

# Korea TESOL Journal

Volume 12, Number 2  
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Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

# **Korea TESOL Journal**

**Volume 12, Number 2**



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**Volume 12, Number 2**  
**The Official Journal of**  
**Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages**  
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## About KOTESOL

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Korea TESOL, Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (KOTESOL) 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 ELT in Korea. KOTESOL 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 was established in October 1992, when the Association of English Teachers in Korea (AETK) joined with the Korea Association of Teachers of English (KATE). 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), CamTESOL (Cambodia), TEFLIN (Association for the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia), and ACTA (Australian Council of TESOL 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, material writers, curriculum developers, and other interested individuals.

Korea TESOL has ten active chapters throughout the nation: Busan–Gyeongnam, Daegu–Gyeongbuk, Daejeon–Chungcheong, Gangwon, Gwangju–Jeonnam, Jeju, Jeonju–North Jeolla, Seoul, Suwon–Gyeonggi, and Yongin–Gyeonggi, as well as numerous international members. Members of Korea TESOL are from all parts Korea and many parts of the world, thus providing Korea TESOL members the benefits of a multicultural membership. Approximately thirty percent of the members are Korean.

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 numerous SIGs (Special Interest Groups) – Reflective Practice, Social Justice, Christian Teachers, Research, Professional Development, Young Learners, Multi-Media and CALL – which hold their own meetings and events.

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



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# Korea TESOL Journal

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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 particularly focuses on articles that are relevant and applicable to the Korean EFL context. The Journal is scheduled to release two issues annually. It employs a rolling submissions system, reviewing submissions in the order that they are submitted.

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 has also expanded its scope to include research that supports all scholars, from early-career researchers to senior academics.

Areas of interest include, but are not limited to, the following:

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

For additional information on the *Korea TESOL Journal* and call-for-papers deadlines, visit our website: <https://koreatesol.org/content/call-papers-korea-tesol-journal>  
Email: [journal@koreatesol.org](mailto:journal@koreatesol.org)





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# **Research Papers**

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# Unpacking the Native Speaker Knapsack: An Autoethnographic Account of Privilege in TESOL

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**Steve Iams**

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Over the past several decades, the notion that a native speaker is the ideal language teacher has been interrogated in the TESOL literature and, in some circles, thoroughly debunked. Yet the myth persists on job boards and in classrooms where native speakers are often still preferred to non-native counterparts. Much has been written on this subject, particularly from the perspective of non-native English-speaking teachers who have faced discrimination and serious obstacles in their professional paths. Relatively less has been written from the perspective of native English-speaking teachers who have benefited from the native speaker fallacy and grappled with their role in confronting their own privilege. Autoethnography is an emerging field of research that places the researcher's experience within the context of a socio-cultural phenomenon. This autoethnographic account sheds light on the privilege afforded to the author and the questions raised by participation in an inequitable system.

## INTRODUCTION: AUTOETHNOGRAPHY AND TESOL

Compared to other social science research in which the subjectivity of the researcher is generally displayed along a spectrum from unseen to participant observer, autoethnographers “foreground personal experience in research and writing” in order to “illustrate insider knowledge of cultural phenomenon” (Adams, Holman Jones, & Ellis, 2015, p. 26). As the name indicates, autoethnographic research explores the relationship between personal experience and the cultural contexts in which this

experience takes place. This personal experience is “intentionally used to create nuanced, complex, and comprehensive accounts of cultural norms, experiences, and practices” (p. 33). In autoethnography, “proximity, not objectivity, becomes an epistemological point of departure and return” and this closeness of researcher and context provides a “view from ground level, in the thick of things” (Conquergood, as cited in Adams, Holman Jones, & Ellis, p. 22).

Issues of power and equity in TESOL came fully into my awareness nearly a decade ago when, as a graduate student, I read Peggy McIntosh’s (1989) groundbreaking piece about white privilege. In acknowledging and coming to terms with privileges I carried as a white, male, heterosexual, native English-speaking teacher, I saw that my advantages were others’ disadvantages. I also began to critically examine my role in perpetuating or challenging the stereotypes and ideals that serve as the wind in the sails of hegemonic forces. In this essay, I will write about some of the moments – or “epiphanies” as they are often referred to in autoethnography vernacular – that served as points of reflection and consternation as I simultaneously took steps along my professional path. For now, I make the case that my insider status as an English language teacher and as a native speaker of English pointed to autoethnography as the most appropriate means for me to critically examine my professional and personal life situated alongside issues of power in the field of TESOL.

The flag-bearers of autoethnography have called for critical scholarship that “makes a difference in the world and, where necessary, changes people” (Ellis & Bochner, 2006, p. 439). In a similar vein, some autoethnographers see “‘doing’ of autoethnography as the praxis of social justice ... as an enactment of social justice and a response to social justice” (Toyosaki & Pensoneau-Conway, 2015, p. 558). While I fully support this notion and am a firm believer in the transformative power of words and stories, let me be clear about the purpose of this essay: I am under no illusion that it will change the world. In this autoethnography, I am “looking for a way to enter the conversation ... an opening in the story where (the researcher) can address a topic or experience that is missing, not well understood, or not told thoroughly” (Adams, Holman Jones, & Ellis, 2015, p. 49). That “opening” is my story.

In this autoethnography, I write for an audience, but I am also writing for myself. As Boylorn (2015) put it, “I use autoethnography to see myself twice, talking back to myself and others at the same time”

(p. 174). The gap in the literature, then, is how I have experienced issues of power and privilege in my life and in my work. In reviewing the impressive body of work that effectively calls attention to critical issues in TESOL, I see the setting, but not my character. Autoethnography is the means by which I can bring this character into the story.

A note about style. Autoethnographers argue that to promote the kind of societal reflection and change its scholars seek, their work must appeal to a broader audience than academia in which a subset of like-minded consumers of academic journals are likely to read their work. For this reason, an autoethnographer seeks to avoid “producing esoteric, jargon-laden texts” and writing “in ways that [keep] others out of or away from [one’s] work” (Adams, Holman Jones, & Ellis, 2015, p. 41, 42). The deeply personal element on display in autoethnographic accounts may serve cathartic purposes in addition to what is added to a broader discussion of cultural phenomena. In Adams et al. (2015), Adams, for example, writes about coming out as a gay man to his parents. As an autoethnographer, Adams first describes his experience as situated in the social and cultural norms (and taboos) of the era in which he was raised. He then brings the discussion forward to the present day in order to discuss the relevance of his experience in the present sociocultural milieu. He is mindful of a wider audience that is interested in his experience of coming out, and argues that accessible language is more likely to be read and heard. As his dissertation advisor once asked Adams, “Do you want 5 or 5,000 people to read your work?” (Adams et al., 2015, p. 41).

For this reason, autoethnographic accounts may read more like autobiographies, and scholars are aware that this can be a form of criticism: Why don’t you just write a memoir? Or so the logic goes. Georgio (2015, p. 407) contends that autoethnography is neither memoir nor is it autobiographical writing: “Autoethnographic writing attends to the cultural and political tensions between lived experiences and their meanings and ethical concerns about representation of self and others.” In addition to a dual focus on micro-macro factors, autoethnographies also seem to have somewhat of a tacit sense of acceptable methods. One of the overarching principles of these methods appears to be an agreement not to criticize each other’s methodologies in published accounts, lest intra-disciplinary squabbles over preferred methods break out. “Autoethnographers are often bricoleurs in their methods,” note Anderson and Glass-Coffin (2015), “drawing upon a range of materials,

from impressionistic personal memories and musings to more traditionally “objective” data like field notes and informant interviews. Indeed, for many, a key virtue of autoethnography is its methodological openness” (p. 64). The methods of autoethnography may be embedded in the text, discussed in parts of the text, “if in fact it addresses methodological issues explicitly at all” (p. 65). Some possible data sources for autoethnography research include the following (Georgio, 2015, p. 409):

- Stories (written or told previously or in the present)
- Artifacts (photos, videos, trinkets, souvenirs, mementos)
- Field notes
- Recorded and transcribed interviews or audio recordings

In Boylorn’s (2015) account of meaningful lessons from her childhood, the author uses expressions – “sayin’s” – as a form of recollected data to construct a performative autoethnography focusing on the connections between language and cultural learning in the black community where she grew up. These “sayin’s” represented reminders and warnings, and the author learned to abide these expressions in her actions. For example, “Sit with your legs crossed” represented the constant theme of behaving properly in front of strangers. “If somebody hits you, hit ’em back harder” was a reminder that life would not be easy for a black woman, and you better be prepared to defend yourself. “It was through sayin’s that I learned the politics of my existence and the agency of my voice,” writes Boylorn (p. 174).

Toyosaki (in Toyosaki & Pensoneau-Conway, 2015) and Canagarajah (2012) separately reflect on moments of conflict and professional self-awareness in autoethnographies related to inequitable treatment of non-native English-speaking teachers. In Toyosaki’s case, the author annually feels the weight of students’ perceptions of his variety of English on the first day of class; some drop the course, possibly when they discover he is not a native speaker of English. In another memory, a journal reviewer critiques the language of a submission as not sounding natural: “I have to learn the (perceived and somewhat mysterious) linguistic oppressors’ language to make sure my lived experiences are legible to them” (p. 564). Canagarajah’s (2012) autoethnography witnesses similar collisions between self and other as he learns what it means to be a TESOL professional. After giving a

teaching demonstration to a group of TESOL experts from North America visiting Sri Lanka, he receives criticism about his teaching method and is advised to learn everything he can from the Western literature. For Canagarajah, autoethnography provides a venue to bring the personal into the political realm: “There is agency in the fact that one can articulate one’s own experiences, rather than letting others represent them” (p. 262).

In these cases and others, the authors take up autoethnography as a means to

- critique, make contributions to, and/or extend existing research and theory;
- embrace vulnerability as a way to understand emotions;
- disrupt taboos, break silences, and reclaim lost and disregarded voices; and
- make research accessible to multiple audiences. (Adams, Holman Jones, & Ellis, 2015, p. 36)

In this essay, I seek to do the same. By embedding explicit and implicit connections to critical applied linguistics and critical pedagogy in personal experience, I seek to make a contribution to the existing literature related to native and non-native speaker issues in TESOL. In sharing personal stories that delve into areas of discomfort and personal growth, I embrace vulnerability as a way to understand some of the formative experiences of my professional and personal life. In talking about some of the advantages or privileges I may have been afforded as a white, male, heterosexual native English-speaking teacher, I seek to disrupt a taboo that a person with perceived privileges should not speak of these privileges. Lastly, in writing the way I have chosen to write, I hope this essay is able to connect and perhaps resonate with the reader in a way that academic writing sometimes cannot.

## THE IDEAL TEACHER OF ENGLISH

In March of 2000, I flew to Chicago for an interview with the Nova Corporation, a company that owned several hundred branches of private English language schools throughout Japan. At the time, I was working for the state government of Ohio at the capitol building in Columbus.

My title was officially “press clerk,” but my role in liaising with the press, was comprised of copying and pasting minutes from the House sessions, printing the minutes, and placing the minutes in the press mailboxes. There was a timestamp for these documents; I can still hear the *thunk* that it made every fifteen minutes to reset the time. The highlight of the job was rubbing elbows with political leaders. A secretary for the then-Governor Bob Taft took a liking to me in part because I always had plenty of time to talk to her when I dropped off my press releases. Unfortunately, she thought my name was “Scott.” Before I realized this, she had called me “Scott” so many times that it was too late to correct her. One day while I was chatting with the secretary in the lobby, the Governor himself strode out the door of his office. The secretary seized the opportunity to introduce me to him: “Governor, do you know Scott from the press office?” I shook his hand and, not having the heart to make an issue of correcting my name at that moment, introduced myself as “Scott.” All this is just to say that no one really knew who I was, and most likely, no one would miss me much if I left this job to teach English in Japan.

The interview with Nova in Chicago began with a group session. There were a handful of other applicants, and we all sat in a conference room that had a map of Japan on the wall. The recruiter was a nicely dressed man, perhaps in his early thirties. He showed us the locations of Nova branches on the map. He asked us where we might like to go. I knew Tokyo, and so I raised my hand when Tokyo was announced. Later, in a one-on-one interview with the recruiter, we talked about sports, and he told me how much he had enjoyed teaching in Japan. When the conversation ended, he offered me a job, and said I could leave in October. I don’t remember being asked about my teaching background.

Eight years before my departure for Tokyo, Phillipson (1992) published *Linguistic Imperialism*, which traced the roots of English language teaching ideologies to a seemingly obscure conference in 1961 held in Uganda to determine the English language needs of 23 developing countries. The conference was presided over by a number of scholars and ELT experts from Britain, and they gathered to discuss the tenets on which future ELT programs that received British funding would be based. The tenets that were produced are the following (p. 185), with Phillipson’s subsequent judgment of each tenet’s fallacy in parentheses:



- English is best taught monolingually (the monolingual fallacy).
- The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker (the native speaker fallacy).
- The earlier English is taught, the better the results (the early start fallacy).
- The more English is taught, the better the results (the maximum exposure fallacy).
- If other languages are used much, standards of English will drop (the subtractive fallacy).

Of course, when I boarded my plane bound for Tokyo, I had never heard of Robert Phillipson, linguistic imperialism, or any of these fallacies. I would go on to teach English and train English teachers for six more years before even coming close to these ideas. Yet the journal I kept in Japan, the very first entry of which was written on the plane en route to Tokyo, hardly reads like the diary of an imperialist. In the first entry, I worry about whether anyone will be at the airport to greet me and provide me safe passage to an apartment. I wonder about my soon-to-be students, and their purposes for learning English. “In some ways, maybe they are a little bit like me,” I wrote, “curious about the world and eager to explore it.” The early entries drip with wide-eyed optimism, and perhaps more than a little naivety. Back home in Ohio, people had told me how brave I was, how much they wished they could do something like this.

As I sowed the first seeds of an international teaching career in Japan, studies reporting on the effectiveness of native English-speaking teachers, primarily in East Asia, began to surface in the literature. Boyle (1997) noted that the easy ride that language teachers in Hong Kong had enjoyed might soon come to an end with the transfer of Hong Kong back to China. In the face of competition from local teachers, native English-speaking teachers would “increasingly have to prove their worth, and this will probably mean a greater effort than in the past to appreciate the language and culture of their pupils” (p. 167). Yet Boyle still mused that “there does seem ... to be something special about the native-speaker,” a mystique attached to a skill so effortlessly acquired.

In the same year as the Boyle article was published, Johnson (1997) published an article in *TESOL Quarterly* with the provocatively simple title of “Do EFL teachers have careers?” The study examined how EFL teachers in Poland, both native and nonnative English speakers,

perceived their work as language teachers. Despite a small sample size, Johnson's conclusion is one that may still resonate with teachers today: "The study suggests that the status of EFL/ESL as a profession is highly questionable" and can be an "unstable, marginalized, impermanent occupation" (p. 707).

Throughout my first year in Japan, there is no sign in my journals or trace in my memory that I believed that I was about to embark on a long career in English language education. In fact, at the end of my one-year contract, I did what many expatriate teachers do and returned home to "the real world" to find a "real job." I had enjoyed Japan and I had enjoyed teaching. There was a growing sense, however, that something was not square in how Nova was operating its business. I remember learning from a student how much a one-on-one private lesson cost: nearly \$75 for an hour of conversation. Though the teachers made the same amount of money for individual or group lessons, the one-on-one lessons were frequently referred to as a "free-con" or "free conversation," because they did not require any sort of lesson plan. It meant all the teacher had to do was show up and facilitate the conversation. Certainly, some instructors went about this more strategically than others. I only remember not having any strategy, other than to ask questions to keep the conversation going. Often times, since multiple classes were held in one large room, it was easy to hear a teacher sharing travel adventures during these free-cons. Why would anyone pay \$75 per hour to hear about someone's vacation? This thought made me uncomfortable, as did seeing the Japanese staff stay at the office late into the night as the teachers would head home. The entire staff could not leave, I learned, until everyone was finished with their work.

When I left Japan, I did so with some trepidation of the possibility that I would never come back to Asia, and also of the possibility that I would.

## **FROM TEACHER TO TRAINER, OVERNIGHT**

In 1961, the same year that English language experts convened in Uganda to set forth principles by which developing nations could base English language education, John F. Kennedy announced the creation of

the U.S. Peace Corps (*Wikipedia*, 2015). The Peace Corps Act passed by Congress stated the following regarding the purpose of the Peace Corps:

To promote world peace and friendship through a Peace Corps, which shall make available to interested countries and areas men and women of the United States qualified for service abroad and willing to serve, under conditions of hardship if necessary, to help the peoples of such countries and areas in meeting their needs for trained manpower. (para. 3)

Since the creation of the Peace Corps, more than 200,000 Americans have served as volunteers in different capacities in more than 100 countries worldwide. I am one of those Americans. Actually, I might be two. I served as a volunteer in Nepal for nearly two years – a Peace Corps service is generally 27 months – before the program in Nepal was suspended as tensions between Nepal’s government and the Maoist rebel group reached a dangerous threshold. When a pipe bomb was thrown into the American Center compound, an outdoor latrine blew up. No one was injured but it was deemed an attack on American interests. The Peace Corps could no longer guarantee the safety of volunteers, and the entire program left the country within a week. Faced with uncertain prospects back in the U.S., I decided to continue my service for nearly two more years in China, where I taught undergraduate English courses in an industrial town in Sichuan Province.

I remember a conversation that I had with my Peace Corps recruiter when I found out that I would be an “English language teacher trainer” in Nepal. At the time, I had only one year of conversational English teaching under my belt, and the thought of training teachers seemed a little absurd. The recruiter mentioned that many of the local English teachers needed to improve their English proficiency in order to improve their teaching, and I would be able to help in this way. Besides, anything that I had to share regarding teaching methods would be appreciated. Still, to be positioned as any sort of expert felt a little disingenuous.

I left for Nepal in early 2003. It would not be until late 2006 that I first encountered the idea of the native speaker fallacy, a construct that “places ownership of English and default expertise in the hands of an idealized native speaker” (Rudolph, Selvi, & Yazan, 2015, p. 28). My ignorance of what was being discussed in academic circles did not mean, of course, that I assumed myself to be an expert. Instead, my first

months of teaching at a rural public school were marked by daily surprises and survival. In a journal entry from my second month as a teacher, I recount a moment at school that, in hindsight, became somewhat typical of my Peace Corps experience.

I was at school, sitting in the teacher's lounge during third period, preparing some materials for my fifth-grade class later that afternoon. The Head Sir walked into the room and interrupted my work. "Mr. Steef," he said (he prefers to call me "Mr. Steef"), "I see you are free this period." No, I responded, I was making some nice visual aids for my fifth-grade class. "Yes," he said, "You will now go to Class Seven and teach." The seventh-grade English teacher hadn't come to school that day. "I haven't prepared a lesson," I said, not to mention I'm not the seventh-grade teacher, had never taught the seventh-grade class, hadn't previously seen the seventh-grade book. "It is no problem for you," the Head Sir said, "Just speak English and teach them some nice English phrases. You go now." He was so direct in his demand. It felt like an order. And so I went.

I walked toward the class thinking, "Fifty seventh-grade students, no plan, what am I going to do? Just stand there and start talking? Just make something up?" I walked into the classroom and the students rose in unison to greet me: "Good morning, Sir!" they shouted. "Good morning," I said, "Sit down, please." "THANK YOU, SIR!" they screamed, squirming into position on their cramped benches. They looked up at me in anticipation, waiting, I suppose, for me to take out my magic English wand and deliver them a spell-binding lesson.

The lesson had a happy ending. I found something in the textbook to focus on and spontaneously spun it into something engaging for the students. The moral of that story, for me, was that I had finally found something that I was good at. To find myself sitting in a teacher's lounge in Nepal – this alone was something I had never dreamed of as a child. And then, to be able, on demand, to walk into a room with over fifty Nepali students and make something out of nothing – I felt creative and stimulated, and I felt needed. It was all I could ask for in a job.

But then there's the question of whether I should have been there in the first place; whether my presence was made possible by an invisible

suitcase of cultural, political, economic, and social capital (McIntosh, 1989); whether the presence of inexperienced native English teachers in Nepal and all over the world had the “unintended consequences of damaging the quality of English instruction and jeopardizing the professional identity of local non-native English-speaking teachers” (Wang & Lin, 2013, p. 5). I did not see it that way, but I would realize that others did. When this realization eventually set in, I saw only two ways forward: professionalize, or get out. At this crossroads, a question that Canagarajah posed to himself in his autoethnography rang true for me, albeit for somewhat different reasons: “How does one become a TESOL professional?”

## GRADUATE SCHOOL: AN EPIPHANY

The professional chapter of my career began by pursuing a graduate degree in TESOL at the SIT Graduate Institute. In the personal statement that I submitted in the application, I expressed an idealistic desire to be a part of a larger community of language teachers, writing “A community which is carefully constructed in the classroom extends in positive ways throughout the world” (SIT personal statement, April 2006). I also note how much I had relied on creativity and resourcefulness to get by in my teaching. These skills had served me well, but I needed a stronger theoretical and pedagogical foundation. When the program concluded, these needs were more than met. The program’s emphasis on experiential learning and reflective practice gave me the space I needed to carefully think about my role in the language classroom, and my place in the broader landscape of English language teaching.

I soon discovered that this place was a contentious one. As Gee writes, “Like it or not, English teachers stand at the very heart of the most crucial educational, cultural, and political issues of our time” (as cited in Solano-Campos, 2014, p. 436). Nowhere is this statement more evident than in the scholarship related to native and non-native English-speaking teachers in TESOL. What began as a colloquium to discuss the experiences of non-native English teachers at a TESOL convention in 1996 gained traction first as a caucus, then as an interest section, and ultimately as a “movement” spurred by a number of

scholarly articles on the topic (Rudolph, Selvi, & Yazan, 2015). Graduate seminars were designed as a forum to discuss NNEST experiences (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999) and edited volumes captured narrative experiences of non-native English teachers and summarized research on the topic (Braine, 1999, 2010). These strident efforts raised an awareness of the inequalities and discrimination faced by non-native teachers in their efforts to obtain jobs, publish their research, and legitimize their practices in a professional landscape grounded in the fallacies that Phillipson outlined in *Linguistic Imperialism*.

Though my previous teaching experience in Japan, Nepal, and China had in one way already placed me squarely into this political arena, it was not until I got involved in a group project for one of my graduate courses that I joined the conversation. The project asked students to research an area of TESOL that related to language and power. Along with a Korean classmate, a woman who had 15 years of teaching experience in Korea, we read about the topic and created a simulation for our classmates in which they looked through job advertisements, first as if they were native speakers of English and then as if they were not (personal class notes, 2007). We then jointly presented a list of possible solutions, culled from our research and our own perspectives, in addressing the inequitable conditions faced by non-native English teachers. Below is an abbreviated list:

### **Possible Solutions**

1. Create non-discriminatory hiring practices.
2. Raise awareness of World Englishes, not only American English.
3. Change labeling of NS/NNS dichotomy into “international English teacher.”
4. Change construct of “native” as along a continuum.
5. Raise awareness in teacher education programs with diverse student populations.

The project would become a professional “epiphany,” which is defined in autoethnographic terms as “remarkable and out-of-the-ordinary life-changing experiences that transform us or call us to question our lives,” events that “create impressions that ... persist long after a crucial incident is supposedly finished” (Adams, Holman Jones, & Ellis, 2015, p. 26, 37). For autoethnographers, epiphanies have ranged from events

as simple as a conversation to those as traumatic as experiencing abuse or losing a loved one. I count the project about the power dimensions inherent to native and non-native English teachers as an epiphany because it has remained with me to this very day. And it was not long after the project was finished that I once again witnessed the real world manifestations of a global ideology. In fact, from that point on, I would see this inequality everywhere I looked.

Toward the end of my time as a graduate student, my search for a job in the field began. My Korean partner from the language and power project had told me about the university in Korea where she had received a TESOL certificate. She spoke highly of the program and the teachers that she had there. As I began searching for jobs on TESOL.org and other sites, I noticed that this university had placed an advertisement for teacher-trainer positions beginning in the fall. I decided to apply, and a few weeks later, I received notice that I had obtained an interview for a position. The director of the program wanted to interview me over the phone the following day. This set in motion a frenetic review session on my part. I looked over all of my notes from the academic year and made cheat sheets with names of theories and methods that I could refer to during the interview (Skype video was still in its infancy at the time). I have a vivid image of my dorm room littered with pages of notes and open textbooks. I was ready for anything. As it turned out, all of my preparation was unnecessary. I was not asked any questions about my previous teaching or what I had learned in my graduate program. About a month went by before I received an email from the director of the program. I was offered a job teaching second language acquisition (SLA) to Korean English-language teachers in the graduate TESOL certificate program. The job would begin in less than six weeks, just enough time for me to review the SLA notes I had taken as a student a few months earlier.

A study published about five years after I took the job in Korea examined the construct of an “ideal language teacher” in a similar context. The study surveyed Japanese language students’ preferences in the characteristics of an English language teacher. According to the study, the ideal EFL teacher is a native speaker of English who is male, white, 30-35 years old, American, conversational in Japanese, and has 5-10 years of teaching experience (Rivers & Ross, 2013, p. 329). When I was hired for the teaching position in Korea, aside from the conversational Korean (which I would gain within a year of living there),

this composite described me exactly. I *was* the “ideal” English language teacher, even if I did not want to admit that such a figure existed. To do so was to consider that ten years of my professional life, perhaps thirty more to come, was premised on this perception, and not on my teaching ability.

This preference for native-speaking English teachers is not shared by everyone, of course, most notably the local teachers who face incredible competition for good teaching positions. A study by Coskun (2013) examined the opinions of Turkish pre-service English teachers about a proposed government initiative modeled after the JET program in Japan to hire 40,000 native English-speaking teachers in an effort to improve Turkey’s English language education. The survey revealed a strongly negative opinion of the proposed program, primarily because of concerns over the poor teaching skills and difficulties posed by co-teaching that the native-English teachers would presumably bring with them. Also, from an economic standpoint, the millions of dollars spent on foreign teachers could just as easily be spent on developing local teachers.

In addition to the many studies that examined preferences of students and teachers for native or non-native English teachers, a similar line of scholarship has explored the perceived strengths and weaknesses of native and non-native English-speaking teachers. A sample of publications in the last few years alone reveals that this comparison is an obsession that has gripped the field and that shows no signs of letting up. Someone new to the discussion can save herself or himself a lot of time by reading the titles alone:

- “EFL learners’ beliefs about native and non-native English-speaking teachers: Perceived strengths, weaknesses, and preferences” (Chun, 2014).
- “Strengths and weaknesses of NESTs and NNESTs: Perceptions of NNESTs in Hong Kong” (Ma, 2012).
- “Does a good language teacher have to be a native speaker?” (Mullock, 2010).
- “The ‘who’s worth more?’ question revisited” (Nemtchinova, 2010).
- “Good teachers know where to scratch when learners feel itchy: Korean learners’ views of native-speaking teachers of English” (Han, 2005).



The abstracts, unfortunately, are a reformulation of the same generalizations that boil down to the following conclusion: Native English-speaking teachers have a linguistic advantage but are not well-qualified to teach and do not know well their students' needs and cultural backgrounds; non-native English-speaking teachers are linguistically deficient but pedagogically are more qualified and sensitive to their students' needs than their native English-speaking peers.

## ENTERING THE FIELD

The myth of the idealized native speaker is relentlessly persistent. In Korea, at the TESOL certificate program where I was teaching, one of the native English-speaking instructors abruptly quit his job in the middle of the semester, leaving eight sections of classes without a teacher. The Korean director of the program invited me to her office to ask whether I may be willing to pick up a few of the sections while she searched for a replacement. I was barely sleeping at the time as I tried to stay a few pages ahead of my SLA students, and so I told the director that any additional teaching may be the end of me. But I had a friend from SIT who was already in Korea and looking for a job. I offered him as a solution to the immediate crisis. "Is he a native speaker?" the director asked. No, but he was a bilingual Korean with over ten years of teaching experience. "Sorry," the director said sympathetically, "I believe that your friend is a good teacher. But our students expect to be taught by native speakers."

A recent line of inquiry in the literature implores the field of TESOL to move beyond the fracturing dichotomy of native vs. non-native. A common and well-principled argument is that the focus should instead be on the qualities of effective teachers. According to Farrell (2015, p. 79), "It is not in anybody's interests to continue with this dichotomy if we are to be recognized as a profession within the wider academic community. We should be debating critical competencies related to effective teaching, regardless of if one is a NEST or NNEST." The author presents some of the criteria in assessing a teacher's effectiveness that are not bound to mother tongue or place of birth: methods that promote active and creative learning, classroom management skills, subject matter knowledge (p. 81).

As well-intentioned as such research and commentary may be, the staggering pile of published works on the issue has, in the opinion of some, not made a meaningful dent in the core belief that fuels a global reactor of discrimination and inequality, that the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker. According to Phillipson's second volume in which he revisits the same subject (2012), linguistic imperialism is still "alive and kicking." Kumaravadivelu (2014) believes that while the NNEST movement of the past two decades has done much to shed light on the issue, any progress moving forward will require a new, more radical approach:

More than a quarter century of the discursive output has not in any way altered the ground reality of NNS subordination ... if [the NNS community] wishes to effectively disrupt the hegemonic power structure, the only option open to it is a decolonial option which demands result-oriented action, not just "intellectual elaboration." (p. 1)

The kind of result-oriented action to which Kumaravadivelu refers includes an idea that mirrors my frustration with the seemingly endless line of research comparing native and non-native English-speaking teachers: We need to "discontinue experimental studies out to prove that NNESTs know how to teach, and who teaches what aspect of the English language better" (p. 17). Additionally, he calls for instructional methods and materials that rely on locally situated knowledge and practices.

## CONCLUSION

Autoethnographic research and writing rejects neatly packaged conclusions. This is based on a principle that autoethnography "represents understandings and insights captured at one point in time (or more) in temporal and sociocultural contexts" (Anderson & Glass-Coffin, 2015, p. 78). And though I will not attempt to put a Hollywood shine on this exploration of my teaching career, I will also not let myself off the hook so easily. There is one question left to pose, if not to answer another time. This one also comes from Canagarajah, who after answering his own question of how to become a TESOL professional,

finds himself slightly uncomfortable in his new perch. In thinking about his Sri Lankan colleagues from an early stage of his career, he asks himself, “Have I become part of the professional community that constructs knowledge that disempowers my former colleagues?” The question may be more of a rhetorical one, as most readers of Canagarajah’s work would attest. By shining a light on his story and the stories of thousands of non-native English-speaking students and teachers, he has advanced the conversation in no small way. But this important work does not seem to alleviate his discomfort in having successfully navigated an institutional framework that may still serve, in some ways, to disempower others.

The similarity between my story and Canagarajah’s is this discomfort. For me, the questions are: What has been my role, if any, in perpetuating a native speaker fallacy? What should my role be in contesting it? It is a discomfort that I feel when I consider the idea that the jobs I have obtained may have something to do with the color of my skin, the variation of my English, and my gender. I feel it when I read that students in East Asian countries often prefer a native-speaking English teacher to someone from their own country, and then consider that many of my current international graduate students will return home to face that perception. I feel it when I notice that the first few words out of a new international graduate student’s mouth always seem to be, “As a non-native speaker ...” and I wonder how long this label has shaped her identity. It is tempting to avoid these thoughts; I am capable of sticking my head in the sand. But I know that to do so is not who I am.

Who am I? This is one of the questions that autoethnographers are supposed to sort through, write about, and share with readers. In the autoethnographic tradition of making oneself vulnerable, I have shared fragments of who I am in this essay with a hope that it may be valuable to a line of research that seems to be stuck in third gear, one that churns out generalizations of characteristics, preferences, and attributes of native and non-native English-speaking teachers.

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## A Journey into a Multicompetent Self: An Autoethnography of an NNEST

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This paper represents the identity transformation process of a non-native English-speaking teacher (hereafter, NNEST1) in the format of an autoethnography. Through the vignettes of the author, the evidence that English language plays a vital role as cultural capital<sup>2</sup> (Bourdieu, 1991) in expanding-circle countries<sup>3</sup> (Kachru, 1985, 1986) such as South Korea (hereafter, Korea) becomes apparent. Also, her narrative adds more credence to how the newly imagined identity options such as multicompetent self and English language teaching (hereafter, ELT) professional have a tremendous constructive impact on the personal and professional development of NNESTs. Lastly, this study proposes some possible actions to be taken in order to reconceptualize NNESTs' legitimacy in the field of teaching English to speakers of other languages (hereafter, TESOL) in Korea. To address issues surrounding the NNEST–NEST dichotomy, efforts should be made in different dimensions from support at the national level to the individual teacher's awareness. In this way, TESOL praxis will be able to see exponential growth both in personal and professional practice among Korean NNESTs.

### INTRODUCTION

*“Since coming to the States, I have often felt an urge to burst into tears. How much more effort should I put into this language? How many more times do I have to come across moments when I feel like I’m such a helpless idiot until I finally become a competent English teacher? Will that day ever come? If I hadn’t chosen to be an English teacher, I wouldn’t have felt this awful feeling for myself. [...] Last Friday, with all these lingering questions, I sat on the bench on the hill where the sun had already gone away, and cried.” — The Author<sup>4</sup>*

I remember the beginning of the first semester in my TESOL program in the United States. At that time, I was struggling with a huge language barrier as a non-native English speaker (hereafter, NNES) as I viewed myself as deficient compared to native English speakers (hereafter, NESs). For example, when it came to group tasks, I often felt that there was not enough time for me to process, plan, and complete the tasks in order to make a significant contribution to my group. Consequently, I often felt that I was falling behind my classmates. This sense of inferiority led me to consider myself as an insufficient English speaker/teacher, which generated low self-efficacy. Over time, I grew silent and became a passive onlooker in groups. I was reluctant to express my opinions when working on group tasks, focusing solely on my individual tasks. This differed from how Seullee (my identity as a Korean speaker) had taken on group tasks: She used to be a competent, proactive team member. However, Talia (my identity as an English speaker) was passive and timid in group work as well as in many of her own learning tasks.

This incongruence between the first language (hereafter, L1) and second language (hereafter, L2) speaker components of a language learner's identity commonly leads to struggles around the resulting power inequities between the two components. When trade-offs between two selves in one individual collide, one often experiences internal conflict and mental distress – such as insecurity, anxiety, sadness, confusion, and a sense of inability (Pavlenko, 2006). Doubled with the additional “problem-causing” factor of being an NNEST in *native-speakerism*<sup>5</sup> (Holliday, 2005), my own internal conflict as an NNES/NNEST took me a long time to overcome. Experiencing this identity crisis, I came to be interested in the correlation between language learning and language learners' identities. In searching for theoretical explanations that could illustrate and thus help me to overcome my identity struggle, I found my answer within the theoretical frameworks of identity research. These frameworks helped me to explain my personal stories of developing my identity as an English speaker as well as an ELT professional. In this paper, I present my trajectory to self-awareness and my identity development as a multicompetent English speaker and as an ELT professional in line with the work of identity research in the field of second language acquisition (hereafter, SLA).

This paper also seeks to find further implications for pre-service or in-service teachers in Korea based on personal experiences. Korea is



unique with its own culture. As a Korean who understands the sociocultural aspects of Korean society, I believe that my personal account can be meaningfully shared with other Korean ELT professionals who are likely to have similar experiences. This paper suggests that the key to generating positive ramifications in Korean ELT professionals is to help them to embrace a new identity option as a multilingual and multicompetent teacher and therefore to be transformed. A great deal of literature has already well illustrated how this new identity option in the context of multilingualism has led ELT professionals to therapeutic experiences (e.g., Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999; Pavlenko, 2003a). However, I have found very few researchers who suggest pedagogical implications for NNESTs in Korean-specific settings in line with identity research. Therefore, this paper not only hopes to make a significant contribution to existing identity study but also provide insights with respect to NNEST issues, especially in the Korean context.

### **The Format of an Autoethnography**

In this paper, I will present my own narrative as a speaker/teacher of English in particular cultural settings that I have experienced or witnessed. In reviewing and representing my own trajectory, this paper adopts the form of an autoethnography.

Traditionally, the use of the first person “I” has been considered as subjective, an undesirable quality in academic literature. I believe that the reason that personal testament is so often excluded from academia is because objectivity is so pivotal to academic writing. Nevertheless, I insist that it is impossible for academic writing to be completely free from subjectivity. In her autobiography, Pavlenko (2003b) contends that every scholar inevitably draws his/her own self into academic writing – we write about certain topics because we are drawn by personal history that makes the topics more important than others (2003b, p. 177). Based on the premise that academic literature inextricably reflects the authors’ lived experience, I argue against the traditional convention in schools that view the use of the first person as unreliable or unprofessional as academic literature.

Also, one of the purposes of this paper is to demonstrate the sociocultural context of ECCs – Korean society to be specific – through my own narrative. I found that my narrative could be articulated in the most effective manner through the form of an autoethnography.

Canagarajah (2012) defines the term *autoethnography* by breaking it into three pieces: *auto*, *ethno*, and *graphy*. *Auto* represents the genre of autoethnography as being “conducted and represented from the point of view of the self” (p. 258). *Ethno* indicates that the close interconnectedness of culture and one’s experience plays a crucial role in this type of research. Finally, *graphy* implies the importance of writing, as a tool to record and interrogate data. I believe that the definitions of these three pieces can explain this literature well. Therefore, this research will be framed in an autoethnography.

To conclude, the major emphasis in this paper is fourfold:

1. To articulate my own experiences as an NNEST through the lens of existing studies in identity research in order to make a meaningful connection between theories and myself, both as an individual and as an ELT professional.
2. To provide vivid pictures of English language learning in ECCs, specifically Korea, where English plays a vital role as cultural capital.
3. To suggest implications for TESOL praxis to address Korea NNEST–NEST issues and foster Korean NNESTs’ ongoing personal and professional identity development by providing practical support.
4. To advocate that the use of the first person singular “I” in academic writing is legitimate by implementing the format of an autoethnography as a frame for my personal narrative.

This paper will first sketch out the theoretical frameworks underpinning the analysis of my own narratives with respect to identity. Next, I articulate my vignettes as an NNEST and interpret those vignettes using the aforementioned theoretical frameworks. Finally, possible implications for Korea NNEST–NEST issues from this autoethnographic account will be addressed.

## THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

### Globalization and Multilingualism

Globalization is inextricable in explaining the worldwide spread of the English language. Although the origin of globalization varies from one scholar to the next, the spread of English traces back to the British colonial period, where English functioned as an imperial language in former British colonies (Phillipson, 1992). More recently, economic globalization – commonly equated to *Americanization* by opponents of neo-liberalism (Guerlain, 2002, p. 66) – and the consequential spread of American English (hereafter, AmE; Kachru, 1985) started with the end of the Cold War (Berghahn, 2010). After the Cold War, the United States has maintained the strongest economic power in the international community (Schneider, 2011). The power of the United States economy fostered the worldwide spread of its culture, including AmE. That spread of AmE has generated a number of sociocultural power inequity issues in the global society, disseminating native-speaker norms of English.

Traditionally, the process of globalization is considered to have deepened disparity in economic and cultural power between dominant Centre (the powerful Western countries) and dominated Peripheries (the under-developed countries; Phillipson, 1992; Galtung, 1971). Under the influence of neoliberalism, which is a core feature of globalism, the English language has been promoted in the form of standardized native-speaker varieties of inner-circle countries (ICCs) in outer-circle countries (OCCs) and expanding-circle countries (ECCs). As English has historically been a language of dominant countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States, it has been powerful linguistic capital that symbolizes the power of dominant groups.

Meanwhile, the trend of globalization has also generated a greater need for more diverse varieties of English. According to Canagarajah (2014), the English language has recently come to be used not only in local contexts such as ICCs or OCCs, but also in other multilingual communities in the context of globalization. Consequently, interactions of interlocutors have become highly unpredictable. This phenomenon has brought a new paradigm of multilingualism into the field of SLA and TESOL praxis. Localized varieties of English are appreciated, as opposed to the previously prevailing monolingual bias.<sup>6</sup>

Thanks to the scholars who have challenged the monolingual bias and standard English ideology, and suggested *multicompetence*<sup>7</sup> as an alternative (Cook, 1992, 1999; Kachru, 1994; Pavlenko, 2003a; Sridhar, 1994), we have seen stark changes in the representation of the English language itself and recent English language learning (Canagarajah, 2014). Most recently, English has come to be viewed as an international language. It is considered as a diverse, dynamic language that is negotiated in different manners based on specific settings, rather than a homogeneous language with a set of standard norms (Canagarajah, 2014). Now there is heightened awareness and active movement of this multilingual era in the field of SLA and pedagogical orientation. As May (2013) describes, “The need for more nuanced ethnographic understandings of the complex multilingual repertoires of speakers” (p. 1) in this globalized community has been fostering the movement that attempts to place multilingualism at the center of SLA study and TESOL discourse.

### **Identity, Investment, and Imagined Identity/Community**

After Norton (Norton Peirce, 1995; Norton 2000, 2013) conceptualized the notion of *investment* as contrary to that of *motivation* in the mid-1990s, there has been growing interest in identity research over the last two decades (Norton & Toohey, 2011). Norton, who is well known for her work in identity studies, defines *identity* as “how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is structured across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future” (Norton, 2013, p. 45). Drawing on poststructural theories, she contends that one’s identity is (re)constructed and negotiated by interlocutors through language.

Granting that the nature of identity is context-dependent and ever shifting, Norton conceptualizes investment as a way through which language learners position themselves to the point where they can acquire their desired social and cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1977, 1984, 1997).<sup>8</sup> According to Norton, “If learners invest in a language, they do so with the understanding that they will acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources, which will in turn increase the value of their cultural capital and social power” (2000, p. 10). This notion of investment poses a new question associated with a learner’s commitment to learning the target language. In addition to asking, for example, “Are

students motivated to learn a language?” we may need to add an additional question: “Are students invested in the language and literacy practices of a given classroom or community?” (Norton, 2013).

This alternative question stems from Norton’s research findings that were not consistent with existing theories of motivation in the field of SLA (Norton & Toohey, 2011). Most theories at the time assumed that the reason learners failed to learn the target language was because of their lack of motivation. Based on this assumption with respect to the concept of motivation, a learner that did not show enough progress in a language learning context was often seen as a poor or unmotivated language learner. However, in her research with immigrant women in Canada (Norton, 2000), she observed that high levels of motivation did not necessarily lead to success in language learning. The case of Mai in her study (2000) presents this well. Mai ended up withdrawing from the entire English language course, showing her lack of investment in the language classroom. Although she had a strong motivation to learn English, her investment was thwarted due to the frustration with her *imagined community*.

*Imagined community* refers to “groups of people, not immediately tangible and accessible, with whom we connect through the power of the imagination” (Kanno & Norton, 2003, p. 241). According to Kanno and Norton, we are involved in a number of communities that we can directly interact with in our daily lives: our workplaces, educational institutions, religious groups, etc. However, these are not the only communities to which we belong. According to Wenger (as cited in Kanno & Norton, 2003), imagination, as well as direct involvement, is another crucial source of participation in community practices. He draws on Anderson (1991), who first coined the term “imagined communities.” Anderson argues that what we think of as nations are actually imagined communities, “because the members of even the smallest nation will never know most of their fellow-members, meet them, or even hear of them, yet in the minds of each lives the image of their communion” (p. 6). Thus, we can feel a sense of belonging and bonding to communities by imagining ourselves connected to that group of people. Norton (2013), emphasizing the significant role of imagination as a source of community practice, insists that these imagined communities might have a greater impact on trajectories of language learners than do the actual communities in which they are physically involved.

## ETHNOCULTURAL CONTEXT OF KOREA

### English Language Imperialism in Korea

Phillipson (1992), who coined the term *linguistic imperialism*, draws heavily on Galtung's theory on imperialism. Galtung (1971) insists that elites in both dominant Centre and dominated Peripheries are closely interconnected with one another by shared interests. According to Phillipson (1992), the English language is one of the shared interests of the elites that ensures strong bonding among them and enables them to accumulate social capital as well as to pass those down to future generations. Consequently, English is often used as a means of solidifying the status of elites, aggravating the gap between *English-haves* and *English-have-nots* (Phillipson, 2008).

Korea is a prime example where this linguistic imperialism can be well explained. With the onset of globalization in the twenty-first century, English became significant linguistic capital in Korea (Lee & Jeon, 2006). Having political interests with Western countries and building firm alliances with those countries, elites in Korean society established their social capital in line with the English language. English, the linguistic capital of the dominant groups, became a symbol of the privileged in Korean society. In particular, Standard AmE became the most powerful symbolic capital of Korean elite groups because of the primary dependence of Korea on the social, political, economic, and cultural aspects of American society (Lee, 2016).

This phenomenon is particularly evident in the Gangnam district of Seoul, one of the most affluent areas in Korea. Concentrated with Korean elites that have the highest socioeconomic status (hereafter, SES) in the country, Gangnam does not require any further explanation on its fame in wealth among Korean people. As one example showing this, the average home price in the Gangnam district is almost two times higher than that of the rest of Seoul and 3.5 times higher than that of the nation (Jeong, 2011). In the study by Lee (2016) on neoliberal English ideology in Gangnam, the ideology that American-like English proficiency represents the high SES of the speaker's family reoccurs in the discourse of the participants that are parents who live in the Gangnam area. Also, native-like English is a prerequisite to enter the inner circle of the Gangnam community. This obsession with English is not only seen in

the Gangnam community, but also in the rest of Korean society. Although the majority of Koreans cannot afford the same luxury as Gangnam members – such as early education abroad in the United States – they make an enormous effort to obtain high proficiency in English.

### **English-Haves vs. English-Have-Nots in Korea**

According to Bourdieu (1997), unequal distribution of cultural capital from one's birth (re)produces educational and social inequalities. For instance, students from higher SES families, through exposure to their parents' accumulated economic and cultural capital, are more likely to achieve success in school than those from lower SES families. This educational achievement of students with higher SES backgrounds eventually leads them to possess high SES as adults, which can also be passed down to future generations. Likewise, cultural capital itself reproduces cultural capital, aggravating existing social inequalities in a society.

In Korea, English knowledge is an example of cultural capital that has tremendous symbolic (e.g., honor) as well as economic (e.g., wealth) values (Seo, 2010). As described earlier, native-like English – AmE in particular – is essential capital of Korean elites in symbolizing and maintaining their high SES; having a good command of English privileges one to access economic, cultural, and social capital in Korean society. This disposition of English as invaluable cultural capital entails its symbolized image as “the language of the elite” among Koreans.

Furthermore, English plays a gatekeeping role that directly decides one's SES in Korean society. From the early years in school, English is one of the most important subjects (Byun, 2007) and is often allotted the highest percentage in calculating the total GPA of a student when entering college. The English score on the national university entrance exam is also a key factor that decides which college one can enter. Considering the strong hierarchy in university ranks in Korean society and consequential social and economic (dis)advantages based on one's affiliated college (e.g., job opportunities), it is not an exaggeration to say that English determines if one is eligible to be given access to social and cultural capital even in the early stages of their life.

Moreover, in the Korean labor market, nearly all companies request candidates to submit scores for the Test of English for International

Communication (TOEIC), the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), or other standardized English tests as an indication of one's competitiveness (Byun, 2007). Even after obtaining employment, one is offered uneven opportunities in their workplace when promoted to a higher position or provided a salary increase according to their English scores. In a survey on English proficiency as a determining factor in one's success in their company, 370 human resources managers responded that English proficiency affected an employee's career advancement and salary increase (Choi, 2010). Reflecting this unparalleled status of English in business, 88% of 350 companies in another survey (Son, 2007) answered that they provided massive support for English proficiency development of its employees, such as through in-company/overseas English training or financial assistance for English courses at private institutes. In this Korean context where English proficiency governs almost all aspects of one's life, people are frantic to be one of the English-haves in order not to be a social outcast. Once one taps into the English-haves community, they will be given a "green card" to social and cultural capital and be able to reproduce it. However, if one fails to acquire English, they may face disadvantages of class stratification and being provided with only limited access to social and cultural capital. This divide between English-haves and English-have-nots in Korea has long been a serious issue that has caused social inequalities and yet remains unsolved to this day.

## Education Fever in Korea

Korean society is well known for its "education fever" (Seth, 2002). There are numerous *hagwons* (private institutes) all over the country in which students study as late as midnight every day. Parents invest heavily in their children's education, regardless of their aptitude on tests. Private tutoring is a necessity among students, regardless of any potential financial difficulties. In this atmosphere, English is the top pursuit for all parents and students in Korea. According to the Korea Development Institute (KDI), the total outlay for private tutoring solely for English subjects was about 6.5 trillion won (about US\$5.6 billion) at the national level in 2012 (Song, 2013). This spending outweighed that of other major subjects in primary and secondary levels such as mathematics and the Korean language. It is indicative of a national obsession with English due to its cultural capital as described in the previous section.

This Korean zeal for education is derived from the fundamental



societal structure of Korea that provides increased professional potential with higher academic achievement. Korean students, at the high school level especially, are exposed to extreme competition to enter the most prestigious Seoul-based universities, which will guarantee them social prestige, admiration from others, and better job opportunities. Students who have strong English language skills in addition to a degree from one of Korea's elite universities will gain political, economic, and social advantages.

### **Sociocultural Appropriateness in Korea**

Behaving within sociocultural norms is highly important in Korean society. One of the most influential attributes in understanding this culture is Confucianism. Confucianism is a philosophy that studies human nature, putting foremost emphasis on human relationships as the basis of society (Yum, 1988). This philosophy has been underpinning sociocultural and political principles in Korean society for over 500 years (Park, 2012). As social relationships are highly valued under Confucianism, virtues such as saving face, acting modestly, and upward advancement (立身揚名, which translates as “rise in the world and gain fame,” considers achieving fame on behalf of one's family as the primary goal in one's life) are basic principles that strongly govern Korean thoughts and behavior. If one does not conform to these norms, the individual is often seen as disrespectful, problematic, uneducated, selfish, or poorly behaved.

Consequently, Koreans' interpersonal behavior is generally regulated by sociocultural values of Korean society. Even in an English learning context, one is not exempt from conforming to sociocultural norms. Park (2012) shows this complexity in explaining interactions among Korean interlocutors. Despite the firm belief of Koreans in the superiority of native English, “a desirable self-image based on one's own sociocultural norms” (p. 230) is also a significant variable that decides Koreans' interactive behavior. Park describes factors that affect Korean English learners' interpersonal behavior, such as interdependent culture, hierarchy based on age or position in social or institutional context, and indirectness. These are more decisive variables in representing Korean learners' identities than their desire to choose a native variety of English in an attempt to associate themselves with NESs. In other words, Korean-specific norms are what predominantly govern Korean

interlocutors' behavior when using English (e.g., acting modestly when speaking with elders), preference in English variety (i.e., AmE, rather than other varieties of English because of historical ties), and their imagined identities. Although Koreans aspire to identify their English with a native variety of English, their imagined identities are as members of communities of English-haves in Korean society, rather than of communities of NESs. This general tendency of having imagined identities of English-haves demonstrates the primacy of Koreans' adherence to shared sociocultural norms in their society.

## AN AUTOETHNOGRAPHY

My academic year group officially started learning English in junior high school, in the 7th grade.<sup>9</sup> With the start of English instruction, it became a must-have item to be equipped with to enter a prestigious college and be a successful individual in the era of globalization. The cultural capital that I could obtain through a command of the English language was a matter of *what kind of life I would have for the rest of my life* in Korea: the life of either the English-haves or the English-have-nots. “The key subjects in the college entrance exam are mathematics and English,” university admission experts among the college preparation institutes would say. “There are a number of good<sup>10</sup> universities that do not require math scores. Yet, there is no university that does not require an English score.” During their senior year of high school, a lot of students give up on their math scores when preparing for the college entrance exam. However, I have hardly heard of anyone giving up on their English scores.

I grew up in this atmosphere – where no one questioned why we had to place stronger emphasis on the English language than on our own language. Even though English was not used in our daily lives, I was pushed to become a fluent English language user, as was the majority of the Korean population. My imagined identity was to become a member of the English-haves community, where I could indulge in all of the accumulated cultural capital and high SES in our society. This imagined identity is commonly seen in Korean students. Korean students tend to have a homogeneous superordinate goal, the value of which has been firmly set with unanimous agreement in our society: to be a

successful individual, conforming to Korean-specific sociocultural norms. To achieve this goal, we had to enter one of the top-tier universities in Seoul (Sorensen, 1994).

However, in spite of my strong motivation to excel at English, I was never motivated to invest in classroom practice. In each English course, meaningful learning became harder and harder to come across as I advanced through high school because the main focus was merely on the college entrance exam. Teacher–student interaction scarcely occurred because of the large class size, and the same teaching patterns made students bored. In class, I found nothing new except a new vocabulary list to memorize every day. In this context, I failed to find any need to invest in classroom tasks. There were no new identity options to discover besides that of entering a good university; I could not find any link between each classroom activity and my imagined identity (i.e., a good student who gets a higher score on their English test). There was little to no presentation on the meaning-making process in class of how each class was helping me to achieve my imagined identity. However, my lack of classroom participation was not a problem as long as I got a high enough score to get into a “good” college. My peers also complained that they could not find meaningful connections between the English course in school and their imagined communities (i.e., good universities), saying, “English teachers in our school are not good at teaching.” To fill this gap, many of us went to additional private institutes or received private tutoring after school. We studied in school from 6:30 am to 10:30 pm, and received extra tutorial instruction and had homework afterward. This is still the case today.

After taking the university entrance exam, I entered one of the prestigious universities in Seoul. Since then, I had been asked to tutor students from a number of parents. However, I did not feel it right to be a private tutor, as the price of the tutoring seemed unfairly measured. In 2007, private tutors were normally paid over 30,000 won (about US\$27) an hour, whereas the minimum hourly wage in Korea that college students were generally paid in such places as cafés or bookstores was 3,480 won (about US\$3) (Minimum Wage Commission, 2013). Moreover, if you were a skilled tutor or taught students in Gangnam, the price of private tuition rose sharply. For better or worse, making money by giving private tutoring was common for the majority of college students at renowned universities. Among college student tutors, English was commonly considered as a relatively easy subject to

teach – the only thing they needed to teach was how to use tricks to pick the right answers quickly on the test, instead of teaching an actual language. Given the effort that college student tutors generally put in before giving their lessons, I felt that the price of a one-hour private lesson was overpriced for college students.<sup>11</sup> In the case of some NES students that I knew, their private tutoring fee felt ridiculous to me, as they were paid just to chitchat (or “converse”) for hours. When I shared this thought that the market price of a one-on-one lesson was unfairly set, one of my friends told me, “That is why you have to enter a prestigious university: to make more money more easily.”

In 2013, I chose English education, which is “TESOL” in a Korean setting, as my second major in college. After this choice, I witnessed significant changes in the environment in which I negotiated my identity. My identity suddenly changed from that of an English user to that of a pre-service English teacher. Also, my imagined identity for investing in the English language became “being a proficient English teacher” as English became the language of my profession. With the increased pressure on my English proficiency due to this change, I became much more sensitive to the existing gap between my desired and current English proficiency. Furthermore, as I was studying in the English education department and the majority of the coursework was in English, I came to be more frequently exposed to fluent English speakers. I also met more NESs. Conversing with NESs, I often felt that my English proficiency would never be sufficient as an English teacher. Because of this sense of lacking the essential qualifications of an ELT professional, I became self-conscious when using English. Sometimes I could read, or thought I could read, the NESs’ embarrassment when communication breakdowns occurred. I felt ashamed of myself as if the miscommunications were solely attributed to my lack of English language competence. I suffered from the overwhelming sensation that I would never be able to overcome the disadvantages of being an NNEST. I perceived an imaginary wall standing right in front of me. The other side of the wall was only for NESTs, those who were privileged to naturally “acquire” the linguistic capital of English as an L1. On the contrary, I thought of myself as an NNEST who “learned” English and would never be invited to the other side.

I felt more ashamed of myself speaking in English whenever I talked to *gyopo*, whose L1 was English. *Gyopo* refers to people who have Korean ethnic backgrounds but have lived outside of Korea for long

periods of time. I noticed that I became extremely silent and passive with them. Furthermore, when asked what I studied in college, I often answered “education” instead of “English education,” to avoid higher expectations of my English proficiency. I often wished I had grown up abroad like *gyopo*; they were the very ones who I wanted to be. Their physical appearances were similar to mine, and yet it seemed to me that they had a perfect command of English. According to Norton (2001), L2 learners feel most uncomfortable speaking in English with people who they consider as members of – or gatekeepers to – their imagined communities. Thus, the community of *gyopo* was my imagined community and that was why I got nervous when talking to these current members of my imagined community in whom I had a “particular symbolic or material investment” (Norton, 2001, p. 166).

After graduating from college, I taught English in a private high school in Korea. After briefly experiencing the life of a novice English teacher, I went to the United States to pursue my master’s degree in TESOL. Once at graduate school in the United States, my ontological struggle as an NNEST intensified. In the very beginning of my master’s program, my imagined identity was to become a native-speaker-like teacher. Consequently, I had to keep facing my deficient English because of my inability to achieve native-speakerness. However, it was my TESOL program that enabled me to see new imagined identity options. Not only did my graduate school place strong emphasis on social justice issues, but my TESOL program also continually challenged the monolingual bias in TESOL. For instance, my academic advisor noticed that I often paid a great deal of attention to my non-native-speakerness in my discourse. He pointed it out and provided several articles that would empower me. In SLA class, I was introduced to the notions of multicompetence (Cook, 1992), which has had a monumental effect on my perspective. I realized that I, whose mother tongue was not English, could be a powerful resource that could enrich my students’ learning experience. My SLA professor was the perfect example for this, as she brought in-depth knowledge and rich experiences to the class by being an NNEST. Talking to her, my confidence in myself as an ELT professional grew, in the hope that I would become a teacher who could provide, as she did, learners with a new identity option: multicompetent individual. Rather than suffering from an inferior identity perception as a second-class citizen in English-speaking communities, embracing my multicompetent self was a revolutionary change in my personal and

professional development.

On top of the wonderful guidance from faculty members in my master's program, I came to be further empowered by reading other NNESTs' narratives. I did not know that an academic paper could be therapeutic until I came across Pavlenko's (2003a) article. In her work, Pavlenko illustrates how a shift in pre-service or in-service English teachers' imagined identities plays a key role both in shaping their self-images and increasing participation in their community. The participants went through identity transformation as they started to view themselves as multicompetent individuals, instead of as deficient NNESTs. Through readings and coursework, they came to realize that it was not necessarily desirable to keep their previously imagined community (i.e., a community of NESs) and came to realize a new imagined community option (i.e., a community of multilinguals where their multicompetence as ELT professionals would be welcomed; Pavlenko, 2003a). Walking through their narratives and watching their identity transformation process, I was filled with an indescribable joy. As they did, I realized my effort in trying hard to become part of the NES community was undesirable. It was not only impossible, but unnecessary. As a multicompetent teacher, I already had eligibility and ability to be a proficient English teacher, as did NESTs. In the hope of attaining this new imagined identity, I became more actively engaged in each class with a greater confidence in myself. I decided to stop mentioning anything belittling my English because of my NNESTness, but rather to be appreciative of my multicompetence. Likewise, a significant increase in my investment in ELT professional communities was seen with the shift of my imagined identity from that of an NNEST to that of a multicompetent teacher.

## CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, I have demonstrated how theoretical constructs in identity research and power inequity issues regarding the NNEST-NEST dichotomy in SLA can be well explained in my narrative. Through a number of personal vignettes, I have first illustrated that the English language manifests significant cultural capital in Korean society. Despite its rarity in use on a daily basis, English has historically been associated

with the power of dominant groups and has deepened the gap between English-haves and English-have-nots in Korea.

ELT professionals in Korea should be informed about this sociocultural background in relation to English in order to fully understand English language learners. As demonstrated above, learners who have been surrounded by certain Korean values are often under enormous stress when facing their lack of English proficiency because of the close interconnectedness of English and SES in Korean society. The consequences of one's failure to acquire a good command of English are not limited to one's personal issues regarding English itself. Being an English-have-not means that one would not be given access to economic, cultural, and social capital in Korean society. Therefore, it is urgent for each ELT professional to be aware of the fact that English language learning, especially in EECs such as Korea, always embodies socioeconomic and political ideologies by its very nature (Pennycook, 1994). Otherwise, teachers may inadvertently impose imperialistic ideologies on their students without being aware of it, which may in turn result in a devastating effect on learners' identities. By being alert to this fact, teachers will be able to direct individual learners' trajectories in a positive direction and truly understand their struggles that stem from Korean societal pressure. Furthermore, teachers need to provide learners with ample opportunity through which they can discover a link between their imagined identities and each classroom activity. If this were not to occur, it would be hard for meaningful learning to take place, as learners would not be able to find a connection between their desired identity and their learning.

I have also explored my identity development as an NNEST through the lens of identity theories. I believe that most NNESTs inevitably experience similar struggles to those illustrated in my narratives. For instance, when we look at a job opening post for a teaching position, especially in Asian countries, it is almost impossible to find any school or institute that does not ask for "native-speakerness" or "near-native-speakerness" as a minimum requirement for eligible applicants. Korean society is a prime example of where this status of NESTs is greatly privileged. Korean NNESTs often go through difficult times to overcome a sense of inferiority as they have been consistently objectified as inferior to NESTs when it comes to professionalism.

This general practice of adoration for NESTs should be addressed from multiple angles. Firstly, KOTESOL needs to lead in changing the

view in Korea in which each English teacher is viewed from the perspective of an NNEST–NEST dichotomy to a reconceptualization of NNESTs’ professional legitimacy in the light of multilingualism. Also, we have to admit that there has been a gap between the NNEST movement (Selvi, 2014) in academia and the reality that NNESTs actually face in TESOL praxis. Beyond talking about multilingualism, practical support and systematic approach are imperative to address NNEST–NEST issues in the Korean setting. Teacher educators may focus on raising an awareness of power inequality issues surrounding English in order to empower Korean NNESTs. Also, by introducing the notions of multicompetence, pre-service and in-service teachers in teacher education programs can be exposed to new identity options such as that of multicompetent professional.

On the individual level, each NNEST is required to be alert to their own identity issues and make an effort to accept themselves as legitimate ELT professionals. One of the ways that this can be achieved is by creating peer teacher groups and sharing individual struggles in the group. Personally, it has been extremely supportive to have colleagues and other ELT professionals with whom I could share my own difficulties as an NNEST and encourage each other in professional development. Considering the widespread collectivist culture of Korean society in particular, Korean NNESTs may find comfort in having a group in which they can feel a sense of belonging and benefit from sharing their feelings with people in the group. Furthermore, through such peer teacher groups, NNESTs can turn their critical lens on the current environment in TESOL – an environment in which they have been unequally treated – and come up with specific action plans that can protect their rights as legitimate professionals. This would be exemplary in destabilizing the existing dichotomy between NESTs and NNESTs, inspiring and encouraging other NNESTs around the world.

With all these aspects of the field of TESOL taking a step together, NNESTs in Korea will be able to experience identity transformation as multicompetent selves and become more effective, competent ELT professionals. I imagine how many people in Korea will come to enjoy much richer lives as multicompetent individuals when freed from deficient NES/NEST imagined identities. This journey into identity transformation will not be easy. Yet the struggle will be worthwhile.



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## FOOTNOTES

<sup>1</sup>I advocate that the ultimate purpose of using the terms *NNEST* and *NEST* is to “to put our finger on the problem” (Selvi, 2014, p. 596). Therefore, although I acknowledge that the binary terms *NNEST* and *NEST* do embody a negative connotation of non-native English teachers, I decided to use these terms in this paper in an attempt to foster active discussions surrounding issues of the *NNEST*–*NEST* dichotomy.

<sup>2</sup>*Cultural capital* refers to highly valued cultural signals that are used for sociocultural division and exclusion such as “attitudes, preferences, formal knowledge, behaviors, goods, and credentials” (Lamont & Lareau, 1988, p. 156). Bourdieu (1997) divides cultural capital into more specified forms and explains other types of capital as well as other related concepts, but here I will not touch on those in detail.

<sup>3</sup>Kachru (1986) introduces a model of three concentric circles in order to explain different types of the spread of English: the inner-circle countries (hereafter, ICCs: countries where English is used as the primary language such as the United States or the United Kingdom), the outer-circle countries (hereafter, OCCs: countries where English has evolved as a second language such as India), and the expanding-circle countries (hereafter, ECCs: countries where English is used as a foreign language such as Korea).

<sup>4</sup>Lee, Seullee Talia (November 16, 2015). Personal journal entry.

<sup>5</sup>*Native-speakerism* refers to “an established belief that ‘native-speaker’ teachers represent a ‘Western culture’ from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of English language teaching methodology” (Holliday, 2005, p. 6).

<sup>6</sup>Monolingual bias accounts for “the practice of assessing and measuring second language competence or performance according to monolingual norms” (De Angelis, 2007, p. 12).

<sup>7</sup>The term *multicompetence* was introduced by Cook (1991), referring to “the compound state of mind with two grammars” (p. 12). Cook argues that multicompetence encompasses all the linguistic knowledge of both L1 and L2 of a person. In this state of one’s mind, their L1 and L2 influence one another interchangeably and therefore a bilingual speaker’s knowledge of their L1 inevitably differs from that of a monolingual.

<sup>8</sup>According to Bourdieu (1997), *capital* is “accumulated labor” (p. 46), which has a potential to (re)produce profits. He insists that capital appears in various forms such as social or cultural capital. *Social capital* refers to social relations that provide the members therein with its collectively owned capital (also see Footnote 2). Norton (2000) sees one’s language learning in line with the learner’s investment in order to obtain their desired social and cultural capital that the newly acquired language entails.

<sup>9</sup>Under the 7th national curriculum, English was officially introduced into the national elementary curriculum of Korea in 2001 (Lee & Jeong, 2015). With considerable changes being made to the 6th national curriculum, English started to be taught using textbooks from 3rd grade in elementary school. Up until the 6th curriculum, which I went through in my elementary school years, there was no English subject in public school before the 7th grade.

<sup>10</sup>The adjective *good* is frequently used to indicate nouns, but in Korea, it inherently means that the modified noun serves Korean sociocultural values and norms well. For instances, when Koreans label something as “good” (e.g., universities, professionals, husband, wife, son-/daughter-in-law, etc.), there is a shared meaning attached to each noun among Korean interlocutors that does not even need to be explicitly explained.

<sup>11</sup>I acknowledge that there are excellent tutors who have a high sense of professional responsibility among college students. Sadly, however, it was rather rare to find those tutors based on what I had experienced or heard.

# Self-Selected Topics vs. Teacher-Selected Topics: The Impact on Writing Fluency

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This mixed-methods study monitored the impact of topic selection on writing fluency in the Japanese EFL classroom. Bonzo's (2008) study investigated second language learners' writing in German. This is a partial-replication of Bonzo's study. Ninety-seven Japanese university students participated in six 10-minute writings sessions; three were free-writing sessions and three were teacher-assigned sessions. This study confirmed Bonzo's findings that writing fluency increases when students are allowed to choose their own topics. Moreover, this study aimed to provide insight on the participants' attitudes to wards free-writing and teacher-assigned sessions.

## INTRODUCTION

### Fluency

Nation (2007) includes fluency in one of his four strands of language teaching to be included in every language course. The four strands (meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, and fluency development) aim to create a balance in facilitating lessons. Determining fluency, however, is not so clear. Carroll (1967) developed a formula to measure fluency that takes into account the total word tokens divided by unique tokens. Apple and Fellner (2006) noted the lack of a reliable definition accepted by EFL researchers to define writing fluency. Chenoweth and Hayes (2001) and Hatasa and Soeda (2000) used a definition of the total number of words written per minute. Bonzo (2008) defined writing fluency as the total number of unique words written, divided by total words. According to Abel Latif (2012), the most frequently used definition to assess writing fluency is the

composing rate. However, Abel Latif (2012) also describes the writing that happens in short segments of timed writing “chunks” or sections as a more accurate way to define fluency. A fluent writer will write sentences in “chunks” that relate to one another. These sentences will have a greater degree of coherency. Conversely, a less fluent writer will compose sentences in isolation from each other, thereby lacking coherency. In defining fluency, Sponseller and Wilkins (2015) describe “the speaker or writer’s control over the language, the complexity and the volume of the text or utterance” (p. 141) as the concept that often is described or referenced in conversations about fluency.

Bonzo (2006) argued that fluency increases if participants are able to choose their own topics, rather than be assigned topics. This study is a partial replication of that study. Bonzo’s (2006) study asked 81 American university students studying German to complete six 10-minute freewriting sessions. In this study, 97 English as a foreign language (EFL) university students participated in six 10-minute freewriting activities. There was a significant difference in writing samples. Participants who were able to choose their own topics showed higher fluency than those who were assigned topics. The researchers in this present study wanted to reconfirm Bonzo’s (2006) results by completing this exercise with private Japanese university students who possessed a basic to intermediate level of English proficiency. Studies by Leblanc and Fujieda (2013), Cohen (2013), Dickinson (2014), and Sponseller and Wilkins (2015) conducted in the EFL context in Japan have confirmed Bonzo’s (2006) results stating that writing fluency increases when participants are able to self-select topics during a 10-minute freewriting exercise. This study aimed to monitor the effect topic selection has on writing fluency. Additionally, learner preferences on topic selection and attitudes toward 10-minute writing activities were explored.

## **Research Questions**

Using Bonzo’s (2006) study as a guide, this study aimed to monitor the effect of topic selection on writing fluency in the EFL context among a selection of non-English majors and English majors at a private university in Japan. The preferences toward topic selection and attitudes toward these 10-minute writing activities among Japanese university EFL learners guided and shaped the second and third questions.



- Research Question 1: What effect does topic selection have on writing fluency?
- Research Question 2: What are the students' preferences concerning topic selection?
- Research Question 3: What are the students' attitudes toward ten-minute writing activities?

## METHOD

### Participants

Eight classes with 97 participants, first-year ( $n = 52$ , 8 male, 44 female), second-year ( $n = 24$ , 7 male, 17 female), third-year ( $n = 20$ , 11 male, 9 female) and foreign exchange graduate students (1 female) from a private university in Japan participated in this study. Participants met once a week for 90 minutes for compulsory English conversation and composition courses. Participants ( $n = 76$ ) in six out of the eight groups were comprised of Japanese Studies majors. In the Department of Japanese Studies, learners were non-English majors. However, they earned enough credits in English to qualify to minor in English. Participants ( $n = 21$ ) in two groups out of the eight groups were English majors in the School of Contemporary English. Students were allowed to choose either basic-level sections or intermediate-level sections. These two groups chose to take the basic-level course.

All participants were assigned a vocabulary size test to complete online ([my.vocabsize.com](http://my.vocabsize.com)). According to [VocabularySize.com](http://VocabularySize.com) (2010-2015), language ability is related to vocabulary size. This test measures the participant's ability to recognize the basic word form. The test assumes that if you know one word form in the word family, you will know other words in the family. For example, the word *industry*, a noun, can also be an adjective (*industrial*), a verb (*industrialize*), or an adverb (*industrially*). A suffix or prefix can provide other forms such as *-ing* or *de-*. Nation (2007) suggests that a vocabulary size of 8000-9000 word families is needed for reading, while a vocabulary size of 6000-7000 word families is needed for listening. According to Goulden, Nation, & Read (1990) and Zechmeister, Chronis, Cull, D'Anna, and Healy (1995), a native speaker probably has a vocabulary size of 20,000 word families.

The scores in this study were fairly similar across groups as evident in Table 1. Eight classes of students were divided into two condition groups: “Group 1” and “Group 2.”

**TABLE 1. Participant Groups**

<b>Class (Group)</b>	<b><i>n</i></b>	<b>Vocabulary Size (Word Families)</b>	<b>Major</b>
1 (2)	16	6200-7900	Japanese Studies
2 (1)	16	5900-7800	Japanese Studies
3 (2)	10	6800-9600	Contemporary English
4 (1)	11	5700-8800	Contemporary English
5 (1)	12	6300-8500	Japanese
6 (2)	12	5200-8700	Japanese
7 (1)	10	5900-10500	Japanese
8 (2)	10	6200-7900	Japanese

The participants were selected because they were in one of the researcher’s courses. Of the 105 participants in the study, eight did not complete all six of the writings. This was due to students dropping the course or being absent too many times to complete all six writings. The writing samples were all handwritten.

## **Procedures**

Participants in all six groups were given two pre-writing activities the week before the six weeks of free writing began. In the run-up to the study, participants in Group 1 were allowed to write on a self-selected topic for one week; the same participants were then given an assigned topic the next week. Then, in the first three weeks of the six-week data collection period, they were given an assigned topic to write for ten minutes. Likewise, participants in Group 2 were given an assigned topic, and then they were given a self-selected topic in the run-up to six weeks of ten-minute writings. Then, for the first three weeks of the six weeks, participants in Group 2 were told to write on a self-selected topic for ten minutes (see Table 2). In week 4, Group 2 was given assigned topics, while Group 1 was instructed to self-select their topics.

**TABLE 2. Design of the Study**

Week	Conditions Group 1 ( <i>n</i> = 48)	Conditions Group 2 ( <i>n</i> = 49)
1	assigned	self-selected
2	assigned	self-selected
3	assigned	self-selected
4	self-selected	assigned
5	self-selected	assigned
6	self-selected	assigned

Participants were told by the instructor to write for the entire ten minutes. Participants were not told to avoid using a dictionary. However, they were cautioned against using a dictionary, as it may hinder their ability to continue writing for the entire ten minutes. Participants were not shown any examples of writing samples or given any explicit pre-writing activities before writing about the topic.

After the writing was completed, participants were given a 5-point Likert-scale questionnaire to fill out (see Appendix B). Information was collected in order to measure interest or ease of writing. The writings were then read by one of the researchers. Most of the writings received short comments (e.g., “Interesting,” “Tell me more”) at the end of the writings. There were no corrections made. Likewise, while transcribing, writings were not corrected for spelling or grammar. Nation (2001), Reichelt (2001), and Semke (1984) all argue that short, positive comments are beneficial following each writing. Doing so may encourage students to write as much as possible in a short amount of time. The writings were then returned to the students to revise the following week. After the writing samples for the six weeks were collected, one of the researchers and research assistants transcribed the writings word-for-word into an electronic format.

Following transcription, all of the writing samples were run through an online text analysis software at UsingEnglish.com (King & Flynn, 2002-2014). The text analyzer provided useful information such as total words and unique words in regards to measuring writing fluency. The three topics that were assigned by the teacher were based on the assigned topics Bonzo (2006) gave in his study. The assigned topics were given in this order: (a) life after graduation, (b) my interests and

hobbies, and (c) the differences between men and women. Bonzo (2008) assigned a fourth topic: relationships. This topic was eliminated from this present study for two reasons: (a) due to the limited time period for data collection, and (b) because the topic of relationships was covered in the first two weeks of the semester for the second-year students.

The participants' writing samples included romanized Japanese words. Prior to the study, the researchers decided to count uncommon romanized Japanese words like karaoke and ikebana. Misspelled words were not included.

### Fluency Index Measurement

Total word tokens and unique word tokens were used to calculate writing fluency with Vassar Stats. Bonzo (2006) and Arthur (1976) employed Carroll's (1967) formula in their writing fluency research. Using Carroll's (1967) formula:

$$F = \frac{U}{\sqrt{2T}}$$

Where, the fluency ( $F$ ) is calculated by taking the total unique tokens ( $U$ ) and dividing them by the square root of two times the total number of tokens ( $T$ ). Bonzo (2006) defines fluency as simple unique token words divided by the total number of token words. However, this formula has some problems dealing with writing samples with a small number of words. Sponseller and Wilkins (2015) highlighted the problem with using simple unique words instead of total words by demonstrating how using this formula with their lowest word count (28,  $U = 20$ ) actually received a higher fluency rating than the highest word count (237,  $U = 137$ ). In this present study, the highest total word count for one data set was 198 ( $U = 105$ ), and the lowest total word count was 28 ( $U = 24$ ). This example further demonstrates the weakness of the formula. The shortest composition has a higher fluency of 0.86 (24 divided by 28) compared to the longest composition with 0.53 (105 divided by 198). However, Carroll's formula can distinguish the more fluent sample between large and small writing samples. Using Carroll's formula, the longest composition has a fluency score ( $F$ ) of 5.27 while the shortest composition ends up with a fluency score ( $F$ ) of 3.27.

## Post-Study Survey

Following the last writing sample during Week 6, the participants were given a post-study survey (see Appendix A). This study aimed at identifying the participants' preference for the freewriting experience: assigned or freewriting activities. A total of 79 students completed the survey consisting of six-point Likert items and two open-ended questions.

## RESULTS

### Writing Fluency and Topic Selection Control

The participants' writing fluency scores ( $F$ ) were calculated using Vassar Stats. A paired  $t$ -test was conducted to measure fluency scores for teacher-selected topic samples and student-selected topic samples. Student-selected topic sample scores (4.2174,  $SD$  0.56) were significantly higher than teacher-selected topics (3.9451,  $SD$  0.53), total (4.0813,  $p < 0.0001$ , two-tailed). The results detailed in Tables 3 and 4 indicate that participants wrote more fluently when they were able to select their own topics to write about.

**TABLE 3. Mean Fluency Scores by Classes for Group 1**

Week	Condition	Group 1 ( $n = 48$ )		Condition	Group 1 (cont.)	
		Class 1 $M$ ( $SD$ )	Class 3 $M$ ( $SD$ )		Class 6 $M$ ( $SD$ )	Class 8 $M$ ( $SD$ )
1	Assigned	3.63(0.51)	4.18(0.54)	Assigned	3.62(0.70)	4.22(0.56)
2	Assigned	3.65(0.72)	4.47(0.33)	Assigned	4.53(0.48)	4.5(0.52)
3	Assigned	3.28(0.60)	4.11(0.67)	Assigned	3.33(0.89)	3.80(0.80)
4	Self	3.46(0.50)	4.49(0.52)	Self	4.07(1.01)	4.58(0.52)
5	Self	3.64(0.54)	4.78(0.61)	Self	3.88(0.89)	4.26(0.69)
6	Self	5.865(1.35)	4.64(0.51)	Self	4.12(0.73)	4.57(0.41)
Total	Assigned	3.54(0.62)	4.25(0.54)	Assigned	3.83(0.86)	4.18(0.68)
	Self	3.61(0.40)	4.64(0.54)	Self	4.03(0.86)	4.47(0.55)

**TABLE 4. Mean Fluency Scores by Classes for Group 2**

Week	Condition	Group 2 ( <i>n</i> = 49)		Condition	Group 2 (cont.)	
		Class 2 <i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	Class 4 <i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )		Class 5 <i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	Class 7 <i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )
1	Self	4.39(0.49)	4.62(0.59)	Self	4.21(0.46)	4.45(0.44)
2	Self	4.20(0.44)	4.57(0.54)	Self	3.72(0.43)	4.21(0.62)
3	Self	4.19(0.57)	4.58(0.64)	Self	4.29(0.60)	4.20(0.42)
4	Assigned	3.91(0.44)	4.30(0.65)	Assigned	3.63(0.48)	4.15(0.53)
5	Assigned	4.25(0.46)	4.54(0.49)	Assigned	3.91(0.40)	4.34(0.74)
6	Assigned	3.68(0.61)	3.92(0.55)	Assigned	3.24(0.51)	3.80(0.56)
Total	Self	4.26(0.50)	4.59(0.57)	Self	4.07(0.55)	4.27(0.50)
	Assigned	3.95(0.54)	4.25(0.61)	Assigned	3.60(0.53)	4.10(0.64)

### Post-Study Survey Responses

As shown in Table 5, the participant’s preferences for either assigned or self-selected topics are paired with their fluency index scores from 90 participants that responded to a post-study survey questionnaire (see Appendix A). From these participants, the fluency index (4.31, *SD* 0.5) was higher for their writings on self-selected topics than for their writings on assigned topics (3.92, *SD* 0.49). When the participants are broken down based on their preferences, 62 participants indicated a preference for teacher-selected topics based on a five-point Likert-scale questionnaire. Of these 62 participants, the fluency index for self-selected topics (4.31, *SD* 0.50) was higher than for assigned topics (3.92, *SD* 0.49). Conversely, eight participants indicated a preference for student-selected topics. For these participants, the fluency index for assigned topics (4.0, *SD* 0.70) was higher than the self-selected topics (3.84, *SD* 0.72). Additionally, 20 participants indicated no preference for self-selected or assigned topics. From these respondents, the fluency index was higher for self-selected topics (4.0, *SD* 0.53) than for assigned topics (3.95, *SD* 0.60).

**TABLE 5. Participants' Topic Selection Method Preference**

Preference	<i>n</i>	Fluency Index Score	Fluency Index Score
		(assigned) <i>M (SD)</i>	(self-select) <i>M (SD)</i>
Prefer assigned topic	62	3.92 (0.49)	4.31 (0.50)
Prefer self-selected topic	8	4.00 (0.70)	3.84 (0.72)
Prefer both or neither	20	3.95 (0.60)	4.00 (0.53)
All respondents	90	4.23 (0.48)	4.47 (0.51)

*Note.* Responses based on a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5).

### Open-Ended Questions

The final questionnaire (see Appendix A) gave the students a chance to answer some open-ended questions concerning their experience with this project. Some overall themes were revealed, including a desire to continue the project because of a lack of opportunity to write in other classes or outside the classroom. Differing attitudes toward the act of topic selection were monitored. Below are some of the themes paired with their comments.

### Teacher vs. Student-Selected Topics

From the open-ended question “Do you feel your writing was better when you chose the topic? Why or why not?” some respondents felt their writing was better during teacher-selected topics because of the challenge it provided:

- I feel it better when you (teacher) chose the topic. Because the topic Which I choose its always thinking things. So I'm easy to write. But sometime I want to wrote teacher-selected topic.
- I don't feel. Because I chosen topic that tends to easy. But Teacher chosen topic is little difficult. So, I'm promoted English writing skills.

Others mentioned the difficulty of choosing their own topics:

- I don't think so, because choosing a topic everytime is difficult for

me. I don't know what I want to write or should I write. I can write better with decided topics.

- I think I can write better more than I write about teacher-selected topic. I need time a lot to think about the selected topic so if I can select topic, it is the thing that I think about daily life. So, I think it is a little easy writing.

Some participants felt that their writing was better for student-selected topics because of the ease of writing:

- It's easy to make sentences when I write about a topic I choose. Because I'm interested in the topic.
- Yes, I do. It is because I can write things that I am always thinking.
- I think so. I think that my choice topic is easy. Because I write about my favorite things.

Participants were also asked to give their opinion about continuing this ten-minute writing project. Some participants mentioned that they liked the writing activity because they don't do much writing outside of this class:

- I feel good. Because other class doesn't have chance that I write 10 sentences for 10 minutes. So it is little difficult for me to write difficult topic. But I need it and I want to continue this plan.
- It is good, because I don't have many chances to write English sentences.

Some respondents mentioned the possibility of improving English skills because of participating in this activity:

- It was nice to think and write for 10 minutes. Some people might be able to improved their writing skills through this activity, or felt like they "learned" in a class because they used hand and wrote a lot.
- It's good activity I think. I would like to continue this activity because this activity can increase vocabulary and improve my English skills.

Some responses indicated a difficulty at the beginning and later enjoyment of the writings:



- At first, I cannot write a lot, so I felt it too difficult but in the end, I enjoyed 10 minute writing.
- I felt difficult at the first time. But, recently I like 10 minute writings. I want to get English writing skills.

## **Continuation of the Project**

As some of the previous comments suggest a desire to continue the project, other comments support the idea of writing for 10 minutes each class when asked about the possibility of continuing the 10-minute freewriting project:

- That is good practice. I don't dislike 10 mins writings. Especially when we can choose topics, I can continue writing at all.
- That's great. I like writing. I think I can write better than before.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **Research Questions**

In response to the first research question on the effect of topic selection and writing fluency, the participants displayed a higher writing fluency when they were able to self-select their own topics. These results confirm the results from the following studies: Bonzo (2006), Cohen (2014), Dickinson (2014), Leblanc and Fujieda (2013), and Sponseller and Wilkins (2015). Participants who were assigned topics and then allowed to choose their own topics experienced an increase in writing fluency (see Table 3). Conversely, participants who were able to select their own topics for the first three weeks and then assigned topics to write about demonstrated lower writing fluency by the end of the six weeks (see Table 4).

Next, based on the final survey responses on topic selection preferences, 62 out of 90 participants indicated preferences for teacher-selected topics (4.31). This is despite the fact that their writing fluency was higher when they were able to self-select topics (3.92). In regards to feelings toward continuing this ten-minute writing in this class or other classes, the participants indicated a strong preference for

continuing this project in the future. Eight participants indicated a preference for student-selected topics. However, their fluency index was higher for teacher-selected topics. With only eight participants, it is hard to draw any conclusions. Twenty participants had no preference. These participants also demonstrated higher fluency when they wrote on self-selected topics.

Finally, student attitudes to this project were generally positive. Of 97 responses, 66 participants indicated a preference to continue with this ten-minute writing project in the future. Conversely, one participant indicated a preference for discontinuing this writing project. Twenty-three participants indicated a neutral position on continuing the ten-minute writing activities in the future.

## Implications

This study implies that other instructors working with primarily Japanese private university non-English majors that possess a basic-to-intermediate English vocabulary size may want to allow students to self-select writing topics, rather than assign the topics. Participants may even complain about having to choose their own topics. However, from this study, participants experienced a statistically significant improvement in fluency output with self-selected topics.

Selected comments suggest a difficulty in choosing what to write or a sense of boredom with the freewriting activity: *“I feel it better when you chose the topic. Because the topic Which I choose its always thinking things,”* and *“I chosen topic that tends to easy. But Teacher chosen topic is little difficult. So, I’m promoted English writing skills.”* Sponseller and Wilkins (2015) and Nation (2013) suggest providing a comprehensive list of topics for the students to choose from as choosing their own topic is not an enjoyable process. A pre-determined comprehensive list of topics created by both the teacher and students cuts down on the time spent mulling over topics and gets them writing.

## Limitations

For any quantitative research, a larger sample size is always desirable. Unfortunately, only one of the researchers could collect data this year. Had participants from his classes been included, more strength

to our claims could have been made. Six writing samples is what Bonzo (2008) chose. However, a larger data set also would have provided more strength to the researchers' suppositions. With only three teacher-assigned topics, one seemingly difficult topic may have a strong effect on average writing fluency. The last of the teacher-assigned topics, "Differences between Men and Women," received a noticeable drop in writing fluency. Topics were selected based on Bonzo's (2008) study. In his study and this study, no pre-writing activities were given. However, a participant may have had experience writing on the same topic for another or previous class.

Due to the number of participants (97) and the quantity of the writing samples, the inability to give more feedback on the students' writing could be a limitation. Participants may have lost motivation to write due to a perceived lack of audience as Dr. Margaret Scardemalia argues that writing will improve when it is done for a larger audience (as cited in Ottoson, 2015). However, Elbow (1973) argues that freewriting should not be evaluated and assessed at all. One way to overcome this perceived limitation would be to allow the participants to share something they wrote or talk about what they wrote with their classmates. Another way would be to have the students exchange their writing samples to read and then ask questions or make comments, but doing so would require strict instruction to avoid making any corrections or assessment. More comments from teachers and fellow classmates may have yielded different conclusions regarding audience and feedback.

Feedback from the final questionnaire indicated a strong preference for continuing this ten-minute writing activity. The twenty-three participants who indicated neither preference may actually dislike the ten-minute writing activity. However, it may be argued that the participants may hesitate to provide negative feedback to their teacher on such an integral part of the coursework. More careful consideration of the anonymity of their answers should be explored.

## CONCLUSIONS

The findings from this study imply that students' writing fluency increases when they choose their own topic. This confirms the results of previous studies. Instructors working in the EFL context with English

and non-English majors, not only in Japan, but also in similar Asian EFL environments like Korea and China, may find timed freewriting activities beneficial to developing writing fluency. The responses from the participants were primarily positive. Steps should be made by instructors to explore previous freewriting research and experiment with freewriting activities that may prove beneficial and enjoyable in their own context.

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# APPENDIX A

## Final Questionnaire

NAME \_\_\_\_\_ STUDENT ID# \_\_\_\_\_

### FINAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Please rate your abilities for each of the items below on a scale between 1 and 5. Circle your choice.  
 下記の項目に対して、1から5で自分の能力を評価して下さい。選んだものに丸をつけて下さい。

Strongly Disagree 全くそう思わない	Disagree そう思わない	Neutral どちらでもない	Agree そう思う	Strongly Agree 非常にそう思う
1	2	3	4	5
It became easier to write for 10 minutes after doing the activity at least 6 times. 少なくとも6回目になるころには、10分作文をすることが簡単(楽)になってきた。				
1	2	3	4	5
I prefer writing about a teacher-selected topic. 教師が選んだトピックについて作文するほうが好ましい。				
1	2	3	4	5
I prefer choosing my own topic to write about. 自分が選んだトピックについて作文するほうが好ましい。				
1	2	3	4	5
My ability to write for 10 minutes improved by the 6 <sup>th</sup> writing. 6回目に入力する頃には、10分間作文の能力が向上してきたように感じる。				
1	2	3	4	5
I enjoyed writing for 10 minutes. 10分間作文を楽しんでいる。				
1	2	3	4	5
I would like to continue doing timed writing activities in this or other classes. 10分間作文のような時間制限のある作文をこのクラスや他のクラスでも、今後続けていきたい。				
1	2	3	4	5

Do you feel your writing was better when you chose the topic? If so, why? If not, why not?  
 あなた自身が選んだトピックのほうが、より良いライティングができると感じますか。そうなら、なぜだ  
 と思いますか。そう思わないなら、なぜそう思わないのですか。

How would you feel about continuing the 10 minute writings?  
 10分間ライティング(作文)を毎回続けていることに関してどう感じていますか。

THANK YOU !!

## APPENDIX B

### Free Writing: Post-Activity Questionnaire

ID: \_\_\_\_\_

Class: \_\_\_\_\_

Topic (話題): \_\_\_\_\_

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
全くそう思わない	そう思わない	どちらでもない	そう思う	非常にそう思う
1	2	3	4	5

1. It was easy to keep writing for the full 10 minutes. \_\_\_\_\_  
10分間をすべて使って書き続けることは簡単だった
2. I didn't know the right English vocabulary to express my ideas about this topic. \_\_\_\_\_  
この話題について自分の考えを表す適切な英語の語彙がわからなかった
3. This topic is something I often think about outside this class. \_\_\_\_\_  
この話題は（この）授業時間外で私がいつも考えていることである
4. It was difficult to think of things related to this topic to write about.  
\_\_\_\_\_   
この話題に関連する事柄を書くために何かを思い出すことが難しかった
5. It was easy to put my ideas about this topic into English sentences.  
\_\_\_\_\_   
この話題に関する自分の考えを英語の文章にすることは簡単だった

Share any additional thoughts on writing about this topic in English.  
この話題について文章を書くことについて何か追加すべき考えや思いがあれば  
英語で書いてください。



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# The Beliefs, Motivations, Expectations, and Realities of Native English-Speaking Teachers at *Hagwons* in South Korea

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This study investigates the motivations, beliefs, expectations, and realities of native English-speaking teachers who work at private institutions in South Korea. While understanding the beliefs of language teachers is important to improving pedagogy, little research has been conducted on the mental lives of the large number of native English-speaking teachers at private academies in Korea. This paper surveyed native teachers who are employed at *hagwons* in an attempt to better understand their current situations. It begins with a literature review on language teacher beliefs and an overview of the Korean education system. The results of the survey on native-speaking teacher beliefs are then presented and analyzed. Finally, the author discusses the implications of the research and makes some suggestions on how native teachers and *hagwons* might improve their current situations.

## INTRODUCTION

The goal of this study is to provide some insight into the beliefs, practices, and realities of EFL teachers at private English academies or *hagwons* in South Korea (hereafter, Korea). While numerous scholarly articles and studies have been written about English language teaching from a native Korean perspective (Butler, 2004), at public schools (Oliver, 2009), universities (Barnes & Lock, 2010; 2013), or to highly motivated adults (Han, 2003), hardly any mention of native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) at private institutions seem to be available. Although NESTs at *hagwons* are the vast majority of teachers employed in Korea (Dawson, 2010; Ostermiller, 2014), and some Korean families spend nearly one-third of their income on private education (Nunan, 2012), minimal research into who these teachers are, their motivations,

and actual experiences has been conducted.

In response to the lack of information on NESTs employed at *hagwons*, the current study is an attempt to research their beliefs and motivations, and shed some light on the current situation in Korea. This paper will attempt to bridge the academic divide between scholarship and actual teaching practice by examining the experiences and feelings of *hagwon* teachers and how these feelings affect the way they teach.

While the field of general education has recognized that understanding teacher's beliefs is critical to understanding teacher classroom behavior, the role of teacher beliefs has increasingly been a focus of interest for scholars in the realm of ESL/EFL education (Johnson, 1994). Teachers are a critical part of the teaching and learning process, and understanding their motivations is critical to effective English language instruction. Research has shown that what teachers perceive and believe affect their instructional and classroom behavior (Assalahi, 2013; Borg, 2001, 2003a, 2003b, 2006, 2011; Choi, 2000; Garton, 2009; Johnson, 1992, 1994; Yook, 2010).

## Teacher Belief and Cognition

In general, a belief can be defined as “a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behavior” (Borg, 2001, p. 186). Teacher beliefs refer to pedagogical beliefs or those relevant to an individual teaching situation (Borg, 2001), which in turn influence classroom behaviors (Borg, 1998; Lamb, 1995; Richards, Li, & Tang, 1998; Woods, 1996). Similarly, teacher cognition can be defined “as pre- or in-service teachers’ self-reflections; beliefs and knowledge about teaching, students, and content; and awareness of problem-solving strategies endemic to classroom teaching” (Kagan, 1990, p. 419).

Beliefs are an important part of life and teaching because they help us to make sense of the world, influence how new information is perceived, and serve to frame our understanding of events (Borg, 2001). Therefore, beliefs are important to education research because of their deep impact on teacher thought. In turn, the purpose of any research on teacher beliefs should be to help teachers themselves, by improving awareness of who they are and why they make decisions (Garton, 2009).

Given the previous definitions, certain assumptions can be made on the impact of those beliefs on the teacher's mental lives and classroom practice. First, beliefs influence both perception and judgement, which affect classroom behavior. Second, beliefs play a large part in how teachers learn to teach. Third, understanding these beliefs is crucial to improve teaching practices and teacher training (Johnson, 1994).

## **Belief and Cognition in Language Teaching**

Teachers are active decision-makers who draw on their past personal knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs (Borg, 2003a). This is important to the study of language teaching because there is a growing body of evidence that shows that teacher cognitions influence teachers in the classroom throughout their careers.

With regards to schooling, many of the cognitive beliefs teachers hold stem from their experiences in childhood as learners. In his review of the research on teacher cognition, Borg (2003a) found that generally, teachers' prior language learning experiences formed the basis for their approach to second language education. This can be both positive and negative since teachers bring both what worked for them and what didn't as children to their teaching situations. As examples of how childhood experience influences may influence later pedagogic practice, Woods (1996) was encouraged to abandon formal teaching techniques for communicate language teaching (CLT) because of negative experiences, while a teacher in Ebsworth and Schweers' (1997) study took a blended approach with CLT and teaching techniques that had previously "worked" for them (p. 252). Teacher's opinions on how grammar should be taught is particularly influenced by childhood experience, which can lead to conflicts between ideology and methodology and the use of outdated classroom methods (Assalahi, 2013; Borg, 2003b).

Professional, university, and pre- and in-service training are further sources of teacher beliefs. Teacher education allows existing beliefs to be verbalized and put into usage while helping bridge the gap between theory and practice, and providing instructors with new ideas (Borg, 2011).

It is critical for language teachers to be educated and well informed because, prior to teaching, many have "inappropriate, unrealistic, or naïve understandings of teaching and learning" (Borg, 2003a, p. 88). Furthermore, student teachers often have inadequate concepts of

curriculum and program design (Borg, 2003a), how languages were learned, and L2 pedagogy (Borg, 2003a).

As an example of the usefulness of teacher training, Assalahi (2013) explains that the incompatibility of theory and practice could be reflected upon in in-service teacher education programs. Bedir's (2010) example of teacher's beliefs on strategy use in the classroom shows that while theories are often difficult to implement, in-service seminars and training are helpful. Similarly, Macdonald, Badger, and White (2000) saw their undergraduate and postgraduate student teacher beliefs change positively towards second language acquisition (SLA) theories and research that they initially showed aversion to.

There is controversy as to whether or not teacher training is effective with regards to changing beliefs. Peacock's (2001) survey of undergraduate TESL students showed that after three years, students had little changes in beliefs on how vocabulary and grammar should be taught and learned and that the courses were ineffective in changing their minds. In addition, Yook (2010) cites two similar studies (Kim, 2008; Lee, 2006) that found that in-service training programs mandated by the Korean Ministry of Education were ineffective in significantly changing the beliefs in almost 40% of teachers surveyed. This lack of change resulted in teachers continuing to use previous methods such as grammar-translation.

Teacher experiences have further impact on teacher beliefs. While there is a lack of longitudinal studies (Borg, 2003a), how experience impacts teacher cognition has been studied in detail (e.g., Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001; Crookes & Arakaki, 1999; Mok, 1994; Nunan, 1992; Woods, 1996). For the purposes of this paper, a teacher with four to five years or more would be considered experienced, while novice teachers are those who are still undergoing training, have just completed training, or have less than two or three years of experience in a classroom (Gatbonton, 2008).

By studying the differences between novice and experienced teachers, a better understanding of teacher beliefs begins to emerge. Borg (2003a) concludes that experienced teachers are better able to think about subject matter from a learner's perspective, have a deeper understanding of subject matter, know how to present subject matter in appropriate ways, and know how to combine language learning with greater curricular goals than their novice counterparts. In another study, Mackey, Polio, and McDonough (2004) found that experienced ESL

teachers used more incidental focus-on-form techniques, which help students notice linguistic forms and meanings.

In contrast, novice teachers often make impactful pedagogical and curricular decisions based on their language learning experiences rather than institutional pedagogical practices or SLA theory (Johnson, 1994; Numrich, 1996). This is of concern since unqualified NESTs are more likely to be hired as teachers than their qualified and experienced counterparts, especially outside of the U.S. (Wong, 2009).

The first years of ESL/EFL teaching can be quite difficult (Brannan & Bleistein, 2012) because teachers often feel under-prepared and ill-equipped to deal with the stress, pressure, and conflicts between ideals and practice. This is often due to the fact that there is no agreement on what an effective language teacher needs to know (Faez, 2011). Environments which are nurturing and supportive for novice teachers are rare, and frequently many “drop out of the profession early in their careers” (Farrell, 2012, p. 436).

## The Uniqueness of Language Teachers

English language teachers and NESTs in Korean *hagwons* are unique in the teaching profession. The experiences and issues that they deal with are different from those in general education, and those differences have a significant impact on their beliefs and practices. In an overview of the distinctive characteristics of language teachers, Borg (2006) explains the five factors that distinguish the experience of foreign language (FL) teachers:

First, the nature of the subject matter itself is unique because FL teaching is the only subject that requires teachers to use a medium of instruction the students do not yet understand. In Korea, knowledge of the Korean language is not required to teach at *hagwons*, which can create issues when teachers, students, and parents are not able to communicate with one another (Carless, 2006).

Second, FL instruction often requires group interactions and communication in order to be effective. This is particularly important in the Korean context since Korea is a collectivist culture and students may be reticent to answer questions without being prompted (Barnes & Lock, 2013; Mori, Gobel, Thepsikik, & Pojanapunya, 2010).

Third, EFL teachers face challenges to increasing their knowledge of the subject because they often teach communication and not facts.

Teachers, especially those in distant or out of the way places, may have trouble maintaining and increasing their knowledge of the FL because it requires regular opportunities to communicate in it. This coincides with the fourth point, which is the fact that teachers often feel isolated from the TEFL world because of the absence of colleagues teaching the same subjects. This is especially true in Korea, where many hagwons are small and employ fewer than five native EFL teachers. *Hagwons* also tend to lack in-service training beyond the first week when a teacher starts a job.

EFL teaching typically requires outside support and extracurricular activities for the subject to be taught effectively. The NESTs at *hagwons* are often the first foreigners Korean students have ever met and interacted with, and they often have little to no opportunity to use English outside of the classroom (Chin, 2002). Although *hagwons* are meant to bridge that gap and be the extracurricular support to help students practice communication with a native English speaker, much of the actual interaction with NESTs that students get at *hagwons* is not necessarily authentic.

### **The English Program in Korea (EPIK)**

In 1995, the Korean Ministry of Education implemented the English Program in Korea (EPIK; Jeon, 2009). The purpose of this program is to improve the English proficiency of students and teachers through cultural exchange while developing cultural understanding (Jeon & Lee, 2006). NESTs from Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, the U.K., and the U.S.A. are hired to teach at public schools, train teachers, and to assist the Korean boards of education. The only qualification requirement is an undergraduate degree and a criminal background check.

According to government statistics, only 5.4% of English language teachers in Seoul public schools had both TESOL certifications and teacher certificates, while 48% had neither (Koehler, 2008). Only 37.4% had a TESOL certificate; 16.8% had an English, applied linguistics, or related background; and 12% were education majors. Consequently, many of the previously stated problems within the public school system are found in the EPIK program as well.

Ahn, Park, and Ono (as cited in Carless, 2006), have reported numerous “cultural conflicts” (p. 342) between NESTs and native Korean teachers in relation to team-teaching practices. Although it was

part of their stated goals, team teaching was not widely enforced and unqualified NESTs had difficulty managing classrooms. Consequently, EPIK has been criticized for failing to encourage cooperation between NESTs and Korean teachers (Carless & Walker, 2008).

Beginning in 2014, the EPIK program has received deep budget cuts and has begun to be phased out in the provinces outside of Seoul, leaving concern that native Korean teachers may not be ready to fully replace NESTs, and that students will not have enough set time to put their English skills into practice (Ramirez, 2014).

### ***Hagwons* and Native English-Speaking Teachers**

With the previously mentioned lack of qualified teachers and poor collaboration between NESTs and Korean teachers, many Koreans feel English can only be learned through private education. While numbers vary from 2–4 billion USD spent domestically and 4.6 billion spent abroad (Lee, 2011) to 24 trillion Korean won (approximately 21 billion USD), or 2.79% of the Korean GDP in 2006 (Kim & Lee, 2010), relative to the public school system, the private academy system in Korea is by far the largest in the world (Dawson, 2010). The scope and influence of the *hagwon* system is truly staggering; three quarters of primary and secondary students attend some form of private tutoring (Kim & Lee, 2010).

NESTs are employed by *hagwons* to teach English for numerous reasons, including what Phillipson (Butler, 2007) explains as the idea of the “native speaker fallacy,” which claims that NESTs are often seen as ideal language teachers, even if they are unqualified. General American and Received Pronunciation are considered the ideal models of speech in EFL in Asia (Tanabe, 2003), and students, parents, and institutions often express concerns that “non-American” accents may be detrimental to student language acquisition (Butler, 2007). Furthermore, SLA theories that consider native-like fluency the ultimate goal of English education have great influence (Butler, 2007), even though what constitutes “nativeness” is still controversial (Davies, 2003).

The *hagwon* industry in Korea has numerous issues that beset them. Some *hagwons* regularly employ racist, sexist, and ageist policies that restrict their hiring practices (see Hyams, 2015; Jung, 2014; Keelaghan, 2014). Many of these practices are often justified by the claim that hiring people of color/ethnicity would displease parents, regardless of the

teacher's qualifications (Oh & Mac Donald, 2012). The expectations of parents and the difficulty NESTs can find when dealing with *hagwon* management is exemplified by the following interview:

"I view it's not so much about educating the students but educating the parents as well," said Ham Joon-young, a Korean-Canadian educator working in Gangnam, the *hagwon* (English teaching center) epicenter of Seoul. "The problem is that most *hagwons* are run by people who can't speak English. It's funny how they are so accepting of such low standards. Since their English is so low, they can't evaluate good schools and then they rely on trends." (Card, 2005, para. 22–23)

This disconnect between what *hagwon* owners and management expect, what NESTs look for in a workplace, and what parents expect may have significant impact on teacher beliefs.

This notion that NESTs are better than their Korean counterparts, regardless of qualifications, leads to significant issues in *hagwons*. Teacher subject knowledge, qualifications, and preparation are important to Korean students and parents (Barnes & Lock, 2013), but teachers are often hired regardless of qualifications because of the aforementioned perception of native speakers (Wong, 2009).

Korean students expect teachers to be qualified, prepared, and culturally sensitive, but often find they are none of these, and may not make any efforts towards "good quality teaching" (Han, 2003).

As shown, the situation for NESTs in Korean *hagwons* is complex. On the one hand, *hagwons* expect and demand a great deal from their teachers. On the other hand, *hagwons* are seemingly willing to hire anyone, regardless of their teaching experience or ability, as long as they fit the prescribed ideal of a native teacher (Min, 1998).

Consequently, *hagwons* should share some of the blame that is placed upon NESTs for poor teaching practices. Jambor (2010) echoes this statement by claiming, "It is unfair to hire a non-qualified teacher and expect him/her to perform and act professionally especially if both the school and government have opted to stipulate that little professional training and background is needed to become an English teacher in Korea" (p. 1).



## METHOD

This research was inspired by a lack of investigation into the large number of NESTs who work at private institutes in Korea. While Korean English education in general has been studied extensively (see Li, 1998; Park, 2009; Shin, 2007), there has been a lack of studies on hagwons and into what NESTs in *hagwons* believe, including their motivations, qualifications, and the implications of each.

The questions with regards to feelings of purpose of NESTs working in Korean *hagwons* have been adapted from Renandya, Lee, Wah, and Jacobs (1999), whose study on changing trends and practices in South East Asia helped guide the direction of this research. Other questions were created to help present an overview of NEST experiences at *hagwons*, which coincide with Borg's (2003a) examples that show that early cognition, professional coursework, contextual factors, and classroom experience all have effects on teacher cognition and belief (see Appendix). The data was both qualitative and quantitative (Brown, 2009) because a mixed-method approach increases the strengths of research while eliminating weaknesses. This allows for multi-level analysis of complex issues, improves validity, and helps to reach multiple audiences (Dörnyei, 2007).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Hiring Biases, Motivations, and Korean Experiences

Thirty-one (67%) of the respondents were male and 15 (32.6%) were female, with three people choosing not to answer. The average age of participants was 31.7 years ( $n = 40$ ,  $s = 7.14$ ). Thirty-three respondents were between the ages of 24 and 38 (83%). The youngest teacher was 22, and the oldest was 54. The majority of respondents were Americans (27; 58.7%), followed by 14 Canadians (30.4%), two Australians (4.3%), two New Zealanders (4.3%), one from the United Kingdom (2.2%), and three declining to answer.

With regards to race, 30 (71.4%) identified as White non-Hispanic, and made up the vast majority of participants, four (9%) identified as Asian non-Korean, three (7%) as Korean or Korean-American, three

(7%) as mixed or multiple races, one (2%) as Maori, and one (2%) as African American. Seven declined to answer.

The data provide some interesting clues into the realities of NESTs at *hagwons*. The demographic data seem to confirm that there is a hiring bias towards White, North American males. Furthermore, only 34% had a degree related to English, ELT, or applied linguistics, and 47% had some extra qualifications. These percentages are higher than those in the EPIK program (Koehler, 2008), but are still less than desirable.

The decision to come to Korea and teach at a *hagwon* for those surveyed was largely an economic one. A new experience, the ability to travel, teaching schedule, and recommendations from friends were also highly cited as reasons for working for private institutions, and it must be assumed that multiple factors influenced their decisions.

The teachers surveyed spent a varying degree of time in Korea and at *hagwons*. Teachers tended to spend a significant amount of time working for *hagwons*, although over 60% planned to leave *hagwons* and Korea within two years or less. Less than a quarter (22.2%) of NESTs planned to stay in Korea for five years or more, while less than 10% had plans to stay at a *hagwon* for that same amount of time. This suggests that for many, teaching at a *hagwon* is not a long-term career plan. With that in mind, it should be noted that 86.7% of those surveyed had worked at a *hagwon* for a year or more, which shows that once teachers enter the *hagwon* system, they tend to stay longer than their initial contract period.

## Expectations vs. Reality

Many of the responses to the question of how teaching at a *hagwon* has been different from their expectations were negative. Teachers felt that management was worse than they had expected it to be, their schools were more focused on business and/or entertainment than on education, there was an overbearing amount of parental involvement, required overtime, or extra training, and students were overworked.

Although these issues may have an impact on teacher belief and classroom practice, it is in many ways unfair to place the blame for negative experiences solely on *hagwons* for not living up to teacher expectations. As mentioned previously, novice teachers often have “inappropriate, unrealistic, or naïve understandings of teaching and learning” (Borg, 2003a, p. 88) and bring with them prior language

learning experiences, which can lead to conflict between methodology and ideology (Borg, 2003b; Assalahi, 2013) as well as culturally inappropriate mores towards teaching, learning, and business.

NESTs should be aware that language schools are commercial enterprises concerned with turning a profit (Walker, 2011b) and that they are not teaching at a traditional school. Most teachers are not experts in business (Walker, 2011a), and many NESTs starting at *hagwons* lack a social, economic, and historical understanding of Korea, which may create conflict when applying their Western expectations of learning and teaching to this context.

## Effectiveness and Improvement

Although the *hagwons* do not seem to meet teacher expectations, most teachers felt happy with their current situations, felt personally effective as teachers, and felt that their *hagwon* was effective at teaching students English as well. These data seem to support Borg's (2003a) conclusion that contextual factors have an impact on teacher cognition. Teachers who claimed to have the most input into how their classes were taught, in general, gave the highest ratings to the questions of how happy with their job they were, how effective they felt as teachers, and how effective they felt their *hagwon* was at teaching students English. The surveyed teachers who considered themselves happy with their jobs also ranked their feelings of effectiveness higher than those who were unhappy.

While it is positive that teachers felt their *hagwons* were effective at teaching English, the surveyed teachers seem to have an inflated view of their effectiveness compared to that of their *hagwons*. In general, teachers felt that they were more effective than their *hagwon* was at teaching students English, even though more than half of those surveyed could be considered unqualified and/or novice teachers. Furthermore, around 55% of teachers had little or no familiarity with CLT and 68.8% were unfamiliar with SLA theories. Those that claimed to be familiar with these theories were also most likely to be the teachers who had degrees in related fields and/or CELTA certifications. These findings have some similarity with Rainey's (2000) survey, which found that over 75% of the teachers she surveyed had never even heard of action research.

Although being unfamiliar with CLT and SLA does not necessarily

make one a poor language teacher, it is disconcerting when given the data that 57.8% of the same teachers surveyed were unwilling to attend teacher training courses or professional development seminars/workshops in their free time, and 27.2% would not read scholarly literature on ELT, even if it were made available to them. Although each *hagwon* will be unique in their curriculum and approach to teaching, according to the data in this survey, NESTs in *hagwons* feel they are effective as teachers (more so than their employers) but are in general unwilling to improve professionally.

Seventy percent of the teachers in this survey who had extra training had found that training useful. While difficult, studies have shown that theory can be brought in line with practice through training (Assalahi, 2013; Bedir, 2010; Macdonald, Badger, & White, 2000). Perhaps this difficulty is why NESTs at *hagwons* show aversion towards professional development, and this data instead may coincide more closely with the studies on pre- and in-service teacher education programs that were ineffective in changing teacher's beliefs (see Kim, 2008; Lee, 2006; Peacock, 2001; Yook, 2010).

## Constraints

The majority of the teachers who participated in this survey (67.8%) have five or fewer coworkers, which may encourage feelings of isolation (Borg, 2006), since language teachers have particular emotional and social concerns (Hammadou & Bernhardt, 1987). This is one difficulty that may not have a direct solution, but extra-curricular teacher training and research engagement may help make up for the lack of consistent interaction with peers.

This study found that grammar is most often taught in the L1 by a Korean speaker. NESTs were just as likely to teach grammar explicitly themselves as they were to not teach it at all. Once again, teacher beliefs on grammar are significantly impacted by their prior language learning experiences (Borg, 2003b), and these data seem to correlate to Li's (1998) claim that grammar in Korea is often taught explicitly through the grammar-translation and audiolingual methods rather than through CLT.

The data also showed that 70% of teachers are evaluated in some way, which therefore impacts their behavior and beliefs because regardless of their initial qualifications or experience, they are to be held accountable somehow for their in-class actions and methods. However,

the consequences of these evaluations may not have the teacher's or learner's pedagogic needs in mind. It must be kept in mind that *hagwons* are private businesses and make decisions accordingly. *Hagwon* owners are often not language teachers themselves and may not be able to communicate in English (Card, 2005), and many of the teachers in the current survey felt that their schools were managed poorly and inappropriately. This division may result in ownership and management making incorrect, unproductive, inefficient and/or ineffective pedagogic decisions, which *hagwon* teachers may resent and fight against, resulting in many of the same issues Carless (2006) found amongst NESTs and Korean teachers in the EPIK program.

### Sense of Purpose

In accordance with the survey in Renandaya, Lee, Wah, and Jacobs (1999), NESTs were asked, "What do you think your purpose is as a teacher at a *hagwon*?" The majority of participants in the current survey felt that their purpose was to pass on their knowledge and skills, create a fun environment for students, and be a model of correct language usage. Around 60% felt they were responsible for directing and controlling classroom behavior, correcting students' errors, and helping students find effective language learning strategies. Half said their purpose was to teach native culture and experiences, and slightly less than 40% felt they were supposed to help students pass exams.

Compared to the survey results in Renandaya et al. (1999), the current NESTs tended to have much more neutral and uncertain feelings towards their purpose as teachers. Furthermore, it is difficult to find correlation between the demographic data, motivations, expectations, and experiences with the teacher's sense of purpose because NESTs at *hagwons* teach for multiple purposes, age ranges, and levels.

This lack of a unified sense of purpose is likely to cause an impact on teacher beliefs and distract from effective teaching, especially for those new to the profession. Novice teachers often make uninformed pedagogic decisions based on their past learning experiences and not context (Johnson, 1994; Numrich, 1996), which could be mitigated if *hagwons* provided teachers with more of an understanding of their purpose.

## Limitations

Because the survey was conducted anonymously online, it is impossible to verify the participants' truthfulness in their answers. While the vast majority of those surveyed gave insightful and well-thought-out answers, a very small percentage gave inappropriate responses. This correlated to the data where there is a noticeable range of maturity, professionalism, and experience found in *hagwon* teachers. However, since the data sample was relatively large (49 participants), these individuals were not able to skew the data in any significant way.

While the size of the sample was large enough to make some assumptions on current NESTs at *hagwons*, there are around 20,000 foreign English teachers in Korea (Lee, 2010), which makes making any generalizations difficult. Furthermore, participants in the survey are likely to be more motivated and/or qualified than the average *hagwon* teacher since the survey was shared on language teaching-themed social networking websites, was voluntary, and was taken in their own free time.

## CONCLUSIONS

In an attempt to provide an overview of the current situation for NESTs at *hagwons* in Korea, 49 teachers were surveyed on their various beliefs, motivations, experiences, and feelings. This was necessary because there is such a large number of NESTs teaching at *hagwons*, but little research has gone into discovering who they are, their beliefs, their realities, and their practices.

The data seemed to confirm that *hagwons* do hire based on ethnicity and nationality, rather than background, qualifications, or experience. Teachers tended to be unqualified and inexperienced, and showed little desire for improvement. Similar to Warford and Reeves' (2003) study, this may be because many of the participants in the current survey simply "fell into" (p. 57) EFL teaching, rather than making a conscious decision to join the field. Nonetheless, when standards for becoming a teacher in Korea are so low, it is unfair to completely blame NESTs for poor teaching practices (Jambor, 2010).

Respondents also seemed to feel effective as teachers and were

happy with their current situations. However, they had misgivings with regard to how focused *hagwons* were on business rather than education, the amount of parental involvement, the perceived poor administration and management, and the stresses that *hagwons* place on students. Additionally, the teachers had less concrete feelings of their purpose than other teachers in East Asia. These issues highlight the need for *hagwons* to be more explicit with what they expect from NESTs from the outset, which would help mitigate some of the issues that often occur when expectations do not match with pedagogic reality.

Beginning in 2016, EPIK will have stricter requirements for new teachers, including a minimum undergraduate GPA, certifications from junior high and high schools that the primary method of instruction was in English for South Africans, and mandatory TEFL courses with at least 20 hours as part of an in-class practicum (*Korea Times*, 2015). This is a step in a positive direction for Korean public schools, and the Korean Ministry of Education and *hagwon* owners should encourage qualifications of a similar nature to be the norm in the private sector. In addition, enforcing anti-discrimination laws and opening up teaching opportunities to qualified instructors from different countries would allow for a more diverse and competent *hagwon* system.

One way NESTs at *hagwons* could improve is to attend in-service seminars that provide extensive and efficient means for implementing new teaching strategies (Bedir, 2010). Furthermore, in-service education can address incompatibilities between belief and practices by providing opportunities for reflection (Assalahi, 2013).

NESTs at *hagwons* in Korea should also read and participate in research because of its benefits for teacher development (Borg, 2009). This still may prove difficult for language teachers, including the ones in the current study, because they often feel constrained in their ability to engage in research due to a lack of time, encouragement, and motivation (Borg, 2009). Consequently, *hagwons* should provide pre-service training, regular in-service training, as well as extra-curricular opportunities that encourage collaboration between fellow NESTs. Furthermore, *hagwons* should provide NESTs with chances to read scholarly articles, and encourage them to actively participate in research.

The situation for NESTs at Korean *hagwons* is unique, and many issues should be kept in mind to help reduce cultural conflicts and improve teaching and learning within the system. NESTs in Korean *hagwons* must be aware that they should create a non-threatening

environment because students may have little experience with foreigners and Korean society is stratified, that they may encounter large classes and a wide range of levels, and that learning the local culture and language is worthwhile because Korean society is different from that of English-speaking countries (Chin, 2002). In addition, teachers should focus on building rapport with students because Korean students may be reluctant to volunteer answers. The teachers should also try to appreciate how difficult it is to learn a foreign language (Barnes & Lock, 2013).

This study has shown that more research is necessary into the beliefs, motivations, expectations, and realities of NESTs at *hagwons* in Korea. Understanding the mental lives of native English-speaking teachers, who currently impact so many students in Korea, is critical in helping to improve their teaching contexts, which should continue to be researched further.

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## APPENDIX

### Current hagwon teachers in Korea

This survey is voluntary and takes approximately 5 minutes to complete. Please only fill it out if you are currently employed as a Native English speaker at a hagwon in Korea.

**Date of birth**

mm/dd/yyyy

**Gender**

- Male
- Female

**Race**

please be specific

**Nationality**

- America
- Australia
- Canada
- Ireland
- South Africa
- United Kingdom
- New Zealand
- Other:

**Education**

- No higher education
- Associates/General Education
- Bachelors in an unrelated field
- Bachelors in English, TEFL, Applied Linguistics or another related field
- Masters in an unrelated field
- Masters in English, TEFL, Applied Linguistics or another related field
- Masters in English, TEFL, Applied Linguistics or another related field (In progress)
- Ph.D. in English, TEFL, Applied Linguistics or another related field
- Ph.D. in English, TEFL, Applied Linguistics or another related field (In progress)

**Qualifications & Professional Certificates**

(e.g. 100 hour TEFL course, CELTA, Trinity CertTESOL)

**Levels currently taught at your hagwon**

please choose all that apply

- Kindergarten
- Elementary
- Middle School
- High School
- University
- Adult

**How long have you been teaching in Korea?**

- Less than one year
- 1-2 years
- 2-3 years
- 3-4 years
- 4-5 years
- 5-10 years
- 10+ years

**How long have you been teaching at a hagwon?**

- Less than one year
- 1-2 years
- 2-3 years
- 3-4 years
- 4-5 years
- 5-10 years
- 10+ years

**How long do you plan to continue to work at a hagwon?**

- Less than one year
- 1-2 years
- 2-3 years
- 3-4 years
- 4-5 years
- 5-10 years
- 10+ years

**How much longer do you plan to stay in Korea?**

- Less than one year
- 1-2 years
- 2-3 years
- 3-4 years
- 4-5 years
- 5-10 years
- 10+ years

**Including yourself, how many native English teachers are employed at your hagwon?**

- 1
- 2-5
- 6-10
- 11-20
- 21+

**How are you evaluated as a teacher?**

- In person classroom observation
- CCTV
- Student surveys
- Student retention rate
- Student test scores
- I am not evaluated
- Other:



**What was your main reason for becoming an EFL teacher?**

**What was your main reason for coming to Korea to teach EFL?**

**What is your main reason for teaching at a hagwon?**

**How has teaching at a hagwon been different from what you expected?**

How happy are you with your job?

1 2 3 4 5

Very unhappy      Very happy

How effective do you feel as a teacher?

1 2 3 4 5

Extremely ineffective      Extremely effective

How effective do you feel your hagwon is in teaching students English?

1 2 3 4 5

Extremely ineffective      Extremely effective

What do you think is your purpose as a teacher at a hagwon?

	I strongly disagree	I disagree	I neither agree nor disagree	I agree	I strongly agree
To pass on my knowledge and language skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To help students find effective language learning strategies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To be a model of correct English usage	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To direct and control the classroom	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To help my students pass exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To correct students' errors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To teach native culture and experiences	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To create a fun environment for students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**If you have an educational background in teaching, EFL or extra qualifications such as a TEFL course, how applicable have they been to your current position?**

- Extremely applicable; I use something I learned daily
- Very applicable; I use something I learned often
- Somewhat applicable; I use something I learned occasionally
- A little applicable; I use something I learned rarely
- Not applicable; I almost never use something I learned
- Not applicable; I have no background or other qualifications

**How familiar are you with Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories?**

(e.g. Krashen's input hypothesis, Long's interaction hypothesis)

1 2 3 4 5

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Totally unfamiliar      Extremely familiar

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**How familiar are you with Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)?**

(e.g. Task Based Language Teaching)

1 2 3 4 5

---

Totally unfamiliar      Extremely familiar

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**What is your hagwon's policy on native language (L1) use in the classroom?**

(i.e. are students allowed to speak Korean?)

- Students are free to use Korean
- Students may use Korean judiciously in class
- Students may use Korean during breaks but not in class
- Students may not use Korean
- Don't know

**How is grammar taught at your hagwon?**

- In Korean by a Korean speaker
- In English by a Korean speaker
- In English by a native English speaker
- In English by a native English speaker as needed
- Grammar is not explicitly taught
- Don't know

**How much input do you have in how your classes are taught?**

(i.e. curriculum design, textbooks, activities)

1 2 3 4 5

No input      Complete freedom

**How likely would you be to read scholarly articles on EFL teaching if they were made available to you?**

1 2 3 4 5

Completely unlikely      Extremely likely

**How likely are you to attend teacher training courses or professional development seminars/workshops in your free time?**

1 2 3 4 5

Completely unlikely      Extremely likely

**Please leave any other thoughts or experiences you have about working at a hagwon in Korea**

## Restructuring Second Language Teacher Education in South Korea

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This paper examines the gaps between the Gyeonggi-do Institute for Foreign Language Education (GIFLE) program as an example of second language teacher education and the teaching practices in secondary schools in Korea from the viewpoint of English for specific purposes (ESP). In ESP education, transfer of learning to the workplace is important, and this paper explores how to increase the transferability of the GIFLE program to the trainees' workplaces. To increase learning transfer, this paper connects with reflective learning and seeks to apply teacher cognition in the GIFLE program. This paper makes two suggestions for a new GIFLE program. First, the frame of the core modules should be reorganized in order to reflect the trainees' target situations. Second, the knowledge base of the GIFLE program should include teacher cognition to cultivate the trainees' experiential knowledge.

### INTRODUCTION

The topic for this study is second language teacher education (SLTE). Whereas lots of research on learning second language covers learners, there is relatively less research on second language teachers who are also as important as learners as they are a major agent in second language education. This study begins by explaining the procedure to be an English teacher in secondary schools in South Korea (hereafter, Korea) as background.

Most English teachers in Korea major in English education and graduate from one of the teacher's colleges that are in charge of training students who want to be teachers. The students in a teacher's college get a teaching certificate, which is required to be a teacher, when they graduate. With this certificate, those who want to be a teacher in a

public school take an examination that is norm referenced and measures the testees' general pedagogy and English teaching-related theories (i.e., second language acquisition, methodology). The criteria for selection mostly lie in theoretical knowledge of teaching English. Although there is a step for micro-teaching, it is not a main factor. As a result, the testees focus mostly on several theoretical books or go to private institutes to prepare for the exam. Therefore, when they begin their job in secondary school, they go through a period of shock resulting from the gap between their knowledge and the realities they face in the real world. In addition, the government wants the English teachers to teach in English in the classroom, but the English teachers are not confident in teaching in English because of their limited English proficiency.

In response to English teachers' professional development needs, many training programs have been developed commercially or through government funding, focusing on improving oral proficiency in English and attempting to support the unique and specific needs for teaching in the classroom. Unlike the teachers of other subjects who have only to complete one mandatory teacher training program in their careers, secondary school English teachers are required to go through two levels of teacher training programs. The first one, the Level 1 Certification Program for Secondary English Teachers' is a mandatory month-long program that every permanent teacher working at a school should take after four or five years of work experience. The content is a combination of general pedagogy and teaching skills, and therefore is similar to what they learned in their university undergraduate program.

The second program is semi-mandatory (required only for teachers of foreign language such as English, Chinese, and Japanese), focusing on improving teaching skills and the teachers' oral proficiency, and is called the Professional Development Program for Secondary English Teachers. While language teachers can learn through the program, some of them do not commit to the program because they feel that their teaching practices are determined by the specific context in which they teach and that the teacher training program is not, for the most part, transferable to their specific contexts.

Recently, there has been considerable attention being paid to reconstructing SLTE, and some of it arises from the assumption that research on teacher cognition gives some clues into how to improve the quality of SLTE. For example, Richards (2008) mentions that one of the recent trends in SLTE is reconsideration of the nature of teacher learning

in the form of socialization into the professional thinking and practices of a community of practice. It has also been influenced by perspectives drawn from the field of teacher cognition (Borg, 2006). The knowledge base of teaching has been re-examined with a questioning of the traditional positioning of the language-based disciplines as the major foundation for SLTE. This project explores gaps between an example of SLTE and teaching practices in secondary classrooms in Korea from the viewpoint of English for Specific Purposes, and reveals ways to incorporate teacher cognition into teacher training programs such as the GIFLE program in order to better transfer learning.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

This section presents the main concepts of ESP and teacher cognition. It is important to explore learning transfer in relation to ESP education to understand and evaluate the goals of SLTE. Through research findings on teacher cognition, I seek to develop points of improvement for SLTE.

### **SLTE as English for Specific Purposes (ESP)**

ESP is divided into English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998, p. 6). This study focuses on ESP as EOP and explores the definition, strengths, and roles of practitioners of ESP education. It also explores learning transfer to understand ESP education. Finally, as an example of techniques for promoting learning transfer, this study suggests using reflective learning and connects with teacher cognition.

ESP has become popular in the field of teaching English as a foreign or second language (TEFL/TESL) as part of a more general movement of teaching language for specific purposes (LSP) since the 1960s. The foundation of ESP is why learners need to learn a foreign language and the answer to this question relates to the learners, the language required, and the learning context, and thus establishes the primacy of need in ESP. Robinson (1991) says that ESP courses are generally constrained by a limited time period, in which their objectives have to be achieved, and are taught to adults in homogeneous classes in terms of the work

or specialist studies that the students are involved in. Stevens (1988) summarizes the advantages of ESP with the following points:

- Being focused on the learner's needs – it wastes no time.
- It is relevant to the learners.
- It is more cost-effective than “General English.”

According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), these mean that ESP teaching is more motivating for learners than teaching general English and that motivation in ESP has a profound effect on the question of how specific the course is. That is, high motivation on the part of learners generally enables more subject-specific work to be undertaken; low motivation, however, is likely to lead to a concentration on less specific work. Students who are studying English because it is on the timetable of their institution or who have been sent on a course by their company and who do not have specific, immediate and clearly definable needs may be demotivated by more specific work and may be motivated by ESP work that falls more towards general English. In this way, specificity of an ESP course and its motivation of the learner are closely related.

The instructors of ESP courses are called “practitioner” rather than “teacher,” which is based on their different roles. More specifically, ESP practitioners have more work to do than general English teachers do. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) mention that their various roles include teacher, course designer, materials provider, researcher, and evaluator.

## Transfer of Learning

Leaman, C. (2014) defines *learning transfer* as “the ability of a learner to successfully apply the behavior, knowledge, and skills acquired in a learning event to the job, with a resulting improvement in job performance” (para. 1). Therefore, research on learning transfer can shed light on improving the quality of SLTE.

Perkins and Salomon (1992) say that transfer of learning occurs when learning in one context (e.g., SLTE) enhances a related performance in another context (e.g., teaching in a secondary school in Korea). Salomon and Perkins (1984) offer the “low road/high road” model of transfer. Low-road transfer happens automatically through



practice in circumstances where there is considerable similarity between the original learning context and the situations where we might apply a skill or piece of knowledge.

On the other hand, high-road transfer has “a very different character that depends on deliberate mindful abstraction of skill or knowledge from one context for application in another” (Perkins & Salomon, 1988, p. 25). High-road transfer is divided into two types: forward-reaching high-road transfer in which one learns something and abstracts it in preparation for applications elsewhere. In backward-reaching high-road transfer, one finds oneself in a problem situation, abstracts key characteristics from the situation, and reaches backward into one’s experience for matches, and regardless of the direction, high-road transfer always involves reflective thought in abstracting from one context and seeking connections with others.

Building on the notions of low- and high-road transfer, Perkins and Salomon (1988) describe two techniques that can be used to teach about transfer: hugging and bridging. James (2006) connects them with instructional strategies presented in ELT practice and claims that transfer is not being targeted effectively if (a) the authentic materials are not similar to materials that the students are expected to use in target situations (i.e., hugging) and (b) the problem-solving tasks do not require students to make conscious abstractions and identify alternate applications of what they are learning (i.e., bridging). Because transfer of learning usually cannot be assumed, it needs to be addressed explicitly and consistently.

Furthermore, James (2012) draws attention to L2 transfer motivation, which is defined as “a combination of effort, desire, and attitudes that influences whether an individual will apply L2 learning from one context in a different context” (p. 52). James (2012) found that students’ L2 transfer motivation was influenced (both positively and negatively) by a range of factors that reflect various aspects of the context (e.g., opportunities, requirements, resources, courses/tasks, learning outcomes, and impact) and the learner (e.g., competence, beliefs about transfer; p. 62), and they overlap with factors that influence motivation to speak and willingness to communicate (WTC). Therefore, motivation to learn and transfer motivation may be influenced by similar factors. James (2012) claims that “if WTC is seen as widely relevant in L2 education and if WTC is similar to L2 transfer motivation, then L2 transfer motivation may also be seen as an important goal in L2 education” (p. 64). From

this perspective, transfer motivation does not happen automatically. L2 education should set up explicit goals to motivate learners so that they can transfer learning outside the classroom.

Furman and Sibthorp (2013) say that adult education and training programs are characterized by an emphasis on using the skills learned after the end of the program, an idea commonly referred to as *learning transfer*. They claim that experiential learning techniques can be helpful in fostering learning transfer. Techniques such as reflective learning provide authentic platforms for developing rich learning experiences. In contrast to more didactic forms of instruction, experiential learning techniques foster a depth of learning and cognitive recall necessary for transfer.

Furman and Sibthorp (2013) explain that reflective learning allows students to make connections between theory and practice, and allows the principles learned in a classroom to be applied elsewhere. Reflection might include written, verbal, or strictly mental exercises designed to revisit covered course content and create additional mental connections. Reflective learning may be implemented with techniques such as guided discussion, reflective writing exercises, and blog writing. They claim that by incorporating into their lessons experiential learning techniques that align with the literature on transfer, while also attending to individual and contextual differences in populations and classes, educators can maximize the potential for transfer (p. 24).

Experiential learning in the form of reflective learning fits well with the needs of adult learners, who have the life experience necessary to make critical mental connections, the will to direct their own learning, and the desire to fit the educational content into an immediately relevant context. By taking advantage of some of the inherent strengths of the reflective learning technique, educators can afford experiences that are well suited to allowing adults opportunities to transfer some of the intended lessons to other times, places, and contexts in their lives (p. 25).

In this regard, trainees in SLTE can learn from experiences because their experiences are not just about what happened in the classroom. Experiences include their thoughts and beliefs in relation to their job. If SLTE regards learning transfer as a major goal of the program, it should pay attention to giving the trainees opportunities for reflecting on their experiences. The process of examining and exploring an issue of concern triggered by trainees' experiences will result in changes to their conceptual perspective, which can be applied in new contexts. Borg

(2003) terms what teachers know, believe, and think as *teacher cognition*, and research on teacher cognition has the potential for improvements in SLTE.

## **Teacher Cognition**

The term *teacher cognition* might be interpreted in various ways according to the context. This paper draws on the definition used by Simon Borg (2003), who defines teacher cognition as “the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe, and think as an inclusive term to embrace the complexity of teachers’ mental lives” (p. 81). Teachers play important roles in education, so teachers’ understanding of what they know and believe has a direct bearing on their instructional practices. In this sense, exploring language teachers’ cognition must be central to the process of understanding and innovating second language teacher education.

Feryok (2010) mentions that while research on language teacher cognitions has been diverse in relation to such things as prior learning experiences, language teaching practices, language learning, and other areas, there is no single theoretical framework for studying language teacher cognitions. Borg (2003) uses a diagram (Figure 1) that shows that teacher cognitions are related to all aspects of their work. The diagram also outlines relationships suggested by mainstream educational research among teacher cognition, teacher learning, and classroom practice. In this study, it is used as a basis for exploring teacher cognition.

## **Teacher Learning (through schooling and professional coursework)**

Borg (2003) mentions that teachers’ prior language learning experiences establish cognitions about learning and language learning that form the basis of their initial conceptualizations of L2 teaching during teacher education and may continue to be influential throughout their professional lives. In terms of the impact of teacher education on teacher cognition, there are two opposing arguments. One is that teacher education does impact on trainees’ cognitions, though the precise nature of this impact varies across studies and indeed even amongst different trainees.

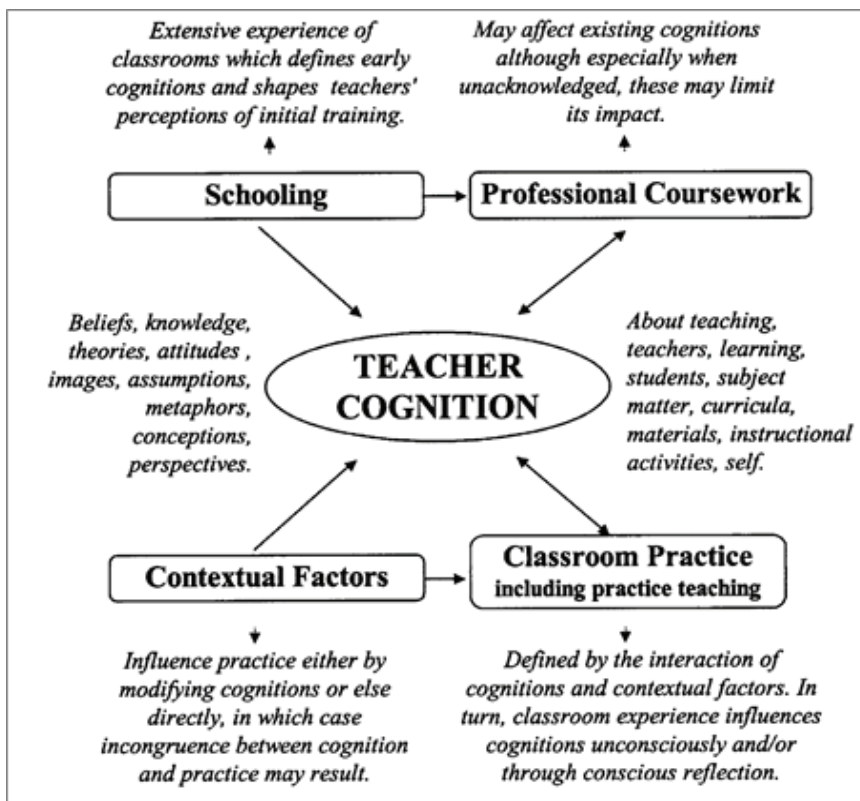


FIGURE 1. Aspects of Teacher Cognition. (From Borg, 2003, p. 82)

The other is that, while teacher education plays a powerful role in shaping trainees' behavior during teaching practice, it does not alter significantly the cognitions the trainees bring to the course. However, regardless of which change is more powerful, both admit that individual trainees make sense of and are affected by training programs in different and unique ways. In this regard, trainees will change through SLTE, but how they will change seems different according to each trainee's context.

Ellis (2006) emphasizes the impact of teachers' experiences, especially of teachers' second language learning experiences, on the formation of their knowledge, beliefs, and patterns of action. She suggests that, unlike teachers of other subjects, ESL teachers need to have knowledge and experience of the acquisition of the content in formal contexts. She proposes to use the terms *knowledge*, *beliefs*, and

*insights* to discuss teachers' language biographical experience and how it might contribute to their professional knowledge. She proposes that language learning experience is a powerful shaper of insights that interact in dialectical ways with knowledge and beliefs gained from formal and informal sources.

In this sense, nonnative-speaking English teachers are certain to have useful insights as teachers because they have learned the same content (English) in the same way as their students. She concludes that we should recognize the subtle interplay of experiential knowledge with received (content) knowledge, and begin to investigate further how teachers' successful language learning can contribute to their students' learning.

### **Contextual Factors**

Borg (2003) points out that the social, psychological, and environmental realities of the school and classroom also shape teachers' practices. These factors include parents, principals' requirements, the school, society, curriculum mandates, classroom and school layout, school policies, colleagues, standardized tests, and the availability of resources. Such factors may hinder language teachers' ability to adopt practices that reflect their beliefs.

In Korea, English, which goes beyond just being a foreign language subject, is considered as a yardstick for measuring a student's intellectual capacity as well as their parent's socioeconomic status (the government compiles the statistics of the correlation between students' English scores and their parents' incomes annually). As a result, pressure on English teachers from parents and principals is not negligible, and teachers of other subjects take pity on English teachers. That pressure is more and more placing English teachers in a defensive position, which acts as a negative factor in classroom practice.

For example, Zembylas (2005) mentions that emotion is the least investigated aspect of research on teaching, yet it is probably most often mentioned as being important and deserving more attention. By analyzing the connections among teachers' experiences and emotions, this author seeks to understand how teachers come to know, feel, and make sense of teaching. Similarly, Nias (1989, 1993, 1996) identifies the need to study teachers' emotional experiences because teaching is not just a technical enterprise but is inextricably linked to teachers' personal lives. Teachers invest their selves in their work, and so they closely

merge their sense of personal and professional identity. If a teacher can constitute spaces of emotional freedom, they can make their professional lives meaningful and tolerable, whereas those who are unable to find any such spaces may feel burned out and eventually leave the profession.

Zembylas claims that findings from research on teacher emotions will be able to open a new door on teacher education, which has long been focusing on informing teachers of methodological knowledge in teaching second or foreign language. For example, mirroring teachers' emotion while teachers are reflecting on their teaching practices in the form of narratives might be one way of paying attention to teachers' mental lives; engaging in a writing activity might be another. Likewise, speaking activities that usually deal with cultural matters can be replaced with a class for sharing emotions regarding teaching practices while conducting the conversation in English.

It is true that English teachers in Korea have to teach over 35 students per class; most of the students are unmotivated; the curriculum is already fixed; the communicative approach doesn't seem to work because of students' limited proficiency in English and their resistance to new ways of learning; and most of all, teachers have too much administrative work. However, it is important to recognize the fact that, nonetheless, most of them spend large parts of their lives, about 30 years, working in school. If they don't find some significant ways to improve their teaching, they will lose large parts of their lives – not only as a teacher but also as a person – because their identity as a teacher is not independent of their personal identity.

### **Classroom Practice**

Borg (2003) mentions that teachers' cognitions emerge as a powerful influence on their practices, while they are shaped by various interacting and conflicting factors, and that classroom practices don't always reflect teachers' stated beliefs and pedagogical theories. In terms of decision-making in a classroom, Nunan (1992) found that teachers' comments on their decisions did not reveal a concern for language. Rather, teachers' concerns related mostly to the pacing and timing of lessons, the quantity of teacher talk, and the quality of their explanations and instructions. Likewise, reasons such as a concern for the cognitive processes that facilitate learning, ensuring student understanding, and motivation have been cited by teachers. In particular, motivation or promoting students involvement is being mentioned most often among a

number of researchers as a main variable.

For example, Sakui and Cowie (2011) mention that although motivation to learn a second language has long been a focus of second language acquisition and sophisticated models of motivation have been developed, the perspectives of language teachers on learner motivation have played a limited role in motivation theory. Through a survey of thirty-two EFL teachers working in Japanese universities, they found that most teachers believed strongly that they could enhance their learners' motivation by employing various strategies that can be classified into four categories. First, the teachers mentioned using a large number of teaching techniques in order to provide their students with varied and thoughtful lessons. Second, many of the teachers tried to influence their students' attitude towards learning English by making them feel more positive about it. The third strategy is the development of a positive personal relationship between a teacher and their students. The fourth technique involves encouraging students to have clear goals.

Through those strategies, teachers want to see to what extent learners demonstrate motivational behavior in the classroom and how persistent they are both in and outside the classroom. One important point is that many of these strategies reflect the fact that the teachers view their learners as people, rather than just students. Many teachers in the study take an active interest in their learners' emotions and feelings, trying to find out who they are and understand what their lives are like beyond the classroom.

Sakui and Cowie (2011) also shed light on teachers' perspectives on *unmotivation*, which is as important as motivation, assuming that few studies focus on why students are not motivated to learn. Traditionally, the term *amotivation* refers to a situation in which people see no relation between their actions and consequences of those actions, so people have no reason, intrinsic or extrinsic, for performing the activity, and they would be expected to quit the activity as soon as possible, whereas Dornyei uses the term *demotivation* to describe a situation in which learners lose motivation for various reasons. The reason why Sakui and Cowie (2011) use the term "unmotivation" is that in practical terms, language teachers have to deal with both amotivation and demotivation. As it is difficult to differentiate between the two in classroom situations, they combine the two concepts by using the term "unmotivation" in order to encompass a wider range of students' non-motivated behaviors and to explore how teachers make sense of this phenomenon.

Sakui and Cowie identify three internal and external factors that teachers consider as the bases of limitations on eliciting learner motivation. The first factor is institutional systems such as compulsory classes and large class sizes, institutional beliefs, and school types. The second one is those internal to students who may have attitudes or personalities that make it difficult for teachers to motivate them. Students with attitudinal problems can be categorized into those who are “negative” and those who have “no interest.” This author uses the term “amotivation” for situations in which students show no interest, while the term “demotivation” is used to refer to a loss of motivation. The last factor of unmotivation is a teacher–student relationship that comes from a teacher’s own perceived shortcomings or incompatibilities between a teacher and their students.

Traditional models of motivation have thus far failed to adequately explain issues with applicability in the classroom. This author suggests that recognition of these factors of unmotivation depict a more realistic representation of classroom-situated motivation – one that could prove useful for teacher education through heightened awareness and reflection.

### **Teacher Cognition and SLTE**

Richards (2008) mentions that from the perspective of teacher cognition, teaching is not simply the application of knowledge and learned skills. It is viewed as a much more complex cognitively driven process affected by the classroom context, the teacher’s general and specific instructional goals, the learners’ motivations and reactions to the lesson, and the teacher’s management of critical moments during a lesson. At the same time, teaching reflects the teacher’s personal response to such issues, hence teacher cognition is very much concerned with teachers’ personal and “situated” approaches to teaching. Richards also says that nowadays the nature of teacher learning has been reconsidered as a form of socialization into the professional thinking and practices of a community of practice.

In addition, the knowledge base of teaching has also been re-examined with a questioning of the traditional positioning of the language-based disciplines as the major foundation for SLTE. To explain the knowledge base of teaching, he uses the terms *explicit knowledge* and *implicit knowledge*. While explicit knowledge constitutes the basis of “knowledge about,” implicit knowledge constitutes the basis of



“knowledge of how” and usually refers to the beliefs, theories, and knowledge that underlie teachers’ practical actions, which SLTE should include in the knowledge base of the core content of SLTE.

Richards (2008) points out that traditionally the problem of teacher-learning focused on improving the effectiveness of delivery and that the failure of teachers to “acquire” what was taught was seen as a problem of overcoming teachers’ resistance to change. However, from the view of examining the mental processes involved in teacher-learning and acknowledging the situated and social nature of learning, teacher-learning is viewed as taking place in a context and evolves through the interaction and participation of the participants in that context where teacher-learning constructs new knowledge and theory through participating in specific social contexts and engaging in particular types of activities and processes.

In a similar sense, Freeman (2002) claims that teacher education must serve two functions: It must teach the skills of reflectivity, and it must provide the discourse and vocabulary that can serve participants in renaming their experience. From this perspective, the roles of participants, the discourses they create and participate in, the activities that take place, and the artifacts and resources that are employed are keys to the teacher-learning processes. All of them shape the nature of the learning that occurs, and learning is seen to emerge through social interaction within a community of practice.

## **THE STUDY: THE GIFLE PROGRAM**

This study looks at a GIFLE one-month live-in program in 2014 as an example of SLTE in Korea. GIFLE is the Gyeonggi-do Institute for Foreign Language Education, established by the Gyeonggi-do Office of Education. The GIFLE program has three goals: (a) to increase teachers’ English proficiency, (b) to develop teaching techniques through English teaching methodologies, and (c) to raise awareness of multicultural understanding. Based on these goals, the program consists of core modules and additional activities.

As Tables 1 and 2 show, the core modules are the main classes of learning and practicing teaching methodologies for the four skills. The additional activities are composed of a variety of different types of

activities. One distinctive feature among the additional activities is that they try to give the trainees freedom to choose what they want to study. For example, among the electives, the trainees can choose the topic and the instructor for the lectures they take. In addition, in the library activity, the trainees can freely browse through the library and select materials according to their interests. The trainees also get one-on-one consultation according to their interests.

The other distinctive feature in the additional activities is to use computer-assisted activities. For example, in the multimedia class, the trainees watch videos on the computer, controlling the pace according to their proficiency. Since the GIFLE program is a live-in program, the trainees can watch videos at night. Through the video conference class, the trainees meet native speakers of English on the web and practice English speaking face to face using web-based materials.

The instructors working at the GIFLE program are all foreigners with master’s or doctorate degrees. Most of them didn’t have much professional experience and came to Korea for personal reasons. So it is not easy to expect them to know the working environment of the trainees in GIFLE programs, although they are curious about the education systems in Korea.

**TABLE 1. GIFLE Program Overview**

<b>Goals</b>	To improve communicative competence for teaching English in English (TEE). To enhance classroom teaching through obtaining elementary English teaching methodology. To improve teacher professionalism through increased understanding of multicultural environments.	
<b>Program Summary</b>		
<b>Location &amp; Date</b>	One month boarding at GIFLE campus	Round 1: 2014.05.21–06.20 Round 2: 2014.11.17–12.16
<b>Program type &amp; Hours</b>	Teacher Training	Approx. 135 hours
<b>Participants</b>	Secondary English Teachers	Round 1: 96 Round 2: 96
<b>Course of Study</b>	<b>Core Module:</b> Speaking, Reading, Writing, Micro-teaching <b>Elective Module:</b> Video Conference Class Multimedia Lab Workshop Consultation Homeroom, Special Activity, Listening Test	

From GIFLE (2012).

The GIFLE program consists mainly of speaking, reading, writing, and listening focused on increasing trainees' English proficiency. While the curriculum reflects the belief that one of the problems of English classes in Korea derives from a deficiency in the English teachers' English proficiency, most English teachers agree that is not all that is required for teaching English. For example, many teachers do not teach only in English especially in high school. Frequently they use Korean in class. It is not easy to change the traditional teacher-centered, reading-based classroom practices because students' needs for learning English lie in taking exams. This is one of the reasons why English teachers cannot see the direct connection between learning in the program and their work at school.

**TABLE 2. GIFLE Program Outline for One-Month Live-In Training Program**

Category	Subject	Content
<b>Core Modules</b>	Speaking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning and applying various speaking activities and assessment items for classroom teaching</li> <li>• Developing teaching materials and proficiency for TEE</li> <li>• Developing trainees' ability to teach students speaking for the NEAT exam</li> </ul>
	Reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning various activities to apply in class, and the theories and strategies related to reading</li> <li>• Learning various teaching techniques to improve reading skills</li> <li>• Learning reading strategies using library resources</li> </ul>
	Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning various techniques to improve writing skills</li> <li>• Learning various activities to apply in class, and theories and strategies related to writing</li> <li>• Developing NEAT questions and assessment</li> </ul>
	Microteaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Introducing teaching models and analyzing teaching materials</li> <li>• Developing action plans based on feedback and reflection to address continued development</li> </ul>
<b>Electives</b>	Various	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Choosing lectures on various topics for customized learning</li> <li>• Being able to take classes taught by instructors other than those who teach the core modules</li> </ul>

Category	Subject	Content
<b>Library Activity</b>	Library Activity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Providing opportunities to access library resources (e.g., textbooks, fiction) on the GIFLE campus</li> <li>• Encouraging trainees to recommend and apply excerpts they found inspiring in their classroom teaching</li> </ul>
<b>Online</b>	Video-Conference Class	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Real-time conversation classes with a native speaker of English (one instructor for every 4 trainees)</li> <li>• Improving listening and speaking skills through discussion</li> <li>• Improving writing proficiency through feedback from the instructors</li> </ul>
<b>Multimedia</b>	Listening Program	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Program composed of different levels of language functions</li> <li>• Video study materials containing many cultural contents</li> </ul>
<b>Consultation</b>	Consultation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Securing one-on-one consultation time with core module instructors during the program on topics related to the program</li> <li>• Providing opportunities to ask additional questions or discuss topics that could not be covered during core module classes</li> </ul>
<b>Field Trip</b>	Field Trip	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Visiting various locations for school trips, excursions, and hands-on experience</li> <li>• Providing opportunities to interact in the target language with homeroom instructors</li> </ul>

From GIFLE (2012).

## DISCUSSION OF PROGRAM RESULTS

The GIFLE program can be seen as an example of ESP education for several reasons. First, the program has the specific purpose of training secondary school English teachers in Korea to improve their professional skills. Second, the main goal of the program is to support trainees who are secondary school English teachers to teach better at school. Third, the program has a limited time period of one month, and

the trainees are all adults who have at least a BA degree with rather advanced proficiency in English. Therefore, it is valid to view and analyze the program as an example of ESP.

## **Problems Observed**

From the ESP perspective, the GIFLE program has problems in two areas. First, trainee motivation for learning was not high even with the benefit of being away from work for a month. Presumably, that is one reason why the assessment is based on a curve (from 80–100) with norm referencing. If the program had more adequately reflected the learners' needs and the class modules had been more relevant to the trainees' jobs, which is teaching English as a foreign language at school, trainee motivation in the program could have been higher.

Second, the roles of the instructors in the GIFLE program did not match the roles of practitioners in ESP education. Rather, they seemed to regard themselves as instructors of general English. The instructors in the GIFLE program must have been under stress while working in the institution because most of them started to work there with rather short-term experience in teaching. For example, the employment description on the website requires a relevant master's degree with a related teaching certificate (e.g., TESOL) with a minimum of two years of full-time English teaching experience or a relevant bachelor's degree with a related teaching certificate and a minimum of 3 years of full-time English teaching experience. Because they were all foreigners, it is most likely that they are not familiar with the trainees' target teaching situation. In addition, since the entire curriculum for the program was controlled by the institution and focused on the trainees' proficiency, the instructors most likely planned their lessons within quite limited boundaries.

Many instructors created their own materials of very good quality, but they did not have a chance to be evaluated by the trainees during or after the program because the only survey at the end of the program was to ask for their holistic impression of the GIFLE program. As a result, the instructors in the GIFLE program did not have an evaluation of the effectiveness of the materials they had prepared. It is important to have time for evaluation during the program to gather valid information for improving the GIFLE program. The instructors might not have known the trainees' needs and thus focused on teaching general

English. If that was the case, the trainees' attitude towards the class might have been a bit uncomfortable for the instructors because trainees who didn't see the class as useful and relevant to their work might have been demotivated and inattentive to classes.

In regards to the two problems above, administration of the GIFLE program also had difficulty. First of all, not a few of the trainees were required by the office of education to participate in the program, so it was less likely for them to have had intrinsic motivation. In addition, the institution had difficulties in securing qualified instructors. Instructor employment periods at the training institute were quite short. This might be because they were all native speakers of English – all foreigners – and might have not taken their job as an instructor seriously. Or they might have been under stress from teaching because their role as an instructor in the program was different from the one for teaching general English. If they did not recognize the difference, it would not have been easy to be confident in their job. From the fact that the website is always seeking new instructors, it can be assumed that it would be hard to manage the program consistently and that the high instructor turnover would negatively affect the quality of the program.

The trainees in the GIFLE program learned English to teach teenagers English at school. To increase the trainees' motivation in class, they should feel that they are able to apply what they learn in class to their workplace. To apply what they learn to their workplace, the contents of the GIFLE program should reflect their workplace – not just by the instructors knowing what the trainees are doing at school, but also by understanding what they think and analyzing why they are doing what they are doing at school.

In this regard, transferability of the GIFLE program would better be addressed at the institution level by making it an explicit goal of the program in various ways, such as by explaining this in instructor training (staff meetings) or in the orientation for the trainees. In addition, an evaluation of the program could check if the goal of transfer had been achieved in the program and the results from the evaluation could inform curriculum design or revision in the future.

Furthermore, the objectives of the GIFLE program would better include what and how the learners can apply what they learned in their program to their school situation after completing the course. It would have been better if the instructors had explicitly stated the goals of transfer to the learners not only at the beginning of the course, but also

during the course. After the course, it would have been better for the trainees to have evaluated the course in terms of how they were motivated to apply their learning to their workplace. It is important for instructors to contact trainees after a program to understand what is going on at their workplaces in terms of application of program content because information from trainees about how they use what they had learned in a program is like customer reviews of a product. To improve the quality of a product, nothing is as valuable as customer's authentic reviews. In a similar sense, former trainees' comments are a great asset for program improvement in terms of "what worked and why" and "what didn't work and why not."

In terms of learning transfer, the GIFLE program had positive and negative aspects. The positive aspect was that the program reflected the trainees' target situations in that most classes in the core modules included preparing learners for the NEAT (National English Ability Test). Teaching English for secondary students in Korea involves preparing students for tests and English classes, especially at the high school level, would be influenced by the NEAT, a new nationwide test of English for university entrance. Therefore, dealing with the NEAT in the GIFLE program was deemed relevant and useful to the trainees, who were English teachers at secondary schools.

However, the negative aspect was that, other than the NEAT, the core modules were not specific enough to promote transfer of learning to the trainees' work. Even though the activities included teaching-related terminology such as "teaching techniques" and "teaching materials," they could have been more relevant to the trainees by connecting to more specific situations in teaching.

## **Suggestions and Examples**

The GIFLE program can be viewed as ESP education, in which training occurs to meet specific (mostly work-related) purposes, and the contents should be applicable to the workplace. Therefore, the GIFLE program should have specific occupational goals that are directly and authentically applicable to the teaching situation. In addition, the GIFLE program should not think of its role as being just that of introducing new activities for teaching English, as the trainees teach in varied contexts for varied purposes to varied groups of learners within secondary schools. These include middle school students who are starting to learn English

as an academic subject, high school students who are learning English to prepare for the university entrance exam, vocational high school students who will be using English in their jobs or in job-getting, and international high school students who will be going abroad after graduation.

To increase the transferability of the GIFLE program, this study makes two recommendations. First, the framework of the core modules should be reorganized to reflect the trainees' target situations. For example, the speaking class could contain activities about how to start (or end) a class, warm-up interaction techniques, asking questions for clarification, etc. These activities could be grouped as "English for oral interaction in the classroom." The trainees would be more motivated to learn more from job-related activities. In addition, the core modules, which are based on the four skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing), would better be restructured as content-based modules.

"Content-based modules" here means the restructuring of the core modules according to content that the trainees are meant to learn. The content should reflect the target situations of the trainees – which are English classes in secondary school. The target situations could be divided into three sections – preparing for class, teaching in class, and reflecting after class, and each section would have specific activities. For example, the section on preparing for class could include a materials development activity, and the section on teaching in class could include micro-teaching and a practicum. Likewise, the section on reflecting after class could give the trainees a chance to observe classes, and analyze and evaluate them. From the content-based modules, the trainees could connect the training program to their work to become aware of why they learn what they learn in the program. The awareness could invite the learners to think of how they could apply what they learn to their work, or what is called "transfer of learning," which is one of the most important goals in ESP education.

Second, this study suggests using teacher cognition as the knowledge base for the GIFLE program. The trainees' experiential knowledge could be effectively used not only as material but also as motivation for learning. While trainees share their experiential knowledge, they could recall their past experiences, which could trigger reflective thinking that could lead to effective learning transfer. For example, the trainees could share their successful and unsuccessful teaching experiences. They could speak or write in English their thoughts on the reasons why some were successful and others were not. The trainees would likely have a



willingness to share their thoughts and experiences in their careers since it is not uncommon to see them talking about their students, telling anecdotal stories about that happened in classroom, and expressing their feelings on teaching in private talks. Inviting their private talks into the regular classroom would not only be effective but also memorable and enjoyable, thus contributing to promoting trainee involvement. The trainees would also feel that the class was relevant and useful. Three examples are introduced in the Appendix applying these two suggestions (see Appendix, Examples 1–3).

The GIFLE program seems to have relied on traditional views of teacher education, focusing on explicit knowledge and delivery methodologies. The trainees, being in-service teachers with lots of experiences, might have had a hard time connecting what they learned in the program with their real classroom situations. The administration likely thought that the trainees were not willing to commit to the program. Injecting into the program chances for the trainees to explore their mental world as a second language teacher would open a new door for the trainees to experience meaningful and enjoyable ways of learning, thereby becoming more involved in the program. The administration would also find it useful to incorporate teacher experiences into the content of the program because the trainees themselves could easily be major resources for the classes. Therefore, the GIFLE program would benefit from incorporating teacher cognition into their in-service English teacher training program.

## CONCLUSIONS

To begin with, I admit that since I am not an insider in the GIFLE program, there are limitations to this analysis of the curriculum, therefore my view of the program is from a limited range of vision. From that view, the GIFLE program tries to respect the trainees as learners and support their needs as English teachers by freeing them from work and by providing learner-centered activities. However, a lot of English teachers do not volunteer to participate in the program, so the process of selecting trainees relies on a mandatory system dictated by the relevant office of education. There are several reasons for the program's unpopularity, and this study pointed out the problem of the program in

terms of transfer of learning. Trainees who do not see an effective connection between what they learn and their work situation are unlikely to take the program seriously. If the contents in the program support the trainees (i.e., by making what they learn in class applicable to their workplace), the trainees would be more motivated to learn.

In terms of the knowledge base of SLTE, the GIFLE program has focused on the trainees' proficiency in English. Although it is one of the basic and important knowledge bases of SLTE, their job is not just a matter of being proficient in English. Teaching in class involves rather complicated procedures of making decisions for maximizing effectiveness in quantity and quality of student learning. In addition, it is influenced by many contextual factors such as pressure from the institution, time constraints, and tests. In this sense, teacher education would better deal with what teachers know, believe, and do – in other words, teacher cognition as a knowledge base. The activities of inviting trainees to speak and write about their thoughts and feelings as well as to listen and read other trainees' thoughts and feelings in regards to teaching English to teens in Korea would be powerful in motivating them intrinsically because the talk and writing would come from their own experiences and related insights.

At the same time, however, I foresee some limitations in incorporating teacher cognition into a teacher training program. First, from the administrators' perspective, paying attention to teachers' thoughts and beliefs in teacher education might be viewed as impractical because it is not directly related to teaching students. Second, the instructors might have problems managing the class because they might not understand exactly what the trainees are talking and writing about, and have trouble adjusting to their new roles as practitioners in ESP education.

Despite the limitations, it is worth attempting to inject teacher cognition into the program. Teaching and learning is more than just giving and receiving knowledge, and most of all, it is helpful to keep in mind that teachers and students are humans who have emotions and normally express them in their interactions. For EFL teachers in Korea like me, SLTE is an important stepping stone in professional development. Being placed in a circumstance where one is required to prepare students for tests rather than develop their English proficiency and being evaluated on this does not provide essential meaning to their occupation – their identity and ability as an English teacher lack in pride and meaningfulness.

Through participating in effective teacher training programs, teachers may become recharged with confidence and competence as a language teacher. Hopefully, research on SLTE can contribute to the development of teacher training programs like GIFLE's.

## THE AUTHOR

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## APPENDIX

### Examples of Teacher Cognition as Knowledge Base in a Suggested GIFLE Program

#### Example 1

##### 1. Read the article and discuss the questions.

Amy wrote one of the students' answers on the board:

*✳The graph shows that how many Starbucks stores spread in the world.*

Amy asked her students to correct it. What she was targeting was the wrongly placed complementizer *that*. However, the students' attention was elsewhere:

One student then pointed out that the verb in the sentence should be passive. Amy sort of discounted this remark and suggested *have spread*. Another student asked whether the verb *spread* was transitive or not. This seemed to throw Amy off, and she admitted it. Amy wrote both on the board and said "OK," although looking rather dubious.

Thus, by giving a grammatically incorrect sentence to students and asking them to correct it, Amy ended up with an even more ungrammatical sentence:

*✳The graph shows that how many Starbucks stores have been spread in the world.*

Reflecting on this particular lesson, Amy wrote in her journal: "I started to second-guess myself when they offered the passive voice of the present perfect even though I just felt that this wasn't correct.... I felt myself saying I'm not sure a lot, and just felt them losing respect for me as their teacher every moment." As the quarter wore on, Amy began to realize that her strong identification with her students and her casual demeanor in class had a negative repercussion in her classroom management: Absences, tardiness, and late or no submission of assignments became frequent.

Amy said, “At the beginning of this quarter, I wasn’t very confident, and I saw myself as sort of one of the students.... And it might have given the students the idea that I’m kind of a pushover.” To earn their respect, she said, she had to become “a little bit more authoritative.”

- 1a. In pairs, look at the underlined part and ask your partner if her decision would be effective or not. (If yes, why? If no, why not?)
- 1b. Work in pairs. Look back to when you started to work at school as a teacher. Write two ways in which you have been changed from when you were a novice teacher. Compare your notes with your partner.

**2. Watch the video and discuss the questions.**

“What Makes a Great Teacher?”  
<http://youtu.be/HcvS7B95UEc>

- 2a. Do you agree with what the students say? What would you like to add to them?
- 2b. In groups, discuss what is important / not important to be a successful English teacher, and list the three most significant qualities English teachers should have.

**Example 2**

**1. Read the news article below and discuss the questions in pairs.**

“The primary goal of developing the NEAT (National English Ability Test) in Korea is to change current English education, to enhance practical and communicative English education. Although it will be less effective, if NEAT is not used for college admission. But we’ll continue to run the test and will develop ways to use it. Some teachers are skeptical about the usage of NEAT, arguing many schools lack resources for teaching speaking and writing to students. High school students are currently taught English four hours a week and one teacher teaches more than 50 students in a class. It’s almost impossible to teach speaking and writing at schools.... Without changing the current learning environment, the test would only encourage more students to turn to private English education,” Kim said....

Aug. 21, 2013, *The Korea Herald*

- 1a. Is the decision on using “NEAT” going to affect your teaching in your classrooms?
  
- 1b. If “yes,” how will you change your classes? If “no,” why won’t you change?
  
- 1c. Do you believe the number of students is really the strongest reason why it is impossible to teach speaking and writing in schools? Or is there some other reason?

### Example 3



The followings are from interviews with a teacher.

When I was a young teacher, I didn't have an arena or a place to go talk with people necessarily about how I felt. I'm not sure if I ever think I really had that. (Catherine, Interview, 24 March 1999)

It's not considered professional to talk about feelings. We usually don't feel it's professional talking when, for example, you are really frustrated with a child. Or, I also find most of the time people probably have a very difficult time verbalizing or even being able to track and recognize how they feel. It's hard for people to do that. You know, I think we do talk about feelings, but I think there are lots of different levels of discussion about feelings. (Catherine, Interview, 22 January 1999)

I remember as a young teacher, I often felt so much discomfort and shame because my ideas were not appreciated. I felt that my feelings were ignored or dismissed by my colleagues.... And this made me feel a tremendous sense of disempowerment. Recognizing that my ideas and feelings lacked appreciation made me feel even more discouraged. (Catherine, Interview, 10 May 1999)

Over the years, I've become much more aware of the excitement, and yet again when it happens, I'm trying to understand why was that so exciting? What really made that experience so wonderful? I still go back and reflect further and frequently for me it is partly, in my experience, how it was similar to or different from something that happened to me when I was younger or last week – as well as how fascinating it was to see kids being engaged, so I was engaged, too.



By expressing my excitement and by seeing kids expressing theirs, I become even more excited! And often, we take turns motivating each other and finding things that make us feel excited to learn. (Catherine, Interview, 10 June 1999)

1. Choose one that resonates with you most, and write about your own experiences that make you feel sympathetic to Catherine (i.e., how did you feel when you were a young teacher; what has made you feel frustrated most in your job? And how did you overcome the difficulty; when did you feel most excited as an English teacher; how did the excitement affect your teaching; etc.).



## Implementing Metacognitive Strategy Training with Korean Adult Learners

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Developing metacognitive awareness through in-class training has been shown to both increase learner autonomy and have positive effects on language proficiency. In Korea, while there have been a number of studies done on the relationship between metacognitive awareness and student performance, research on the effects of delivering in-class training has yet to be attempted. The current study attempts to address this gap by implementing a metacognitive strategy-training program with a group of Korean adult learners and evaluating the program's potential benefits. Over the course of five lessons, participants underwent daily training in metacognitive strategies and selected autonomous learning activities to be done outside of class. A mixed methods approach employing a qualitative survey and the quantitative SILL measure developed by Oxford (1989) provided evidence that the training is effective in increasing the variety, complexity, specificity, and awareness of independent study techniques among participants.

### INTRODUCTION

Adult language learners have numerous reasons for studying a language including career advancement, study abroad, and pleasure. These reasons give rise to an intrinsic motivation, which leads students to seek out opportunities that help them improve their English, either autonomously or through language classes. For autonomous learning in particular, learners employ a number of strategies: They watch English language TV shows, make English-speaking friends, or read books in English, for example. Most of these students display the traits of what Rubin (1975) describes as good language learners: They are driven to communicate, focus on meaning, monitor their own speech, and are

willing to make mistakes.

While good learners exist, some may lack sufficient direction to meet their learning goals. Without clear goals and direction, these learners are over-reliant on their teacher to see improvement. This may especially be true in Korea and other East Asian countries. In his study on learning strategies amongst university students, Park (1997, p. 212) declares that in Korea, “teachers do not teach English learning strategies in the classroom, resulting in the fact that Korean students are accustomed to only taking knowledge from their teacher.” Other cultural characteristics, such as a strong respect for authority and the social relations between teacher and learner, may discourage learner autonomy. Ho and Crookall (1995, p. 240) claim that these cultural values are “almost diametrically opposed to autonomy.”

However, many researchers such as Hedge (2001) and Kell and Newton (1997) consider learner autonomy a concept that can benefit students of all cultural backgrounds. Researchers also agree that there is a positive correlation between learner proficiency and strategy use. (Park, 1997; Yoon, Won, & Kang, 2001). Park (1997) recommends that practitioners actively teach learning strategies as a means to improve language proficiency.

For many Korean EFL learners, however, learning strategies remain a vague concept (Lee & Oxford, 2008). To rectify this, the current study employs a metacognitive strategy-training approach in an attempt to empower learners in their own learning and autonomy. Hedge (2001, p. 78) defines metacognitive learning strategies as “planning for learning, thinking about learning, evaluating how to make it effective, and self-monitoring during learning.” Through the explicit teaching of these strategies, it is expected that learners will develop the tools to plan and evaluate their own learning, decreasing reliance on the teacher and fostering learner autonomy. With greater autonomy, learners will be able to define their learning goals and choose appropriate and effective strategies to meet them. Through discussion and practice of learning activities in class, learners will be able to evaluate their progress and rely less on a teacher, while still meeting their goals. Additionally, a mixture of qualitative and quantitative data will assess the effectiveness of this approach.

This article is divided into three major sections. Following an overview of metacognitive strategy training and models of training, the methodology and rationale for the current research will be detailed. A

discussion of the results and implications for practitioners, particularly for the Korean context, will follow.

## **METACOGNITIVE TRAINING**

### **Metacognitive Strategy Training**

Learner training can be encouraged and developed by the teacher to assist in communication, but some learners have difficulty coping outside the classroom without the guidance of a teacher (Holec, 1981). As a response to this, Victori and Lockhart (1995) have described metacognitive strategy training as having a “[unifying role] in all levels of learner training” (p. 223). They assert that it “endow[s] the learners with criteria for choosing optimum strategies, resources, and activities for their individualized programs” (p. 223). The teacher’s role is to provide guidance through classroom training of metacognitive strategies.

In order for the training to be effective, researchers have argued that it must be taught explicitly (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1989). Part of the teacher’s role in the training is to provide the rationale for student participation. This explicit approach not only motivates students to invest themselves in the training, but also encourages them to use the strategies outside of the classroom. In addition to explicitness, strategy practice should be given to students during class time to provide a model for students to use outside of class.

One of the most motivating aspects of developing metacognitive awareness is that it is tailored to the individual learner. Cranstone and Baird (1988) state that for strategy training to be successful, the learner must “perceive immediate practical applications” (p. 232). Successful metacognitive strategy training allows learners to recognize their individual learning goals and attempt specific activities to work towards accomplishing those goals. If, for instance, the learner’s goal is to understand 80% of an academic article in his or her field, the teacher may suggest that the student read the article for gist (focusing on the general idea and not specific details), and then again to grasp the details. The teacher can then suggest that the student estimate the percentage of the article understood. This activity may be repeated over months until the learner is confident in the percentage of the article he or she has understood.

## Models of Training

Rebecca Oxford's book *Language Learning Strategies* (1990) provides a detailed framework for implementing metacognitive strategy training in the classroom. She identifies three functions that allow learners to control their own learning: centering, arranging and planning, and evaluating. The centering function assists learners in dealing with a task at hand. The students are encouraged to link a language task with prior knowledge of a topic or language area. They should pay attention to the task and delay speech until they are ready to speak. On a planning level, the arranging and planning function encourages students to be more independent in their learning: They should seek practice opportunities, think about the language learning process, organize their schedule to work on their language learning goals, and relate a language task to their own goals. Finally, the evaluation function describes the need for learners to evaluate their own progress. They identify the source of their errors and work to eliminate them. They also compare their task performance with past performances to evaluate progress.

In conducting metacognitive strategy training for the teaching of vocabulary, Rasekh and Ranjbary (2003) devised a five-step framework. The training consisted of first making the participants explicitly aware of the goals of metacognitive strategy training. The researchers conducted the training in class and allowed time for the learners to practice the techniques. Following that, the participants were given time to evaluate their performance. For the final stage, the researchers encouraged the learners to continue using the most effective strategies and apply them in different contexts. Anderson's (2002) approach followed a similar format to Rasekh and Ranjbary's. He proposed a number of components to increase metacognition. Learners planned for their learning, selected strategies, and monitored and evaluated their performance.

The above frameworks share a number of common features. All approaches advocate explicitly informing learners about the nature of metacognitive strategy training and its goals. They develop a method of instruction for increasing metacognitive awareness in class and encourage learners to seek out practice opportunities outside of class. There is also an element in which learners evaluate their own performance in relation to their goals. Much of the research done on metacognitive strategy training, however, centers on training to improve a particular skill, such as reading or vocabulary acquisition. Rather than focusing on one skill

area, the current study will implement a learner-driven approach to strategy training: Learners will choose the strategies that best serve their needs and in-class training will cover a variety of language skills. This approach was chosen over a skills-oriented one because it is tailored to the needs and desired outcomes of the individual learner.

## METHODOLOGY

### Participants

Eight adult student studying at a language academy in Seoul, South Korea, took part in the study. Consent was obtained from each participant, and they were made aware of the purpose of the study. All participants were ethnically Korean and spoke Korean as an L1. The learners were taking an upper-intermediate general English course covering all four skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking) and ranged from B1 to C1 users of English, according to the Common European Framework. Age and gender were not considered for the purposes of this study and, thus, were not collected by the researcher. However, the learners generally tended to be in their 20s. The course in which the research took place was conducted on weekday afternoons, and none of the participants were currently engaged in full-time work. As such, in informal conversations with the learners, they reported a number of reasons for enrolling in an English course during their free time. A number of students stated that they enjoyed learning English and enrolled in the class as a means to maintain their English ability. Others had a specific career goal in mind, such as improving conversational fluency before applying to positions in the travel industry.

All learners had studied English for a number of years and had tried or were familiar with independent study techniques and activities before participating in the current research, as indicated in the qualitative survey (see Appendix A). While one student wrote that he had simply studied “without [a] plan,” others reported that they engaged in a variety of self-study techniques across a range of skills, including watching YouTube videos in English, reading articles and finding words, and recording themselves speaking in English.

## Procedure

Borrowing from the frameworks developed by researchers such as Oxford (1990) and Anderson (2002), the current study used the following approach in conducting metacognitive strategy training:

1. Determine language learning goals for each learner and devise strategies for achieving stated goals.
2. Conduct in-class strategy training and assign learner-chosen strategies to be done at home throughout the training period.
3. Discuss and reflect on the strategies the learners practiced in class and at home.
4. Evaluate the impact of the strategy-training program both qualitatively and quantitatively.

The strategy training took place over five 90-minute class periods over the course of two weeks. Before it commenced, learners were informed of the purpose of the training: to develop metacognitive awareness and develop study strategies to reach individualized language learning goals. They were also informed that their data would be used in the current study.

## Goals and Objectives

On the first day of training, students were given the “questionnaire for determining language learning goals and objectives” from Oxford (1990, p. 179) to complete in class. In this questionnaire, Oxford defines goals as long-term achievements, such as understanding 80% of a given news article or speaking with little or no hesitation. Objectives are defined as the tasks done to achieve a certain goal. An objective, therefore, may involve reading a news article in English twice a week until the learner is satisfied with the percent of the article that he or she understood. The students were told to make a list of their own language learning goals and to brainstorm some objectives to meet their goals. After completing the questionnaire, the students discussed their goals and objectives together, and were encouraged to comment and offer suggestions to their peers. The teacher also commented on the students’ goals and offered task suggestions. Completion of this questionnaire



accomplished two tasks: First, it helped learners recognize their learning needs, and second, it established specific tasks for the students to work on throughout the week.

To ensure that students gained sufficient opportunity to work on their goals, homework was assigned nightly. For homework, students were encouraged to work on one of the objectives they wrote on the questionnaire and think about the effectiveness of that approach. The next day, the learners discussed which task they did, how it related to their goal, and offered suggestions and advice to their peers. This discussion was done at the beginning of each class throughout the training.

One aspect of having metacognitive awareness is being able to identify the purpose of a language task. In-class training took place on the second day. The training involved completing a language task while thinking about the goal and objective of that particular task. Before completing a reading task, learners were told that the goal of the task was to improve reading speed and the objective was to read the article for gist in under two minutes. Students were instructed not to read every word and to focus on the key words of the article. In this way, metacognitive awareness of a language task's purpose was invoked. For each task done in class, learners were explicitly told that the activity could be replicated outside of class and were encouraged to try it for homework. This procedure was repeated for each language task done in class for the remainder of the training.

In addition to identifying the purpose of a language task, other metacognitive strategies were developed before beginning a task. Students centered their learning and focused on the task at hand by linking the task with previous knowledge. This was achieved through pre-reading or pre-listening tasks, such as conducting a classroom discussion on the topic related to the listening or reading material or brainstorming related vocabulary. Students also planned for the language they needed to complete a task. For instance, before a speaking task in which students describe a childhood memory, students were encouraged to use linguistic features that would be present in a typical version of this task, such as using the past tense, and linking ideas and events using cohesive devices while they discussed their ideas.

The above metacognitive strategies allow learners to effectively plan for a task. After completing a task, learners were instructed to evaluate their performance. In practice, this can be achieved by a student monitoring how effectively he or she is performing a task. While

speaking, for instance, a student should make a note of when he has difficulty communicating an idea. The learner can review this note later and have a record of where he had difficulty. For a listening task, this could mean estimating what percentage of a listening task the learner understood.

At this point, the students have formulated their language learning goals and have brainstormed objectives (language tasks) to reach those goals. On the third day of training, the learners brainstormed listening, reading, writing, and speaking activities that could be done without the aid of a teacher. To make the activity engaging, learners won points for each task they brainstormed and an additional point for any task they had done before. This activity assisted in developing metacognitive awareness because it encourages the idea of autonomous learning and presents the learners with a large variety of activities from which they can choose to work on. After sharing the available opportunities, the teacher offered additional suggestions to the learners.

The metacognitive strategies mentioned above trained learners to link previous knowledge with the task at hand, planned their learning, and evaluated their performance. These skills were taught and reinforced during the first four days of training, and learners were reminded to use the strategies they learned before, during, and after each language task.

## **Strategy Training and Assessment**

On the final day of training, participants took two surveys for the purpose of evaluating the training program. Learners completed a qualitative survey (Appendix A) as well as a quantitative measure developed by Oxford (1989) known as the SILL (Strategic Inventory for Language Learning). The qualitative survey, developed by this researcher for the purposes of this study, sought to assess the impact of the training in two areas: (a) change in metacognitive awareness as a result of the training and (b) change in the types of learner-chosen independent study techniques. For the first area, learners completed two questions to assess metacognitive awareness before and after training:

1. Did you think about your English language learning or progress before the training?
2. Did you think about your English language learning or progress after the training? If so, what have you thought about?

For the second area, learners were questioned on the training's effect on independent study:

1. What study activities did you do before the training?
2. Did you do anything new or different after the training?

The SILL is comprised of five sections, each focusing on a different area of learner autonomy. For this study, however, the SILL was curbed to include only the area measuring metacognitive awareness. Participants were given the Korean version, translated by Park, Kwon, and Hwang (1998), to ensure comprehension of the material (Appendix B). This abridged version of the SILL consists of nine items on a five-point Likert scale, with higher scores indicating stronger metacognitive awareness. Each item in the questionnaire is related to different aspects of having metacognitive awareness, such as setting goals, seeking out practice opportunities, and noticing self-errors.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study and training was undertaken due to a perceived lack of metacognitive awareness more broadly by Korean learners, as described by Park (1997), when he argued that Korean learners are accustomed to taking knowledge only from their teacher, and specifically in the current teaching context where, in informal discussions, learners reported lacking confidence and direction in their ability to learn independently. Results from the qualitative survey appear to confirm this idea. Generally, participants reported that they had not thought about their English learning goals or progress before the training. A student reported that her English language learning “relied on” the language academy. Another reported that she didn’t “think about [her] English seriously before.” One student had made efforts to study independently and was confident in her ability to study listening but admitted that she “had no idea how to study reading.” Only two students reported that they had thought about their learning and progress before the training.

One of the primary goals of the strategy training was to develop a learner-driven model for metacognitive strategy training. That is, students develop specific and personalized strategies to meet their learning goals.

In the qualitative survey, students were asked to list the independent learning activities they had done both before the training took place and the ones they had tried during and after the training. There is a clear trend of learner-chosen learning strategies becoming more focused and detailed as a result of the training. The results from the qualitative survey have been reproduced and paraphrased in Table 1 to demonstrate the trend towards more specific activities taken during and after the training.

**TABLE 1. Reported Independent Study Activities Before, and During and After Training**

Participant	Reported learning strategies before strategy training	Reported learning strategies during and after strategy training
Student 1	Reading, speaking, listening, writing	Accomplish small objectives in 4 skills and learn by myself
Student 2	Read books, watch movies without subtitles, record my speaking, memorize vocabulary	Use vocabulary learned during self-study in class and other places
Student 3	Read and find unknown words in a dictionary	Understand the general idea of a reading, guess the words, and check in a dictionary, and note good expressions.
Student 4	Watch dramas and read books	Write a diary
Student 5	Watch YouTube with subtitles	Watch YouTube without subtitles and make a note of new vocabulary
Student 6	Listening, read a news article everyday	Read for gist
Student 7	Search the Internet	None at the moment
Student 8	Study without a purpose	Have a purpose and objectives

While learners reported employing learning strategies before undergoing strategy training, it is clear from Table 1 that the training contributed towards the undertaking of more complex strategies that are reflective of traits held by “good language learners” as described by Rubin (1975). During and after training, learners developed a more

detailed and layered approach to listening, reading, speaking, and writing tasks. Rather than simply watching a YouTube video in English, a student began to make a note of new vocabulary she heard. Whereas another student would read a news article and make a note of useful vocabulary, he now reads the article for gist before finding vocabulary. In addition to making a note of new vocabulary, another student now actively attempts to use new vocabulary when speaking. The examples above provide strong evidence that learners demonstrated metacognitive awareness when choosing a study technique.

Overall, participants reported that the training itself was motivating and beneficial for their learning process. One learner commented that she now “thinks about the most effective way to learn English.” Another wrote that she “felt like her English was improving” after completing the strategy training. Another was content that she now had her own “detailed method of studying English.” The training worked to shake learners from a passive learning style and encourage a more active approach. A student reported that before the training, she only memorized new vocabulary words but now she “use[s] vocabulary that [she] learned from self-study.”

Perhaps the most useful activity of the training was the discussion the students had at the beginning of every class. Learners reported on the objective they had worked on the previous night for homework and discussed how it related to their learning goals. During this time, the students were able to give and receive feedback on the activities they did and discuss methods to improve the strategies they had chosen. This reflection stage proved to be a motivating way to engage learners in the strategy training through discussion. It was clear that the students wanted to find ways to make their strategies more effective and take suggestions from their peers and the teacher.

Finally, the SILL provided a quantitative measure of metacognitive awareness. In addition to the qualitative report, this survey was given to provide statistical evidence for the effectiveness of metacognitive strategy training. A combined table of the result can be found in Appendix B as well as a list of each item on the questionnaire. The results from the nine items have been added and divided by nine to give an average score, which gives a numerical value for metacognitive awareness – 5 being the highest, and 1 being the lowest.

In general, the results from the survey indicate strong metacognitive awareness. The average score across eight participants was 3.75 out of

a total of 5. This demonstrates that the participants employ metacognitive strategies on a frequent basis. The highest value among students was 4.5 and the lowest was 3.1. Turning to the questions themselves, the items related to noticing errors (Item 2), discovering ways to become a better learner (Item 4), and thinking about learning progress (Item 9) had over 75% of participants score a 4 or a 5. Items 1, 3, and 5 tended to receive scores of 3 or less amongst participants. According to these results, students tend to be weaker in terms of finding opportunities to speak English, creating a study schedule, and focusing when someone is speaking. Unfortunately, as the SILL was distributed at the end of training, it is impossible to know the extent to which the training was responsible for the high level of metacognitive awareness indicated in the SILL.

Despite the demonstrated benefits of implementing metacognitive strategy training, the context of this study may limit the applicability of the results to the broader Korean context. The small sample size of eight highly motivated, linguistically proficient learners allowed for concentrated focus on strategy training and intimate, productive reflection with a high degree of interaction from the trainer. This ideal environment could not easily be replicated in larger classrooms or with lower-level learners. As the learners were adults, they had a range of practical objectives for learning English such as career advancement and social interaction that would be less apparent to young learners or university students. As such, for strategy training to be successful in more challenging contexts, the practitioner would have to adjust a number of factors to make it motivating and relevant to the learners. For young learners or university students, the trainer could conduct training with a stated goal of improving exam scores, for instance.

## CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to develop metacognitive awareness, foster learner autonomy, and improve independent study techniques in Korean adult learners whose educational culture, according to some researchers, produces passive learners (Ho & Crookall, 1995; Park, 1997). A metacognitive strategy-training framework was adapted and taught over five 90-minute class sessions.

Responses from the qualitative survey suggest that the training was effective in creating more independent and metacognitively aware learners. This conclusion is supported by the SILL, whose results showed that nearly all the students frequently used metacognitive strategies when learning. Weak areas highlighted by the SILL results, such as seeking out practice opportunities and creating a study schedule, could have been rectified by focused metacognitive training in those areas. Assigning nightly homework to practice student-chosen tasks coupled with in-class discussion motivated students and invoked a deeper awareness of the language learning process.

In Korea, it is a commonly heard criticism that Korean learners lack communicative fluency in English. Given the positive correlation between strategy use and language proficiency, implementing a short-term metacognitive strategy-training program in the classroom would undoubtedly benefit learners. While higher-level learners who are already familiar with and use learning strategies benefit from the training, it may be more valuable to intermediate and elementary speakers of English. The introduction of learning strategies at the earlier stages of language learning could work to increase proficiency at a more rapid rate. The learner-driven approach to strategy training highlighted in the current study, in which learners determine and act on their own language learning goals, can both motivate and provide a concrete pathway for learners to meet their goals.

As revealed in the SILL, one of the lowest reported areas of metacognitive awareness was in the ability to find opportunities to speak English. With both the foreign population and the number of proficient English speakers in Korea increasing, it would be beneficial to encourage adult learners to take advantage of opportunities to interact with these groups. The trainer could research and select English-medium websites and smartphone applications that may be less familiar to Koreans to facilitate the interaction, both digital and in person, of English language learners and English speakers. For younger learners, however, the trainer would have to exercise caution or avoid introducing this strategy.

Subsequent research done on metacognitive strategy training could provide greater focus on the areas in which Korean learners show weakness in metacognitive awareness, such as seeking out opportunities to use English, creating a study schedule, and actively focusing when someone is speaking. One way to determine which independent learning strategies are the most viable may be to conduct a longitudinal study in which learners are questioned about the strategies they continue to use post-training.

## THE AUTHOR

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## APPENDIX A

### Collated Qualitative Survey

This appendix collates all results given by participants on the qualitative survey. Responses have not been altered and are reproduced as they were written.

### Qualitative Survey Results

Survey Question	Participant Response
Did you think about your English language learning or progress <b>before</b> the training?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. My English language learning relied on [name of teaching center redacted]. Even though I tried to use some internet study materials, [teaching center] was a main material for me.</li> <li>2. Yes.</li> <li>3. I don't think about my English seriously before.</li> <li>4. I tried to improve my English skill through different way but I can't keep doing it.</li> <li>5. No.</li> <li>6. I was quite good learner in speaking and listening but I had no idea how to study reading.</li> <li>7. Yes I would prefer study alone.</li> <li>8. No.</li> </ol>
Did you think about your English language learning or progress <b>after</b> the training? If so, what have you thought about?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I could have awareness of my activities about English. Not only this I was able to have my own detailed method of studying English.</li> <li>2. Writing skills and speaking skills that help me communicate with foreigners.</li> <li>3. I think English training thing is not that difficult. And it didn't take longtime. So I think, I can do it after the training.</li> <li>4. I started to think about it because, after training I am feeling that my English skill is improving and it is helpful to keep using English outside class.</li> <li>5. Yes, I realized there were lots of ways I can do on my own.</li> <li>6. I learned good strategies for reading such as gist reading and detailed reading and the way to guess the word's meaning.</li> <li>7. I found sharing opinions about self-study help me. Motivate to keep studying.</li> <li>8. Not really, but I could understand how I get the new language, so after that I tried to follow steps and think the most effective way I can learn English.</li> </ol>

Survey Question	Participant Response
<p>What study activities did you do <b>before</b> the training?</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Just doing without plan.</li> <li>2. Listening, English Reading, Reading news article everyday.</li> <li>3. Watching YouTube with English subtitle.</li> <li>4. Watching drama and reading books.</li> <li>5. Searching the internet.</li> <li>6. Specially reading, I just read some article and find the word in Korean-English dictionary.</li> <li>7. Reading books, watching movies without subtitles, recording my speaking, memorizing vocabs.</li> <li>8. reading, speaking, listening, writing.</li> </ol>
<p>Did you do anything new or different <b>after</b> the training?</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I'm happy that I can have purpose and objectives.</li> <li>2. Yes, I did (Gist Reading).</li> <li>3. Writing an English diary.</li> <li>4. I watched YouTube without subtitle and watched more academic things with writing academic things.</li> <li>5. No, but I'm trying.</li> <li>6. Now I try to understand general ideal and guess the words and check it on English-English dictionary. Note good expression on article.</li> <li>7. After the training I try to use vocabulary that I learn from self-study more. (Before, I just try to memorize them).</li> <li>8. Try to accomplish small objectives in 4 skills. and try to learn by myself.</li> </ol>

## APPENDIX B

### Results from the SILL

**Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)  
Version for Speakers of Other Languages Learning English  
Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL) by R. L. Oxford, 1989**

Korean version prepared by Park Bun-seon, Kwon Mi-jeong, Hwang Jung-hwa, 1998

#### Scoring Rubric

Score	Description	
	Korean	English
1	전혀 또는 거의 해당하지 않는다.	Never or almost never true of me.
2	대개 해당하지 않는다.	Usually not true of me.
3	다소 해당한다.	Somewhat true of me.
4	대개 해당한다.	Usually true of me.
5	항상 또는 거의 해당한다.	Always or almost always true of me.

#### Inventory Items and Participant Scores

Statement		Participant							
English	Korean	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	1. 영어를 사용할 수 있는 상황을 가능한 많이 만든다.	3	3	3	3	2	2	5	4
2. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	2. 실수를 알아차리고 이것을 영어 능력 향상에 활용한다.	3	4	3	4	4	4	5	4
3. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	3. 영어를 말하는 사람에게 관심을 더 집중한다.	3	4	5	2	2	3	4	5

Statement		Participant							
English	Korean	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
4. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	4. 영어를 더 잘 배울 수 있는 방법을 모색한다.	4	4	4	3	4	5	5	5
5. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	5. 영어를 학습할 충분한 시간을 가지도록 계획을 세운다.	3	3	3	2	5	5	5	3
6. I look for people I can talk to in English.	6. 영어로 대화할 수 있는 사람을 찾는다.	4	4	4	3	1	2	5	3
7. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	7. 되도록이면 영어로 쓰여진 자료들을 찾는다.	4	5	3	4	2	4	4	2
8. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	8. 영어기술 향상을 위한 분명한 목표가 있다.	3	5	5	4	5	5	4	5
9. I think about my progress in learning English.	9. 영어학습의 향상 정도를 생각한다.	3	4	4	3	4	5	4	4
<b>Total</b>		30	36	34	28	29	35	41	35
<b>Average Score</b>		3.3	4	3.8	3.1	3.2	3.9	4.5	3.9
<b>Combined Average</b>					<b>3.75</b>				

**Key to Understanding Your Averages**

Level	Description	Average Score
High	Always or almost always used.	4.5 to 5.0
	Usually used.	3.5 to 4.4
Medium	Sometimes used.	2.5 to 3.4
	Generally not used.	1.5 to 2.4
Low	Never or almost never used.	1.0 to 1.4

## Principled Eclecticism in English Language Teaching

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This paper aims at debunking the myth of “method” in teaching English as a second or foreign language by reintroducing the less popular approach to ELT called “Principled Eclecticism.” To that end, the main methods proposed in the SLA literature are reviewed and then a redefinition of “principled eclecticism” is made in a way that restricts the teacher to scientific findings on second/foreign language acquisition. As will become clear, the three signifiers of the principled eclectic practitioner as proposed by Cushing-Leubner and Bigelow can pave the way to a coherent theory that takes into consideration Kumaravadivelu’s macrostrategic framework. Combined, these proposals challenge traditional teaching pedagogy, and in so doing, incite more research as to what constitutes the main principles of an eclectic approach.

### INTRODUCTION

Infants as young as three years old are already experts in their native language (L1). They acquire it unconsciously and with little effort. In contrast, adults generally find it quite hard to learn a second language (L2). However, in some educational settings, L2 learners do achieve near-native fluency. The question of how this learning curve is shaped by both teachers and learners has been the driving force behind most research in ELT. As a consequence, a set of methods has emerged over the years, each claiming to have unlocked the secret to teaching English. Unfortunately, none of those methods have proven to be efficient as a self-contained approach. This is why most foreign language teachers have moved beyond the constraints of methods to experiment with an eclectic approach to teaching, where they choose the practices that work for them in relation to the classroom environment. An eclectic approach, as we shall see, is an indispensable tool for the modern English language teacher.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

The quest towards developing an efficient, formal approach for teaching English first began as Grammar-Translation became popular. This method, as the name suggests, promoted writing and reading by translating texts from and into the target language. However, it subsequently became apparent that this method lacked some serious components, as it did not put any emphasis on speaking the language. This criticism came in the form of the Reform Movement, which led to the founding of the International Phonetic Association in 1886.

The ideas of the Reform Movement fueled a number of linguists to develop new methodologies. Upon examining the process of language acquisition in children, some linguists argued for a Natural Approach (later known as the Direct Method) to language teaching. In the Direct Method, no translation was allowed and transmission of linguistic knowledge was done directly in the target language. The Direct Method was afterwards reintroduced as the Oral Approach, with its new principles of selection, gradation, and presentation (Richards & Rodgers, 2001), and became the dominant method in the UK by the 1950s. At the same time, Audiolingualism was being developed in the US and was considered the first scientific method of language teaching for its foundations combined structuralism and behaviorism. The former holds that to master a language is to be able to produce rule-governed utterances based on an understanding of the underlying linguistic “levels” (phonology, morphology, etc.), while the latter views language as a process of habit formation. In practice, the teacher might use dialogues that are memorized and repeated in the hope of students being able to extract the grammatical structures of the target language inductively.

But Audiolingualism was not on the stage long enough to flourish. In fact, teachers and students alike complained about the tedious activities that took all the fun out of learning. Furthermore, in his review of Skinner’s theory, Chomsky (1959) demolished the behavioral account of language when he argued that to understand the properties of a language is to understand the internal mental faculties responsible for generating infinite new sentences.

With Chomsky’s revolutionary insights into linguistics, the cognitivist view of language reigned in the 1970s. More specifically, a

set of “humanistic” language teaching methods saw the light. They were called “humanistic” because the focus in the classroom shifted from the teacher to the student, whose feelings and individual thinking capacities were finally acknowledged. Among these methods are The Silent Way, Community Language Learning, TPR, and DeSuggestopedia. The latter, for instance, emanates from the works of psychologist Georgi Lozanov, who claimed that students in a foreign language class come equipped with a set of limiting beliefs about their learning capacities. At the core of these beliefs lies the fear of failure and linguistic performance. The resulting attitude, thus, creates psychological impediments to learning, which need to be “desuggested” to free the students to use their full mental capacities (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

The previously mentioned methods are founded on the assumption that if one masters the linguistic structures of a language, one would thus speak it perfectly. In the 1970s, however, many educators challenged this claim. Some remarked that being able to create correct utterances *inside* the classroom does not guarantee that this ability would hold *outside* the classroom (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). A new theory was therefore needed to account for this gap, one that takes into consideration factors other than the speaker’s competence, in the Chomskyan sense, including the social context, the culture, and the intentions of the speakers. Hymes’s theory of communicative competence provides exactly such an account. It sets the principles required for a speaker to be communicatively competent in a speech community (Richards & Rodgers, 2001) and is the basis upon which the current popular method to teaching English, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), rests. For CLT, the notion of communicative competence is its main goal.

At the same time CLT was developing, Task-Based Learning emerged as another modern approach to teaching English. Task-Based Learning focuses on doing tasks in an environment that promotes natural language acquisition. It is often associated with the Bangalore Project founded by N. S. Prabhu in 1979, which formed the basis for his *Second Language Pedagogy*. In short, he presents a syllabus that consists of tasks and guidelines for their selection and grading. The most important activities, Prabhu (1987) claims, are “reasoning gap” activities that “involve deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns” (p. 46).

## **PRINCIPLED ECLECTICISM**

### **From Method to Postmethod**

If the previous review proves anything, it is that some methods, if not all, have emerged in order to correct the weak spots of other, previous methods. The rationale behind such a move is that if we can only find the right supermethod, teaching English would take place effortlessly. Furthermore, the use of “method” presupposes that teachers do not make a difference (which is not true, as we will see later), and that their role should only be constrained to performing and applying strategies and techniques prescribed by a certain “method.” By the late 1980s and the beginning of the 1990s, however, there was a growing awareness that adhering to a single method might not be that effective.

### **The Postmethod Condition**

The dissatisfaction with “method” led many linguists to question this concept and thus offer alternative approaches to teaching English. In 1994, Kumaravadivelu published one of the most popular papers in the literature, a paper in which he urges teachers to embrace a “postmethod condition.” In a nutshell, he argues that in order for optimal language learning to occur, teachers need to become autonomous decision makers and use a range of approaches and principles inspired from SLA research and learning theories (Kumaravadivelu, 1994). Also, in the same paper, three attributes that characterize the postmethod condition are defined: the search for an alternative to method, teacher autonomy, and principled pragmatism. All of which we shall understand more comprehensively in the upcoming sections.

### **A Pluralistic Approach**

In this postmethod era, different teachers have developed disparate attitudes towards their work. Larsen-Freeman (2000) distinguishes three positions with regards to teaching English: Absolutism, Relativism, and Pluralism (another version of relativism). What are the differences between them?

On the one hand, teachers who conform to a single method are said



to be in a position of Absolutism. Others, on the other hand, who belong to the Relativist position argue that the choice of a method should vary with factors such as age, context, and language proficiency. In other words, “different methods are suitable for different teachers and learners in different contexts” (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 182). Pluralism, the variation of relativism that is of importance to us, goes a step further. In this case, teachers acknowledge the value of each method (or part of it) and are free to use different methods (or parts of them) in the same context (Prabhu, 1990). When teachers adopt this stance, that is, when they pick and choose their own methods to create their own mixture, they practice what is called “eclecticism.” More importantly, teachers who pick and choose in accordance with their own personal philosophy, beliefs, and convictions, are practicing “principled eclecticism” (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

### **Principles of Principled Eclecticism**

The motives for integrating eclecticism into English language teaching are numerous. First, to practice eclecticism is to have a mastery of all the major language teaching methods. When applied wisely, these methods are, of course, very effective. Otherwise, they wouldn't exist in the first place. Second, the power of eclecticism is its flexibility and unpredictability. That is, the criteria of choosing between methods cannot be defined in objective terms (although attempts have been made to do so; see Mellow, 2002). This is because the factors – sociocultural, political, and psychological – influencing the decisions of the teacher are themselves unpredictable.

But if effective teaching is possible through the adoption of an eclectic approach, then there are surely some ways to do it that are more effective than others. We cannot simply rely on the teacher's intuitive sense to ensure successful teaching. Indeed, as Stern (1992) points out

The weakness of the eclectic position is that it offers no criteria according to which we can determine which is the best theory, nor does it provide any principles by which to include or exclude features which form part of existing theories or practices. The choice is left to the individual's intuitive judgment and is, therefore, too broad and too vague to be satisfactory as a theory in its own right. (p. 11)

It follows, therefore, from the previous criticism, that if an eclectic approach is to be credible, and thus worthy of trial in the ELT classroom, its principles have to stem from a rigorous analysis of the scientific disciplines relevant to language teaching, including educational psychology, SLA, and teaching pedagogy.

Fortunately, attempts to define the tenets of an eclectic approach have proven to be very fruitful. Central to this is the new concept of “principled eclecticism.” As opposed to its traditional view – mentioned earlier – which gives the teacher the freedom to alternate between methods based on their own individual convictions, the modern view of “principled eclecticism” has a rigid scientific foundation. In practice, the teacher not only seeks to affect eclecticism in the classroom, but also makes intentional decisions, motivated by an apt understanding of theories of language acquisition, cognitive and social-emotional development, and learner investment and autonomy (Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Manzo & Manzo, 1997; Panggabean, 2012).

In other words, the goal of principled eclecticism is to “intentionally design learning topics, tasks, and environments that promote efficient development of the second or foreign language across all modalities (listening, speaking, reading, and writing)” (Cushing-Leubner & Bigelow, 2014, p. 249). Within this framework, and based on the works of Kumaravadivelu (1994, 2001, 2003), Cushing-Leubner and Bigelow (2014) propose three main signifiers of the principled eclectic practitioner:

- A promoter of professional teacher autonomy
- An enactor of principled and pragmatic eclecticism
- A seeker of alternatives to a single method

These principles will be explained in more detail below.

## **Professional Teacher Autonomy**

One of the key characteristics of the principled eclectic practitioner is their ability to transcend the usual role of performer to that of a professional and autonomous teacher. Achieving this outcome is not a matter of obtaining a degree or being fluent in the language taught, although these factors should not be discarded, but it is a question of becoming critical toward one’s own teaching practice. This developed awareness is important because it impacts the decision-making process of

the practitioner.

There are also other facets that reflect professionalism and autonomy. As an initial requirement, the teacher has to show a capacity to be free from any “academic and administrative constraints imposed by institutions, curricula, and textbooks” (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 33). In addition to detaching from these limitations, the teacher has to demonstrate that they are “intentional in instructional and assessment choices” (Cushing-Leubner & Bigelow, 2014, p. 249). Moreover, these choices should be supported with evidence embedded in theories of learning and language acquisition.

### **Principled and Pragmatic Eclecticism**

While the need for qualified autonomous teachers is of extreme importance, it is not the only variable that should be considered when attempting to construct a convincing theory of language teaching: The other piece of the puzzle is a focus on the learners themselves. Students do matter because they shape the practitioner’s perspective on their own teaching. In so doing, they help the instructor form a location-specific approach by facilitating the practice of what Widdowson (1990) calls “principled pragmatism.”

Principled pragmatism is a balanced approach towards making sound pedagogical decisions. This is to say that in comparing theory, in general, and classroom practice, in particular, the eclectic practitioner is able to balance the two aspects within the parameters dictated by each teaching environment. In fact, this ongoing self-reflection on one’s teaching, partially shaped by the students’ response and reaction to the teaching they receive, is what Prabhu (1990) calls the teacher’s “sense of plausibility”: “a personal conceptualization of how their teaching leads to desired learning” (p. 172).

### **Alternatives to a Single Method (Kumaravadivelu’s Macrostrategic Framework)**

Now that we have seen how the interaction between the students and their teacher affects future pedagogical choices, we will zoom in on the decision-making process itself. We will, therefore, try to answer a non-trivial question:

1. On what basis can the eclectic practitioner generate context-specific tasks and practices that foster optimal language learning?

The most influential and satisfying answer to this question, yet, was proposed by Kumaravadivelu (2003) in the form of a strategic framework that consists of macrostrategies and microstrategies. In the upcoming sections, we shall focus exclusively on the macrostrategies because they constitute the engine that puts the pedagogical decision-making process in motion. Also, their successful implementation inevitably gives birth to the microstrategies. Thus, (1) can be rephrased as (2):

2. What are the macrostrategies that the eclectic practitioner can rely on to generate microstrategies (practical tasks, techniques, etc.) that foster optimal language learning?

As a response, Kumaravadivelu (2003) proposes ten macrostrategies for sound pedagogical decision-making, five of which shall be examined next in great detail.

### **Maximizing Learning Opportunities**

I have alluded previously to the idea that SLA researchers are obsessed with finding the right method. If we suppose that their quest would finally pay off, then we also have to conclude that teaching causes learning. This conclusion does not hold, no matter what method is being used. The reason for this, as the reader might infer for himself, is that teaching is an interactional process between two participants: the teacher *and* the learner. This inherent nature of teaching dictates that the contribution of teachers will be limited and that learners control their own learning. It is the responsibility of the teacher, however, to lay the conditions that facilitate learning by collaborating with their students in an attempt to create learning opportunities, both inside and outside the classroom.

Inside the classroom, learning opportunities can be created either through learner involvement or via teacher questioning. The first option simply means that teachers should listen to their students' voices. When learners "invest" in the target language, they reflect their identity and create potential learning opportunities for themselves and their classmates. The second option is straightforward: Teachers are called upon to ask their students questions that spark meaningful classroom interactions.

As for creating learning opportunities outside the classroom, it can be done in two ways. Initially, teachers and students might envisage connecting the classroom to a local community. That is to say, creating learning communities in which members have the same educational goals such as language learning. Alternatively, in this technologically advanced era, teachers can expose their students to the global community via the Internet. One such application is exploring a culture where the language being learned is spoken, say England, if one is learning English.

### **Minimizing Perceptual Mismatches**

Now that we have explored ways through which learning opportunities are created by the joint effort of the teacher and the student, we arrive at the question of whether these learning opportunities are perceived as such. By now, most teachers and SLA researchers agree that there is a gap between what is being taught (i.e., the input) and what is learned (i.e., the intake). This means that not every learning objective that the teacher has in mind is actually realized and not everything that is learned is intentionally transmitted by the teacher. Consequently, if we want to increase the productivity of learning, we need to reduce the likelihood of perceptual mismatches. But, where do these mismatches come from in the first place?

Kumaravadivelu (2003) identifies ten sources of perceptual mismatches including linguistic ones. A linguistic mismatch arises when the student is not equipped with enough linguistic tools that ought to be at his disposal before starting a task. As an illustration, we can imagine a scenario where the student stumbles upon the abbreviation “M.D.” (medical doctor) while reading a text. In this situation, the teacher should not take it for granted that their students know what “M.D.” stands for; doing so would constitute a perceptual mismatch.

Lastly, a qualified eclectic practitioner welcomes the challenge of turning a perceptual mismatch into a learning opportunity. They know that the diversity of teaching environments and the differences between students would unavoidably create perceptual mismatches. They also know that if these are identified and managed in time, the desired learning outcomes would eventually follow.

## Facilitating Negotiated Interaction

Puzzled by the robust process of first language acquisition, Chomsky postulated that children have a built-in language faculty, a Universal Grammar (UG), that guides them in constructing the grammar of their own language. Whether adults learning a second language still have access to this innate faculty, at least partially, is much debated. However, there is a general consensus in the L2 literature that engaging in meaningful interaction in the target language stimulates the cognitive systems responsible for L2 learning. Thus, according to Kumaravadivelu (2003), one of the responsibilities of the EFL teacher is to promote “negotiated interaction” and there are two ways to go about this task.

First, there are three aspects of interaction that should be incorporated in the classroom: textual, interpersonal, and ideational. While interaction as a textual activity is concerned with the linguistic features that make an utterance understandable for the listener, the goal of interpersonal interaction is to “promote communication between participants” (p. 102). Finally, ideational interaction takes into account the individuality of the students. It is a venue where they can express their ideas, dreams, feelings, and all of the events inspired by their living history.

Second, the other component of a successful negotiated interaction is the “management of learning,” which is divided into two types. On the one hand, we can distinguish *talk management* (p. 114), primarily concerned with how the participants in the classroom conduct their conversations. In this case, the teacher may consider using open-ended questions to involve their students in meaningful classroom discourse. On the other hand, there is a need to manage the subjects discussed in the classroom. This is known as *topic management* (p. 119). So, in order for meaningful interactions to take place, the students should be encouraged to pursue discussions on topics that interest them, not their teachers.

## Promoting Learner Autonomy

In general, the degree to which learners are actively involved in their own learning is strongly correlated with a higher level of achievement in their educational goals. One manifestation of this active involvement relates to the learner’s sense of autonomy, a concept that has been defined traditionally as “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning” (Holec, 1981, p. 3). After a thorough analysis of the literature on the

subject matter, Kumaravadivelu (2003) draws the conclusion that there are two complementary views that define learner autonomy: a *narrow* view and a *broad* one.

The narrow view of learner autonomy aims at providing students with strategies and tools that will enable them to take control of their own learning. One attempt to define a system of such strategies was advanced by Rebecca Oxford (1990) in the form of a taxonomy (summarized in Figure 1).

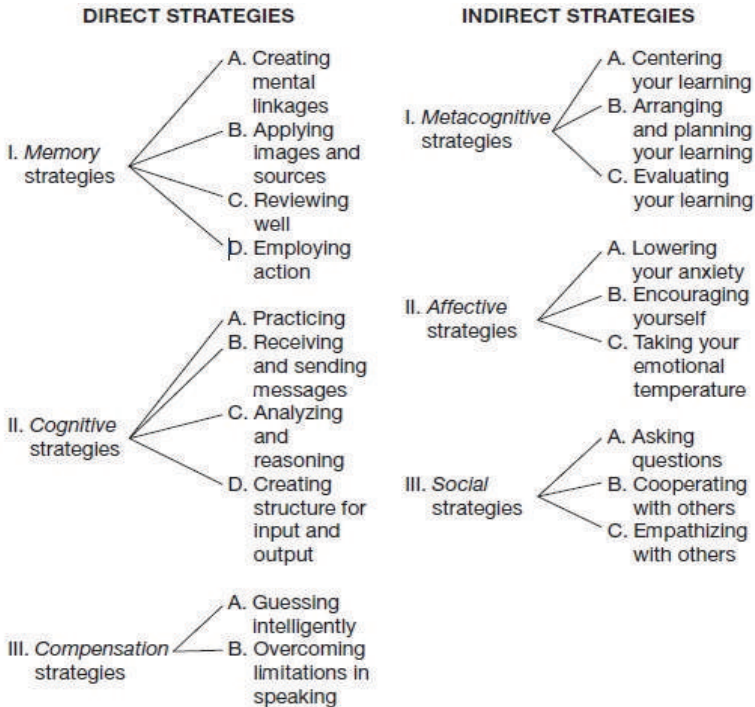


FIGURE 1. Oxford's (1990) Strategy System.

There is also more to the narrow view. A strategy that might work for one student need not necessarily be the right one for another student. Learners are, therefore, called to identify strategies that suit their personalities. This process is known as *learner training*.

In its broad view, learner autonomy is said to be "liberating." We have already touched upon the idea that there are often some barriers

that one might encounter on the path to learning. When discussing DeSuggestopedia, for example, we mentioned that students might have some psychological difficulties. But, in educational spheres in general, these barriers could also be of a sociopolitical nature in which they need to be overcome through critical thinking and intellectual growth. Once this is done, the individual is “liberated” to achieve their full human potential.

### **Fostering Language Awareness**

Language, too, can have a sociopolitical dimension. It is indeed a vehicle for exercising power and control. To understand how this is done, students need to develop *critical language awareness* (CLA). There are several practices that can foster CLA. To begin with, teachers can select reading materials that intellectually challenge their students and get them to think about the underlying meanings intentionally hidden behind the words. Such pieces of discourse might include newspaper articles, for example. Moreover, teachers can encourage their students to respect different points of view about a topic, while at the same time, gently guiding them to reflect on beliefs and ideas that they take for granted. In parallel, to complement CLA, the term *general language awareness* is used when the focus is on the language as a structure in itself.

### **The Rest of the Picture**

There are five more macrostrategies that the eclectic practitioner can implement in the classroom. The first one is “activating intuitive heuristics,” which refers to the way the teacher designs lessons the students can relate to and find useful in their daily lives; when we see things from the students’ perspective, we are more likely to help them learn intuitively. In addition, “contextualizing linguistic input” is a macrostrategy that aims to link practices and classroom discourse to the relevant context. It also emphasizes the teaching of other subdomains of linguistics such as semantics and syntax. Also, when students use all language modalities to construct meaning in the classroom, they are said to “integrate language skills.” The last two macrostrategies are “raising cultural consciousness” and “ensuring social relevance.” The former stresses the link between culture and language. Students are therefore encouraged to choose culturally relevant topics that appeal to them and



that they can discuss in the classroom. The latter concerns the learner's goals and aspirations. Why are they learning English? And how can the teacher help them get there? Finally, ensuring social relevance entails that students stay faithful to their native language; multilingualism is highly valued.

## CONCLUSIONS

The difference between a productive language course and an unsatisfying one ultimately rests in the hands of the teacher. When the teacher is highly qualified, they can meet the demands that diverse teaching environments call for. Conversely, when the teacher relies on predetermined packages that come in the form of methods, they set themselves up for failure. Hence, the principled eclectic approach presented here serves the purpose of guiding the practitioner, whether novice or experienced, along the right path. If, as the acclaimed journalist Malcom Gladwell (2008) states in his book *Outliers*, it takes 10,000 hours to become an expert in one's field, then we better place ourselves at the right starting point.

The modern portrait of the English teacher is a very promising one. For not only does the teacher determine the content of the course by designing concrete microstrategies, but in doing so, they obtain valuable feedback from their students, which in turn, leads them to self-reflect on, and analyze, the effectiveness of their own teaching. This exploratory and investigative character of teaching, when practiced continuously, creates the circumstances and conditions under which more effective learning is accomplished. In this regard, the teacher will always be guided by the sense of what is and what is not plausible. So perhaps, as the method era is gradually dying out, the value that will make a notable impact in the future is that of creativity. A creativity in a sense that reminds one of the essence of language teaching, namely, in Widdowson's (2012) words, "the art of the possible" (p. 636).

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# Pragmatic Development Through Online and Class-Based Recasts: Learners' Perception and Individual Differences

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Previous studies have provided evidence for the effectiveness of technology use in language pedagogy (Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson, & Freynika, 2014). This study aimed to investigate (a) the effectiveness of online and class-based recasts in promoting learners' pragmatic competence with respect to request-related speech acts, and (b) learners' introvert/extrovert personality types and their perceptions/attitudes towards the use of the Internet in language learning. Eighty intermediate students of EFL were purposefully assigned to two groups: online corrective feedback or traditional class corrective feedback. The participants' personality types and their attitudes towards the use of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) were identified. By running *t*-test analyses, the results showed a significant difference between the two groups' gains. The Internet group showed more development in pragmatic competence. Moreover, the results of the *t*-test did not show any significant difference between the two personality types' attitudes. The study carries implications for teachers and practitioners taking into consideration the variables that affect the efficacy of recasts in making contributions to pragmatic development and the Internet as a useful tool in the language teaching profession.

## INTRODUCTION

LoCastro (2012) defined pragmatic competence as “the knowledge that influences and constrains speakers' choices regarding use of language

in socially appropriate ways” (p. 307), and this concept has carved a place for itself in the language knowledge model (Bachman & Palmer, 2010). It is related to developing language learners’ abilities to convey information properly and to increasing L2 learners’ communication competence. Bardovi-Harlig (2013) defines L2 pragmatics as “the study of how L2 learners learn how-to-say-what- to-whom-when” (p. 216). In the past three decades, an accumulating body of studies have examined pragmatic competence, as it is claimed that language learners are able to reach a remarkable level of grammatical competence while their pragmatic competence is not as developed. The effectiveness of different teaching approaches and methodologies on the development of L2 learners’ pragmatic competence has been investigated. However, the effectiveness of interaction between expert and novice learners or peers on the pragmatic development of L2 learners has been more or less overlooked in the field of applied linguistics and language pedagogy. Through such interactions, an expert can give corrective feedback to a novice on their ill-formed productions.

Pragmatic competence can be affected by many factors: educational context, teaching methodologies, individual differences, and others. Among these, corrective feedback and educational settings and tools may play an influential role in ameliorating the targeted feature. Advocates of interactionist theory believe that language learning can be promoted through discourse participation activities that include the provision of comprehensible input and feedback for L2 learners. On the other hand, pedagogical tools and approaches can also be effective in the development of the target language. One of the tools that language teachers and learners can benefit from in language pedagogy is the computer and the Internet. Online tools such as online chats can provide useful and practical chances for interaction and language development. Chatrooms can be pleasant and convenient tools for language learners and teachers because L2 learners are not apprehensive about being embarrassed and losing face. Previous studies have shown that computer-assisted language learning (CALL) affords more opportunities for communication than traditional (classroom-based) language learning (Abrams, 2003; Chun, 1994).

It has been argued that there are different factors that play an influential role in the implementation and use of computers for educational purposes. These factors can include students, teachers, and infrastructure (Jamieson, Chapelle, & Preiss, 2005). However, a review of

the related literature in the field of CALL shows that hardly any studies have been conducted on the relationships between individual differences (personality types), attitude, and CALL. There are a number of studies that have investigated students' attitudes towards the use of CALL (e.g., Ayres, 2002; Christie, 2001; Heller, 2005; Hwu, 2003; Mahfouz & Ihmeideh, 2009; Stepp-Greany, 2002). To the best of the authors' knowledge, hardly any study has examined the link between students' personality types and their attitudes towards the implementation of CALL in language classes. The authors believe that the introduction of any innovative and new teaching principles and tools can be accepted or rejected by those who are concerned with language teaching and learning, such as teachers, learners, and curriculum developers. In other words, the implementation and success of new teaching tools such as CALL is contingent on teachers' and learners' attitudes. In order to facilitate effective language learning in a web-based environment, integration of individual and group characteristics such as introversion and extroversion are likely to lead to different outcomes and the successful or unsuccessful use of CALL. As Tsianos, Germanakos, Lekkas, and Mourlas (2010) put it, "The distribution of learning material in ways that match learners' ways of processing information is of high importance" (p. 2). This is because it "can lead to new insights into the learning process" (Banner & Rayner, 2000, p. 43). Therefore, the current study attempted to investigate the attitudes of students with two opposing personality types towards the use of CALL in language teaching and learning.

In the literature, limited studies have focused on the role of corrective feedback in the development of pragmatic competence. Fukuya and Zhang (2002) tell us that "the vast majority of such pragmatists have investigated explicit instruction; no researchers have dared to apply recasts to the pragmatic level" (p. 1). Mackey (2007) confirms that "there has been very little interaction research to date that has focused on the acquisition of phonological features or pragmatics, although there is no reason to suspect that these areas would not be impacted by interaction" (p. 3). In addition, the attitudes of students with different personality types towards the use of the Internet in language teaching requires more attention in the language teaching profession. Therefore, based on the existing gap in the related literature, the following research questions were formulated:

1. Does the use of recasts in Internet and traditional classes have any significant effect on request-related speech acts?
2. Is there any significant difference between Internet-based and traditional classes in providing corrective feedback in the form of recasts for promoting request-related speech acts?
3. Do introverts and extroverts have different attitudes towards the use of the Internet in teaching language?

## BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

While researchers and language theories support the learnability and teachability of pragmatic competence, Cohen (2012) states that there is “a noticeable gap between what research in pragmatics has found and how language is generally taught today” (p. 33). Sykes (2009) asserted that pragmatics instruction is not well developed in the traditional language classrooms because of different factors such as individual differences, lack of authentic input, time constraints in L2 classrooms, and feedback challenges; hence, researchers suggest the need for a new line of inquiry to promote pragmatic awareness. Two of the most influential factors in promoting pragmatic awareness are environmental factors such as the EFL or ESL setting (Niezgoda & Röver, 2001; Schauer, 2006) and, most recently, CALL (Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Tanaka & Oki, 2015). Early research hypothesized that the role of CALL programs is superior to that of traditional ways of language teaching in affording interactional opportunities to L2 learners (Abrams, 2001, 2003). Moreover, previous studies reported that CALL promotes L2 learners’ linguistic knowledge by improving their attitude towards language learning (Kung & Chuo, 2002; Son, 2008) and developing their sense of self-confidence (Dooley, 2007).

While previous research showed that CALL provides more opportunities for communication and that the amount of language production is greater than in traditional classrooms, the thought-provoking question is whether CALL promotes language learning or not. Previous findings are controversial to some extent. Payne and Whitney (2002) found that learners’ oral proficiency gains in a CALL condition were greater than those of learners who attended face-to-face classes. In a similar vein, Beauvois (1997) reported that learners who participated in a CALL program had better performance on oral exams than control



groups. On the other hand, Abrams (2003) showed that in spite of learners' greater amount of language production in a CALL program compared to their counterparts, the quality of the produced language was not significantly different. In the same line as Abrams' findings, Loewen and Erlam (2006) reported that online corrective feedback to promote learners' linguistic knowledge did not affect their performances significantly.

Some recent studies have shown that learners pay scant attention to linguistic forms in CALL programs, which brings the accuracy of the produced language into question (Abrams, 2003; Jepson, 2005; Kung, 2004; Meskill & Anthony, 2005). However, there are factors that could propel learners' attention to linguistic forms. One of those factors could be the provision of corrective feedback. Nagata (1993) reported that the use of corrective (metalinguistic) feedback in the production of the passive structure was effective.

Another factor could be the personality types of learners. Utilization of the Internet in language teaching and learning can change traditional teaching toward contemporary teaching. In traditional language teaching, most students are obliged to follow a general method even though they have different learning styles, but web-based learning assists students in following their own styles and strategies in learning a skill or doing a language-related task. Lam and Lawrence (2002) found that in the computer medium, learners develop a system in which they handle their learning process by collecting information and negotiating meaningfully, which fosters a sense of autonomy for individual learners in L2 learning. So, the personality types and attitudes of language learners may play a very significant role in their paying attention to linguistic forms as well as the success or failure of the implementation of the Internet in language pedagogy.

In one study, Sheen (2004) explored teachers' corrective feedback and students' subsequent uptake across instructional contexts. The selected contexts were Canadian ESL, French immersion in Canada, Korean EFL, and New Zealand ESL. The researcher applied the taxonomy of Lyster and Ranta (1997) to examine teachers' corrective feedback moves and learners' responses. The findings revealed that the teachers used recasts more than any other type of corrective feedback in all of the above-mentioned contexts, but the frequency of recasts in the Korean EFL and New Zealand ESL contexts was higher than in the other two contexts. Also, in the New Zealand and Korean contexts,

language learners showed a higher rate of response and repair than in the Canadian contexts. The results suggested that response and repair following recasts is dependent on being in contexts in which recasts are salient and reduced/partial, and students' orientation is toward linguistic form and structure rather than meaning.

In another study, Suh (2014) investigated the efficacy of two types of written corrective feedback, direct and indirect corrective feedback, on the development of Korean EFL learners' writing skill. The participants in the study were forty-three Korean EFL learners who were assigned to a control group or two experimental groups, direct and indirect. The researcher employed a pretest–posttest design to assess the learners' ability to use the past counterfactual conditional. The findings evidenced the superiority of the written direct feedback group over the control group. This finding was in line with some previous studies (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Suh, 2010; van Beuningen, De Jong, & Kuiken, 2008, 2012). Regarding the role of indirect written corrective feedback in the development of the target structure, the results revealed that direct corrective feedback was more effective than indirect feedback in the development of Korean EFL learners' accurate use of syntactic structures.

## **METHOD**

### **Participants**

This study was conducted in a private language institute called Bayan Language Center in Tabriz, Iran; and the participants of the study, who were selected through purposeful sampling, were 80 intermediate students of EFL: 42 females and 38 males. There were two types of classes, Internet and traditional, each of which included 40 students. The traditional group was divided into four classes in order to make the classes manageable. On the other hand, the Internet class was not divided into any groups. Two of the traditional classes were held in the morning and the other two in the afternoon. Students who were not familiar with Skype software were excluded from the Internet group and included in the traditional class.

## Instruments

Before and after the treatment, the Discourse Completion Test (DCT) was administered to determine the possible efficacy of the treatment on the development of request-related speech acts. Additionally, in order to identify the personality types of the participants, the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975) was employed. The questionnaire was made up of 90 items with yes/no answers. The questionnaire was in English, but a translated Persian form was also attached to make some difficult English items understandable. In addition, two modified web-based language learning attitude/perception questionnaires (Gilmore, 1998; Slate, Manuel, & Brinson, 2002) were employed to elicit the participants' attitudes towards the use of the Internet in language classes.

## Procedures

The participants in the study were divided into two groups: an Internet group and a traditional group. The participants in the Internet group took part in online classes through Skype, and the traditional group pursued language learning in traditional classes. After creating Skype accounts, the Internet group members were added by the teacher. Before starting the treatment, the participants were instructed in the procedure that they were required to follow. Each of the groups included 40 EFL learners. The Internet group experienced the treatment through the online chatroom function in Skype. They were each assigned a partner, making pairs. In order to avoid confusion, the pairs were numbered. There were 20 pairs. In every session, 4 of the pairs took part in role-plays centered on making requests in different situations. The traditional group followed the same procedure as the Internet group. The participants in the traditional group did 4 role-plays every session. The treatment lasted five sessions. Each session took 90 minutes. The role-plays varied based on their categorization as direct, conventionally indirect (speaker-based conditions), or conventionally indirect (hearer-based conditions; see Table 1; Trosborg, 1995). The difference between the two groups was in the setting of the treatment.

The materials for the study were culled from textbooks and video books. The collected materials were printed in pamphlets. Because

identifying inappropriate requests and providing appropriate corrective feedback are tricky issues for non-native language teachers, the researchers included possible request forms in the pamphlets. Thereby making it possible for the teachers to follow a predetermined procedure to lessen the complexity of giving appropriate corrective feedback to speech acts of request. Before having students take part in dyadic role-plays, the teachers gave detailed descriptions of the role-play situations in which the students were going to take part. After the students were assigned roles, they started making requests in dyadic conversations. The teachers supervised the role-plays and directed the students' attention to inappropriate requests by provision of corrective feedback in the form of recasts. At the end of the treatment, the DCT was administered to see if the implemented corrective feedback had any effect on the students' development of pragmatic competence. After the DCT, the EPQ and attitude/perception questionnaires (Gilmore, 1998; Slate et al., 2002) were employed to investigate a possible relationship between personality types and attitudes towards the use of the Internet in language classes.

### **Traditional-Class Treatment**

Recasting is the reformulation of ill-formed production. In this study, the teachers used recasts to reformulate inappropriate request strategies. Nassaji (2007) proposed a conclusive categorization of recasting. The teachers used two types of recast: (a) isolated recast + prompt and (b) embedded recast + prompt. Nassaji (2007) defined the two types of recast as follows:

1. **Isolated recast + prompt:** The feedback isolated the error and reformulated it outside of the context with a rising intonation and/or added stress, thus prompting the learner to respond to the feedback.

Student: *The woman who stole the purse saw a policeman coming and ran away more fast.*

Teacher: *More quickly?*

2. **Embedded recast + prompt:** The feedback reformulated the error within the context with a rising intonation and/or added stress, thus prompting the learner to respond to feedback.

Student: *The woman found a police on the street.*

Teacher: *The woman found a police officer?* (p. 527)

As mentioned above, the teachers used these two types of recasts in order to correct inappropriate request strategies. The students received recasts on their inappropriate request head acts. The task used in the traditional class was role-play. The students were assigned into pairs. Before starting the role-play, the teacher explained the details of the situations based on which activities the students were going to do in the role-plays. The situations varied based on cultural factors such as power, distance, and familiarity between the participants. For example, one student in a pair took the role of a requester who was a student and the other took the role of a requestee who was a professor. In such situations, the power between the parties is not equal. Therefore, it is necessary for the requester to judge the situation in terms of power, distance, and familiarity factors and use the appropriate request form. When the students failed to use an appropriate request strategy, the teacher, as an expert, corrected the inappropriately made request. The teacher corrected the ill-formed request in the form of a recast. That is, the teacher reformulated the inappropriate request in the form of an isolated recast + prompt or an embedded recast + prompt. Additionally, the teacher did not simply give the recast form but added extra signals or intonation in order to make the recast more noticeable to the students. An example of an isolated recast + prompt is as follows (in the traditional class):

As a student, you want to borrow a book from one of the professors (Prof. Rezaee) at your university. It's the first time you've spoken to him.

Student 1: *I want you to lend me your book.*

Teacher: *I was wondering if you could.* (Isolated recast + prompt: The teacher isolates the inappropriate head act and reformulates it with rising intonation to signal the inappropriate part of the request and encourage the student to respond to the corrective feedback).

Student 1: *I wonder you lend me your book.*

Teacher: *I was wondering, I was wondering if you could lend me your book.*

Student 1: *I was wondering if you could give me your book.*

Student 2: *Sure, no problem. You can have it.*

### Online-Class Treatment

In the online classes, the students took part in the class through Skype software. The students were assigned into pairs. The situations in which the students made requests were the same as in the traditional classes. The corrective feedback given in the online class was different from that of the traditional class in the medium in which the feedback was given. That is, in the traditional classes, the feedback was provided orally, but in the online class, it was provided in written form. In the online classes the students did the role-plays by writing in the chat room. For example, one partner would start a conversation and make a request, and then wait for the teacher's reaction to the strategy. In cases in which the request strategy was appropriate, the teacher did not give a recast, and the conversation continued. On the other hand, when the request strategy was not appropriate, the teacher gave a recast in written form. The teacher gave corrective feedback in all-caps form in order to make the provided corrective feedback noticeable and explicit for the students. The following is an example of a recast in the online classes:

You, as a student, want to borrow a book from one of the professors (Prof. Rezaee) at your university. It's the first time for you to speak to him.

Student 1: *I'd like to borrow your book.*

Teacher: *I WAS WONDERING IF YOU COULD.* (Isolated recast + prompt: The teacher isolates the inappropriate head act and reformulates it in written form. The teacher corrected the request in all-caps form to make it noticeable to the student).

Student 1: *I was wondering if you could give me your book.*

Student 2: *I am in dire need of it, but you can make a copy of it.*

### Framework and Scenario

The materials of the study incorporated different types of request strategies. As mentioned above, the scenarios in the study included

conventionally indirect (hearer-oriented conditions), conventionally indirect (speaker-based conditions), and direct request strategies. The categorizations of the request strategies used were proposed by Trosborg (1995; see Table 1).

**TABLE 1. Request Strategy Framework**

Category	Strategy	Example
<b>Cat. II</b> Conventionally Indirect (Hearer-oriented conditions)	Str. 2 Ability	Could you lend me your car?
	Willingness	Would you lend me your car?
	Permission	May I borrow your car?
	Str. 3 Suggestory Formulae	How about lending me your car?
<b>Cat. III</b> Conventionally Indirect (Speaker-based conditions)	Str. 4 Wishes	I would like to borrow your car.
	Str. 5 Desires/Needs	I want/need to borrow your car.
	Str. 6 Obligation	You must/have to lend me your car.
<b>Cat. IV</b> Direct Requests	Str. 7 Performatives (Hedged)	I would like to ask you to lend me your car.
	(Unhedged)	I ask/require you to lend me your car.
	Str. 8 Imperatives Elliptical Phrases	Lend me your car. Your car (please).

From Trosborg, 1995, p. 205.

The scenarios used included the above-mentioned request strategies, and the scenarios varied based on the power status, the size of imposition, and social distance between the interlocutors (Brown & Levinson, 1987). In one scenario type, for example, the social distance was small, power status was equal, and imposition was high. In another scenario, the power status was high, and the social distance and the imposition were small. Overall, combinations of different factors were included in the scenarios. Three sample scenarios are presented in Table 2.

**TABLE 2. Sample Scenarios**

Situation	Scenario
Situation 1	<p><b>A: Mother and her son. A teenage boy is watching TV, and his mother asks him to clean up his room before dinner.</b></p> <p>A: Charlie, <b>please</b> tidy up your room before dinner.                      B: Sorry, I didn't hear you. What did you ask me to do?                      A: I asked you to tidy up your room before dinner.                      B: Okay.</p>
Situation 2	<p><b>A: Woman holding a baby in her arms asks a stranger to give his seat to her.</b></p> <p>A: Excuse me, <b>would you be willing to change places with me?</b>  <i>Or Would you mind changing places with me?</i>                      B: Change places?                      A: Er, yes, if you would, I'd be most grateful.                      B: Of course.                      A: Oh, thank you.                      B: That's all right.</p>
Situation 3	<p><b>You are running a project for which you would like your professor to complete a lengthy questionnaire. She is a very busy person, but the questionnaire is essential for your project. At the end of class, you go up to the professor's desk and ask her to complete the questionnaire for you.</b></p> <p>You say this:                      "Hello, Professor (LAST NAME). I know you are very busy, but <b>I was wondering if you could fill out this questionnaire for me.</b> I am running a project on (XXX SUBJECT), and I need to have these questionnaires filled out by various people. Your feedback would be very valuable.</p>

## Data Analysis

The authors in this study used Taguchi's (2006) rating scale of pragmatic competence to rate the students' performance on pretest and posttest DCTs. The ratings of the scale ranged from "no performance" (0) to "excellent" (5) for each scenario (see Table 3). The students' performances were rated based on the appropriateness of the requests in each of the scenarios. The DCTs were rated by two raters independently; their inter-rater reliability was measured by the Pearson correlation, and an acceptable level of agreement ( $r = .88$ ) was obtained. The following table shows the scale with rating criteria.



**TABLE 3. Appropriateness rating scale for the pragmatic speaking tasks**

Ratings	Descriptors
<b>5 Excellent</b>	- Expressions are fully appropriate for the situation. - No or almost no grammatical or discourse errors.
<b>4 Good</b>	- Expressions are mostly appropriate. - Very few grammatical and discourse errors.
<b>3 Fair</b>	- Expressions are only somewhat appropriate. - Grammatical and discourse errors are noticeable, but they do not interfere with appropriateness.
<b>2 Poor</b>	- Due to interference from grammatical and discourse errors, appropriateness is difficult to determine.
<b>1 Very Poor</b>	- Expressions are very difficult or too little to understand. - There is no evidence that the intended speech acts are performed.
<b>0</b>	- No performance

From Taguchi, 2006.

The authors used a paired-samples *t*-test and an independent-samples *t*-test in order to determine the students' development in the pretest and posttest. In addition, for the two personality types, attitudes towards Internet use in language pedagogy was measured by an independent-samples *t*-test.

## RESULTS

In order to address Research Question 1, the effectiveness of corrective feedback in the form of recasts in developing request-related speech acts was measured by analyzing the EFL learners' performance on the DCT as the post-test. The following findings were obtained from the analyzed data. As Table 4 indicates, the Internet group, which received recasts through the Internet, showed a higher mean on the posttest ( $M = 3.25$ ) than on the pretest (2.02).

**TABLE 4. Descriptive Statistics of the Internet Group**

Group	Test	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Internet Group	Pretest	2.02	40	.246	.038
	Posttest	3.25	40	.918	.145

In order to see whether or not the observed difference was statistically significant, a paired-samples *t*-test was run. Table 5 shows the difference in the Internet group’s performance on pretest and posttest.

**TABLE 5. Paired Samples *t*-test for Learners’ Use of Requests in the Posttest**

Group	Test	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Differences	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Internet	Pretest - Posttest	-8.34	39	.000	-1.23	-1.52	-.932

The results of the paired-samples *t*-test yielded significant differences between the two means in the Internet group (*t* (39) -8.34, *p* = 0.00). Thus, the results showed that the corrective feedback provided via the Internet was beneficial to EFL learners in the production and acceptable use of request-related speech acts in the post-treatment phase.

The traditional group’s gains in the pretest and posttest were also measured through a paired-samples *t*-test. The results of the analyzed data are shown below. As Table 6 indicates, the group showed a slightly higher mean on the posttest (*M* = 2.10) than the pretest (*M* = 2.02).

**TABLE 6. Descriptive Statistics of the Traditional Group**

Group	Test	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Traditional	Pretest	2.02	40	.246	.038
	Posttest	2.10	40	.268	.042

In order to determine whether or not the observed difference was significant, a paired-samples *t*-test was run. The results (Table 7) revealed that there was a significant difference between the EFL learners’ performance (*t* (39) -3.66, *p* = .001). The difference shed light

on the efficacy of recasts in the development and use of request-related speech acts.

**TABLE 7. Paired Samples *t*-test for Learners' Use of Requests in the Posttest**

Group	Test	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Differences	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Traditional	Pretest - Posttest	-3.66	39	.001	-.081	-.126	-.036

Regarding the second research question, we carried out an independent-samples *t*-test to compare the two groups' performances on the posttest. There was a significant difference in the scores for the Internet group ( $M = 3.25$ ,  $SD = .91$ ) and the traditional group ( $M = 2.10$ ,  $SD = .26$ ) conditions;  $t(7.59) = 45.60$ ,  $p = .00$ .

In order to answer the third research question, the Internet group's personality types – namely, introverts and extroverts – were identified, and the learners' attitudes towards the use of the Internet was computed. The analyzed data revealed that both personality types' perceptions towards the use of the Internet in their classes was positive. The descriptive statistics showed that both of the groups had, to some extent, similar means in perceptions of the use of the Internet.

**TABLE 8. Descriptive Statistics for Attitudes Towards Web-Based Language Learning by Group**

Attitude	Mean	<i>N</i>	Standard Deviation
Introvert	3.23	18	.17
Extrovert	3.25	22	.41

As Table 8 reveals, the means of the groups,  $M = 3.23$  and  $3.25$ , are quite similar. However, in order to examine the significance of the difference between the means of the groups, we need to analyze the computed data through an independent-samples *t*-test. The results of the independent-samples *t*-test showed that there was not a significant difference between introverts' ( $M = 3.23$ ,  $SD = .17$ ) and extroverts' ( $M = 3.25$ ,  $SD = .41$ ) attitudes ( $t(37) = -.27$ ,  $p = .23$ ) towards the role of

the Internet in language learning. According to the obtained data, both of the groups have positive attitudes towards the role of the Internet in their classes. Both personality types, introvert and extrovert, appreciated the role of the Internet in blended language classes.

## DISCUSSION

Research Question 1 asked whether the provision of corrective feedback on request-related speech acts during online-mediated and traditional classes, in the form of recasts (isolated recast + prompt, embedded recast + prompt) would lead to an increase in EFL learners' development of pragmatic knowledge. The findings provided an affirmative answer to this question. The results of this study showed that the treatment with corrective feedback in the form of recasts had an influential effect in increasing EFL language learners' knowledge and acceptable use of request-related speech acts. Our findings are in line with Fukuya and Zhang's (2002) study, in which they reported the efficacy of implicit corrective recast feedback in increasing Chinese EFL learners' knowledge and acceptable use of request-related speech acts. Alcon (2005) investigated the efficacy of instruction and two forms of corrective feedback, explicit and implicit. Alcon reported that instruction, explicit corrective feedback, and implicit corrective feedback led to pragmatic development. The findings of this study are consistent with previously conducted studies that focused on non-pragmatic target features. Researchers such as Loewen (2005), Loewen and Philip (2006), and Nabei and Swain (2002) have reported the efficacy of interactional feedback in the form of recasts in increasing learners' knowledge of target features. In another study, Ellis (2007) did not report any effectiveness of recasts on learning the comparative *-er* and past tense *-ed*. His findings gave a positive advantage to metalinguistic corrective feedback over recasts.

Interactional feedback is seen as a complex phenomenon in which a wide range of variables may determine its effects (Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006). Based on the controversial findings of the previous studies, the effectiveness of corrective feedback can vary according to the nature of the target features for which corrective feedback is given. "The nature of the target features" refers to different

problematic linguistic forms and areas of the target language, such as grammar, pronunciation, writing skill, speech acts, etc., for which corrective feedback is given. One rationale behind the findings of this study may be the nature of the target feature we examined. In this study, we examined the role of recasts in the development of request-related speech acts. It is worth noting that using the treatment on other areas of language may lead to different outcomes. Additionally, the medium through which corrective feedback is provided may be another factor determining the effectiveness of interactional feedback on the acquisition of the target language. For example, Loewen and Erlam (2006) did not find corrective feedback during an online meaning-focused task effective for the development of the regular past tense.

Regarding the second research question of this study, which sought to explore the difference between Internet-based and traditional-class-based recasts in promoting pragmatic development, the authors found that there was a significant difference between the two groups' gains. Findings showed that corrective feedback provided through the Internet had more efficacy than traditional-class-based feedback in leading to the acceptable use of request-related speech acts. In this study, the corrective feedback given to the Internet group was provided in written form. The Internet group's benefiting from recasts more than the traditional group might be attributed to the differing duration of feedback in each of the groups. That is, in the traditional group, the feedback was provided in oral form, so it faded away quickly, while in the Internet group, the corrective feedback lasted longer. In this case, the long-lasting character of written recasts might be the key feature in making learners notice the intended effects of the recasts. On the other hand, the short-lasting nature of recasts in oral form might have been the source of the more-limited development in the traditional group, because recasts in this case might have gone unnoticed by learners. Therefore, the way feedback is delivered may play a key role in directing learners' attention to non-target forms and getting learners to notice ill-formed productions.

Another reason for the efficacy of recasts in developing the target features in this study might be the nature of the recasts. Most of the studies in the literature provided recasts through the mere reformulation of non-target-like forms, which might have gone unnoticed by learners. In this study, we added an extra feature to recasts in order to make them more noticeable to the learners. These extra features were realized through the isolated recast + prompt and the embedded recast + prompt.

That is, the non-target-like forms were reformulated with a rising intonation and/or added stress in oral form in the traditional classes and rendered in full caps in the CALL program to promote learners' noticing the intended corrective feedback and correcting the inappropriate request strategies.

The saliency of the provided corrective feedback could be another component influencing the efficacy of corrective feedback in the acquisition of linguistic targets. Ellis (2007) argued that recasts can lead to language development if they are given to non-target-like forms intensely and saliently. The treatment in this study covered five sessions. In each session, the entire session was devoted to role-plays in which the learners took part in four dyadic conversations. The intensity of the treatment and the provided recasts may be another reason for the effectiveness of the recasts on the development of pragmatic competence. This intensity might have acted for the learners as a signal of the saliency of the recasts.

The third research question in this study was concerned with introverts' and extroverts' attitudes towards the use of the Internet in teaching language. The quantitative data analysis did not show significant differences between the two groups' (introverts' and extroverts') attitudes towards the implementation of the Internet in their language classes. In other words, both personality types had positive attitudes towards the use of the Internet in language learning. Our findings are in line with Son's (2008) study, which reported that learners had positive attitudes toward web-based language learning whether during or outside of class time. Moreover, previously conducted studies have highlighted the positive attitudes of teachers and female EFL learners towards web-based language learning (Park & Son, 2009; Rahimi & Yadollahi, 2011).

As Kumaravadivelu (2001) pointed out, the Internet can provide opportunities for maximizing liberatory autonomy, which refers to the empowerment of language learners' critical thinking abilities in a postmethod era. Therefore, language teachers and syllabus designers are advised to integrate the Internet into their classes in order to create equal conditions for language learners with different personality types and even for students with different learning strategies and cognitive styles to benefit from the Internet's ability to increase their liberatory autonomy.

The findings of this study are in line with previously conducted studies such as Lin (2002) who found that technologically based

language teaching enhanced the learners' motivation for doing their tasks and created a sense of excitement for the learners in working with technological equipment in laboratories. In a study by Bueno-Alastuey and López Pérez (2013), the usefulness of information and communication technologies (ICT) in the perception of two groups of learners in EFL and ESL settings was investigated. The EFL group experienced full integration of ICT in their classes while the ESL group had a lower level of integration. The researchers reported that the ESL group found ICT useful for some language elements (grammar and vocabulary) and for receptive skills, but the EFL group highlighted the role of ICT in influencing their pronunciation and productive skills. It may be construed that the learners' personality types may have influenced their attitudes in learning different language skills through the Internet.

## CONCLUSIONS

This study attempted to examine the effectiveness of interactional corrective feedback – namely, recasts – in increasing EFL learners' pragmatic knowledge and their appropriate and acceptable use of request-related speech acts in two groups: an Internet group and a traditional group. In the post-treatment phase of the study, the learners in both groups showed better performance on the posttests. Therefore, corrective feedback provided in the form of recasts was influential in developing pragmatic competence. The findings of the study showed that the recasts provided through the Internet were superior to those provided in the traditional class in promoting pragmatic development.

The study showed that a wide range of variables can interplay in determining the effects of interactional feedback. First, the medium through which the recast is provided may lead to different outcomes. In this study, the Internet group had a better performance on the DCT than the traditional group. Second, the duration and explicitness of the recast might be another factor in the effectiveness of the recast in promoting L2 development. In this study, the Internet-based recast lasted longer than the traditional-class-based recast. Regarding the explicitness of the recasts, the teachers added prompts (isolated recast + prompt; embedded recast + prompt) to make the recasts more noticeable to the learners.

Third, the nature of the linguistic error that was treated might have had an effect. In this study, the teachers provided feedback on request-related speech acts. Fourth, the intensity and saliency of the corrective feedback might have played a major role in influencing the efficacy of the corrective feedback. Thus, language teachers and researchers need to take into consideration the above-mentioned influential factors and variables in determining the efficacy of interactional feedback in developing linguistic and pragmatic competence.

The role of the Internet as a potential tool in language pedagogy needs to be taken into account. This study sheds light on the possible role of the Internet in improving pragmatic development. The two personality types showed positive attitudes towards the use of the Internet in teaching language. However, further studies might investigate the role of different corrective feedback types, such as metalinguistic/meta-pragmatic, elicitation, and asking for clarification, in improving pragmatic knowledge through Internet-based and traditional classes. Different aspects of pragmatic competence and other speech acts such as refusals, compliments, greetings, invitations, and complaints also need to be investigated through a treatment of interactional feedback.

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## The Degree of Involvement Load in an EFL Vocabulary Book Series

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Learning vocabulary and retention of lexical items has always been a major concern for second language learners. Drawing on the involvement load hypothesis (ILH) proposed by Laufer and Hulstijn (2001), which suggests that a high degree of involvement of learners in tasks is likely to bring about longer retention of vocabulary items, the present study aims to examine the components of involvement load (IL) in various tasks to see whether these components are observed as principles for retention of lexical items or neglected. To this aim, the *Vocabulary in Use* series in three levels, basic, intermediate, and high intermediate, was selected in order to investigate the components of IL in them. Thus, the index of the ILH and indices of each component (need, search, and evaluation) for several exercises in this series were measured. Tasks should, first of all, increase the degree of motivation for learners so that they feel the need for learning vocabulary items. Second, tasks should intrinsically encourage learners to search for the meaning and use of vocabulary items in dictionaries and other sources in order to have better retention of words. Finally, tasks should lead learners to evaluate their knowledge of the words by comparing the word with other words and comparing one meaning of the word with its other meanings. Thus, the results of this study show that the exercises designed for these books do not reflect the principle of the ILH to a large degree, with more than half of the exercises having a low index for IL. The books chosen for the present study did not reflect the principles of the ILH properly in the tasks provided for students. Thus, it cannot be expected for these books to have positive results for learning vocabulary items since the cognitive load, motivation, and the need for search should have been high, but were not for these books. The findings have implications for general vocabulary instruction beyond the books examined.

## INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary learning has a central role in learning first and second languages, and learners are supposed to master a great number of vocabulary items in order to be able to communicate through language. In order to become an advanced learner, learners have to learn thousands of words and be able to use them. The notion of vocabulary learning and lexical competence has been a topic of heated debate. There are so many questions concerning vocabulary learning such as what we mean by knowing a word or how learners learn words. For example, Richards (1976) believes that knowledge of a word consists of knowledge of word frequency, underlying forms, register, collocation, word association, case relations, and semantic structure.

On the other hand, Nation (1990) focuses on receptive and productive knowledge of lexical items. He argues that having receptive knowledge of a word means to be able to recognize the word when it is heard or seen. It also involves knowing which words it will collocate with and predicting what grammatical patterns the word is used in. Productive knowledge, however, has all the aspects of receptive knowledge but also consists of knowledge of the word's pronunciation, spelling, and its use in appropriate grammatical patterns.

Repetition of words is very crucial in learning. In this regard, Laufer, Meara, and Nation (2005) maintain that repetition has a central role in memorizing vocabulary. Laufer (2006) also mentions that in order to acquire word knowledge, learners need to be exposed to the word at least six times. She also believes that direct vocabulary learning is one of the best techniques to acquire vocabulary knowledge when students are required to learn lists of words.

Another factor that influences the learner's retention of vocabulary is the degree to which the learner's mind is involved ( Craik & Tulving, 1975). If the learner just takes a glance at a word and does not make enough effort to memorize it, the learner will soon forget the lexical item because their mind was not deeply involved in acquiring the target word.

## Depth of Processing Model

The depth of processing model is fundamental to the involvement load hypothesis (ILH), and it needs to be understood to understand the hypothesis. The notion of depth of processing was first proposed by Craik and Lockhart in 1972. They believed that if learners want to remember long-term what they have learned, they need to execute deep processing in their minds. The model claimed that retention of old materials depended heavily on how deep the learning process of the material was when it was first learned. In other words, the deeper the information processing in the mind, the longer it will be remembered by the learners.

Three years later, Craik and Tulving (1975) proposed the notion of elaboration and extended the original depth of the processing model. The notion of elaboration suggested that the new information must be connected to the previous information that exists in the learner's mind; that is, if the new information becomes stuck to the previously stored information in the learner's mind, it is more likely to be remembered. Thus, the elaboration of the new information will lead to strong memory traces.

## The Involvement Load Hypothesis

Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) proposed the ILH for vocabulary learning by drawing deeply on the processing model and elaboration in information processing, which is called task-induced involvement. The involvement load hypothesis states that for retention of unfamiliar vocabulary, the learners must be highly involved in tasks; that is, the tasks should be designed in a way that they can involve learners to a large degree inasmuch as the amount of involvement will affect the retention of words.

According to Laufer and Hulstijn (2001), "in the majority of incidental vocabulary acquisition studies, learners are typically required to perform a task involving the processing of some information without being told in advance that they will be tested afterwards on the recall of all the words in the list" (p. 10). In this respect, they also compared three conditions: The first one was about learners doing a reading comprehension task with marginal glosses; the second involved the same

reading with a gap-fill exercise afterwards; in the third, learners had to write a composition and incorporate the target words. The results showed that the group that had to produce output outperformed the other groups. This means that they remembered more words than the participants in the other groups.

The interesting point about the ILH is that it is not limited to cognitive aspects of learning. It incorporates both cognitive and motivational aspects of vocabulary learning. Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) mentioned three components of the involvement load hypothesis, one of which is related to motivational factors. The three components of the ILH are *need*, *search*, and *evaluation*. Need is considered to be related to motivational aspects of learning, and search and evaluation are linked to cognitive aspects. Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) suggested two degrees of prominence for need: moderate and strong. They also proposed that when the task is imposed by an external agent, then the need will be moderate, such as a teacher asking learners to apply some words to sentences. Here, motivation is coming from outside. However, if the task is going to be designed in a way to require a strong need, it should seek to create some intrinsic motivation, and it must be the learners themselves who decide to look the word up in a dictionary. Thus, when the learner feels self-imposed and decides to learn the word, the need will be strong.

Search is the attempt that the learner makes to find the meaning of an unknown second language (L2) word or try to find the L2 translation of a first language (L1) word by referring to peers, the teacher, or a dictionary. Most of the tasks in EFL contexts are designed for receptive skills, and learners are supposed to work with written texts rather than being engaged in real-life communication with native speakers. Tsubaki (2006) claimed that productive skills and independence of learners in tasks bring about a strong search and evaluation index. Independence develops learners' autonomy, and they will choose to learn the target words. On the other hand, the use of productive skills makes learners try to find appropriate words for expressing their ideas while speaking or writing.

Evaluation occurs at several levels. It may be a particular meaning of a word compared with its other meanings, a comparison of a given word with other words, or comparing a word with other words in order to assess whether a word does or does not fit into a context. For example, Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) noted that the kind of evaluation



that entails recognizing differences between words (as in a fill-in-the-blanks with words provided), or differences between several senses of a word in a given context, is referred to as moderate. Evaluation that requires a decision such as how additional words will combine with the new word in an original (as opposed to given) sentence or text is referred to as strong evaluation. The degrees of value for each of the three components are none, moderate, and strong.

Each factor of need, search, and evaluation may be present or absent in a task. The sum of each component will result in the degree of involvement in any task. Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) illustrate the notion of the involvement load hypothesis by presenting two sample tasks. In the first task, the learner is asked to write original sentences with some words, and these words are translated or explained by the teacher. The task will have a moderate need (imposed by the teacher), no search (the words are glossed), and strong evaluation because the new words are evaluated against suitable collocations in learner-generated context. Thus, the involvement index of the task will be represented in the following way: absence of a factor is marked as 0, a moderate presence of a factor as 1, and strong presence as 2. Therefore, the degree of involvement in this task is 3 ( $1 + 0 + 2$ ). The second task provides learners with a text to read and answer comprehension questions. New words, which are relevant to the questions, will again be glossed with their translations. The task will have a moderate need to look at the glosses since it is imposed by the task, but it will not have search or evaluation. Thus, the degree of involvement is 1. As we can see, the former task has a higher involvement index than the latter (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001).

## Vocabulary Learning in an EFL Context

The value of each factor of need, search, and evaluation being present in a task could be argued to be more important, at some level, in English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) contexts as students most often only have the opportunity to use English in the classroom. EFL students have limited opportunities outside the classroom compared to those in English-as-a-second-language (ESL) contexts where English is used within the community. EFL students may encounter English in media, songs, films, and so on, but this is a passive exposure to the language compared with the usage and interaction an ESL student would have with the language.

In this regard, students in Korea have only limited opportunities to communicate in English outside the classroom. However, the country, like many others, follows the global English learning trend. Nam (2009) noted, “In line with the 7th National Curriculum, Korean students have learned English as a compulsory subject at public schools since 1997. Further, most Korean colleges offer many English courses for non-majors, in addition to freshman English courses” (p. 109). However, Nam goes on to note that “in response to the demands of the times, English departments have shifted the emphasis of their curriculum from reading English-language textbooks to usability for daily life” (p. 110). Thus, this kind of usability requires learners to learn vocabulary items necessary for communication, and in this regard, the ILH can provide a scale by which we can evaluate vocabulary items in the Korean context as well.

In addition, the high school and college entrance exams, which measure, among other things, English proficiency, are a major factor why Koreans study English. It is widely assumed that a student who does poorly on the national college entrance exam will not be able to get into a top university. Additionally, reasonable English proficiency is viewed as a competitive advantage with looking for employment after graduating college. All in all, learning English is perceived as a necessity among Koreans (Magno, 2010).

In general, “English education at Korean colleges consists mainly of three different types: (a) a general English program for non-English majors, (b) English classes in English departments offered for the students seeking degrees in English, and (c) a freshman English course” (Nam, 2009, p. 110). It should be noted that general English classes in Korea are skills-based and mainly address test preparation with some focus on issues related to the cultures of English-speaking countries. English students have the opportunity to take part in optional English classes and also students of other majors can register in general English classes offered by the university. Students can also register for classes offered by English departments within the university, but this is less common because courses offered by English departments are more specific than the general English courses (Nam, 2009).

Finally, most Korean children study English in public schools from third grade onwards, but English is often taught primarily by Korean-born instructors, who mostly teach general subjects in lower grades and test preparation as students approach high school. Native

English-speaking teachers often teach conversational classes, but the contact time with native English-speaking teachers is much more limited compared to class time with Korean teachers of English. Therefore, there is little chance for the students to actually use English in meaningful conversational contexts. Additionally, there is little to no need to use English outside of the classroom. As a consequence, vocabulary learning can be limited to memorizing words in lists and out of context for exam purposes, which does not promote meaningful acquisition of the word for long-term use. This is one reason why vocabulary and self-study gains paramount importance in such a context since, on the one hand, students are supposed to learn vocabulary and use it proficiently in context, but on the other hand, students have little opportunity to do so in and out of class.

## METHODS

The American version of the *Vocabulary in Use* series at three levels – *Vocabulary in Use: Basic* (McCarthy, O’Dell, & Reppen, 2010), *Vocabulary in Use: Intermediate* (Redman & Zwier, 2010), and *Vocabulary in Use: High Intermediate* (McCarthy, O’Dell, & Bunting, 2010) – were selected for this study. The series has been designed primarily for students who are studying on their own, but it can also be used by teachers in the classroom.

*Vocabulary in Use: Basic* consists of 60 two-page units. The left-hand page explains the new target words and phrases. Most units contain nearly 25 new vocabulary items and phrases, and they are all highlighted in bold. The right-hand page provides learners with a variety of exercises ranging from fill-in-the-blanks to more open-ended ones, like writing a composition so that learners can check their understanding of new words. The meaning of the words is provided on the left-hand page through a short definition, an explanation, example sentences, a picture, or a diagram.

*Vocabulary in Use: Intermediate* consists of 100 two-page units in which words are presented similar to those in the previous book. The only differences lie in the fact that in this series two other ways for representing the meaning of highlighted words on the left-hand page are provided: through a synonym or an antonym, and through a situation in

which some words are used in their specific context. The following example shows the use of context in this book: “Both drivers were badly injured, and both cars were badly damaged” (p. ix). Another difference is in the exercises on the right-hand page: The first exercise practices the form of the new word, and additional exercises focus on meaning. Most of the units include an exercise that makes learners think about the words in relation to their own lives or exercises that encourage the use of the word outside the book.

*Vocabulary in Use: High Intermediate* is similar to the previous series in that it also consists of 100 two-page units in which the meaning of the words are presented on the left-hand page, and there are some exercises on the right-hand page, ranging from fill-in-the-blanks to open-ended exercises.

In this research, 102 exercises were selected from 25 units of each series for analysis. It should be noted that there was consistency in the selection of the 25 units. Thus, the researchers selected from units 26 to 50 from each series. Each two-page unit includes four or five exercises. *Vocabulary in Use: High Intermediate* has more than 102 exercises in its 25 units, so the researchers selected the exercises in this book from unit 26 to 48 in order to have the same number of exercises as a sample for each book. All the exercises in the selected units of each book were analyzed to find the degree of involvement according to the ILH. Furthermore, the degree of need, search, and evaluation were also measured and calculated in the three selected books. On the whole, there were 306 exercises in which the degree of involvement was measured. The degree of involvement for each component of the ILH were assigned according to Table 1 (taken from Tsubaki, 2006).

Two experts rated the degree of involvement in each exercise independently. In order to have a reliable measurement, the inter-rater reliability index was calculated to determine the degree of consistency between the two raters' judgments. In so doing, the formula  $K = \text{Pr}(a) - \text{Pr}(e)$  was used in order to calculate the level of agreement between the two raters. The results of the inter-rater reliability measurement showed that the level of agreement between the two raters was 0.7.

First of all, the total value for involvement, and for need, search, and evaluation, in each book series is presented in Table 2 to see which book has the highest and lowest degree of involvement, need, search, and evaluation. Then the frequency and percentage of the involvement load for each book for loads of (0-2), (2-4), and (4-6) were calculated.

**TABLE 1. Indices of Components of the Involvement Load Hypothesis**

Component	Degree of Involvement	Description
Need	Index 0 (none)	The learner does not feel the need to learn the word.
	Index 1 (moderate)	The learner is required to learn the word.
	Index 2 (strong)	The learner decides to learn the word.
Search	Index 0 (none)	They do not need to learn the meanings or forms of the word.
	Index 1 (moderate)	The meaning of the word is found.
	Index 2 (strong)	The form of the word is found.
Evaluation	Index 0 (none)	The word is not compared with other words.
	Index 1 (moderate)	The word is compared with other words in the provided context.
	Index 2 (strong)	The word is compared with other words in a self-provided context.

And then the frequency and percentage of each component of involvement (need, search, and evaluation) were calculated to see which component is strong or weak in each book.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The following section presents the findings from the study and offers a discussion of their implications for teaching in an EFL context. To begin with, Table 2 provides a brief overview of the data found in the basic, intermediate, and high intermediate levels of *Vocabulary in Use*.

**TABLE 2. Total Values for Involvement and Its Components at All Three Levels**

Component	Vocabulary in Use: Basic	Vocabulary in Use: Intermediate	Vocabulary in Use: High Intermediate
Exercises	102	102	102
Need	118	111	113
Search	56	41	38
Evaluation	123	112	112
Involvement	297	264	263

Table 2 shows the total value for involvement and its components in each level. In *Vocabulary in Use: Basic*, there was the highest degree of involvement (total value of involvement: 297), while in *Vocabulary in Use: High Intermediate* the degree of involvement was the lowest (263), with the *Vocabulary in Use: Intermediate* standing in-between (264). The degree of need is the highest in the basic-level book (118), while for the intermediate-level book, we see the lowest degree of need (111), with the high intermediate-level book standing in-between (113). The degree of search was the highest again in the basic-level book and lowest in the high intermediate-level book. Evaluation was 123 in the basic-level book, which was highest, and in the intermediate- and high intermediate-level books, we have the same value for evaluation (112). Here, with the brief overview of the data provided, one can probably assume that the exercises in *Vocabulary in Use: Basic* follow the involvement load hypothesis more closely than the other two book levels.

### Frequency and Percentage of Involvement

Table 3 shows the frequency and percentage of involvement for each book at the three load levels (0–2), (2–4), and (4–6).

**TABLE 3. Frequency and Percentage of Involvement at Each Level**

Involvement Load	Vocabulary in Use: Basic (n = 102)		Vocabulary in Use: Intermediate (n = 102)		Vocabulary in Use: High Intermediate (n = 102)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
0-2	57	55.8%	70	68.6%	77	75.4%
2-4	26	25.4%	21	20.5%	14	13.7%
4-6	19	18.6%	11	10.7%	11	10.7%

Table 3 shows that in the basic-level book only 55.8% of the exercises are within the 0–2 index range (which is 57 exercises out of 102), while for the intermediate-level book, 68.6% of the exercises (70 exercises out of 102) are categorized in the 0–2 index range. Finally, in the high intermediate-level book, 75.4% of the exercises (77 exercises out of 102) are included in the 0–2 index range, which clearly shows that most of the exercises in the high intermediate-level book have a low degree of involvement. A high involvement load may contribute to mastering vocabulary items, and any kind of disregard to the components

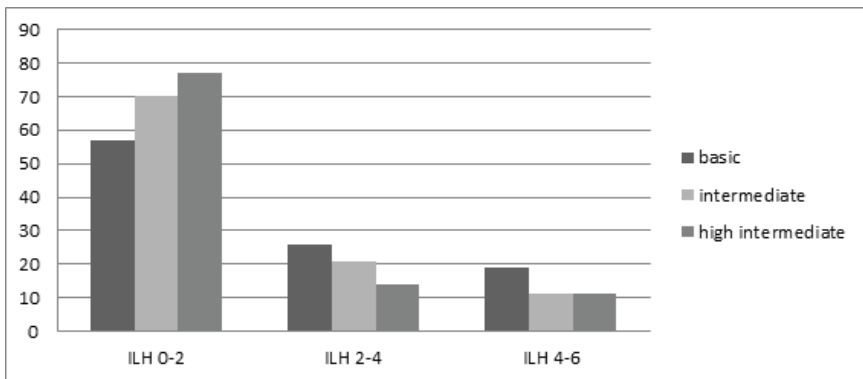
of involvement may impede learning.

On the other hand, there are more exercises in the basic-level book in the 2–4 and 4–6 index ranges than in the other two books. There are 19 exercises in the basic-level book that fall into the 4–6 index range of involvement, while only 11 exercises are included in this index range in each of the two other books.

Thus, tasks used in the classroom or as self-study should be based on the components of involvement since paying attention to these components will lead to better mastery of lexical items. The cognitive aspects of vocabulary learning, the motivation for learning the items, and the need to search is not high in the selected tasks. It should be noted that learning vocabulary requires all three components working simultaneously so that the learners can personalize their task, feel motivated in doing it, search for the meaning and use of the words, and then apply these lexical items in other contexts in order to learn them.

However, it should be noted that the analysis presented is a comparison of the three books. In fact, one should be aware of the fact that the degree of involvement is not high in any of the books in the series. As illustrated in Table 3, even in *Vocabulary in Use: Basic*, which seems to be following the ILH more than the books at the other two levels, more than half of the exercises fall into the 0–2 index range for involvement, which shows that the exercises in the series are not highly in accordance with the involvement load hypothesis.

Figure 1 represents the degree of the involvement load in the three book levels in a much simpler manner.



**FIGURE 1. Degree of Involvement Load for Exercises in the Three Books of the *Vocabulary in Use* Series.**

As shown in Figure 1, most of the exercises in all three of the books fall into the index range of 0–2, and the frequency index ranges of 2–4 and 4–6 contain no more than 25 and 20 items, respectively. On the whole, we can see that the degree of involvement is the lowest in the high intermediate-level book and highest in the basic-level book, with the intermediate-level book standing in-between.

### Frequency and Percentage of the Need Component

Table 4 shows the frequency and percentage of the component “need” in the three levels of *Vocabulary in Use*.

**TABLE 4. Frequency and Percentage of the Need Component at Each Book Level**

Need	Vocabulary in Use: Basic ( <i>n</i> = 102)		Vocabulary in Use: Intermediate ( <i>n</i> = 102)		Vocabulary in Use: High Intermediate ( <i>n</i> = 102)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Index 0	0	0	2	1.9%	0	0
Index 1	86	84.3%	89	87.2%	91	89.2%
Index 2	16	15.6%	11	10.7%	11	10.7%

As shown in Table 4, we can say that nearly all of the exercises in the three book levels have some degree of need except for two exercises in *Vocabulary in Use: Intermediate*. Most of the exercises have a moderate degree of need (Index 1), as it is shown that 84.3% of the exercises (*f* = 86) in the basic-level book, 87.2% of the exercises (*f* = 89) in the intermediate-level book, and 89.2% of the exercises (*f* = 91) in the high intermediate-level book have a moderate degree of need. However, only a limited percentage of the exercises in the series benefit from a strong degree of need: in the basic level book, 15.6% (*f* = 16), and in the intermediate-level and high intermediate-level books, 10.7% (*f* = 11). Most of the exercises in this series have a moderate degree of need because the motivation and need to do them are task-imposed, and few exercises really raise the learners’ interests and make the learners self-motivated to do them.

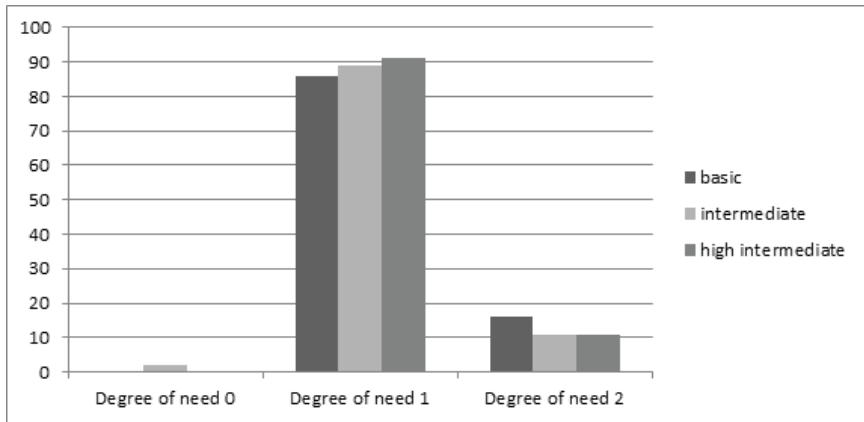
Figure 2 shows the data collected from the 306 exercises from the



three books of the *Vocabulary in Use* series for the need component. As is clearly shown in Figure 2, around 90 exercises in each book of the series fall into the moderate index of 1, and only around 15 exercises have a strong degree of need. Index 1 is highest in the high intermediate-level book, and Index 2 is highest the basic-level book, while only the intermediate-level book has any exercises that have a 0 degree of need (only 2).

### Frequency and Percentage of the Search Component

Table 5 shows the frequency and percentage of the search component in the three levels of the book series.



**FIGURE 2. Degree of the Need Component in the Three Books of the *Vocabulary in Use* Series.**

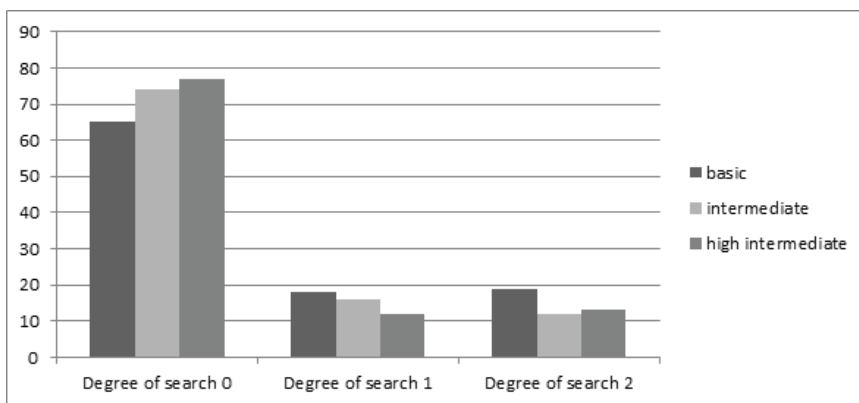
**TABLE 5. Frequency and Percentage of the Search Component at Each Book Level**

Search	Vocabulary in Use: Basic (n = 102)		Vocabulary in Use: Intermediate (n = 102)		Vocabulary in Use: High Intermediate (n = 102)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Index 0	65	63.7%	74	72.5%	77	75.4%
Index 1	18	17.6%	16	15.6%	12	11.7%
Index 2	19	18.6%	12	11.7%	13	12.7%

Table 5 shows that there is a zero degree of search for many of the exercises in each of the three books: in the basic-level book, 63.7% ( $f = 65$ ); in the intermediate-level book, 72.5% ( $f = 74$ ), and in the high intermediate-level book, 75.4% ( $f = 77$ ). Here again, Index 0 for search is lowest in the basic-level book, while it is highest in the high intermediate-level book. More than 75 percent of the exercises in the high intermediate-level book have no degree of search, and it seems to be a weakness of this book. In the basic-level book, 17.6%; in the intermediate-level book, 15.6%; and in the high intermediate-level book, only 11.7% of the exercises have a moderate search component.

We can see that the degree of search is at its best in the basic-level book of the series, but even this book does not provide an acceptable degree of search. However, it should be noted that most of the exercises in the *Vocabulary in Use* series have a zero degree of search. The reason for this problem lies in the fact that these books provide learners with the meaning of the words in each unit, so learners do not have to search for the meaning of the words in tasks as they are glossed right in front of them.

Figure 3 shows the frequency of the search component in each book. At a glance, one can realize the most obvious weak point of these books in relation to the involvement load hypothesis.



**FIGURE 3. Frequency of the Search Component in the Three Books of the *Vocabulary in Use* Series.**

As shown in Figure 3, the frequency in Index 0 is the highest for all three books of the series, and there is a low frequency for both Index

1 and Index 2. Rarely do the tasks in this book series require learners to check their dictionaries or search for the meaning of the words. This makes the search component the lowest of all in each of these books.

### Frequency and Percentage of the Evaluation Component

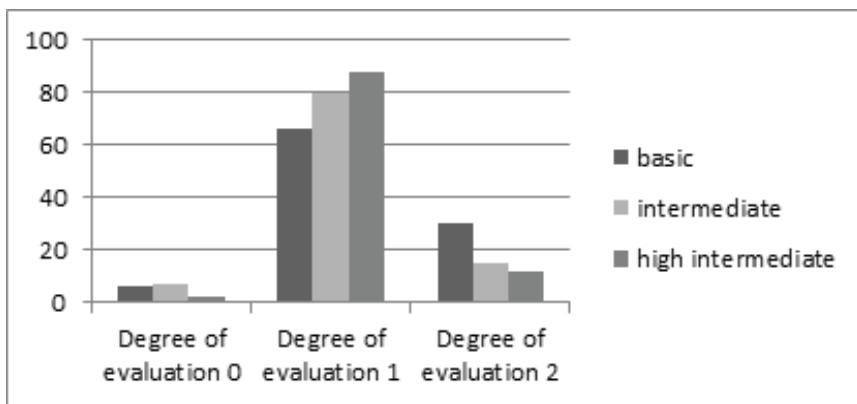
Table 6 shows the frequency and percentage of the evaluation component in the three books of the *Vocabulary in Use* series.

**TABLE 6. Frequency and Percentage of the Evaluation Component at Each Book Level**

Evaluation	Vocabulary in Use: Basic ( <i>n</i> = 102)		Vocabulary in Use: Intermediate ( <i>n</i> = 102)		Vocabulary in Use: High Intermediate ( <i>n</i> = 102)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Index 0	6	5.8%	7	6.8%	2	1.7%
Index 1	66	64.7%	80	78.4%	88	86.2%
Index 2	30	29.4%	15	14.7%	12	11.7%

Table 6 shows that there is a zero degree evaluation for only a few of the exercises in each of the three books: 5.8% ( $f = 6$ ) of the exercises in the basic-level book, 6.8% ( $f = 7$ ) of the exercises in the intermediate-level book, and 1.7% ( $f = 2$ ) of the exercises in the high intermediate-level book. It is important to note that most of the exercises in the three books have a moderate degree of evaluation: 64.7% ( $f = 66$ ) in the basic-level book, 78.4% ( $f = 80$ ) in the intermediate-level book, and 86.2% ( $f = 88$ ) in the high intermediate-level book. However, it should also be noted that we have the highest frequency of evaluation in the basic-level book (29.4%), followed by the intermediate-level book (14.7%), and finally the high intermediate-level book (11.7%).

Figure 4 shows the frequency of the evaluation component in each of the three books of the *Vocabulary in Use* series. It is interesting that although *Vocabulary in Use: Basic* has higher degrees of the need and search components, the high intermediate-level book scores highest in terms of the evaluation component with 86.2% for Index 1, while the basic-level book is lowest with a score of 64.7%.



**FIGURE 4. Frequency of the Evaluation Component in the Three Books of the *Vocabulary in Use* Series.**

As we can see, few exercises have a zero index for the evaluation component, and most of the exercises in all three of the books have a moderate degree of evaluation. The high intermediate-level book has the highest frequency for moderate evaluation, and the basic-level book has the highest frequency for strong evaluation. The reason is that, in fact, most of the exercises in the high intermediate-level book are of the fill-in-the-blank and matching types, which have a moderate degree of evaluation. On the other hand, there are more exercises in the basic-level book that require learners to write compositions or write about themselves compared to the high intermediate-level book, and these exercises have a strong degree of evaluation.

The overall analysis of the selected exercises in all three of the books does not show an acceptable account of involvement. The results gained through the data collected show that of the 306 selected exercises from the three books, 204 exercises (66.66%) fall into the category 0-2, 61 (19.93%) are in the range of 2-4, and only 41 exercises (13.39%) are included in the range of 4-6 for degree of involvement.

The collected data show that the need component from the 306 exercises in all the three books have only 2 activities (0.65%) that have a zero degree of need; 266 exercises (86.92%) have a moderate degree of need, and 38 (12.41%) have a strong degree of need. Unfortunately, 261 exercises (70.5%) out of the 306 exercises in all three of the books have a zero degree of search, while only 46 (15.03%) and 44 (14.37%) exercises have a moderate and strong degree of search, respectively.

Finally, 15 exercises (4.9%) of the 306 activities in the three books have a zero degree of evaluation, while 234 exercises (76.47%) have a moderate degree of evaluation and only 57 exercises (18.62%) have a strong index for evaluation.

## CONCLUSIONS

Examining the degree of involvement in the three books in the *Vocabulary in Use* series – basic, intermediate, and high intermediate – reveals that these books do not benefit from a high involvement load. On the whole, it can be claimed that the exercises in the *Vocabulary in Use* series are not greatly in accordance with the ILH since more than half of the exercises in the three books have a 0-2 degree of involvement. Thus, we can see that the principles of the ILH as crucial components of learning vocabulary do not satisfy the needs of the learner in this vocabulary book series; thus, it could be expected that learners may not learn the vocabulary items contained in this series in an efficient manner. Since the search component is crucial for understanding and memorizing lexical items, it should not be neglected in vocabulary teaching and learning. Learners should be encouraged to search for the meaning of words in dictionaries or other sources in order to master lexical items. Lack of attention to this component may impede vocabulary learning.

The reason for the difference in involvement load in the three vocabulary books in this series lies in the fact that the frequency of some types of exercises are very high in some books and very low in others. This led to the higher and lower indices for involvement load. For example, there are more exercises in the basic-level book that focus on productive skills by asking learners to produce language. A large number of exercises require learners to write compositions or paragraphs about their own life and the people around them. Tasks that require learners to write about their own personal feelings and concerns raise learners' intrinsic motivation and therefore the degree of need will increase. At the same time, learners feel more self-imposed to search for words in dictionaries when they are given agency to express their feelings and describe the people around them. Finally, when learners are supposed to write paragraphs about their real life, they are exposed to a self-provided

context because they are responsible for creating the sort of context they prefer, and this will provide them with the highest degree of evaluation. This is because, in their self-provided context, they will have the opportunity to compare the words they have just learned with the words they already know.

Moreover, writing or any kind of production can lead to more internalization of vocabulary items since it allows learners to use the learned words in other contexts and tasks. This will lead to using lexical items in different situations, and learners will feel more obliged to search for the appropriate use of words and thus have a greater desire to search. However, it should be noted that evaluation is a crucial component of the ILH, and much attention should be given to this when selecting tasks for learners. In fact, learners should have the opportunity to compare the lexical items with other words and also make a comparison between different meanings of the same word. The tasks should provide the learners with the chance to be mentally engaged with different meanings of words in order to be able to choose the most appropriate meaning in the specific context.

Thus, it could be concluded that the components of the ILH are crucial for learning vocabulary, and learners should have the opportunity to search for the meaning of words through interaction with others or searching in other sources. However, before searching, students should feel the need to do it in the sense that they have to have the will, or motivation, to search for a word's meaning. It can be concluded that motivation as a factor can foster vocabulary learning since it provides the need for learners to search for the meaning and use of words, which leads to two principles of the ILH, namely, need and search. Although this study was conducted with respect to particular textbooks, the textbooks' design was not the focus of inquiry but a means to examine the value in the ILH and what type of activities support meaningful vocabulary activities in the classroom. Teachers and curriculum developers can use this information when developing activities for the classroom or for other educational materials.

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# The Effect of Self-Reflection on Academic Achievement in South Korean EFL Students in a Christian University Setting

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This article explores a framework that supports student success through the process of intellectual and emotional growth that occurs during the college years. This discussion addresses university students' source of motivation and ethical and moral needs as they transition through university life. The review of the literature and related discussion is significant as it addresses both the academic and emotional development of university students as well as gives implications for educators that can be informative for Korean EFL higher education. The framework of literature is appropriate to understand the ways in which students approach complex information and experiences during young adulthood. Therefore, the methodologies presented assist teachers in assisting students to thrive as college students as well as to promote their personal and emotional development whether in a religious or secular institution.

## INTRODUCTION

This article describes approaches to understand college students' processing of meta-ethical concepts based on Perry's (1970) work, which has been a less studied element of his research (Dawson, 2004). It is important to understand students' level of ethical development in order to design teaching to support their overall development (Clarkeburn, Downie, Gray, & Matthew, 2003). While students are developing a sturdier moral compass during university years, they have the challenge of being confronted with a massive amount of diversity and unfamiliar challenges that they may not yet be equipped to address independently. Tolerance for increasing diversity in today's complex and global society is a significant change for most college students. In addition to perennial ethical dilemmas within their academic realm, such as those involving

academic integrity, students at this stage of life have to also deal with previously encountered ethical issues (Guthrie, 1997).

Facing diversity is a unique challenge on its own, coupled with the fact that students are in the process of developing their own worldview during their college years. Therefore, students are vulnerable at this developmental stage to a variety of external influences:

Operating with integrity certainly relies on congruence with ethical principles and virtues, but it extends further to include an ability to analyze a problem of practice, to design a resolution, to summon the moral courage to actually enact the solution, and most importantly, to make midcourse corrections in light of multiple contexts and emerging self-understanding. (Saunders & Butts, 2011, p. 76)

To shape an empathetic and inclusive environment, students need opportunities to explore their relationship with the world around them experientially, evaluating their experiences and their values (Goralnik, Millenbah, Nelson, & Thorp, 2012). Such development is not only relevant for students in religious institutions of higher education, such as a Christian university, but also for students in a secular institution. Ethical and moral development is essential for individuals to be healthy members of society.

This leads to a point where educators can become involved to facilitate the process of not only students' academic, but also their emotional, development. College educators share a common goal in that they aim to guide students as they mature in distinct ways to make informed judgments. Dawson (2004) states that "Perry was one of the first researchers to suggest that observed differences in school performance might be due to developmental differences rather than differences in ability, intelligence and personality" (p. 72). Perry's work suggests that college students need encouragement in order to develop intellectually and emotionally. Perry advocates that to help students to move from one worldview to another requires an understanding of their environment where their confusion and frustration are acknowledged and where they are supported to address these. Constructing one's own perspective as a young adult, opposed to that of a child, is a complex process and is distinct from learning a tangible skillset. The development process transforms young adults adjusting the ways in which they think, altering assumptions and who they are as individuals in the larger

community and world (Eljamal, Stark, Arnold, & Sharp, 1999).

This paper will discuss approaches to permit teachers to encourage students to thrive in positions as college students as well as suggest ways to promote their personal and emotional development. Additionally, this paper will highlight ethical and emotional development in relation to Perry's (1970) developmental theory. Perry's work is appropriate to understand the development of the ways that students approach complex information and experiences during young adulthood and, therefore, informative in assisting EFL university educators to best support students academically and emotionally.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

The aim of this literature review is to provide an overview of the issues that may affect the intellectual development of Korean EFL university learners. Ironically, the issues that motivate students toward higher proficiencies and the issues that present primary obstacles are often the same. Educational leadership, global education, and EFL methodologies are entities that can both positively and negatively influence the needs of EFL university students. A discussion of how these positive and negative implications can provide opportunities for growth and how positive implications can provide further enrichment for EFL university students will be presented.

### Student Groups

All students face challenges, but it is important to bear in mind that some students may be especially vulnerable during the university transition. One such group are students who are the first in their families to attend university. The experiences and challenges reflected in North American college students would be distinct from those in Korean universities. Institutional characteristics as well impact student engagement and experiences. Additionally, institutional size and mission, among many others, have their impact. Then, the background and individual needs of students must be considered to understand how they engage with university life, both in the academic and personal realms. However, despite all the variables impacting students' university experience and

success, there is one factor that stands out, which is the policies and practices adopted by institutions that are thought to increase student engagement (Chickering, 1969; Terenzini, Springer, Yaeger, Pascarella, & Nora, 1996). This factor, unlike many of the others, is accessible in that it can be evaluated across students and contexts, opposed to individual characteristics of students. Consequently, the discussion here focuses on how engagement with academic and personal life on campus can be fostered by teachers through an understanding of the literature. In doing so, the discussion aims to describe what practices, or policies, in Korean EFL university programs may best support students.

### **Ethical and Spiritual Development in the College Years**

Intellectual development has its ethical and spiritual components. According to Perry (as cited in Eljamal, Stark, Arnold, & Sharp, 1999), students enter college assuming that there is a clear distinction between right and wrong. Students often assume that there are right answers to most questions and authorities possess this information, and their role as students is to acquire it and comply with the rule and/or standards. Awareness that students use these assumptions to guide their learning helps educators to understand the basis for students' persistent efforts to provide the right answer to those in authority positions (Eljamal et al., 1999) or seek model behavior. The intellectual development model outlined in Eljamal et al.'s work emphasizes that educators should utilize what is known about student's intellectual development and structure instruction accordingly, but also support their exploration into whether there may not be only one correct answer and to learn to tolerate ambiguity. If this is done, educators can build scaffolding into their instruction to support student's intellectual and emotional development. Traditionally, most educational approaches to ethics education have been philosophical. However, Goralnik, et al. (2012) discusses the need for students to apply ethical knowledge to their real-life environment, which they insist requires an emotional component:

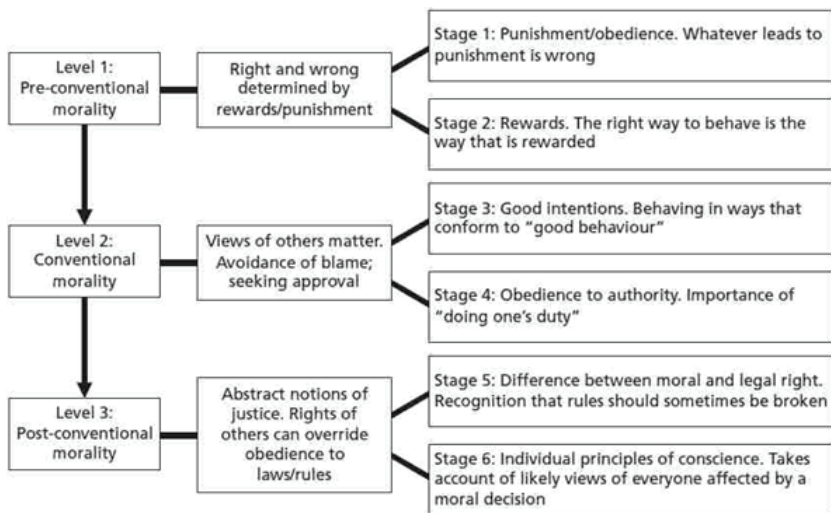
Including an emotional component in ethics learning runs contrary to most traditional academic approaches to philosophical education; coursework in ethics is often theoretical and not applied. Developing a theoretical understanding of the environmental problem is an important goal, but deepening students involvement with the ideas by

adding an affective, as well as this cognitive, emphasis is also important to empower students to apply their environmental ethics knowledge. Experiential learning, with its embrace of emotion as an integral piece of the learning process, can help develop the emotional maturity necessary for ethical decision making in context. (p. 416)

Goralnik et al., (2012) articulates that the traditional philosophical approach to ethics education is only superficial; for students to apply the ideologies learned in ethics education to their everyday lives, there needs to be an emotional component. Implementing the notion of empathy and care in an educational context relies on the development of an attentive relationship between a caregiver and a cared person. Incorporating components of empathy, ethics, and morality in the classroom allows instruction to go beyond the school walls and lead students to encounter real-world issues, which is also in line with communicative language teaching at some level. By bringing discussion implicitly or explicitly of ethical and moral issues into EFL activities, students are provided with life skills that go beyond the EFL classroom. These skills inform their comprehension and learning in other subject disciplines on campus and how they interact and process the content and experiences they have. In ethics education, students are encouraged to integrate morality in the classroom and beyond, making the concepts applicable to the world in which they live. This is much the same for language education, but framed with an EFL context.

### **Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Judgment**

Within the psychology of the moral development model (Kohlberg, 1984), three levels of moral judgment exist (Figure 1). At the *pre-conventional morality level*, what is right or wrong is determined by the extent of the punishment or reward. Within this paradigm, good behavior is rewarded. If the behavior is rewarded, then it is good and thus right. At the second level, the *conventional morality level*, views of others dominate. The task is to seek approval and avoid conflict. Within this paradigm, good intentions lead to good behaviors. Additionally, individuals are expected to be dutiful and obedient to authority. The last level is the *post-conventional morality level*. At this level, there are various perspectives and thus abstract notions of justice. Within this paradigm, situational ethics exist.



**FIGURE 1. Kohlberg’s Theory of Moral Judgment.** From Rice (2016). Graphic copyright © 2001 Psychology Press Ltd.

### Gilligan’s Morality of Responsibility

According to Gilligan’s stages of ethics of care there are three levels and two transitions (Figure 2). The first level is all about *individual orientation and survival*. The transition between level one and level two occurs when one transfers from individualism to *collectivism*. At the second level, the themes of collectivism are goodness and self-sacrifice. The tasks are reliance on others and social acceptance. The second transition between level two and three occurs when one learns to evaluate their *comparative value* versus *self-value*. At the third and final level, there is a heightened understanding of choice. There is a clear distinction between one’s own needs and those of others.

Interestingly, Perry’s (1970) scheme of intellectual development, Kolberg’s moral judgment, and Gilligan’s ethics of care are all parallel to each other. Kuhn (2007) concludes:

To the extent that a student is ego-involved rather than task-involved, academic activities come to serve primarily as occasions for evaluating ones competencies relative to others.... Highly privileged children especially feel that they can afford to invest only

in those activities in which they excel. Suppose, instead, we were able to redirect students' attention to the meanings they attach to their schoolwork, rather than to their ability. (p. 758)



FIGURE 2. Gilligan's Stages of Ethical Care. (From Wyckoff, 2012)

When it comes to ethics and deciding what is right, one specific definition may not seem specific enough. Saunders and Butts (2011) states:

Integrity is one of those essential yet highly ambiguous concepts. Although no definition can perfectly communicate the intricacies and subtleties inherent in the term integrity, the following definitions communicates the essential essence of those concept. For the purpose of this [article], integrity is defined as the combination of both attributes and actions that makes entities appear to be whole and ethical, as well as consistent. (p. 67)

Saunders and Butts (2011) cites integrity as a combination of attributes and actions that creates consistency. This could be viewed as vague. Yet in sum, the notion is that one operates with a set of values. However, what does it mean to operate with integrity? Saunders and Butts goes on to say:

Operating with integrity certainly relies on congruence with ethical principles and virtues, but it extends further – to include an ability to analyze a problem of practice, to design a resolution, to summon the moral courage to actually enact the solution, and most importantly, to make midcourse corrections in light of multiple contexts and emerging self-understanding. (p. 76)

Saunders and Butts (2011) describes ethical standards as “essentially sets of rules derived from agreement among professionals that guide professional conduct” (p. 70). They describe virtues as describing “the character of the person seeking to operate with integrity, instead of the rules and consequences in standards and principles. Virtues focus on ‘who I should be’ rather than ‘what I should do’” (p. 71). These standards provide external guidelines that can influence personal and professional integrity. However, at the same time, they are derived from the social and cultural norms, and may be limited to particular contexts and are not necessarily universal.

“Learning how to think carefully about ethical principles, moral values, and personal beliefs is the first step towards practicing with integrity. The multi-dimensional nature of student affairs work requires additional steps and these steps involve action and reflection after action” (Saunders & Butts, 2011, p. 71). Research has brought to light that college students of various faiths are interested in merging their spiritual lives with their lives as learners. In this way, Perry’s intellectual development scheme (as cited in Eljamal, Stark, Arnold, & Sharp, 1999) and the paradigms of Gilligan (2008) and Kolberg (1984) set a firm framework for students to intellectually, ethically, and morally develop at the same time.

Large-data studies of students on a national scope with the North American context indicate the current generation of college students has a high interest in merging their spiritual lives with their lives as learners. However, each national and regional context would possibly yield a specific result. It cannot be assumed that Korean university students



would produce the same results. So, within this discussion, there is no single, conclusive way to identify how Korean students would excel and on what level or levels (i.e., ethics, morals, responsibility), but it is reasonable to say that it would be difficult for any one student to excel at all three simultaneously. Each spiritual and emotional value level of development evolves independently, although in parallel. However, it is important to consider these three levels of beliefs when addressing instruction, as each student will be at their own level of development on each level and will process instruction accordingly.

It is important to bear in mind that college life is a period when students are very vulnerable to struggling with their spirituality. Spirituality means something different to everyone. For some, it refers to participating in organized *religion*: going to a church, synagogue, mosque, and so on. For others, it is more personal and signifies being in touch with their spiritual side through private reflection, *meditation*, and so on. Here, spirituality encompasses both definitions. So, *spiritual struggle* is an experience familiar to many students whose college years are marked by a range of new encounters, reflections on purpose and life meaning, and by efforts to understand the world in which they live. However, struggle can be positive, even though associated with feeling overwhelmed, stressed, depressed, and/or anxious, if students have the appropriate support and resources available to them to overcome challenges. Teachers can be part of this process by incorporating issues and topics that require students to examine, assess, evaluate, and contemplate abstract societal and human issues in conjunction with curriculum topics. Allowing students to apply higher-order thinking skills, resolve conflicts, and overcome challenges will develop them academically and cognitively, while permitting them to shape their worldview and their values.

### **Korea: Transition to University**

In the current South Korean university system, students primarily undergo two major transitions. The transitions are mostly characterized by gender. All students enter into university as freshman with a euphoric expectation of freedom that was not possible in high school. Baer (2008) points out that “while the focus here is on interpretation of student behavior in relation to learning, it is useful to note that staff expectations can impact student performance at university” (p. 304). At the university

underclassmen stage, the intellectual needs of females can often be assumed to be the easiest to anticipate because Korean female students are typically all the same age and at the same stage in life. They can be seen as a homogenous group, yet they are not. Each individual has her own background and experiences, presenting distinct needs during the transition to college. Teachers need to be aware of this and not group all female freshman together.

The assumption for Korean male university students also presents conflict. It can be assumed that the intellectual needs of males are a bit more difficult to decipher due to the varied stages, and ages, of men during their early university years due to military service and their experiences. Though Korean males may be freshmen, many of them are not parallel with what Perry articulates as the intellectual development scheme. Baer (2008) states:

Although not usually applied to student learning, the links are straightforward: the separation of many students from home and school into a university setting; the period of transition in which a person grapples with ways of learning in tertiary education; and the incorporation into the university culture. In applying this concept, it is useful to reflect on the different rituals that accompany a student's transitions in learning. (p. 306)

While young university females in Korea may be assumed to parallel with Perry's intellectual development theme, young university men seem to be distinct and do not fit the traditional mold.

If university teachers are unaware of the previous learning environment of their students, or do not consider it relevant to teaching, they will fail to be effective support. Awareness of the learning process can help facilitate more learning. However, people often learn without realizing it until later, in both the classroom and in everyday life. It is not a simple dichotomy of knowing or not knowing what is happening; there are layers of awareness and knowing. Students' awareness and development as learners may be reflected in their transition to university. According to Perry's schema, at the beginning of university many students see learning as right-wrong dichotomies, with answers coming from teachers and textbooks. Over time, students progress along Perry's schema towards more critical engagements with ideas realizing that they must use their own best judgment in a world of uncertainties. As

students progress along Perry's schema, they develop more awareness of multiplicity of viewpoints other than their own" (Baer, 2008, p. 306).

Today, in Korea, a university education is thought of as a requirement instead of a privilege. Thus, students approach learning and their professors differently than decades ago, and it is important to understand how students approach university and its value to them. Pike and Kuh (2005) indicates that "students today are different from their counterparts of three and four decades ago. Women have outnumbered men for more than 15 years, and the participation rates for members of historically underrepresented groups have made impressive gains" (p. 276). In Korea, the main reason that women are thriving academically, more than their male counterparts, is due to social obligation. The education system at the undergraduate university level is pretty much parallel to one's intellectual development at that stage. In Korea, this educational dynamic enables them to thrive academically. However, many men experience frustration academically. A typical South Korean male sophomore may be about 25 years old. Having had some hands-on tactile experience such a military service, internships, study abroad programs, their worldview often exceeds what is expected of them in the classroom (e.g., lecture style instruction) and can result in intellectual conflict or a disconnect with the learning process.

English language learning is a mandatory part of university studies, and the emphasis shifted to focus on communicative language teaching, with proficiency and real-life application as the goal. This approach develops students' listening, speaking, reading and writing. However, Korean EFL university educators are, directly and indirectly, dictated by standardized tests, such as TOEIC, and frequently shift focus from communicative language learning to a focus on grammar and standardized test-taking strategies. Then, when job competition becomes rigorous, companies are in a position to be more selective. With test scores as criteria for assessing language ability, businesses often find that recent graduates can read and write well but lack conversational proficiency. Also, the reverse is true. Some recent graduates have excellent speaking, conversational, and interpersonal skills, but lack reading proficiency. Therefore, test scores are not indicative of language ability. As Romer (2003) states, "Postmodern assessment cannot be built on the idea of judgment" (p. 323). It is an uncomfortable, awkward dynamic when EFL education changes to accommodate the demands of the society, only to find that the demands of society had ideologies that

lead to an unexpected outcome. Yet as of now, the current trend in Korea is to teach for the achievement of standardized English language tests. Assessment is a retrospective approach comparing achievements of teaching and learning; thus, it is part of a retrospective process. Assessment in this case is understood as judgment rather than evaluation (p. 323). In this situation, there are some discrepancies between what society demands and what is practical for students' education. Bridging the gap between what is practical and what is in the best interest of the students and the expectation of society will not be an easy task; it is possible. Kavaliauskienė and Anusienė (2008) assert that "the linguistic competence of language learners depends of the quality of learning and teaching at the tertiary level" (p. 124). Teachers here play a role in balancing the demands for both standardized test preparation as well as communicative language proficiency.

## DISCUSSION

From the literature, most of the findings indicate that students at the traditional university age are at a stage of simultaneous intellectual, ethical, and moral development. At this stage, there are many dynamics occurring at the same time. For the first time in their lives, students may have the opportunity to interact with people from various backgrounds.

The development of tolerance, appreciation, and respect for human differences is a challenge immediately faced by students who, coming to college or university, discover a wide variety of people different from themselves. These differences may be in gender, race, religion, nationality, sexual orientation, attitude, viewpoint, values, beliefs or perspective. The students probably face a more diverse environment than they have previously encountered on a daily basis. Dealing with this diversity requires acceptance and appreciation of differences, empathy, tolerance, and the ability to suspend judgment and try to understand different, possibly unsettling ways of thinking and acting. (Guthrie, 1997, p. 26)

## Implications and Practical Applications

In the Korean EFL university setting, assessment models typically

include requirements such as attendance, participation, speaking interviews, midterm exams, and presentations. These influence students' self-reflection on their academic achievement. At the onset of each semester, EFL university students are usually issued a course syllabus outlining expectations for success. Once given and an understanding of the expectations emerges for students, they then have decisions to make:

1. The initial decision is self-reflection. The self-reflection process involves taking an in-depth inventory of one's academic strengths and weaknesses. In the EFL setting, one's academic weaknesses provide opportunities for growth. For example, once a student reflects and identifies that they should improve their ability, the identification is an integral part of the learning process.
2. The next step is to create goals for the semester. What is the expected end? Students should self-reflect and decide what it is that they want to get out of a course. What is the goal? Is the goal to get an A? Is the goal to increase speaking confidence? Is the goal to make friends? Once students decide what they would like to get from a course, academic achievement is more obtainable.
3. There are actions that students should make to ensure that they are successful. In order to achieve goals set for a course, students should decide what needs to be done to accomplish and obtain what they want. Should they get a conversation partner? Should they create a study group? Students should answer such questions as a form of self-reflection and follow through with appropriate responses for one's own situation.

## **Recommendations for Implementing Support**

The following are recommendations of how teachers can tangibly and practically implement support for EFL university students in their classrooms.

1. At the onset of the semester, it is imperative to establish a set of clear expectations. Let students know what is expected. Address issues such as how assessments are calculated.
2. University EFL students thrive on timely feedback. Set students up for success.
3. Accommodate students wherever they are. Find out where they are

and where they want to go. Where they are currently implies a student's current language proficiency and where they want to go implies the students' ultimate goal. Once you (as a professor) find out where a student would like to go, the process of leading them there will be easier.

4. Prepare students for upcoming assignments. Student performance on assignments is largely related to confidence rather than ability. This is another reason why self-reflection is important.
5. Encourage positive self-talk. Students will obtain what they profess. There are students who actively do all that they can to improve. They take classes, study extra hours, get involved with several language exchange programs, and really try everything that they can; however, on a daily basis, they verbally repeat beliefs such as "My English is so bad." Positive self-talk is imperative for speaking confidence and extends to overall academic achievement.

## CONCLUSIONS

The university years are an exciting time in the lives of students. At this age, they are developing in various aspects: intellectually, spiritually, and ethically. Academic practitioners have a responsibility to be mindful of the unique needs of students at each developmental stage:

Learning how to think carefully about ethical principles, moral values, and personal beliefs is the first step towards practicing with integrity. The multi-dimensional nature of student affairs work requires additional steps and these steps involve action and reflection after action. (Saunders & Butts, 2011, p. 71)

Academic practitioners have an obligation to know how students are most motivated to thriving academically. The classroom is a place of learning and, therefore, an appropriate setting for discussing both academic and emotional frameworks of development:

Teaching integrity is intertwined with integrity-laden professional practice. If we want students to gain deeper learning about integrity, they need to see similar behavior and hear similar messages from a variety of professionals in a variety of contexts. Both faculty and practitioners need to be engaged in deep reflection about standards,

virtues, and personal guidelines of integrity; they need to talk about ethical dilemmas and they need to be clear, consistent, and transparent in their decision making. (Saunders & Butts, 2011, p. 75).

Almost anyone teaching in an institution believes in its mission and strives to help students integrate emotional and academic growth to mature throughout their college years. For institutions, with a religious mission, educators integrate their faith into teaching. For Korean Christian intuitions, teachers' combine their Christian faith with their lived experience as a working model to foster students' spiritual development." A balanced enrollment in diverse courses fosters both cognitive and spiritual development, as students encounter new ideas and experiences and make sense of their worldview. College students negotiate their developing identities as well within the world through social learning outside of the classroom. Teachers develop more than just the minds of students, and bearing this in mind, they can become teachers that are more effective in positively influencing students as a whole being.

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## **Book Reviews**

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## Written Corrective Feedback for L2 Development

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*John Bitchener and Neomy Storch.*

*Bristol, UK: Multimedia Matters, 2016.*

*Pages: 155. (ISBN 978-1-78309-504-9 Hardback, 978-1-78309-503-2 Paperback)*

**Reviewed by Carl Vollmer**

### INTRODUCTION

Filled with drastically contrasting results and arguments, written corrective feedback research has seemingly provided more questions than answers. Bitchener and Storch deliver a review of current research on written corrective feedback, but more importantly provide a theoretical framework for furthering the field through a stronger base in our current understanding of the language learning process. One of the stated goals of the book is to support an area separate from the more common, pedagogically motivated research. This book thus provides a reflection on what we know and a vision for where research needs to focus moving forward.

While having prior knowledge of written corrective feedback research might seem to fit the reflective nature of the book, readers interested in an introduction to the field will also find the book useful as a starting point for research. The overview of studies is particularly useful in guiding the reader to additional research on written corrective feedback. This book can provide value to researchers, experienced and inexperienced alike, as a means to consider how to conduct research in a way that paints a fuller picture of various aspects of written corrective feedback.

## SUMMARY OF CONTENTS

This book contains six chapters on various cognitive and sociocultural aspects of written corrective feedback. While each chapter builds an argument in its own right, reading sequentially would be beneficial to understanding the entire framework. While detailing all points of the book is challenging, this review will proceed through the book sequentially, briefly introducing key ideas and highlighting points of particular interest.

In Chapter 1, key terms and concepts are introduced and the content of each chapter is briefly summarized. A distinction is drawn between L2 development and L2 learning or L2 acquisition because L2 development is more specific to the various stages associated with growth in language ability. Thus, it is argued that understanding the role of written corrective feedback as one aspect in language development is more accurate to all associated aspects rather than to claim learning or acquisition occurred based on feedback. In addition, the argument against written corrective feedback leveled by Truscott (1996) is also introduced as a way to show the uncertainty of the field. Truscott suggests that there is no compelling evidence that written corrective feedback is beneficial and should be abandoned. This argument runs counter to commonly held beliefs among teachers and has raised doubt about further investigation of written corrective feedback, with very little in terms of unifying results as of yet. Out of this uncertainty comes the framework that is presented in later chapters in order to answer questions about written corrective feedback raised by Truscott and to bring greater clarity to the processes of written corrective feedback.

Chapters 2 and 3 offer a cognitive perspective to conduct and interpret written corrective feedback research within the larger field of second language acquisition. These chapters focus on how corrective feedback is processed by the learner during L2 development and how the process can then be utilized in research. Of particular interest is the historical view of corrective feedback seen in Chapter 3. Pre-Truscott and post-Truscott studies are summarized and show changes in the field. Various studies are compared and commentary is provided on the limitations of each study and ways the studies could be improved from a cognitive perspective. The authors contend that a major flaw in a large section of corrective feedback research is a lack of revised versions of

texts, making it difficult to claim feedback was effective. It is thus argued that future research must include multiple drafts of writing to help in understanding the effectiveness of written feedback.

Chapters 4 and 5 address the potential use of sociocultural perspectives in research, especially focusing on the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD; Vygotsky, 1978) and activity theory. It is argued that written corrective feedback should be viewed as a mediation tool to promote scaffolding within the ZPD to achieve language development. Action theory is also introduced as a means of interpreting research where the individual is dependent on the social context in which they are positioned. In this way, the context of a study and how the individual is affected are relevant to interpretations of research data. It is thus argued that classroom observation, interviews, and other forms of data are highly valuable because they provide research with a greater understanding of how students and teachers orient to certain forms of feedback. Instead of assuming results are only being impacted by the type of feedback, Bitchener and Storch argue that without clear evidence from the context in which a study occurred, it is difficult to build a strong claim about results. The use of these sociocultural constructs helps lead the reader into Chapter 5, which reviews studies that have used sociocultural perspectives. This compilation of research is helpful to understand how these ideas can be implemented into further research.

Chapter 6 reviews the ideas from the previous chapters and gives a few final thoughts on them. There are also recommendations for how research on written corrective feedback should proceed. The most impactful of these recommendations for me was the call for further replication research to solidify our understanding of corrective feedback by using already established methods, but also giving considerations to the theoretical framework proposed in this book.

## EVALUATION

While this book provides a valuable framework and insightful review of relevant research, it does not come without weaknesses as well. One such issue is how Bitchener and Storch recommend approaching prior studies that used more pedagogically driven approaches as opposed to the theoretical framework they are proposing. The overall argument is

reminiscent of task-based research from Seedhouse (2005), in which context and the reality of how development proceeds needs to be emphasized. However, unlike Seedhouse, this book is still unclear on how we should balance this new theoretical framework with prior research. Are we to ignore or discount all research that is not influenced by the proposed sociocultural and cognitive framework, or is this proposal to be seen as just one piece of a larger puzzle? These questions could have been discussed in greater detail to bring greater understanding to the exact vision of future research being proposed in this book.

For those interested in researching written corrective feedback, this book will provide insight into possible directions for further research. While the book provides some commentary for practicing teachers on how to do corrective feedback, this is mostly a research-oriented book. Overall, this book provides an excellent summary or introduction to the field, depending on your level of expertise, and should influence studies in the years to come.

## THE REVIEWER

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## **Teacher Cognition and Language Education: Research and Practice**

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*Simon Borg.*

*London, UK: Bloomsbury Academic, 2015.*

*Pages: 376. (ISBN-13: 978-1472532060 Paperback)*

**Reviewed by Peng Wu and Shulin Yu**

### **INTRODUCTION**

Interest in the study of language teacher cognition has rapidly grown in the past 30 years. Collective efforts have explored language teacher cognition ranging from teachers' psychological process and teacher knowledge to teacher belief. Professor Borg's book crystallizes such collective efforts in this field during the 1970s to 2005 in the contexts of first language (L1), second language (L2), and foreign language (FL) education. His book comprehensively reviews the studies on teacher cognition over the past 30 years, intending to bridge teacher cognition and teachers' classroom performance. Given the book's significance in providing immense resources and as a valuable guide for teacher cognition research, it was re-published in the Bloomsbury Classics in Linguistics series in 2015 after first being published in 2006.

### **SUMMARY OF CONTENTS**

This book starts with a chronological introduction to contemporary studies on language teacher cognition. The introduction identifies trends in different decades. The main body consists of eight chapters with different foci. These chapters are thematically categorized into two parts: research themes and research methodology. The first part (Chapters 2–5) reports the studies on language teacher cognition in different contexts

and curricular domains. The second part (Chapters 6–9) discusses the four research methods that are extensively applied to studies on language teacher cognition. This book concludes with a framework for research on language teacher cognition in the hope that studies can be perceived from a unified agenda and further studies can be conducted from a programmatic approach.

Chapter 1 reports a comprehensive review of the research on language teacher cognition since the 1970s and thus examines the trend of contemporary research in this field. This chapter aims to provide a panorama of research on teachers' knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs. Borg fully understands and embraces the diversity and complexity in teacher cognition research. Therefore, he provides access to a wide array of concepts when teacher cognition is perceived and discussed from different viewpoints. However, themes for each decade are identified despite the various concepts in this chapter. The identified themes help readers understand the nature of the research on language teaching when the focus shifts from external performance to teachers' psychological process.

Chapters 2–5 review 180 studies on language teacher cognition, which are organized according to contexts and curricular domains. The review indicates the orientation of teacher cognition research, distinguishing two key areas of empirical studies: teacher education (Chapter 2) and in-service teacher working environments (Chapter 3). The former stresses the influence of prior cognition on pre-service teachers, whereas the latter emphasizes the transformation of teacher knowledge into teaching practice among in-service teachers. Regardless of the variety among the 180 studies, Borg manages to identify themes in pre-service teacher education and in-service teachers' daily work. The studies are classified under different themes. Hence, major issues are examined, such as the relationship between teachers' cognition and their practice, cognitive change through training programs among pre-service language teachers (Chapter 2) and in-service teachers, novice teachers, and experienced teachers (Chapter 3). Chapters 4 and 5 focus on two curricular domains in language teaching, namely, grammar teaching and literacy teaching. Studies on grammar teaching (Chapter 4) provide sufficient evidence that teacher cognition serves as a key factor in deciding classroom instruction, with an extensive discussion on teacher's language awareness, beliefs, and knowledge. Teacher cognition studied in the context of literacy teaching (Chapter 5) supports a theoretically



close relationship between teachers' cognition and their reading and writing instruction, but evidence in the L2 and FL contexts is comparatively inadequate.

Chapters 6–9 discuss four widely adopted data collection strategies in language teacher cognition research: self-report instruments, verbal communication, observation, and reflective writing. Research method is a vital issue to investigate teacher cognition, which is a phenomenon that is difficult to describe through one specific data collection method such as direct observation (Park & Oliver, 2008). Borg's discussion has a narrower scope but is of more practical value for researchers than other studies focusing on a general approach to research methodology (Merriam, 2009; Creswell, 2013). The discussion specifies the four data collection strategies in terms of their entailment, specific methods or instruments, and strengths and weaknesses. Chapter 6 examines the gap between the measurement of teacher cognition and that of teacher practice. It also points out the limitation of self-report instruments in exploring complex teacher cognition despite its effectiveness in data collection. Chapter 7 confirms the strength of verbal commentaries in representing teachers' mental lives and then specifies a range of structured and unstructured methods. Chapter 8 evaluates the merits and threats of observation in studying language teacher cognition. Observation is a valuable strategy that provides adequate data on teachers' practice only if conducted properly with high skill and sensitivity in planning and implementation. Chapter 9 discusses the capacity of reflective writing to provide data on insight into teachers' thinking and practice. However, reflective writing is the least adopted strategy because it requires additional commitment and effort.

## EVALUATION

The prominent features of this book include its well-categorized review and a reader-friendly structure. The content is featured in a comprehensive and insightful review of studies on language teacher cognition. Borg highlights important research themes and issues after examining 180 studies in this area. He also discusses four widely adopted research methods on the basis of sufficient evidence from previous studies. The reader-friendly structure enables readers to

understand important concepts and conclusions. The comprehensive literature review avoids bombarding readers with vast amounts of fragmented information. Instead, Borg deliberately organizes information to facilitate access. Each chapter starts with a brief introduction and ends with a summary, highlighting important concepts. Subtitles are added to categorize studies into different themes. A large number of tables are adopted, briefing the studies to be discussed and providing the readers with an overview.

This book's significant contribution is the introduction of a framework for research on language teacher cognition. Borg reviews 180 studies on language teacher cognition since the 1970s and categorizes them under different headings. Consequently, these otherwise fragmented studies conducted in different periods and regions are properly organized, illustrating the orientation of research in this area. A framework is proposed, based on the review, with which the previous studies can be examined from a unified perception. Moreover, future studies on language teacher cognition can focus on the prominent research concepts in this framework but also expand on them in breadth and depth. In particular, the review of specific research methodology can assist future researchers. This book thoroughly discusses four research methods, evaluating their strengths and weaknesses with concrete examples. Such a detailed discussion can help researchers determine a proper research method for their future studies.

Potential readers of this book, including frontline teachers, teacher educators, and policymakers, will obtain much useful information. This book will inspire both pre-service and in-service teachers to re-examine their self-initiated role in classroom instruction. The book examines the two contexts in which pre-service and in-service teachers study and work. Therefore, pre-service and in-service teachers can learn from and find inspiration in the corresponding findings. For example, the studies reviewed in different curricular domains may draw in-service teachers' attention to the conscious link between their thinking and teaching practice. This knowledge will ultimately help them improve their teaching practice through a re-examination of their beliefs in relation to a specific course. Moreover, the book introduces a new perception of teacher education, and thus prompts teacher educators to shift their focus from external performance to an internal mindset. In addition, policymakers can recognize the key role of teachers in educational innovation and make the right decisions concerning teachers.

However, the re-publication of the book fails to include the latest studies related to teacher cognition. The growing interest in teacher cognition has triggered extensive research in different contexts since 2006 when the book was first published. Findings from this more recent research, if they had been included, would have enriched the book's discussion of research on language teacher cognition. In addition, teacher cognition in literacy instruction (Chapter 5) is not particularly convincing because it is chiefly based on data from L1 studies. The addition of new data from other contexts such as ESL education (Barnard & Burns, 2012) would have reinforced the conclusion.

In sum, *Teacher Cognition and Language Education: Research and Practice* is a well-written review that provides invaluable information for teachers, researchers, teacher educators, and policymakers.

## THE REVIEWERS

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## Assessing Second Language Reading

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Nooreiny Maarof

Singapore: Partridge Singapore, 2016.

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**Reviewed by Jeongim Choi**

### INTRODUCTION

It is often the case that assessments inevitably drive instruction (Aiken, 1987; Jorsey, 1987). To promote effective educational goals, curriculum design includes the results of assessments in order to inform, revise, and complement instruction (Jenks, 1981). Not many would deny the significance of assessments, but there is consensus that gauging adequately what learners acquire is challenging for most teachers. *Assessing Second Language Reading* is for those looking for alternative methods of assessing learners' reading comprehension for research purposes and classroom use. It provides a theoretical overview of reading theories and describes how written recall, an alternative testing method, could be implemented extensively. Both quantitative and qualitative analyses of the effects of two different types of tasks, immediate written recall and multiple-choice, are provided.

### SUMMARY OF CONTENTS

This volume comprises ten chapters, four appendices, and references. Chapter 1 begins by describing changes in perspective regarding reading comprehension and then moves on to argue that these changes should be reflected in assessment measures. The limitations of traditional assessment practices in reading comprehension, such as multiple-choice

(MC) tasks, are illustrated; it is also reasoned that the use of multiple measures using both product and process measures are needed (Bernhardt, 1991). The author then introduces assessment approaches that are in line with the current theoretical view of reading and concludes that written recall protocol provides both quantitative and qualitative information useful for diagnostic and instructional purposes. Emphasizing the importance of understanding the process of reading in order to adequately measure readers' comprehension, Chapter 2 touches on the theories of various reading models. Bottom-up, top-down, and interactive models of reading are explained. For those who are not familiar with these theories, this chapter condenses the major points of reading theories as well as the history of reading.

Chapter 3 explores the concepts of schemata and reading. The notion of schemata and related domains of knowledge, such as Gestalt psychology, are also examined. The author discusses Grabe's (1991) view regarding the intuitive appeal of schema theory and its instructional implications (e.g., pre-reading exercises, semantic mapping) and claims it provides a plausible description of the complexity of the reading comprehension process. Chapter 4 aims to reach a comprehensive understanding about constructivism in second language reading. Views on true knowledge and radical constructivism are touched upon in this chapter. The author contends that constructivism offers a new and viable perspective of theory and research in the area of reading and that it has generated awareness of the inter-relatedness of reading and writing (Stotsky, 1983; Grabe, 1991). Bernhardt's constructivist model of second language reading (1983, 1991), and the use of the written recall and its advantages in assessing comprehension of the texts are also illustrated.

Continuing from the previous chapter, Chapter 5 details factors involved in assessing comprehension. Maarof suggests that the change in perspective on what constitutes reading is not apparent in the area of reading assessment (Bernhardt, 1991; Winograd, Paris, & Bridge, 1991) and explicates reasons for this disparity, especially in the United States' context. While discussing the definition of comprehension, arguments about product and process approaches in assessments are discussed. The author concurs with the perspective that the use of product approaches is significant. Issues related to the process and product views of comprehension are also discussed in this chapter. In Chapter 6, the author moves away from theories of comprehension and assessments, and illustrates the written recall technique and multiple-choice tasks. The

author asserts that there appears to be a tendency toward using product measures over process measures and calls for the use of a combination of the two. Studies that utilized the two common assessment approaches, written recall and multiple-choice questions, are comprehensively examined, while their advantages, limitations, and information on effects of different methods on students' scores are discussed, and admonitions while implementing are also given.

Chapter 7 describes research conducted by Maarof comparing two testing measures, the immediate written recall (IWR) task and the multiple-choice (MC) task. Both quantitative analysis and qualitative analysis of the investigation and their findings are thoroughly delineated. The author concludes that despite the disadvantages of using the written recall technique, its advantages far outweigh its minor drawbacks. Chapter 8 moves on to providing a detailed description of the written recall procedure, its characteristics, and its scoring system. Maarof stresses that much research supports the conclusion that IWR is a valid and useful means of demonstrating what non-fluent readers encounter in their attempt to comprehend a given text. Samples of a scoring template and unedited IWR protocols are found in the appendix of the book.

Pedagogical implications for language teachers are discussed in Chapter 9. Analysis of written recall protocols identifies students' problems when reconstructing their understanding of the text, which in turn informs teachers of appropriate instructional modification. Teaching instructional strategies and developing reading skills based upon the weaknesses found through the written recall task are also discussed. Emphasizing that the IWR task is a useful instrument that provides quantity and quality of information in the readers' construction of meaning, Maarof concludes that both MC tasks and the IWR technique should be utilized to complement each other to achieve a comprehensive view of reader comprehension. Arguing that readers are no longer passive recipients of knowledge, the portfolio assessment method is proposed as another alternative assessment in Chapter 10. After characteristics and definitions of portfolio assessments are explained, a case study conducted in Malaysia illustrates portfolio assessment. Maarof notes that it not only provides information on students' progress and acquisition of certain skills, but also helps students to identify their weaknesses and promote a sense of ownership of them. Stages in developing portfolio tasks in an ESL reading class are shown in detail and readers may utilize them with a little modification.

## EVALUATION

One of the most useful aspects of this book is that the author outlines the history of reading research, from its beginnings about a hundred years ago to contemporary times. Multiple perspectives in assessment are offered in an effort to inform readers on what should be considered when developing and implementing reading assessments. It provides an explanation of current views of reading and demonstrates that the present state of knowledge regarding the reading process is formed through interdisciplinary research. While illustrating theories, views from proponents and critics of the theories are presented. In addition, concepts and terminology related to reading theories are explained with great care; hence, those who are not familiar with reading assessment theories will appreciate the author's extensive explanations.

While Chapters 1–5 describe theories with regards to reading process, comprehension, and assessments, Chapters 6–10 examine what the author considers to be one of the most adequate assessment methods, its procedures, and an investigation of results. Therefore, this book attracts both researchers and classroom teachers in the sense that it provides valuable insights and a theoretical overview of reading comprehension and assessment, while offering practical advice on developing and administering reading assessments.

One shortcoming of this book is the lack of visual aids such as tables and figures to help readers understand the content quickly and easily. If figures or other visual materials had been adequately incorporated in describing and comparing theories, they could have been more easily understood. Secondly, most of the studies mentioned in this volume were conducted before 2000. Recent research is not discussed sufficiently, so it would have been prudent to explore more recent studies in greater detail.

Despite these minor drawbacks, this is a great book that delivers on the promise of providing researchers and classroom practitioners with valuable information regarding alternative assessment methods. Theories of reading and research findings from multiple assessment techniques are extensively examined in this volume. I personally liked the idea of using the written recall technique as a preliminary test to gauge students' strengths and weaknesses in comprehension. Test developers could utilize the results presented in this volume for constructing multiple-choice



questions consistent with current theories of reading comprehension and an interactive view of reading. Overall, *Assessing Second Language Reading* is enjoyable reading for anyone interested in reading comprehension and assessment methods, especially those who are new to the field.

## THE REVIEWER

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## 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.

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Inquiries/manuscripts to: [journal@koreatesol.org](mailto:journal@koreatesol.org)

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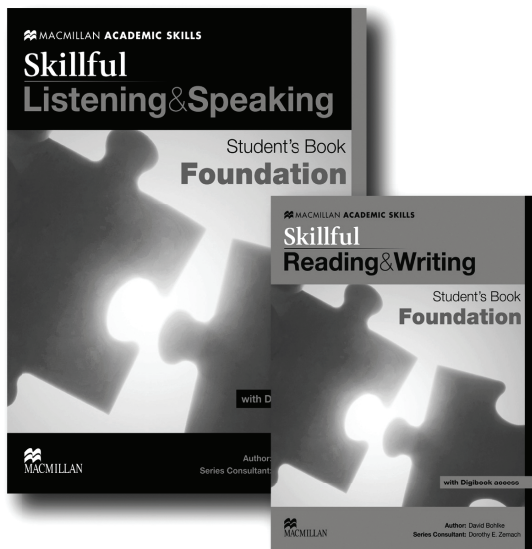
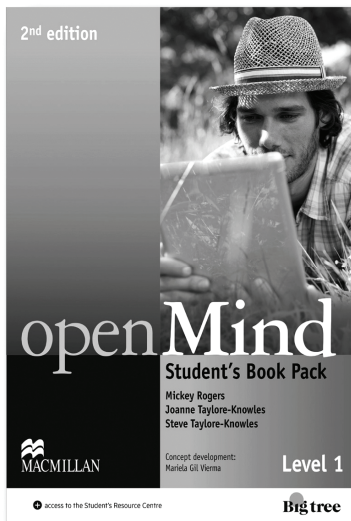
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