was whether the Monitor Model makes for sound second language acquisition theory. I think Ellis may have put this best when he said that the Monitor Model explains that "successful classroom acquisition learners require access to message-oriented communication that they can understand. It also provides a rough explanation of why this might be so. The main problem with Krashen's hypothesis is that it is nothing like as 'fundamental' as

he claims" (Ellis, 1990, p. 107). Despite the problems and criticisms levelled at Krashen and the Monitor Model, it is undeniable that it has had a substantial impact of the field of SLA and English language teaching.

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Book Reviews

Interaction Online

Reviewed by James Kimball

INTRODUCTION

If you are like everyone else in TESOL, you have likely spent a great deal of time on the internet teaching your classes and communicating with students. Unfortunately, because of the coronavirus, the days of teaching traditional face-to-face classes have become a distant memory. This turn of events, foisted upon teachers regardless of experience and qualifications, is expected to continue. As a result, teaching online is now a basic skill set all teachers must acquire.

It turns out that some instructors already had a background in digital technologies and were comfortable acclimating to the virtual landscape. Others, at all levels and sectors, had a rockier introduction to teaching online. It is not only teachers who have to master a learning curve. Our learners, too, must adapt to studying online. The issues are two-fold: The first, platform familiarity and bandwidth; and the second, content and interaction patterns.

Luckily, there is a helpful resource for readers in search of guidance and ready-made activities: *Interaction Online*, by Lindsay Clandfield and Jill Hadfield. More specifically, it is a resource book with activities and focuses on improving online interaction. It should also be noted that this is not a how-to book covering technologies or online tools, although it does touch on this subject briefly.

SUMMARY

Interaction Online is part of the Cambridge series Cambridge Handbooks for Language Teachers. This means that it is an idea bank of practical activities, not an in-depth technical or academic dive into online learning. For that topic or issue, consult *How to Teach English with Technology* (Dudeney & Hockley, 2007).

Interaction Online begins with an introduction covering who the book is aimed at, the principles of interaction, and why it matters for success in online learning, a brief look at tools, and how the book is organized.

Chapter 1, *Setting Up and Managing Online Interaction*, is indispensable for getting started. In addition to technical considerations, such as platform or application, there are classroom management tips: setting rules, giving instructions, setting deadlines, using students' names, encouraging interaction, and managing time and lesson activities.

Skipping all the way to Chapter 7, *Feedback and Assessment*, readers will find a number of useful tips on why and how to give feedback and correct errors when teaching online. What sticks in my mind is the section on extending language, or upgrading language. These are springboards for nurturing interaction and upgrading language skills. The assessment sections are also valuable. What part of an online course does an instructor assess? The problems and solutions unique to online learning are not as cut and dried as in a face-to-face class. Chapter 7 offers assessment examples and sample rubrics to explore for your own use.

Chapter 8, *Task Design*, illustrates how teachers can design online tasks to fit their own context. There are many issues to consider when setting up an activity. As task type and content are rarely a one-size-fits-all prospect for every class, it is worth exploring different ways of implementing an activity to meet the needs of a specific context.

Sandwiched in between are Chapters 2−6. On offer are practical, creative ideas for activities − 79 of them. They are divided into categories based on type of task: personal interaction (13), where students share and exchange personal information; factual interaction (19), where students share information about people, places, and things; creative interaction (19), where students engage in collaborative tasks; critical interaction (15), where learners debate, rank, and share perspectives on issues; and fanciful interaction (13), where learners solve

puzzles, role play, and create.

And there is a common denominator among most, if not all, of these activities. They are *tasks* (Nunan, 2004), in that learners are mainly focused on meaning, not form. Language use is authentic and outcome-based (target or pedagogical).

EVALUATION

There is much to like about this bank of tasks. The content and design are bound to enrich online interaction among learners. For many teachers and learners, navigating the online environment is a work in progress, and the five categories of tasks give reflective, imaginative teachers free reign to adapt topics and activities within a principled framework. Unit 8, *Task Design*, emphasizes the need to choose among different interaction patterns and lesson staging options.

Fostering interaction is the main goal of these activities. Genuine participation is one area of my classroom experience that I am always working to develop. Getting students to integrate themselves within a dialogue with others is not easy. In *Online Interaction*, instructors are reminded to provide learners with language to agree or disagree, to comment, reply, or negotiate meaning. The simple tasks worked well for me, and not just with beginner to elementary students (A1–A2). The tasks for this level work well as warm-ups with higher-level classes. These easier tasks allowed students to bond or build a community before tackling more complex tasks.

Another highlight for me is the numerous examples of task feedback meant to improve interaction with learners. These include sentence starters and ideal stages in the task cycle to give feedback. Just like in a face-to-face class, learners might feel disconnected from class and lose motivation. This feedback, which typically marks lesson stages, is also meant to maintain student motivation.

As far as activities are concerned, they work. In my experience, the simple, universal topics work the best. For example, *Foodies* (p. 36) and *Post a Recipe* (p. 74) generated a lot of interest among students. Food is universal. And I was pleased with the success we experienced with *Art Monologues* (p. 85). *Estate Agents* (p. 108) generated a lot of questions and answers and opinions among older learners with life experience.

Not all of the topics work well on their own, so they need more context or sufficient cultural background information to engage students. *Number Plate Story* (p. 103) did not work smoothly. Unfortunately, personalized license plates do not transition well in my context, especially if learners do not yet drive cars. And *Extreme Ironing* (p. 96) did not generate much enthusiasm or output. More trial and error with context and background is necessary to make some of these tasks engaging and meaningful. This does not equate to failure on our part (or the authors). It simply means the teacher should adapt the task by choosing a more relevant topic/meme. And try again.

Classroom management and interaction patterns matter in both face-to-face and online classes. This resource book is designed to be used as a supplement to fully online courses and blended or flipped courses. For example, some of the more time-intensive, complex tasks found in the Critical and Fanciful groups work better if learners have had time to prepare. In a post-coronavirus world, this resource book will still be of value.

As with other books in the Cambridge series, each activity is headlined by a simple graphic highlighting the *outline* (what is it about), *level* (minimum suitable level to complete the task), *learning focus* (language), *time* (how long does it take to complete), and *preparation* (how much time will the teacher need to invest). This makes it quite fast and easy to select a suitable task.

One minor complaint: There is a companion website for the book (https://esource.cambridge.org/#interactiononline), but it is a bitter disappointment. After inputting your activation code found at the back of the book, readers access a small selection of activities from the book itself. There is little value to downloading a few PDFs. For Cambridge's consideration: Supporting materials, such as bonus tasks not included in the book would add value. Or more examples on adapting tasks would be helpful. Or perhaps feedback from teachers on how they have used the tasks.

CONCLUSION

Interaction Online is just what we need right now. We are moving more firmly into online learning with every age group and level, in every setting, whether public or private, tertiary or primary. Instructors

are also grappling with how to foster learner interaction and promote language acquisition. Gone are the days of the static, one-way online listening laboratory, the multiple-choice grammar quiz, and read and check. These outdated, computerized activities are not inherently bad. In fact, they have a time and a place in a distance learning component of an ELT program. But technology marches on. In fact, it is zooming right along. For teachers who want more ideas, who want to conduct more effective, meaningful classes (synchronously or asynchronously), *Interaction Online* offers a practical, creative, useful resource.

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.

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Online Teaching at Its Best

Reviewed by Tory S. Thorkelson

INTRODUCTION

At first glance, it is quite clear that this book is primarily a textbook for faculty (and perhaps graduate students), designers of online courses, and administrators. Still, it is a lot more than that. It is well researched, covers the necessary research and lessons from pedagogy, methodology, cognitive science, motivation, and even social interactions, and stresses the importance of professional development. It manages to link all of these things together fairly seamlessly and with minimal repetition of content, except where necessary.

SUMMARY

The eight chapters cover a lot of ground. Chapter 1 begins with an exploration of best teaching practices according to research, including with an understandable nod to the first author's previous book on that topic, namely, Linda Nilson's *Teaching at Its Best: A Research-Based Resource for College Instructors*. Chapter 2 discusses how to set realistic and achievable outcomes for courses, and Chapter 3 moves to the course level, with tips and advice for designing unified and coherent courses. Chapter 4 is dedicated to an online methodology based on cognitive science, and Chapter 5 discusses how to motivate students to succeed in

their online studies. Chapter 6 is all about the social aspects of teaching, including interactions between students and faculty, student-to-student interactions, and building a sense of community. Chapter 7 deals with accessibility in terms of attitude, knowledge about tools and format, and knowledge about implementation. Appendix B offers lists of resources for implementing strategies to enhance accessibility in six areas to supplement the chapter. Finally, Chapter 8 discusses how to build a supportive culture for online teaching through professional development and a favorable institutional attitude towards supporting such programs properly. Appendix A is a step-by-step checklist for online course development, with tips and additional resources for implementing many of the most important ideas discussed in the book.

EVALUATION

This book's advantage is the overview of so many related topics of importance and interest to those trying to design or provide the best online experience for their students. The chapters are filled with links and examples of real courses and online resources in strategic locations. This is so that all readers − even those who do not want to read the entire book from cover to cover in the order it is written − can easily find the page or section necessary for their particular needs. Numerous exhibits summarize the key points in a given area for quick access. As previously mentioned, Appendix A does an excellent job of summarizing essential aspects of the overall book in a few pages for those who do not want to read all 216 pages. There is also some overlap between certain sections and issues, such as assessment, which is dealt with in Chapter 3 and Chapter 6, but this is natural and necessary when so much information is being provided in separate chapters with topics that often overlap.

The chapter on motivation was a pleasure to read because it offered some updated information and research on an area that has been of personal and professional interest to me for many years. For example, the authors state that psychological research has recently progressed beyond behaviorism and considering a necessary balancing of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The focus has moved to factors impacting students, including interest, goals, self-efficacy, choice, autonomy, achievement, and social needs (p. 110).

The disadvantages are less numerous but do exist. Trying to balance a readership's needs as diverse as faculty, students, designers, and administrators is undoubtedly not an easy task. The target audience of faculty means that a true beginner might be a bit lost when trying to connect all themes and topics into a comprehensible whole; however, it will be of practical use to the groups mentioned previously, especially readers who have at least some prior knowledge of such areas as course design, teaching, and educational theory. Another concern, as internet content is ever-changing, would be how likely the links and tools from 2018 are to still be active in 2020 and beyond. For example, there is not one mention of Zoom or similar platforms/technologies anywhere.

The final issue is the focus on North American examples and references. While this is understandable, it made me sigh as I read of the policies and initiatives offered at so many universities in the US and Canada. These offerings have yet to be established or dealt with in our EFL environment here in Korea. For example, faculty and students may be willing to switch from offline to online courses with a reasonable amount of lead time and preparation. Unfortunately, without IT support and a lack of institutional infrastructure and incentives, the faculty are destined to succeed or fail alone or feel unappreciated by their colleagues or the university as a whole. Regardless of what students expect or believe, this only adds to the obstacles in making a genuinely meaningful educational experience for those who take the chance to develop or enroll in such courses.

In the end, I was impressed with the depth and breadth of material covered by this book. It is not an ideal choice for a true beginner – and I would probably not use it for teaching undergraduate students or recommend it to a novice in the fields of education or course design, for example. However, as both a reference and resource book for someone in higher education – particularly those in need of a balanced overview with both theoretical foundations and practical insights along with numerous examples of successful courses, tools, techniques, and policies that have worked for others facing the same challenges, I would highly recommend this book for a place on their shelf. While there are other books available, and I did look at a few online and peruse their reviews, this volume lives up to its high rating on various sites. It will not quickly be replaced by something better until a second edition or future editions update the tools and suggestions, hopefully from a post-COVID perspective. That is something the authors could not have realistically

anticipated, any more than the rest of the world did, so I will not be holding my breath or planning to do so anytime soon.

THE REVIEWER

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

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Applying George M. Jacobs and Harumi Kimura's *Cooperative Learning and Teaching* to the COVID-19 Pandemic

Cooperative Learning and Teaching
George M. Jacobs and Harumi Kimura
Virginia, USA: TESOL International (*2013*).
Pages: vi + 47. (*ISBN-978-1-942-22308-5, Paperback*)

Reviewed by Yih Ren

INTRODUCTION

The COVID-19 pandemic has raised awareness of social inequalities and exposed social injustice and racial discrimination embedded in many "-isms" (e.g., orientalism, hierarchism, and nationalism). It has imposed changes and challenges on education itself, as well as classroom dynamics. Teachers, administrators, students, and parents have all shared mixed feelings when facilitating online schooling experiences. Online education, also known as e-learning or distance learning, has been an essential pedagogical tool that benefits learners worldwide. However, it has become the only option for students in different continents. As a result, COVID-19 has opened up more space for critical evaluation of online education.

Cooperative learning (CL) is widely accepted to increase learners' communicative skills and interdependent understanding. Furthermore, CL collectively serves as a discipline for developing effective, collaborative learning and teaching that can be employed not merely in the classroom but also in society. In *Cooperative Learning and Teaching*, George M. Jacobs and Harumi Kimura offer educators different approaches and CL techniques for use in English language classrooms.

SUMMARY OF THE CONTENT

In this well-elaborated, incredibly practical, and still slender book, Jacobs and Kimura give us five chapters with techniques, rich examples, and praxis to English language teaching and learning. These five chapters, including a short introduction, are presented in the manner of peeling back the layers of the onion to see CL for what it is. The *Introduction* (Chapter 1) primarily distinguishes CL from regular group activities and addresses what will be illustrated in the following chapters. Chapter 2, *Why Use Group Activities?*, explains both advantages of group work with CL and obstacles that will require careful preparation throughout implementation. Chapter 3, *Preparing for Cooperative Learning*, is concerned with the elements that will help prepare CL activities, including attention signal design, seating arrangement, group size, and group membership. Chapter 4, *Four Teaching Principles for Interaction*, delineates four core directions for enhancing interactions: (a) maximum peer interaction, (b) equal opportunity to participate, (c) individual accountability, and (d) positive interdependence. Chapter 5, *Four Teaching Principles for Bonding*, on the other hand, highlights the social meaning of CL beyond group and classroom: (a) group autonomy, (b) heterogeneous grouping, (c) cooperative as a value, and (d) using cooperative skills.

CRITIQUE

Readers may ask why I have chosen to write a *critique* instead of an *evaluation*. However, I would argue that the distinction is superfluous. Critique, according to Janks (2012), is both backward- and forward-looking, meaning that it can critically engage us. CL has been studied since the 1990s, and it has also been adopted worldwide within different contexts. In the field of TESOL, CL is an old friend. Its advantage is well documented, but drawbacks have also been shown. Ghufron and Ermawati (2018) point out that CL can be problematic and counterproductive as it requires preparation, arrangement, and management. Of course, Jacobs and Kimura are aware of several factors that may lead to CL success or failure. They directly address potential issues or concerns on group activity planning (pp. 5–6), classroom management (pp. 10–15), group interaction (Chapter 4), and beyond-group cooperation (Chapter 5).

Also, they underscore the fluidity and flexibility within their teaching methods by emphasizing the importance of particular teaching contexts. Moreover, as Freire (1998) remarked, learning is not merely concerned with memorizing words but with utilizing the language and expressing one's thoughts reflected within the world in which they exist.

CRITICAL PEDAGOGY

TESOL's critical pedagogy framework has been getting a bit more attention (e.g., Pennycook, 1999) in developing a more holistic notion that language is not a static object but embedded within evolving identities and social experiences. I am glad that Jacobs and Kimura reiterate such an essential aspect of teaching. Teachers who understand and value this approach to education need to reflect on dynamical social contexts and also need to hear how their students negotiate within social contexts. The CL praxis is the central key to critical education. Understandably, a thin book primarily offering in-classroom, hands-on CL activities does not uphold and prolong the dialogue on this affair with sufficient depth and relevance.

This book walks readers through the implementation of CL activities, from a small stage to a much larger stage. It begins with the *Introduction* (Chapter 1), differentiating CL activities from group activities. Then, Chapter 2 explains how group activities can promote students' learning outcomes. Chapter 3 takes CL to the preparation stage that facilitates cooperation among groups. Chapters 4 and 5 extend some CL techniques to the social dimension related to social interdependence theory (e.g., Johnson & Johnson, 1999, 2009). The layout of these five chapters, starting with something as small and detailed as the definition of CL activities, progresses to a large picture that goes beyond school matters. More pointedly, social theories that promote quality cooperation, accountability, group autonomy, heterogeneity, and cognitive competence, interwoven within step-by-step CL activities illustrated in the book, provide value beyond the scope of a technique booklet.

CONNECTION TO THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC

The COVID-19 pandemic has imposed many challenges to education, mainly appearing in underdeveloped countries/regions and disadvantaged communities and families, yet it has opened up an opportunity for us to exercise the spirit of cooperative learning. Ivone et al. (2020) put together nine cooperative lessons, including ideas to help teachers manage online classes. Noticeably, this article reconciles difficulties presented in Jacob and Kimura's book, such as student workload, classroom management, and classroom design. However, the article amplifies even more concerns about social inequalities during the pandemic, such as lack of access to the internet and computer devices, lack of online education experience, and discriminatory pandemic pods (Swerdlow, 2020) that disadvantage students of poverty or disability.

Echoing these nine activities designated by Ivone et al. (2020) for distance learning, we can also see how CL techniques in Jacobs and Kimura's book can enhance learning outcomes and raise awareness of equality and apprenticeship. For example, The Same Game (p. 15) and Circle of Speakers (p. 22), aiming to help students and the teacher find commonalities and equal participation, can benefit trust- and connection-building among students. Also, the teacher, through careful implementation, can better manage all students to create non-discriminatory learning groups based on their mutual interests, location, or personality. Activities like Write-Pair-Switch (p. 20), Everyone Can Explain (p. 24), Circle of Writers (p. 33), and Think Aloud Pairs (p. 35) encourage peer interaction, emotion sharing, thought sharing, and cognitive processing. On the other hand, the teacher's role in the online classroom is questionable because face-to-face intervention and communication are limited. Teachers engaging in CL activities should create a learning space where students and the teacher can share and cooperate, even through Zoom breakout rooms and Google Slides and Docs; this creates a safe space where emotions and feelings are invited.

COVID-19 may have caused pain, grief, and conflict, but it has also allowed us to reflect on the community aspect of learning. Education as a laboratory act of knowing (Freire & Romas, 1993) should empower teachers and students by mapping language, thought, and the world. A conversation between Kimura and Jacobs back in 2009 (Jacobs, 2009) ends with Jacob drawing the connection between CL and outside the classroom. Learning English or a second language is not storing a prior

linguistic system. It is more like negotiating and constructing ideologies through interaction with self and people in the world.

Jacob and Kimura are passionate about learning, teaching, and good education. With concrete examples and techniques, this book actively engages students and the teacher to cooperate within meaningful tasks and dialogues. The book also serves as a reminder that, even through a computer screen, a pair of headphones, Google Slides, or Zoom breakout rooms, we can still achieve what good education intends to do − make society a better place (p. 40; also cited in Archambault, 1964).

THE REVIEWER

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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://publicationethics.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. COPYRIGHT.

Section 1. A KOTESOL publication may protect its published material with a copyright, a statement of which is conspicuously displayed within the published material.

Section 2. A KOTESOL publication may enter into a copyright agreement with the author of a work to be published by the publication, an agreement in which both parties are bound to uphold the conditions of the agreement.

Section 3a. In case a dispute should arise between a KOTESOL publication and an author who have entered into a copyright agreement, the onus is on the publication and author to resolve the dispute.

Section 3b. If however a satisfactory resolution to the copyright agreement dispute cannot be reached by the publication and the author,

the case may be brought before the BORPE for resolution following the procedure set forth in Article VI.

ARTICLE VIII. 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 IX. 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 X. 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.
- Amended September 27, 2020, by the Korea TESOL National Council.

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 *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

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