Korea TESOL Journal

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Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

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The *Korea TESOL Journal* is a peer-reviewed journal, welcoming previously unpublished practical and scholarly articles on topics of significance to individuals concerned with the teaching of English as a foreign language.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

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

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

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About Korea TESOL

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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Invited Paper

Writing and Reading: A Joint Journey Through Ideas

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For both learners and teachers, the concepts and conventions involved in learning to write English for academic purposes can sometimes seem daunting in their complexity. They may also hinder learners from finding their own voice. This article proposes a simple model for successful writing based on the metaphor that writing and reading together constitute a joint journey through ideas. A successful writer leads the reader through these ideas, adopting the reader's perspective and providing appropriate signals in the text to guide progress. A teacher who adopts this model may first encourage students (as in all writing) to find their own voice and later to take account of the specific conventions involved in writing for academic purposes.

Keywords: writing and reading as a joint journey, conventions and personal voice

INTRODUCTION

For many of us, when we first begin to teach students to write for academic purposes, it is not only a pedagogical venture but also a daunting first encounter with the multitude of concepts and categories that are now used to describe the skills and strategies of effective writing. If we have not done so already, this is when we come to grips seriously with the notion of the "genre." Underlying this notion is the idea that the academic community − like every other community − produces and evaluates its written texts according to the rules and conventions it has established. As a result, there are numerous types of written text that are recognized as the main "genres" of the academic

community − for example, the research report, the journal article, and the academic essay. In order to equip our students to operate successfully as members of their new community, we must teach them the conventions its members use when they produce the genres that are most important to them. In relation to the academic essay, for example, we need to teach them elements such as

- different styles of argumentation and when they are appropriate,
- how to use topic sentences and to structure paragraphs around them,
- how to avoid making unjustified generalizations and to support those which they do make,
- how to use sources and to cite from them without committing the sin of plagiarism,
- how to state problems,
- how to use logical connectors,
- and so on.

Rinnert (2019) gives a clear analysis of factors that may contribute to the effectiveness of introductions and conclusions in EFL writers' argumentation essays.

Personally, I felt confused at first by the sheer number of elements that were apparently necessary to teach in order to "socialize the student into the academic context" (Silva, 1990, p. 17). More than this, I felt uninspired by the thought that the goal of teaching was merely to teach our students to produce "a more or less conventional response to a particular task type that falls into a recognizable genre" (Silva, 1990, p. 17). Since that time, the volume and scope of relevant research has accumulated, and the relationship between academic writing and wider aspects of socialization and identity development or transformation has been a central concern (Duff, 2010; Farnese et al., 2022; Flowerdew & Wang, 2015).

My initial response may have had something to do with the fact that I myself was inducted into the academic context through works of literature, compared to which the style of much academic writing was, in my perception, somewhat dull and uninspiring. Perhaps it really is necessary to instill the conventions of such writing into lively young minds, but we should think very hard before making such a decision.

A second concern, which was related to the first, was the question

of where this approach to the teaching of writing stood in relation to an issue that permeates all language teaching, namely, the need to balance the creative aspects of language use with the constraints of accuracy and social convention. To me, it seemed that many genre-based approaches set out to impose the external academic voice too early before students had had enough opportunity to create a voice of their own.

A third source of my questioning was my own experience as a writer. Like other writers from the days before genre analysis, I wrote my own books and articles without any conscious awareness of argument structure, topic sentences, or any of the other concepts that we use in order to analyze writing for our students. My own struggles with words had been with simpler, but, it seemed to me, more fundamental problems, such as trying to

- clarify my messages to myself,
- project myself into my potential readers' minds,
- lay out my messages in the clearest, most comprehensible form that I could discover.

Though I was well aware of the limitations of the books I had written, it had become clear through reviews and conversations with teachers that, on the whole, they conveyed their meanings to most readers in a straightforward and accessible way.

WRITING AS AN ACT OF COMMUNICATION

These considerations did not lead me to an outright rejection of approaches to academic writing that emphasized the conventions of recognizable academic genres. Obviously, these conventions form part of the expectations of many people who read our students' texts and, if only for that reason, cannot be ignored in any reader-oriented approach to writing. Equally obviously, the conventions have evolved in order to serve certain purposes for writers and readers. To the extent, therefore, that our students share the same purposes, mastery of the same conventions can help them fulfill their own writing purposes more effectively and understand instances where their writing did not succeed in achieving its effect.

It seemed to me, however, that we needed to go further in

penetrating beneath the conventions of the genre and operating directly at the level of the purposes these conventions serve. In order to do this, we need to present students with a model of writing that is based not on the text-based categories that are used to analyze different academic genres but on a view of writing as an act of communication between the writer and reader. From this model, we can *subsequently* derive an account of how this act of communication is often − though not necessarily − carried out by different strategies in different text-types.

In other words, we need to focus first on the requirements of the act of communication itself and make these requirements the primary source of guidance in our advice about effective writing. The features of the different genres of written English should emerge as consequences. In working with students, we should start from writing as an extended act of communication and work gradually from there towards an awareness of the conventions of different genres − for example, of how a report is typically constructed in an academic context or how arguments are typically presented in an academic essay. Students should then experience these conventions as *motivated responses to the requirements of a particular kind of communication*. They should also be in a position to make principled decisions about whether to accept, adapt, or reject these conventions in their own writing.

In this article, I will present a simple model of writing based on the metaphor of a joint journey through ideas, which I have found useful in helping students and myself to perceive the requirements and characteristics of writing as an act of communication. First, I will look more closely at the notion of "communicative purpose" in relation to academic writing.

PURPOSES OF WRITING

In almost all forms of communication, two sets of purposes are operating simultaneously: pragmatic purposes and social purposes.

Pragmatic Purposes

The first set is concerned with the pragmatic effects of the communication, that is, whether the messages are conveyed effectively and accurately. These purposes are concerned with the necessary

conditions of communication, and it would make little sense to question them, unless a person wishes to be deliberately vague or confusing.

Social Purposes

The second set of purposes is concerned with the social effects of the *form* of the communication, that is, whether the communication conforms to the expectations of a particular social community, for example, in terms of appropriate register and level of formality. These purposes are concerned with conventional features of language use that have emerged within particular communities, and any individual may therefore decide to reject them if they are prepared to accept the social consequences.

To see how these two kinds of purpose are distinct in writing as well as in speaking, we might start by considering a simple written text such as a menu. Whether the menu is standing on the table of a five-star hotel or scribbled on the blackboard in a bar, its pragmatic functions are the same, namely, to inform the clients of (a) what they can eat and drink and (b) how much they have to pay. These common purposes lead to certain common features that ensure that the messages are conveyed effectively and clearly. Thus, each kind of menu must contain, at a minimum, a statement of the available items categorized in some way that will help the readers to locate what they want, accompanied by a statement of the corresponding prices. In other respects, however, there are obvious differences between the two texts. The conventions that operate in a five-star hotel simply do not allow for menus being scribbled on blackboards. The ornate menu of a five-star hotel would seem pretentious in a bar. Each belongs distinctly to its own social context, and they could not be interchanged, unless the writers wished to achieve some special kind of social effect.

If we transfer the discussion now to academic writing, we can distinguish the same two sets of purposes.

- Consideration of the effectiveness and accuracy of their communication requires writers to project themselves into the role of their readers, judge the extent of knowledge that their readers share with them (i.e., both at the start of the text and as it proceeds), structure and conceptualize their messages in an accessible form, and convey them in comprehensible language.

- Consideration of the social effects of their communication requires writers to be aware of the conventional ways in which particular kinds of written text are usually presented in academic contexts. For example, a typical research report is structured in predictable ways and includes sections that review previous work in the domain, establish the purpose of the present research, describe the methods used, set out the results, and discuss their implications.

In helping students to develop their academic writing skills in a second language, it is the first set of factors that are primary, since it is they that are fundamental to the success or failure of writing as communication. To the extent that the second set serve these primary communication needs, they will emerge naturally as outcomes of the first. To the extent that the second set are a matter of social convention within a particular discourse community, they will need to be taught as external constraints. This can only happen, however, after students have mastered the more fundamental processes that lie at the core of written communication.

In developmental terms, then, we need to begin by giving students a model of writing that emphasizes purposes relating to the effective and accurate communication of their ideas. These purposes will of themselves lead towards those conventions of academic writing that were developed in direct response to the requirements of communication. Other conventions can be brought to the students' awareness at a later stage as part of the process of "socialization."

A MODEL AND METAPHOR FOR WRITING IN ACADEMIC CONTEXTS

In this section, I will propose a simple way of looking at writing that is based on the metaphor of a journey the writer and the reader undertake together. More specifically, writing and reading together are seen as a joint journey through a landscape in which both travelers need to know at every point where they are and where they are heading. I have found this metaphor to be clear and meaningful to students. I have also found it useful as an integrating focus for the development of a variety of skills that might otherwise seem disparate. Although the metaphor is intended to serve as a concrete point of reference rather than

as a theoretical account, it can, in fact, be given theoretical underpinning, for example, through schema theory, in which the metaphor of the map is also commonly found.

This metaphor has its primary roots in my own experience as a writer of books and articles. Writing for me has always been a difficult task, and the most difficult task of all has been writing simply. This is because the need to write simply imposes particularly strict constraints in four major domains:

Conceptualization

First, in order to write simply, we have to conceptualize our messages with the maximum possible accuracy and clarity. Ideas and connections that seem clear when we express them in academic jargon can sometimes require a lot more thinking out when the jargon is stripped away, and we have to get down to the essence of what they really mean.

Structuring and Sequencing

Second, we have to structure and sequence the facts and ideas with the maximum possible logical consistency so that the links are clear and the reader has no difficulty in perceiving how we proceed from one point to the next. Again, I have found this constraint to be a hard and often humbling intellectual discipline. On many occasions, the need to express connections in simple terms has made me aware of missing links in my own thinking processes.

Linguistic Creativity

Third, we have to call on the full potential of our linguistic creativity. We need to experiment constantly with alternative ways of expressing the same idea and clarifying connections. We have to be sensitive to any formulation that might be vague or unclear, either in its superficial meaning or in its implications. We have to juggle with words so that readers perceive the structure of each sentence while they are actually reading it without having to backtrack. (Even in the previous sentence, for example, I experimented with the alternatives "in either its superficial meaning or its implications" as against "either in its

superficial meaning or in its implications" − a trivial distinction in itself, but one where one version might be just marginally easier to process than the other.)

Role-Taking

Fourth − and this is the most important and fundamental domain but one all too often neglected − all of the efforts described above will succeed only to the extent that, as writers, we can make an "imaginative leap" into the mind of our readers. This process (sometimes called "role-taking" or "anticipatory decoding") is crucial in all communications but makes particular demands in writing, since it has to be sustained throughout a long text and without ongoing feedback from the receiver. Writers must be simultaneously a writer and a reader, following the developing shared knowledge in the reader's mind and never overstepping it. They must take their readers by the hand, predicting their needs and their difficulties at all levels.

The levels at which the process of role-taking has to operate range from lower-level choices of language (e.g., in the last sentence of the previous paragraph, will my reader understand that "their" refers to "readers" rather than "writers," or should I clarify this?); through middle-level structuring (e.g., am I putting too many subpoints into the present sentence? Should I break it up or use bullet-point form?); to higher-level conceptual connections (e.g., have I made it clear that the "fourth point' in this section is, in a sense, not a separate point at all, but a higher-level condition on which the other three depend? Is there a simple way of making this clearer, without seeming obscure or pedantic?).

The constraints just described lie at the heart of all good writing. The need to write simply makes us become aware of them in especially powerful form.

The second source of the metaphor of writing as a journey through ideas was my experience of walking through the countryside around Hong Kong. As I traveled along the paths, I realized that what I wanted then from my map or from the leader of the group was precisely what my readers wanted from me as they traveled through my text. At any particular moment, we had two fundamental wishes: First, we wanted to be able to orient ourselves, to make sense of the area and the landmarks that we had already reached; second, we wanted to know where we were

going, in relation both to our general direction and to the immediate path before us. If we view writing and reading as a joint journey through ideas, we can see how effective writers serve their readers in similar ways.

First, good writers make their preparations for the trip. They make sure that they understand the journey fully themselves, in terms of both individual places they will visit and the route that links these places. In cognitive terms, they clarify their own schemata, both regarding the overall structure of the route and the landscape, and in terms of the specific objects of their attention. In practice, of course, this clarification continues during the process of writing, as writing forces the writer to re-think and re-visit ideas. The writer may need to explore the landscape several times before the final journey the writer and reader will make together.

Second, good writers seek to understand the minds and capabilities of their fellow travelers. They lead them along routes that are relevant to their needs. They keep themselves aware of what their companions have already seen in the landscape and anticipate what they still wish or need to see. They take account of their companions' capabilities, that is, how fast they can move forward, the kinds of challenge they can face, and so on.

Third, good writers make sure that their readers know where they are and where they are going. At the beginning, they make sure that their readers know enough about the area to be able to orient themselves, and they provide them with enough major signposts to know the general direction of the journey. As they proceed, they ensure that their companions know which specific paths they are to follow and, if necessary, provide localized signposts to show them the exact way.

Fourth, good writers pay attention to the micro-steps that their readers take as they move along the path. This is where the writer takes time deliberating on the appropriate use (or non-use) of such cohesive signals as *therefore*, *however*, *as a result*, and so on. For example, the superficially simple choice between *but* or *and* carries important signals about the attitudinal stance that the reader will adopt towards the information that follows (e.g., is it unusual? or only to be expected?).

CONCLUSIONS

As we have seen, many of the features that characterize good academic writing can be explained in simple and coherent ways if we explore the implications of viewing writing as an act of communication rather than as the production of recognizable genres. I have suggested that the metaphor of reading and writing as a joint journey through ideas can help us to link these features conceptually and pedagogically. In particular, it can help students become aware of the basic conditions that they must fulfill in their writing in order to convey their messages clearly and effectively. On this foundation, they can seek to express their own voice in their writing.

This approach does not exclude making students aware of the genre-specific conventions surrounding the production of academic written English. Many of these conventions will enter students' awareness as natural outcomes of their attempts to communicate complex messages clearly in writing. Others may need to be taught as more or less arbitrary conventions that the academic community has come to adopt. In either case, an awareness of them is an essential factor in enabling students to fulfill the second set of purposes described earlier, namely, those that relate to the social effects of their communication. Priority, however, needs to go to the fundamental requirements of writing as an extended act of communication between the writer and reader.

AUTHOR'S NOTE

The extended metaphor of writing and reading as a 'joint journey through ideas' was first used in a paper that I presented at a RELC Symposium in Singapore in 1995 (Littlewood, 1995). The original paper is no longer available; this is a revised and updated version.

THE AUTHOR

William (Bill) Littlewood has worked in secondary and tertiary education in the UK and Hong Kong. He is currently Professor Emeritus at the Hong Kong Baptist University. His books *Communicative Language Teaching* and *Foreign and Second Language Learning* have been used widely in teacher education.

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Research Papers

Assessing the Effectiveness of Flashcard Applications in Korean University EFL Classrooms

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To assess the effectiveness of flashcard applications in the Korean university EFL classroom, twenty-five students enrolled in a condensed Basic Modern English course at a private university used the free version of Quizlet before completing a questionnaire based on their user experience, previous use of flashcards, and whether they would continue to use flashcard applications in the future. The results demonstrated that while more than half of the participants were using flashcards for the first time, the students generally reported positive user experiences with Quizlet and indicated that they would use flashcard applications in their future English and major studies. The students also reported a preference for flashcards over previously used methods of vocabulary learning. Most students supported the future implementation of flashcard applications in Korean university EFL classrooms, although limited Quizlet use outside of the classroom was reported. Furthermore, paywall-related limitations were mentioned as the application's key disadvantage.

Keywords: vocabulary, flashcard applications, university

INTRODUCTION

The last five years has seen an upsurge in global research related to the use of flashcard applications in the EFL classroom (Al-Malki, 2020; Khan, 2022; Kose & Mede, 2018; Taghizadeh & Porkar, 2018; Yowaboot & Sukying, 2022; Zakian et al., 2022), with findings indicating that flashcard applications are perceived positively by students and generally lead to an increase in the students' vocabulary test scores. A relative lack of similar research in the sphere of South Korean EFL, coupled with the continued dominance of vocabulary learning

methods, such as written or verbal repetition (Jeon, 2007) and use of bilingual dictionaries (Laffey, 2020; Lee, 2007) in the Korean EFL classroom, provoked the author's curiosity about the nature of Korean university students' previous use of flashcards in the education system and independent study. Furthermore, the author wanted to provide an opportunity for students to use a flashcard application in order to assess their user experiences and measure the extent to which this method may become a long-term option for them, both in English studies and in other areas of academia. The present study was governed by three principal research questions:

RQ1. What is the nature of the students' previous experience of using flashcards?

RQ2. What is the nature of the students' user experiences with a flashcard application across a condensed university EFL course?

RQ3. To what extent do the students express an intention to continue using flashcard applications in their future studies?

These research questions were designed with the intention of focusing on the past, present, and future of the students' knowledge and use of flashcards. The author hopes that these questions will facilitate an understanding of the flashcard applications' current standing in the context of university-level EFL in South Korea and the potential trajectory that they may take in the future.

METHOD

Participants

Participants were recruited through opportunity sampling, with the author teaching a condensed Basic Modern English course at a private Korean university over fifteen consecutive weekdays during the 2022–2023 winter vacation period. The students attended the class for three hours a day, used the *Smart Choice 2* coursebook, and completed a range of supplementary speaking and writing activities designed by the author. The class was made up of 17 students taking a Basic Modern English course for the first time and 11 students retaking the course. The

total number of students taking this course was 28, representing 18 different majors:

- Chemistry, Law, Environmental Health, IT Finance Management, Accounting, Computer Engineering, Electrical Information Engineering, Nano Chemical Engineering, Energy and Environmental Engineering, Display Material Engineering, Media Communication, Big Data Engineering, Performing Arts (1 student each)
- International Trade, Tourism Management (2 students each)
- Business Administration (3 students)
- Electrical Engineering, Mechanical Engineering (4 students each)

Process

On the first day of the course, the students were informed that the flashcard application Quizlet would be used during the condensed semester for vocabulary practice and retention. The author chose Quizlet for two main reasons. Firstly, a free version of the application is available in both the Apple Store and the Android Play Store. Initially, the author was interested in conducting the study with Anki due to his familiarity with the application being used for second language learning. However, this was deemed unworkable upon the realization that the Apple Store version of Anki costs 31,000 KRW (around US$25). The author did not expect iPhone users in the class to pay for the application, and a lack of funding for the research ruled out the possibility of purchasing Anki for them.

Secondly, Quizlet offers a variety of different features for reviewing and learning flashcards beyond simply flipping the flashcard to review the vocabulary item. This would allow students to make use of features such as the matching pairs review activity and the auto-generated multiple-choice test. This gamification of the daily vocabulary review was perceived to have even more potential for allowing students to learn and memorize new vocabulary than just creating and turning flashcards. Thus, the necessity of choosing Quizlet instead of Anki was ultimately viewed as an improvement for the overall study.

Students were instructed to download the free version of Quizlet before receiving an explanation of how to create flashcards into a dedicated "Winter English" deck and how to access the matching pairs and multiple-choice functions. From the second day of the course until

the final exam preparation session on the thirteenth day, two five-minute Quizlet periods were scheduled in the lesson. During this time, students were shown a list of six to nine vocabulary words from the textbook on a presentation slide. These vocabulary items represented central words related to the textbook chapters along with vocabulary that could potentially obstruct the students' understanding of reading and listening activities. While others believe the number of vocabulary items learners can feasibly retain in a single session spans the wide range of 20−50 (Cepeda et al., 2009; Nation 2008), the author opted to introduce vocabulary in blocks more in line with Miller's (1956) working memory capacity of 7 ± 2, especially as two batches of flashcards would be constructed every day. All vocabulary words were displayed in both English and Korean, as L1 translations assist lower-level students who have difficulty understanding L2 definitions and synonyms (Nakata, 2011), as well as a note on each word to denote its part of speech.

Following a brief period of pronunciation practice, the students were instructed to create a flashcard for each word in their Quizlet deck. The author felt that it was important for students to create the flashcards themselves, as the act of creation is an important part of the process of memorization and practice. Recent research by Zung et al. (2022) suggests that students agree that flashcard creation presents a "learning opportunity" (p. 8). Despite this, a large proportion of previous research related to flashcard applications in EFL makes use of ready-made flashcards, with Lei and Reynolds' (2022) synthesis of 32 studies published between 2008 and 2021 including only six pieces of research in which students made their own flashcards.

While the students created flashcards, the author wrote some gap-fill sentences for students to complete in small groups that used the new vocabulary. This fulfilled the important step of seeing new vocabulary words in the context of a sentence (Nation, 2001) and supplemented the act of creating the flashcard and practicing it in Quizlet's multiple-choice and matching pairs functions, which admittedly lack authentic context. In addition to the two five-minute periods of Quizlet use during class, the author encouraged students to use the application on evenings and weekends for no more than five minutes each day. This would allow for more vocabulary practice without demanding too much of the students' time.

From the early stages of research design, the author decided against the option of implementing a formal test of the students' course

vocabulary knowledge with which to assess the effectiveness of Quizlet. It was crucial for the author not to allow the research to take precedence over the Basic Modern English course itself, and so adding a vocabulary test, in addition to the pre-existing speaking and writing examinations and review quizzes, was deemed unsuitable. Furthermore, in order to fully test the impact of Quizlet on vocabulary test scores, a control group of students taking the course without using the flashcard application would have been required. The author did not wish to manipulate the mechanics of the course to the point of giving differential treatment to students, especially as they had chosen to attend classes during their vacation time in order to fulfill the graduation criteria from the university.

Data Collection Tool

A questionnaire was used as the main data collection tool for the study. The questionnaire was designed to satisfy the three key research questions, as well as gather information pertaining to the students' previous use of flashcards, their experiences of using Quizlet during the winter term, and the likelihood of them using a flashcard application in the future. Fifteen questions were written and delivered via Google Forms: Five-multiple choice questions, nine 5-point Likert scale questions, and one optional question whereby students could write additional comments about their experiences of using Quizlet and of their participation in the study. The questionnaire did not solicit information that would allow the student to be identified, such as their name, age, or major subject. The author hoped that this promise of anonymity would increase the likelihood of honest and reliable answers (Jefford & Moore, 2008), especially in a smaller sample whereby students might be concerned that the author could determine which participant completed any given questionnaire.

All instructional information about the questionnaire and each of the questions were written in English and Korean to prevent misunderstanding, in line with Peytcheva's (2019) statement that "survey data are meaningless if respondents do not understand the survey questions as intended by the researchers" (p. 4). As the optional final question encouraged a written answer, the author stipulated that students could write in their mother tongue if preferred.

The QR code for the questionnaire was shared with students on the

thirteenth day of the condensed course, which was the final regular session before students spent the weekend preparing for the final writing and speaking examinations. Before sharing the QR code, the author outlined the details of the study and administered a consent form in both English and Korean. This ensured that students could fully understand the terms of the study to make an informed decision. Crucially, students were assured that their participation in the study was not mandatory and would not affect their final grade. Furthermore, the consent form underlined the anonymous nature of the questionnaire, promising that the students' personal information would not be elicited or shared.

Twenty-seven of the 28 students signed the consent form and agreed to participate in the study. All participating students received the link to the Google Forms questionnaire and were instructed to complete it before the end of the day. Of the students who submitted a consent form, 25 completed the questionnaire in full. As the questionnaire did not collect information on the students' major subjects, the author was not able to ascertain which majors were represented in the final research beyond the previously outlined list.

Pilot Study

A pilot study spanning four Basic Modern English and two Intermediate Modern English classes was conducted during the 2022–2 fall semester to test the quality and functionality of the questionnaire. The main difference between the pilot study and the final study was that the pilot study consisted of a pre- and post-questionnaire, with the final study streamlined to include only one questionnaire. This decision was governed by two factors. Firstly, the author decided that the goal of the first questionnaire, that is, to gain an understanding of the students' previous use of flashcard applications and their attitudes towards learning English, could be achieved via a single post-test questionnaire.

Secondly, an issue occurred in the pilot study whereby 79 students signed consent forms and completed the first questionnaire at the beginning of the semester while 107 students completed the second questionnaire fourteen weeks later. This increase in participants occurred despite explicit instructions in both English and Korean for the second questionnaire to be completed only by students who had participated from the beginning of the semester. This led to the author collecting more questionnaire responses than consent forms, making the study

ethically unviable. Thus, it was decided that using one questionnaire would prevent the recurrence of this issue without detracting from the objectives of the research in any significant manner.

Aside from this issue, the pilot study was considered a success, as it allowed questionnaire items to be evaluated and edited where the author sensed the possibility of misunderstanding. For example, the Korean translation of the question "Which of these options accurately describes your previous use of SRS/flashcards?" was re-worded to emphasize the idea that the students should consider their past experiences without including the Quizlet walk-through that they received from the author prior to completing the first questionnaire. The figures derived from this question suggested that many students had considered the mini-lesson on Quizlet as part of their previous experience.

The author had hoped that the initial attempt to conduct the study would serve as the basis for a publishable paper rather than just a pilot study. In the end, the 2022−2 fall semester represented an excellent opportunity to conduct the research due to the large participant sample available to the author. However, while the pilot study featured a larger participant sample than the condensed winter term could provide, the negative effect of downsizing the sample was lessened by the wide range of different majors represented in the present study's sample base.

RESULTS

The resulting data from the questionnaire were gathered in a spreadsheet and analyzed by the author. In the case of Likert scale questions, the mean average agreement scores were calculated by adding the values (SD = 1, D = 2, N = 3, A = 4, SA = 5) and dividing by the number of respondents, with a minimum possible agreement score of 1 and a maximum possible agreement score of 5.

Questions 1−3 elicited information pertaining to students' previous use of flashcards. In Question 1, the students were invited to choose as many options as were applicable to them. Sixty percent (60%) of the participant sample reported no previous experience using flashcards at all, while 28% had used flashcards in a classroom setting, and 8% had used flashcards during the self-study. Eight percent (8%) of the students reported previous use of flashcards for English vocabulary learning,

double the number who had used flashcards for another subject. In Question 2, it emerged that 58.3% of the students who had previously used flashcards did so in electronic form, compared to 33.3% who had used physical flashcards. The remaining 8.3% reported use of both formats.

FIGURE 1. Results Generated from Question 1: "Which of these options accurately describes your previous use of word cards? (Choose as many as you like)."
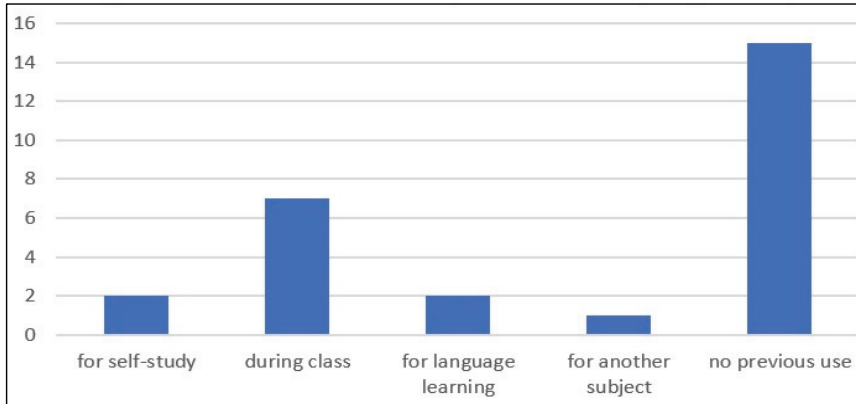
FIGURE 2. Results Generated from Question 3: "If you have used flashcards before, how long did you maintain this routine?"
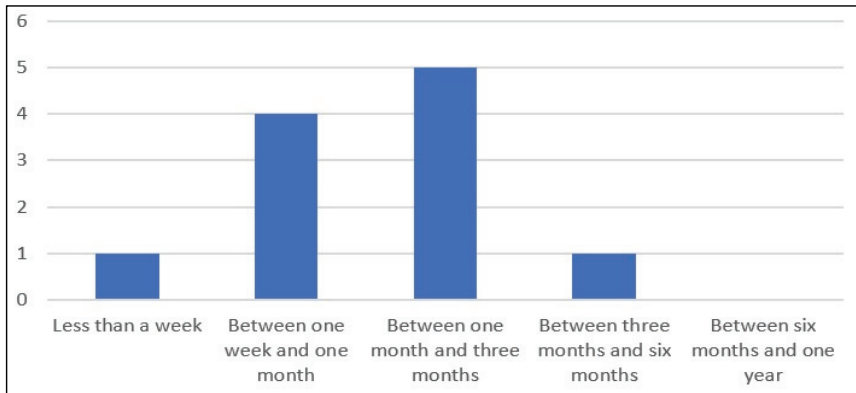
The responses to Question 3 illustrate a trend towards students

struggling to maintain a flashcard routine for a significant period. Just 9.1% of the students had maintained their routine for between three and six months, with no students reporting longer-term use. The most popular periods of flashcard usage were between one month and three months (45.5%) and between one week and one month (36.4%).

Question 4 invited students to state the techniques they usually adopt for learning and remembering vocabulary. "Memorizing word lists" was by far the most popular response amongst the participant sample (68%), followed by "writing and keeping a small vocabulary notebook" (48%). "Writing and memorizing example sentences" (32%) and "reading English language texts/websites" (20%) also proved popular at the expense of visual strategies such as "creating mind maps, posters, and post-it walls" (8%) and "making quizzes and puzzles" (0%). Only one student took the invitation to report a different method, writing "just remember" to reject the idea of using a specific method of vocabulary acquisition. Despite the lack of range revealed in Question 4, the participant sample recorded a mean average agreement rating of 3.56 to the openness of experimenting with new study methods in Question 5.

FIGURE 3. Results Generated from Question 6: "This semester, I used Quizlet..."
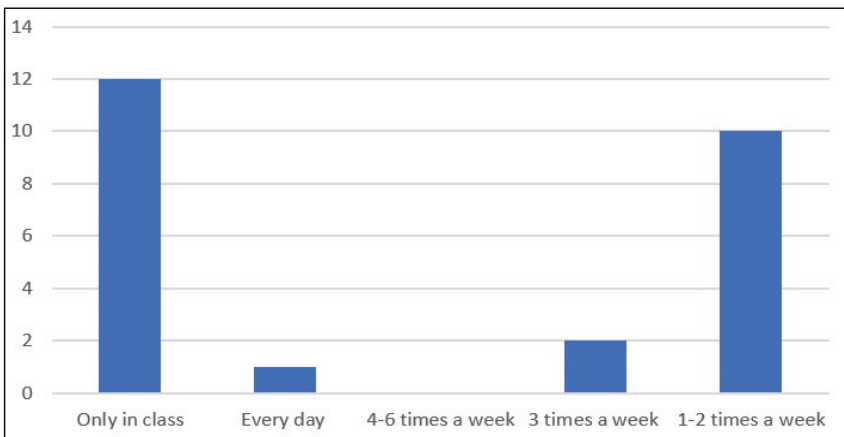
Questions 6–9 and 13–14 focused on the students' experiences with Quizlet during the condensed winter term. Analysis of Question 6 reveals that students did not use the flashcard application frequently during their free time. Forty-eight percent (48%) of the students stated that they used

Quizlet "only in class," with a further 40% using Quizlet "1−2 times a week" on top of the daily classroom sessions. Eight percent (8%) used Quizlet "three times a week," and only one student (4%) used the application "every day." Jumping ahead to Question 13, 20% of the students *agreed* or *strongly agreed* that they sometimes lacked the motivation to use Quizlet, with a mean average agreement score of 2.44, thereby demonstrating that motivation was not an issue for most students when it came to using the application.

TABLE 1. Statistics Derived from Likert Scale Questions Related to Quizlet User Experiences

Question	SD		D		N		A		SA		Mean
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	
7. I was satisfied by the user experience of Quizlet and found the application easy to use.	1	4%	2	8%	2	8%	7	28%	13	52%	4.16
8. Using Quizlet increases my confidence in my vocabulary.	2	8%	2	8%	4	16%	14	56%	3	12%	3.56
9. I think practicing recurring vocabulary on Quizlet helped me to memorize the vocabulary.	2	8%	0	0%	8	32%	4	16%	11	44%	4.04
13. Some days, I did not feel motivated to use Quizlet.	4	16%	12	48%	4	16%	4	16%	1	4%	2.44
14. Using flashcards is more effective than my previous methods of learning vocabulary.	1	4%	2	8%	5	20%	12	48%	5	20%	3.72

Note. SD = *strongly disagree*, D = *disagree*, N = *neutral*, A = *agree*, SA = *strongly agree*; *n* = number.

Question 7 revealed positive user experiences with Quizlet over the condensed winter term, with students reporting a mean average satisfaction rating of 4.16. Only 12% of the students *disagreed* or *strongly disagreed* that their user experience had been satisfactory, and that Quizlet was "easy to use." A marginally lower mean average agreement score of 3.56 was calculated in Question 8, despite 56% of the students *agreeing* that using Quizlet increased their confidence in

their vocabulary, and a further 12% *strongly agreeing* with this statement. The 16% of students who *disagreed* or *strongly disagreed* that Quizlet increased their confidence represent a minority.

Question 9 focused on whether the students believed that the use of Quizlet aided their ability to memorize the vocabulary. A mean average agreement score of 4.04 was recorded, with only 8% of the participant sample disputing this statement. This question featured the largest proportion of students choosing to *strongly agree*, with 44% of students indicating that Quizlet had had an instrumental effect on their ability to memorize the vocabulary.

Question 14 provided further evidence that students found Quizlet to be an advantageous resource for them, with 17 students either *agreeing* or *strongly agreeing* that the flashcard application proved more effective than their previous methods of studying vocabulary. Three students *disagreed* or *strongly disagreed* with this statement, amounting to a 3.72 mean average agreement score.

TABLE 2. Statistics Derived from Likert Scale Questions Related to Future Flashcard Use

Question	SD		D		N		A		SA		Mean
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	
10. I will continue to use flashcards in my future English studies.	2	8%	4	16%	4	16%	9	36%	6	24%	3.52
11. I believe that flashcards would be useful in my major studies, not only in English.	3	12%	4	16%	8	32%	5	20%	5	20%	3.2
12. I think flashcard applications should be used in university English courses.	1	4%	1	4%	6	24%	11	44%	6	24%	3.8

Note. SD = *strongly disagree*, D = *disagree*, N = *neutral*, A = *agree*, SA = *strongly agree*; *n* = number.

Questions 10 and 11 were designed to gauge the likelihood of students continuing to use flashcard applications beyond this period of initial exposure, both in terms of their future English studies and in their ongoing major studies. Responses to both questions suggested that the

students' use of a flashcard application during this course was unlikely to be their last, although the students may be slightly more likely to use flashcards to study English than their major subject. A mean average agreement score of 3.52 for Question 10 and a 3.2 score for Question 11 indicated that the students see the potential benefits of using flashcards applications in the future, albeit with more emphasis on English study.

Question 12 asked students whether they believed that flashcard applications should be implemented in university EFL courses. Sixty-eight percent (68%) of the students either *agreed* or *strongly agreed* that flashcard applications should be used as part of a university course, compared with just 8% of the students who *disagreed* or *strongly disagreed*. A mean average agreement score of 3.8 was recorded.

The final question invited students to comment on their experience of using Quizlet over the course of the condensed winter term. Six students took the opportunity to do so, with half of them mentioning the limitations of the free version of Quizlet. One student complained that some of the application's functions became locked after a few uses, while another noted that a pop-up advertisement for the full, paid version of the application appeared too frequently. Another student wrote, "If there are more vocabulary game, I'll glad to play it" [sic]. The remaining comments indicated frustration at the number of previously learned flashcards that continued to appear, despite this being the purpose of such applications, as well as the statement "If u want to be good at something, u can just do it. No need application's help" [sic].

DISCUSSION

In synthesizing the key findings from the questionnaire, the author was able to determine that the period of Quizlet usage during the condensed term was a new experience for most of the participant sample. While this exposure to a flashcard application helped most students to memorize vocabulary, boost their confidence in their vocabulary, and potentially build future study habits, Quizlet was not widely used by the students outside of classroom hours and was criticized in some quarters for the limited functionality of its free version.

Previous Use of Flashcards

With regards to Research Question 1, a distinct lack of experience with flashcards as a means of vocabulary acquisition was discovered amongst the participant sample. Sixty percent (60%) of the students had never used flashcards, while only one student in the class had used flashcards for a sustained period of over three months. This reflects the findings of previous research, whereby previous studies revealed flashcard practice to be the least frequently used vocabulary learning strategy amongst university EFL students in Korea (Laffey, 2020; Lee, 2007).

Admittedly, flashcard applications are a modern addition to the field of vocabulary acquisition methods, but it is still unfortunate that such a large proportion of the participant sample had not used a tool that would ultimately be positively received. A multitude of factors lie behind the students' lack of prior use of flashcard applications, such as the idea that word card strategies are often ignored in educational institutions (Hulstijn, 2001) and that teachers are reluctant to allow the use of mobile phones in the classroom (Yoon, 2017).

Even when instructors subscribe to the benefits of flashcard applications, it can be difficult to incorporate them into class. Kim et al.'s (2017) study of medical school faculties in Korea discovered a gap between the perception of e-learning resources such as flashcard applications and their implementation in the classroom due to time constraints and a limited awareness of the available resources. Lack of funding may also be a contributing factor, with institutions unable to pay for full versions of flashcard applications for their students and individual students being reluctant to pay out of their own pocket. Thus, one may suggest that there is a larger onus on students than universities to research, install, and trial a flashcard application if they feel that it would benefit their studies. Learning institutions may only be able to raise students' awareness of such applications, with the present study representing a good example of how this can be achieved.

User Experiences of Quizlet

Research Question 2 concerned the nature of students' experiences using Quizlet during the condensed winter term. With 80% of students *agreeing* or *strongly agreeing* that Quizlet was easy to use and 68% of

the sample *agreeing* or *strongly agreeing* that Quizlet increased their confidence in their vocabulary, the author can confidently report that the students' experiences were largely positive. This reflects students' positive reception of flashcard applications in previous studies (Altiner, 2019; Chien, 2015; Harris & Chiang, 2022; Hung, 2015; Purdon, 2010; Yowaboot & Sukying, 2022) and suggests that flashcard applications are too beneficial to be completely ignored by EFL teachers and institutions, despite the financial limitations and time restrictions involved.

However, the finding that only 12% of the participant sample used Quizlet three or more times a week in their own time suggests that the students' positive experiences with the application did not always translate to more regular usage. Either students failed to form a routine of using the application from home or felt that the twice-daily Quizlet sessions in the classroom were enough to assist them in their vocabulary acquisition, despite the author recommending frequent use of Quizlet outside of timetabled sessions. Based on the responses to Question 13, where only 20% of the students indicated a lack or strong lack of motivation to use Quizlet, the author was inclined to rule out motivational factors as a reason why most students did not use the application on a more regular basis. Instead, it could be that a Basic Modern English course does not require usage of a flashcard application to the same extent that an Intermediate English or Advanced English course might. Equally, the fact that students attended class every day during this condensed term as opposed to twice a week in a regular semester course might have impacted the frequency with which they felt a need to practice with the application independently during their free time. Clearly, conducting a similar study under different parameters would provide the opportunity to test these theories.

The 3.56 average agreement that Quizlet helped to increase students' confidence in their vocabulary was also somewhat lower than the author had anticipated. Of course, this question dealt with the highly subjective concept of "confidence." Individual students may measure their confidence in their English vocabulary by different standards, especially considering that the design of the present study did not contain a quantitative post-Quizlet test score for students to base their perceptions of progression on. Equally, it could be argued that a flashcard application alone is not enough to improve confidence in vocabulary and should be combined with other learning strategies. There is also the possibility that the 32% of students who *disagreed, strongly disagreed*

or remained *neutral* to the idea of Quizlet improving their confidence felt that their confidence was too low to be aided by a flashcard application, or that they may have already been confident and did not believe that a flashcard application could have any further positive effect. Either way, the overall trend suggests that a strong proportion of students left the course with a higher level of confidence in their vocabulary thanks to their experiences with Quizlet, representing a positive foundation for future studies to build upon.

As discovered in Question 15, the students were not entirely satisfied with the free version of the application. It emerged that the inability to use the full range of functions more than a handful of times without paying for the full version of the application was frustrating for at least three students who openly expressed this complaint. The author regrets the lack of opportunity to follow these comments up by investigating whether the students would be willing to pay for the full version of the application, given that their first exposure produced positive experiences. Given the opportunity to conduct the study with a larger sample of participants, the author would like to include a dedicated question related to the adequacy of the free version of Quizlet.

Thus, the sample's predominantly but not entirely positive feedback on Quizlet as a tool to aid vocabulary learning reflects Nakata's (2011) study of nine flashcard programs that suggested that each of the programs was helpful for students but had scope for improvement.

Using Flashcards in the Future

While the future-focused Research Question 3 suggests that students viewed flashcard applications as a method worth taking beyond this initial usage, support for this viewpoint was not as significant as the levels of satisfaction reported earlier in the questionnaire. While 60% of the students *agreed* or *strongly agreed* that they would continue to use a flashcard application in their English studies and 40% *agreed* or *strongly agreed* that flashcards could aid them in their major studies is by no means inconsequential, the mean average agreement scores of 3.52 and 3.2, respectively, are not as high as the author had projected based on the student satisfaction reported with regards to their user experience.

The fact that the large mean average satisfaction score of 4.16 for the students' experiences with Quizlet did not foster the commitment to future use in some cases may be explained by students having already

established their chosen study methods by the time they reach higher education. As a result, the students may not be completely open to new techniques and strategies, even following a positive introduction. After all, almost a third of the sample *disagreed* or *strongly disagreed* that they like to experiment with new study methods earlier in the questionnaire. Theorists have previously acknowledged the idea that students may be resistant to new methods (Langley, 1993) and are likely to abandon newly introduced methods because of exam-induced stress (Dembo & Seli, 2004). In addition, the slight disparity in favor of using flashcards for future English study may be a result of the students failing to recognize the versatility of flashcard use beyond vocabulary practice.

A slightly larger mean average agreement score of 3.8 suggests that students see the value of flashcard applications for fellow students enrolled in university EFL courses, even if they would not personally revisit a flashcard application in a different learning context. Thus, while the results of the questionnaire demonstrate that exposure to a flashcard application is not always enough to guarantee future use, most students realize the tool's value in supplementing a university EFL course.

CONCLUSIONS

The author concedes that this small-scale study does not provide enough evidence to suggest that Korean university students' attitudes towards flashcard applications would remain consistent beyond the participant sample in question. However, it is hoped that this study can form the basis of future examination of the effectiveness of multiple flashcard applications in Korean EFL across course difficulty levels and educational institutions. Specifically, the author aims to conduct a similar study across a regular semester with a much larger participant sample in the near future.

Despite a lack of experience with flashcard applications, most students who participated in the condensed Basic Modern English winter term and the resulting questionnaire indicated satisfaction with Quizlet. Most students also indicated an appetite for its future usage, both in their own studies and in Korean university EFL courses. Though not without limitations, especially with regards to its paywall, there is still enough student support for Quizlet to warrant its presence in future semesters.

THE AUTHOR

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SELVES: Social Emotional Learning Virtual Exchanges

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The SELVES project successfully combined social and emotional learning (SEL) and collaborative online international learning (COIL) to enhance self-awareness, intercultural understanding, and motivation to study English among Japanese and Thai university students. The project involved activities that promote emotional literacy, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence, as well as intercultural competence and empathy. The students developed their skills by reflecting on their own cultural values and beliefs, collaborating on writing and video tasks, and engaging in language-exchange dialogues. Although there were limitations to the study, the findings suggest that SEL and COIL initiatives have potential in promoting students' learning and development in today's interconnected world. The success of the SELVES project makes a compelling case for further integrating SEL and COIL in educational contexts of different backgrounds and cultures.

Keywords: social-emotional learning, virtual exchange, collaborative online international learning, self-awareness, intercultural communication, motivation

INTRODUCTION

The current state of technological affairs means that for the first time in human history, we are all constantly connected on a global scale. Relationships that could have, in prior years, evaporated can now be

eternally maintained. Tracking and finding information on any given topic or person can be done online in mere moments, meaning people can be instantly and, to some extent, eternally connected. The realization of this digital enhancement was forced into classrooms the world over due to COVID-19. One progressive pedagogical movement that took the limelight during this period was collaborative online international learning (COIL). As borders closed, many people chose to move virtually − whether it was by embracing Google Earth or simply conversing via FaceTime or Skype or Zoom. During that time, as international travel was condemned, international exchanges began to utilize COIL more. This paper builds on the idea that virtual exchange (VE) is not only an emergency backup plan but also a tool that can be used alongside others to foster global communication and prepare us for a future of international travel and global existence.

Human connections are vital not only for survival but for developing our innate need for belonging (Six Seconds, The Emotional Intelligence Network, 2022). Having strong relationships and social support networks has been linked to better mental health, increased happiness and lower rates of depression and anxiety (Etherington & Costello, 2019). Social-emotional learning (SEL) is a relatively new field of educational study and is a lens that this paper will utilize throughout. SEL is the process of acquiring and applying cognitive, affective, and behavioral skills, which encompass the development and integration of thinking, feeling, and doing, capacities that enhance social and emotional competence. Although the competencies within this discipline can, to some, appear to be common sense or are judged as soft skills, they are believed to be essential skills that humans will become increasingly reliant upon as technology advances and requires us to interact and think less. The key competencies of SEL will be briefly outlined, however this Social-Emotional Learning Virtual Exchanges (SELVES) project's primary focus is on building confidence through developing competencies of self-awareness, or knowing oneself, and increasing empathy through intercultural competence.

Real-world projects, particularly those that involve collaboration between non-compatible language systems, can create meaning and motivation for additional language learning. The SELVES project discussed in this paper was a COIL experience between Thailand and Japan, where English was used as the lingua franca to develop SEL competencies and deepen content knowledge, as well as broaden critical

thinking, collaboration, creativity, and communication skills. Leading with inquiry into how to best assist students in the unchartered territory of virtual exchanges via Zoom and social media was exciting and enriching for both students and teachers alike. Cooperating across unstable networks with virtual strangers requires not only technological skills but also effective communication skills to ensure that clear and concise messages are transmitted and understood in equal partnership by both parties. Virtual exchange (VE) projects can create problem-based classroom activities that often bring mutual learner developments for both teachers and students, and can assist in making learning visible (Ritchhart & Church, 2020).

By amalgamating COIL and SEL, this project assisted students in gaining motivation and confidence in an alternative language to their dominant and official homeland tongues. The purpose and intention of SELVES was to develop self-awareness in terms of identifying and understanding emotions, improving empathy and intercultural understanding, and increasing motivation for studying English.

COMBINING SEL AND COIL

Definition of SEL and Its Asian Context

Asian countries such as Japan and Korea demonstrate strong cognitive and academic performance, and yet there is little attention paid to the high incidence of violence, depression, bullying, or suicide among the same youth (Lee & Bong, 2017). Students' lack of knowledge and skills to solve problems appropriately or to make responsible decisions when facing difficult social situations has been noted in surveys of Asian youth (Houri et al., 2012; Lee & Bong, 2017; Leong et al., 2003). Many current programs focus on post-incident treatment, such as counseling and monitoring, after a young person's problematic behavior has already been manifested. These interventions typically emphasize providing information about the issue and teach coping strategies to prevent future incidents. However, they often overlook the social, emotional, and developmental factors that may contribute to the incident in the first place. To better understand and address these issues, there is a need to optimize interventions by considering underlying characteristics of students. Whole child education is being promoted as a bridge between

academic and emotional intelligence, and there is a call for more SEL to be built into curriculums.

Due to accessibility, most of the research and resources here will be drawn from the extensive literature from the United States. In the UK, there is no official national framework of SEL. However, it is worth noting that several organizations and initiatives have developed their own frameworks and approaches, such as the British Council's framework for Global Citizenship Education (GCE) and the Early Intervention Foundation's (EIF's) framework for early years, and the Association for Social and Emotional Learning (ASEL). These frameworks can be chosen at a school level and adapted to specific needs and contexts. In Japan, although there are non-profit organizations, such as the Japan Association for Social and Emotional Education (JASEE), and professional organizations, such as the Japanese Society of Child Science, that promote research and provide resources, much of the information available is published in Japanese and is challenging to access due to the language barriers. Korea legislated the Character Education Promotion Act in 2015 designed to ameliorate youth problems and improve SEL, causing a debate over nature versus nurture to arise (Lee & Bong, 2017). Concerns over nurturing human qualities by legal means will continue to attract attention and research. Notwithstanding criticism, SEL research must continue, as there are clear goals of improving empathy and creating healthier communication, and SEL advocates resolving adolescent psychological and behavioral problems. The lack of access to data and research due to cultural and language barriers is a gap this research intends to fill. Additionally, SEL is heavily influenced by cultural and societal factors, and part of the authors' aim here is to combine ways of thinking as a practical global thinker.

SEL is an important aspect of education that has gained increasing attention in recent years (Arao, 2019; CASEL, 2022; Jagers et al., 2019). While SEL is promising in many directives, data needs to be continually collected and evaluated to perpetuate the equity-responsive requirements that the current sociopolitical context of global education presents (Jagers et al., 2019; Lin et al., 2023; Weare, 2017). There are many organizations that provide valuable resources and research in differing contexts, and this study intends to provide support in a global context. The key supportive agencies that provide the basis of this SEL research are the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL); the global emotional intelligence network Six Seconds; and

the research and development corporation RAND. RAND highlights the importance of SEL for academic success and well-being. CASEL developed a framework that provides a roadmap for SEL implementation in schools and is widely recognized and accepted. CASEL's framework includes five core competencies: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making. Six Seconds offers educational materials and professional development opportunities aimed at cultivating emotional intelligence (EI), which is commonly measured with emotional quotient (EQ) assessments that evaluate competencies related to recognizing, understanding, and effectively managing emotions. The terms "EQ" and "EI" are often used interchangeably and will be referred to as "EQ" hereafter. EQ is the ability to recognize, understand, and manage one's emotions and the emotions of others (Six Seconds, n.d.).

While these organizations have different approaches and frameworks for SEL, they all recognize the importance of self-awareness in developing individuals as global citizens. Appendix A clearly shows the alignment of the CASEL and Six Seconds models. Due to the accessible resources, this paper focuses on the Six Seconds framework throughout. Reflection, continual progression, and self-assessment are drawn on as qualitative meaningful developments. If we, as people, can learn to value ourselves, it will become easier to empathize and get along with others. The term *others* here is used to describe anyone other than the self, and *othering* can become something people wish to overcome (Spivak, 1985).

Definition of COIL

COIL is a growing field of study that brings together students and faculty from different parts of the world to collaborate on projects and exchange knowledge (Hackett et al., 2023). During the late 1990s, the concept of internationalization from home first began with university programs, such as Erasmus, and the idea of gaining global perspectives and training students with lifelong learning skills (ongoing, voluntary, and self-motivated pursuit of knowledge) via international networking was only just beginning (Aponte & Jordan, 2020; Beelen & Jones, 2018; Zapp & Lerch, 2020). The term "COIL" has been described by Rubin (2017) as collaborative learning for both educators and learners and is more specific to intercultural competence than VEs (Hackett et al., 2023). VEs do not specify the international context, and specific

intercultural communication, and self-awareness studies via COIL are few and far between (Naicker et al., 2022). Yet, since COVID-19 put a halt to a lot of international travel and exchange programs, enhancing online education became a viable alternative, and no doubt there will be a flux of data and information over the next few years (Liu et al., 2022).

COIL is grounded in a variety of theoretical perspectives, including social constructivism, intercultural competence theory, and transformative learning (Naicker et al., 2022; O'Dowd, 2018; Rubin & Guth, 2022). Social constructivism emphasizes the importance of social interaction and collaborative learning in the construction of learning and argues that learning is most effective when it is situated in authentic contexts. Intercultural competence theory highlights the importance of developing skills and knowledge that enable individuals to effectively navigate cross-cultural interactions. Transformative learning theory suggests that learning can be transformative when it involves a critical reflection on one's assumptions and beliefs, and a willingness to engage with different perspectives and ways of knowing. All of these theories and research suggest COIL can be an effective strategy to promote the importance of cross-cultural learning experience in shaping behavior and attitudes (Bowen, 2012; DeWitt et al., 2015; Guimarães & Finardi, 2021; Simon & Yervasi, 2015). These ideas support this study, and reinforce the potential and benefits to help ease communication opportunities for students as global awareness gains traction in the non-exhaustive list commonly cited as "21st century skills" (Binkley et al., 2012; Care, 2012; Kaufman, 2013; Nieveen & Plomp, 2018).

Importance of SEL and COIL for Promoting Intercultural Communication and Collaboration

In the context of expanding global citizenship and transcultural understanding, SEL and COIL serve as effective means for promoting intercultural communication and collaboration among students from diverse cultural backgrounds. The importance of creativity, critical thinking, empathic understanding as well as the need for critical reflection and open-mindedness are all crucial competencies for global citizenship and intercultural communication (Guimarães & Finardi, 2021; Hackett et al., 2023). SEL and COIL activities can encourage students to think outside of their cultural norms and embrace diverse perspectives (King & Frondozo, 2022; Muller, 2016).

SEL can support translingualism by developing students' abilities to negotiate meaning-making across different languages and cultural contexts. Translingualism is an approach that recognizes the fluidity of language boundaries and encourages the use of multiple languages in communication. Through SEL, students can develop empathy and self-awareness, which are crucial competencies for understanding and navigating diverse linguistic and cultural contexts. SEL can foster communication and collaborative skills, such as active listening, respectful communication, and conflict resolution, which are essential for effective negotiation of meaning across different languages. By providing a supportive and inclusive learning environment that values linguistic and cultural diversity, SEL can help students feel more comfortable expressing themselves in different languages and embracing their multilingual identities. SEL can assist in the development of skills and a mindset necessary for successful translingual communication and meaning-making.

Through COIL activities, peers needed to work together on multiple levels, involving many skills along with respectful communication and conflict resolution, which are essential for global citizenship and SEL (Funke et al., 2018; Gallagher et al., 2020; Guimarães & Finardi, 2021; Krkovic, 2018; Mori, 2022). COIL can provide students the opportunity to explore social-emotional issues from a global perspective, such as social justice, environmental sustainability, and cultural diversity, which can help students develop a sense of agency and global responsibility. By combining COIL with SEL, students can learn to navigate and negotiate diverse linguistic and cultural contexts with empathy, self-awareness, and intercultural competence, ultimately developing the skills and mindset necessary for successful global citizenship.

Rationale for Combining SEL and COIL in the SELVES Project

The integration of SEL and COIL in the SELVES project was grounded in the belief that the combination of these two educational approaches has the potential to enhance self-awareness, confidence, intercultural understanding, and motivation to study English. This approach can help students to develop important skills and attitudes that are essential for success in today's globalized world. Further research is required to fully explore the benefits of this approach and to identify the most effective strategies for implementing the ideas this study highlights,

and in different educational contexts. Real-world project-based learning emphasizes the practical application of knowledge and skills. The inquiry-based nature of this SELVES project encouraged students to ask questions, research, and experiment. Students could develop a range of 21st century skills, such as teamwork, communication, and project management, as they navigated their way through the task instructions and had to develop empathy and understanding as they coordinated their own schedules to collaborate on the tasks (Geisinger, 2016; Mori, 2022; Mori & Williams, 2021). This exchange of information and knowledge across time differences meant to boost self-awareness, and empathy was essential for personal and professional growth within the university dynamic.

THE SELVES PROJECT

Objectives of the SELVES Project

SEL has been shown to have a positive impact on academic achievement, social relationships, and mental health outcomes (Durlak et al., 2011). COIL has been shown to promote intercultural competence, language proficiency, and global citizenship skills (Rubin, 2017; Wojenski, 2021). Combining SEL and COIL in the SELVES project was a strategic decision to create a learning environment that promotes both the social-emotional and linguistic development of participants. The SEL components of the project aimed to provide opportunities for students to reflect on their emotions, values, and benefits as well as develop skills to manage and regulate their emotions effectively. The COIL components of the project aimed to provide opportunities for students to engage in intercultural communication and collaboration, which can foster empathy and perspective-taking skills.

The SELVES project also aimed to create a safe and supportive learning environment that encouraged the students to take risks, make mistakes, and learn from feedback. The use of VE technology in the project allowed for synchronous and asynchronous communication, which provided flexibility and convenience for participants. This flexibility also allowed for more personalized and tailored learning experiences, which could serve to increase motivation and engagement. Overall, the SELVES project aimed to combine SEL and COIL in a way

that enhanced students' motivation, self-awareness, intercultural understanding, and language proficiency. The objective was to create a learning environment that supported the social-emotional and linguistic development of the students along with the skills and competencies needed to thrive in an interconnected and diverse world.

METHOD

Participants and Setting

The study was conducted in the context of a COIL project involving two sophomore university classes, one in Thailand and one in Japan. The target population was comprised of roughly 50 students, 20 in Japan and 30 in Thailand. Both universities are located in major contemporary tourist hotspots: Chiang Mai, Thailand, and Kyoto, Japan. The students were selected based on their interest and willingness to participate in the SELVES project.

Research Design and Methods

The students were given the main themes of discussing similarities and differences between businesses in Japan and Thailand, focusing on consumer habits and how they (consumers) can influence businesses to be more environmentally sustainable and regenerative. All teacher-created documentation was placed in the student class information folder before the start of the first session. This documentation included a COIL 2022 plan with a course description, learning objectives, learning outcome expectations broken down into six sessions, and success and assessment information, including a rubric of excellent, good, and unacceptable submissions.

In the shared folder, there was a template PowerPoint presentation example that students could use if they wanted to, with guided slide headings such as title slide, presentation menu slide, introduction summary slide, example slides requiring information to be given, analysis/action slides, and a conclusion. There was a Google Slides voice narration tutorial link and a PowerPoint voice narration tutorial video link. Additionally, an example Google Slides final video completed by a previous COIL student group was also made available for students to

view.

Weeks 1 and 2 had a shared checklist on activities to be completed within the first two weeks, and the following four weeks had individual expectations written in a printable weekly to-do list format. Due to time-schedule incompatibilities, the classes did not run for six consecutive weeks. Due to holiday days in either country or days that required test-taking in Thailand, the six sessions were spread across three months.

The students were asked to provide written and video evidence of collaborative research in learning and negotiating new perspectives over the course of the six sessions. The students were told that although the session reflections would be collected and checked consistently, they were otherwise free to schedule themselves and to add their progression evidence data to their shared folder by the end of the final session date. The students served as experts to one another and could learn by interacting, constructing, and building knowledge.

The SELVES project was designed to promote self-awareness, intercultural understanding, and motivation to study English. The project incorporated various activities and strategies that drew on previous research. The activities included:

1. Personalized learning plans: Students were encouraged to create personalized learning plans that included achievable targets for researching and sharing their knowledge, understanding, and experience of sustainable businesses in their respective countries. The purpose of this activity was to help students take ownership of their own learning and set achievable goals for themselves.

2. Warm-up encounters: At the beginning of each class, students were given opportunities to practice using English in a low-pressure setting. These warm-up encounters involved expanding vocabulary in greetings with their international partners, which was designed to foster emotional literacy.

3. Collaborative writing and video tasks: Throughout the project, students collaborated on writing video tasks with their international partners. These tasks were designed to promote intercultural understanding and empathy by requiring students to navigate conflicts and develop an understanding of intention and impact.

4. Engaging with authentic materials: The project also incorporated

activities that promoted the intrinsic value of learning English, such as engaging with news articles, videos, and advertisements related to sustainable businesses.

Data Collection

The authors employed an auto-ethnographic mixed-method grounded theory approach to collect qualitative and quantitative data. Through surveys and interviews, student experience and perceptions helped identify key factors that can contribute to the success of SEL programs in the context of international learning.

Data was collected through pre- and post-intervention surveys that assessed self-awareness, intercultural understanding, and motivation to study English. The surveys were administered in the language the student selected, and this could have been in English, Thai, or Japanese. The surveys consisted of multiple-choice questions as well as open-ended questions that allowed for qualitative data collection. The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics and content analysis.

The study was conducted using an inquiry and problem-based framework, which enabled the authors to develop a deeper understanding of the complex factors that contribute to the success of SEL programs. The study was designed and conducted in a non-biased, ethical, and equitable manner. The next section discusses the findings of the study.

RESULTS

The SELVES project aimed to promote language learning outcomes, social-emotional competencies development, intercultural understanding and communication, and motivation to study English among Thai and Japanese university students. To achieve these goals, the project utilized a combination of SEL and COIL strategies.

Language Learning Outcomes

The language learning outcomes were not limited to the improvement of English proficiency but rather focused on the development of language and communication skills in a variety of languages, including but not limited to English. Participants in the

SELVES project demonstrated improvements in their translingual communication skills through their engagement in virtual exchange activities. For example, during virtual meetings, Thai students often demonstrated a more fluent use of English, including use of discourse markers and the ability to engage in extended conversations. In contrast, Japanese students often preferred to take time to prepare their thoughts and speech, leading to clearer and more concise communication when they spoke. Both Thai and Japanese students struggled but were able to negotiate accents and linguistic differences in real-time, and develop strategies, such as asking for clarification and repetition to ensure effective communication. Participants reported an increased awareness of the importance of context and cultural knowledge in communication, which facilitated their ability to communicate effectively in these diverse settings. However, due to the short duration of the project, there were limitations in the establishment of long-term language outcomes. Therefore, while the SELVES project was successful in promoting translingual communication skills in the short-term, sustained exposure to linguistic diversity is necessary to establish more robust language outcomes.

Social-Emotional Competencies Development

The project's primary objective was to develop the competencies of self-awareness and empathy. Success was evident in the increased results of the SEL assessment administered at the start and the end of the project. For example, students demonstrated greater awareness by reflecting on their own emotions and identifying triggers that affected their emotions. They also showed greater empathy towards others by engaging in perspective-taking activities, such as writing letters to their Japanese peers from the perspective of a Thai student. Additionally, the use of English as the lingua franca was instrumental in facilitating discussions as it provided a common language to talk about emotions and feelings, which can be a difficult topic to discuss in a second language.

Intercultural Understanding and Communication

The project incorporated a variety of activities and strategies that drew on existing research as previously identified in the SEL and COIL sections. The results suggest these strategies and activities were effective

in promoting intercultural understanding and communication among the Thai and Japanese students. For example, students recorded presentations collaboratively to highlight cultural similarities and differences in business settings and discussed with other groups in the classroom how to overcome their differing priorities with their exchange partners. Overcoming difficulties and managing emotions accordingly was a skill they needed to enhance in order to negotiate what the teachers required of them, all in the lingua franca. Empathy was drawn on by students as they realized they were all attempting to navigate the teachers' instructions and simply complete the activities as a classroom task.

Motivation to Study English

In addition to fostering intercultural understanding and communication, the SELVES project aimed to increase the students' motivation to study English. To achieve this goal, the project incorporated various activities and strategies that drew on existing research. For example, students created personalized learning plans and set achievable targets, such as reading a certain number of English-language articles per week. The project also implemented activities that promoted the intrinsic value of learning English, such as engaging with authentic materials, participating in language exchange, and collaborating on meaningful projects. The results suggest students' motivation was highly increased by this project. Students reported increased confidence and interest; for instance, one student mentioned how they enjoyed discussing Japanese anime with their exchange partners in English, which helped them develop their language skills and keep them motivated to continue learning. By incorporating goal-setting techniques and promoting the intrinsic value of learning, educators can help students develop a positive attitude towards language learning and increase their motivation to succeed.

DISCUSSION

Effectiveness of the SELVES Project for Promoting Self-Awareness, Intercultural Understanding, and Motivation to Study English

The SELVES project was successful in promoting self-awareness,

intercultural understanding and motivation to study English among Japanese and Thai university students. Through the project, students were encouraged to reflect on their own cultural values and beliefs as well as those of their peers. By writing class reflections and collaborating on writing and video tasks, students gained a deeper understanding of their own identity and how they relate to others. The project also implemented activities that promoted the intrinsic value of learning English, such as engaging with authentic materials, participating in language exchange dialogues, and collaborating on meaningful projects.

According to the Six Seconds model, self-awareness is crucial for personal growth and emotional intelligence. The SELVES project incorporated activities that fostered emotional literacy, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence. Students were able to enhance their emotional literacy by recognizing and labeling their own emotions through warm-up encounters and expanding on vocabulary in greetings with their international partners. Accurate self-assessment was encouraged through goal-setting and reflection on collaborative work with peers. Self-confidence was promoted through the successful completion of collaborative tasks and achievement of personal goals.

Through the SELVES project, the students were also able to develop their intercultural competence and empathy. They had to learn to communicate effectively and respectfully with each other, even when they had different approaches to task completion. They also had to develop an understanding of each other's intentions and the impact of their actions, which required them to be empathetic and open-minded. The ability to navigate conflicts and understand intention and impact is an important part of SEL, and the SELVES project provided an opportunity for Thai and Japanese students to develop these conflict resolution skills. Further research into the integration of SEL and COIL programs, involving other countries that use English as the lingua franca, would be an interesting avenue to explore for the development of future programs. By learning to adapt to different mindsets and perspectives, these students were able to develop their intercultural competence and empathy, which are essential skills in today's globalized world.

Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Future Research

Some limitations to the study should be acknowledged. Firstly, the

sample size of the study was relatively small, consisting of only about 20 Japanese and 30 Thai students. Therefore, it may not be generalizable to other cultural groups or age ranges. Future research could expand the study sample size to include a more diverse range of participants. Secondly, the study only focused on a specific topic related to sustainable businesses, which may not be of interest to all students. Therefore, it is possible that the success of the SELVES project was partly due to the interest level of the students in the topic. Future studies could explore the effectiveness of this approach on other topics to determine its generalizability. Finally, the study relied on self-reported data from students, which may be subject to bias or inaccurate reporting. Future studies could incorporate more objective measures of the outcomes of the SELVES project, such as assessments of English proficiency or intercultural competence. In conclusion, while the SELVES project showed promising results in promoting self-awareness, intercultural understanding, and motivation to study English, there are limitations that should be considered when interpreting the findings. Future research could address these limitations and provide a more comprehensive understanding of the effectiveness of this approach. It would be beneficial to utilize such a program in several different situations where English is not a dominant language.

CONCLUSIONS

The SELVES project successfully combined SEL and COIL to develop students' self-awareness, emotional identification, empathy, intercultural understanding, and motivation to study English. Despite the challenges of working across cultures and languages, students overcame their differences and completed collaborative tasks related to sustainable business development. The project's qualitative self-reflection data provided valuable insight into students' experiences and perceptions, which can inform SEL and COIL initiatives.

The SEL project contributes to the growing body of research on the potential of SEL and COIL to enhance students' learning and development in today's interconnected world. This project's success makes a compelling case for further integrating SEL and COIL in educational contexts and promoting the development of SEL competencies among students of different backgrounds and cultures. The

project also highlights the need for continued efforts to address the challenges and opportunities of global collaboration in education and foster a more inclusive and sustainable future.

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APPENDIX A

CASEL and Six Seconds Alignment Chart
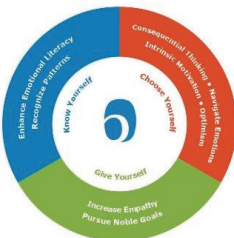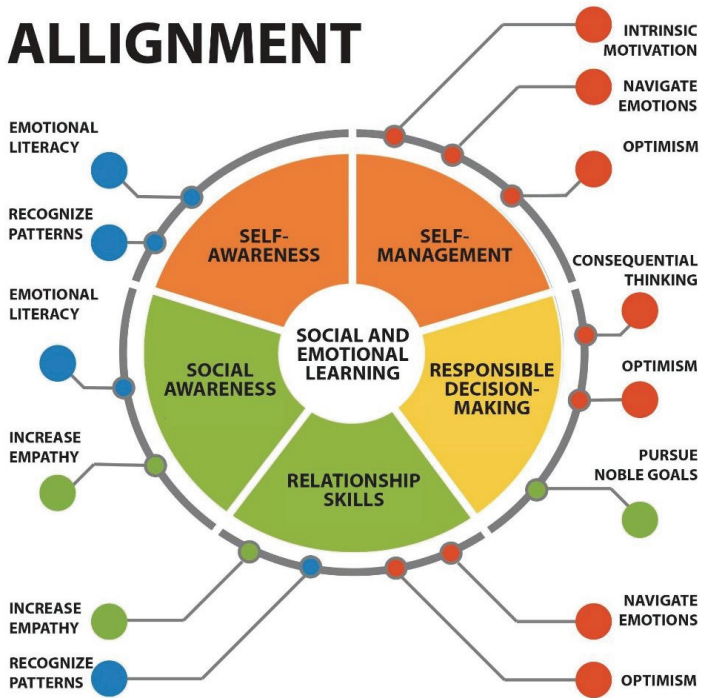
(From Leet & Freedman, 2019.)

APPENDIX B

Six Seconds EQ Report Received

Understanding Your UEQ Profile

The purpose of this tool is to spark your curiosity about your own emotional intelligence. We hope it will lead you to explore and learn more.

There are three steps, shown below.

1　Why EQ?

When you took the SEI®, you answered questions about "how you are doing" re your effectiveness, relationships, quality of life, and wellbeing. This section reflects how you answered these questions, suggesting key benefits of using your emotional intelligence more actively.

Is there anything here you want to sustain or grow? One the sheet, please write a goal for the next few months.
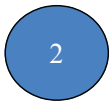
2　What is EQ?

At Six Seconds®, we're interested in emotional intelligence as a PROCESS for using emotions + thinking to support better decisions and drive better outcomes. This section briefly explains, based on how you answered the SEI, what you are doing right now with your EQ process.

Consider: How are these three steps working for you now, and what if you could do these three steps more consistently and effortlessly?

3　How to Leverage Your EQ?

This part of the profile comes from the "SEI Neural Net," the most advanced algorithm used in any emotional intelligence assessment. Based on your personal scores, the AI is suggesting these three steps as the most powerful tools for you to use your emotional intelligence − for the goals you wrote in Step 1. Which of these tools appeals to you? Try one out!

Learn more about EQ: 6sec.org/intro Join Six Seconds: 6sec.org/join
Find online or in-person events to go deeper: 6sec.org/events

(From Freedman & Procicchiani, 2018.)

Perspectives of Korean Parents on NESTs and NNESTs

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The purpose of this study is to investigate different needs of English education between parents of young learners and adolescent learners in South Korea. Additionally, this study explores who would be a more suitable teacher for Korean students between native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs). Participants of the study were (a) parents of young learners, (b) parents of adolescent learners, and (c) English teachers (NESTs and NNESTs) in South Korea. Online surveys and phone interviews were conducted to collect data from the participants. First, the results of the study show that parents of young students preferred NESTs over NNESTs for their children, as they could practice fluent English communication skills with NESTs. Second, significant numbers of parents of adolescent students chose NNESTs over NESTs because they did not see English education as a means to have conversations in English but rather to engage in practical purposes for their children, such as academic performance in school and global job marketing. This study shows that NESTs and NNESTs have their own distinct strengths that could fulfill students' different needs.

Keywords: young learner, adolescent learner, native English-speaking teacher, non-native English-speaking teacher, English education

INTRODUCTION

It is widely known that English is the lingua franca of the world. People of different languages and ethnicities use English as a means to communicate with each other. However, as English becomes more and

more important, an invisible dividing line between native and non-native English speakers has been created over the years. As a result, non-native English speakers tend to learn English before other second languages. South Korea is an exemplar country where most Korean parents wish for their children to acquire English before any other second language and invest in their children's English education starting when their children are young.

The education system in South Korea is considered to be stressful, authoritarian, and competitive. It is stressful because almost all Korean parents take their children's academic lives seriously. Korean parents send their children to private educational academies, called *hagwon*, after school. The Korean parents' educational style for their children is said to be authoritarian because their expectations of their children are high. They consider that it is their duty to invest their time and money in their children's education. In return, they expect their children to get good grades and go to prestigious colleges. In addition, attaining an education is competitive because, while there are only limited numbers of students getting accepted by prestigious colleges, almost every Korean parent has high expectations for their children and have a desire for them to get accepted to name-valued colleges for a promising future.

Just as most other countries evaluate students based on school grades and college entrance exams, Korea is also a country where students enter colleges based on exams. There are many different subjects that they study and take exams on, and they have to do well in all subjects. Among them, English is considered one of the most important subjects for Korean students. Korean students put importance on reading and writing rather than on speaking and listening. Additionally, they focus excessively on getting the right grammar and memorizing vocabulary. This phenomenon creates a learning environment in Korea that is passive, rather than active. Therefore, such a dry learning environment in Korean schools makes students lose interest in English classes and fail to learn English that they can actually use in real life. Nevertheless, in Korea, English still remains one of the subjects that students need to get good grades in in order to be accepted to prestigious colleges.

English is a world language, and it is important for students to achieve effective use of English as well as good grades. As the number of native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) is increasing in Korea, Korean parents prefer their young children to learn English from NESTs rather than from non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs). They

believe that sending their children to English kindergartens is an essential process and that learning English from NESTs improves their communication skills. NESTs, as they are from English-speaking countries, could be used to create a more comfortable teaching culture and tend to teach English lessons in a way that provides their students with more freedom and motivation. Meanwhile, since NESTs are not familiar with Korean culture, they might not understand Korean parents' needs and expectations.

In Korea, amid the strong enthusiasm for education, not only Korean parents but also Korean teachers themselves take education seriously and put a lot of effort into helping their students grow in their educational progress. Korean teachers who are NNESTs tend to teach English resolutely and focus on exam-oriented styles. Since they have grown up in Korea, they know what the parents want from their children. Having a resolute goal, NNESTs teach English seriously and in an orderly manner. Here, teaching in an orderly manner means that they follow traditional Confucian aspects in their education. Korea has a Confucian influence and culture, in which teaching is rigorous and memorization-based. Teachers who spent their middle and high schools in Korea rarely teach students in a communicative approach. Although students might not enjoy their English classes, NNESTs understand better what Korean parents and students' needs and expectations are, and can guide their students to get good grades. However, since English is not their mother tongue, NNESTs are not as fluent English speakers as NESTs are.

The irony is that many Korean parents want their children to learn English from NESTs to improve communicative skills, even though their ultimate need for their children is to get good grades on tests. Although it is difficult to judge who is a better teacher for Korean students, the different backgrounds of NNESTs and NESTs can affect their students in various ways. Differences do not indicate that one of them is superior or inferior. It should be acknowledged that teachers from different backgrounds make different contributions to the English education field. Notwithstanding the fact that the two groups are different, when a NEST and an NNEST teach English together, they compensate for each other's weaknesses and further develop their own strengths.

To create an effective English learning environment in the future for Korean students, it is important to look at both the English educational environments in Korea and the needs of Korean parents and students. In

this study, the perspectives of NESTs and NNESTs are included to investigate the environment of English educational systems in Korea and the strengths and weaknesses of being NESTs and NNESTs. While there has been a fair amount of comparisons between NESTs and NNESTs, there have not been many studies on the Korean parents' perspectives and their needs for their children's English education. This study also covers the points of view of parents of Korean young learners (age 3-9) and adolescent learners (age 10-19) to find out their perspectives of NESTs and NNESTs, and their perception of a better teacher for Korean students.

The research questions for this study were the following:

RQ1. How are the purposes of English education different between the parents of young learners and the parents of adolescent learners?
RQ2. Between NESTs and NNESTs, who would be a better fit for Korean students?

LITERATURE REVIEW

The dichotomy between NESTs and NNESTs has been debated enthusiastically among scholars. One of these scholars, Medgyes (1992), described considerable differences in teaching behaviors between native and non-native English-speaking teachers. NNESTs are by definition less efficient because they are not able to achieve a native speaker's language competence. With this notion, Medgyes stated that having exposure to an English-speaking environment is an effective way for non-native speakers to achieve fluent English. One of the ways is learning English from NESTs who are accustomed to their own cultures and use fluent English. Furthermore, Medgyes gave an alternative view that NNESTs have hidden advantages that NESTs do not possess. He stated that NNESTs can teach learning strategies more effectively compared to NESTs who naturally acquire the language without much effort. Additionally, NNESTs are more able to understand and be more empathetic to the needs and difficulties of language learning. Based on this, it can be said that NESTs and NNESTs have their own strengths that non-native English-speaking students can learn from. The different

backgrounds and cultures of NESTs and NNESTs could affect non-native English-speaking students differently.

Further from Medgyes' theory, it is notable that Lee (2016) compared and contrasted NESTs' and NNESTs' strengths and weaknesses in depth. Overall, it was found that the different cultural and linguistic backgrounds of NESTs and NNESTs result in different linguistic, sociocultural, and pedagogical strengths and weaknesses between them. While NESTs can be more flexible in spontaneous English use and can teach native-like pronunciation and target language cultures based on their first-hand cultural experiences, it can be difficult for them to understand non-native English students' difficulties and their needs. Since English is their mother tongue, they acquire the language naturally rather than by studying. This could make it difficult for them to teach grammar and the structure of English. Lee, like Medgyes, discussed the pros and cons of NESTs and NNESTs but showed a more favorable opinion of NNESTs. While it is inevitable that NNESTs lack English competence in oral fluency, using proper vocabulary, and pronunciation, Lee stated that NNESTs use "authentic English." NNESTs anticipate the difficulties of learning a second language because of their own language learning difficulties. Not only can NNESTs teach learning strategies that they already experienced more effectively, they can also be more empathetic to the expectations of their students compared to NESTs.

Medgyes (2001) advanced his position by bringing up a controversial question: What qualifies someone as a native speaker? Davies (1991) stated that birth is one of the most straightforward criteria that qualifies someone as a native speaker. This means that a native speaker of English is someone who was born in an English-speaking country. However, there is a dispute about this dichotomy. Third culture individuals (TCI) are often bilingual speakers who are born in non-English-speaking countries and are raised in a culture other than their parents' or the culture of their country of nationality. EJ, for example, was born in Korea and attended middle school, high school, and college in the U.S. While her parents are Koreans, and she does not have U.S. citizenship, she speaks both Korean and English fluently. It is hard for her to decide which language she feels more comfortable with. She has a vagueness of identity between being a native and non-native English speaker.

Additionally, the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, and

a few more countries are known to be English-speaking countries. However, countries like India, Nigeria, Philippines, Singapore, and a few more countries are countries where English is spoken widely, but are not known to be English-speaking countries. It is questionable whether the terms of native and non-native speakers are appropriate to use. Instead of defining English speakers as native and non-native, Medgyes introduced new terms: *more or less accomplished English user and proficient English user*. While Medgyes stated that NNESTs often feel disadvantaged and less qualified compared to NESTs, he concluded his paper with a statement that regardless of being native or not, a successful learner can become a successful teacher.

METHOD

Participants

The research methods in this study were based on a Google survey and phone interviews. The survey and interview questions are provided in Appendices A and B. Considering their schedules, the participants had options to choose whether they wanted to fill out a survey form that was sent through email or text messaging, or to talk verbally by phone. All the participants resided in Seoul, which is the capital of Korea, or nearby Seoul. The participants in the study included nine young learners' parents, seven adolescent learners' parents, ten native English-speaking teachers (NESTs), and six non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs). While the age and gender of the students, NESTs, and NNESTs have been revealed, the names of the participants are anonymous in the study to preserve their confidentiality. Instead, the names are initialized for the category that they stand for. For instance, the young learners' parents are initialized as "YLP" in Table 1 and adolescent learners' parents as "ALP" in Table 2. The native English-speaking teachers are labeled "NEST" and the non-native English-speaking teachers as "NNEST" in Tables 3 and 4, respectively. The participants listed in each table are in the order in which they replied to the phone/survey option. Regarding the ages of the students, the age of the youngest child is displayed for each participant in Tables 1 and 2. For instance, ALP A has eleven-year-old and fifteen-year-old sons. Only the eleven year old son is listed in the Student Age column

in Table 2. The age and gender of the young learners as supplied by their parents are summarized in Table 1. The age and gender of the adolescent learners as supplied by their parents are summarized in Table 2. The demographics of the NESTs are summarized in Table 3. And lastly, the demographics of the NNESTs are summarized in Table 4.

TABLE 1. Demographic Information on the Young Learners

Participant	Student Gender	Student Age
YLP A	Male	3
YLP B	Male	8
YLP C	Male	7
YLP D	Male	7
YLP E	Female	7
YLP F	Female	6
YLP G	Female	9
YLP H	Female	5
YLP I	Male	7

TABLE 2. Demographic Information on the Adolescent Learners

Participant	Student Gender	Student Age
ALP A	Male	11
ALP B	Female	13
ALP C	Female	17
ALP D	Male	19
ALP E	Female	14
ALP F	Female	13
ALP G	Female	13

TABLE 3. Demographic Information of Native English-Speaking Teachers (NESTs)

Participant	Gender	Age	Years of Teaching	Age of Students
NEST A	Female	34	1	7
NEST B	Female	43	5	9
NEST C	Female	34	2	9
NEST D	Female	30	2	12
NEST E	Female	26	1	6
NEST F	Female	28	3	9
NEST G	Male	33	8	17
NEST H	Female	36	10	13
NEST I	Male	33	4	12
NEST J	Female	36	6	4

TABLE 4. Demographic Information of Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers (NESTs)

Participant	Gender	Age	Years of Teaching	Age of Students
NNEST A	Female	28	6	14
NNEST B	Female	26	3	18
NNEST C	Female	37	2	5
NNEST D	Female	31	8	7
NNEST E	Female	37	2	14
NNEST F	Female	34	1	5

Data Collection

This study considered Korean educational backgrounds and students' needs in English learning. Additionally, this study examined a diverse group of the participants' different personal views on the strengths and weaknesses of NESTs and NNESTs. While the survey and interviews of Korean parents mainly elaborated their needs for their children's English education and their views on NESTs and NNESTs, the survey and interviews of NESTs and NNESTs revealed their perceptions on the Korean educational environment with respect to English and what needs to be changed for Korean students. The questions from the survey for

NESTs were written in English. The survey questions for NNESTs and Korean parents were written in Korean. Participants who preferred the survey had a maximum of ten days to complete it. Their answers were automatically saved in a Google survey form that was created for the purpose of this study. The phone interviews each took approximately 35 to 60 minutes to complete. The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed before being analyzed. After the survey and interviews were conducted and transcribed, clarification questions were mailed to each participant. The analyzed data were compared with previous literature.

FINDINGS

Instead of insisting on a biased opinion that one is better than the other, it is essential for both teachers and parents to be aware of not only what the strengths and weaknesses of NESTs and NNESTs are, but also how the needs and expectations of Korean students are different. Both Korean parents of young learners and of adolescent learners addressed their views while the perspectives of both NESTs and NNESTs are also stated in this paper. The following section discusses the perspectives of Korean parents and teachers who currently work in Korea based on the surveys and interviews. The findings are addressed in the following order: (1) parents of young learners, (2) parents of adolescent learners, and (3) English teachers in South Korea.

Parents of Young Learners in South Korea

The results and analysis are based on the survey and interviews of parents of young learners whose ages varied from kindergarten to lower-grade elementary school students (ages 3-9).

## The Effects of South Korea's Declining Population on English Education

According to the Korean Statistical Information Service (KOSIS; n.d.), it has become an era in which marriage and childbirth are optional, not mandatory. As a result, Korea started with a decrease in the average fertility rate of 0.98 per household in 2018, and it has continued to decline every year to an average fertility rate of 0.78 per household in

2022. Compared with the previous year, in 2022, the fertility rate of women under the age of 35 declined while the birth rate of women over the age of 35 increased. Unlike in the past, as marriage and childbirth are delayed, the rate of giving birth to one child per woman is increasing compared to the previous year, and the rate of giving birth to more than two children is decreasing. Fertility rates are declining in most of the 17 largest cities in Korea. Among them, Seoul, the capital and center of Korea, had the lowest total fertility rate of 0.59 among the 17 cities in 2022. As the population decreases, Korea's economic growth and jobs are also expected to decrease in the future. The cascading phenomenon in the future has led Korean parents to view that the younger their children are, the greater the importance of learning English is. One of the participants, YLP A, emphasized that English education has become more crucial, especially for her children's generation because of the decreasing population in Korea:

> I believe that English education is a prerequisite and foundational education in that it is a necessary tool. In particular, considering the generation of our children whose population is seriously declining, it will be difficult for them to get job opportunities in Korea when they become adults. English education is essential in that they will have to work in any field around the world. [YLP A]

YLP A stated that non-native English-speaking teachers who grew up in Korea have the advantage of helping children understand English by explaining in Korean, but because it is important to communicate fluently with native English speakers and understand their intentions accurately, she preferred NESTs over NNESTs. She added that Koreans have a tendency to be better at English grammar and writing than native English speakers. However, knowing accurate English is the next step after achieving native-like communication skills in her perspective. In fact, all of the young learners' parents in this study considered communication skills to be crucial compared to all other needs in English education (see Figure 1).

FIGURE 1. Purpose of Learning English (Perspective of Korean Young Learners' Parents)
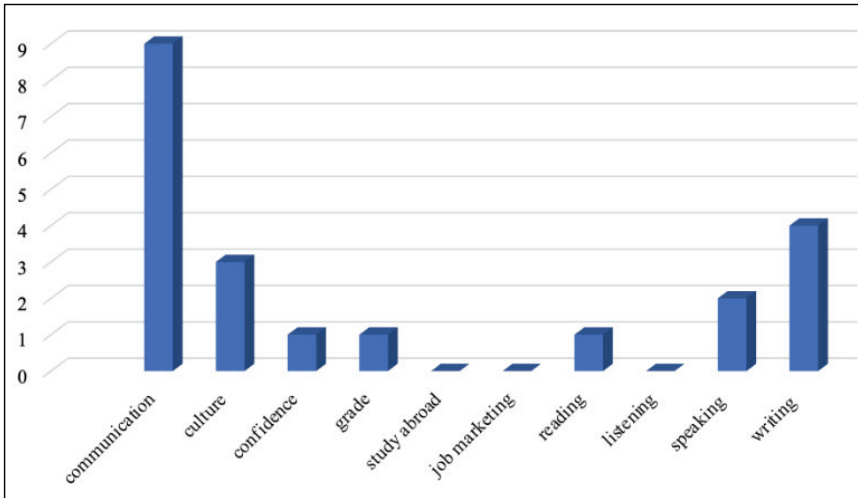
YLP D also indicated that conversation skills in English are important and connected to gaining confidence. This suggests that when a child knows how to communicate fluently in English, they will not have fear in speaking English with people around the world. She also stated that there would also be a synergistic effect of improving language skills with such confidence. With confidence in English, access to English content is flexible, and it will also help a child acquire further knowledge. Seventy-eight percent of the young learners' parents wanted NESTs who have been exposed to English-speaking cultures for their children to practice English with. While none of them chose NNESTs only, 22% of them preferred both types of teachers in that NNESTs are able to explain to young children in Korean when necessary, since NESTs often do not speak Korean (see Figure 2). The population decline has changed the expectations of English education for parents of young children. They viewed that instead of focusing on school grades, having hands-on practice with NESTs is an essential part of English education before their children enter adolescence.

FIGURE 2. Preference for NESTs vs. NNESTs (Perspective of Korean Young Learners' Parents)
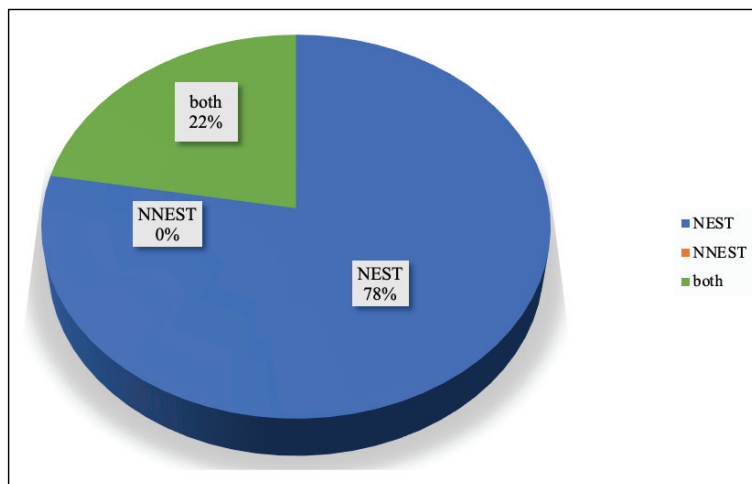
English Kindergartens Chosen by Korean Parents

As shown in Figure 1, all participants who were the parents of young learners chose the importance of English communication skills for their children's English education, followed by improving English creative writing skills and understanding the culture and ideology of English-speaking countries. Looking at their overall responses in Figure 1, they regarded it to be crucial to speak and write in English without hesitation. Because of this aspect that they considered important, most of them preferred NESTs as English teachers. No participants chose NNESTs only. Only 22% of them chose a combination of both NESTs and NNESTs (see Figure 2). In the interview, YLP I shared her experience of hiring a NEST for her child. It is the background of NESTs that concerned her. She added that it is hard to trust NESTs in terms of their characteristics and academic background. She could not fully know about the schools the NEST graduated from and the reputation of the teacher in their home country.

Another participant who preferred to have both NESTs and NNESTs as her child's English teachers, YLP F, commented that NESTs teach better with an English accent and vocabulary for young children. However, she viewed communication between NESTs and the learner's parents to be difficult. The role of NNESTs is important because they

can more easily enhance communication, as most Korean parents are not native English speakers.

Nonetheless, both participants, YLP I and YLP F, still preferred NESTs over NNESTs if they had to choose. They said so because the advantages of NESTs were much more important to them than those of NNESTs. YLP I indicated that the difference between NESTs and NNESTs seems subtle, but there is a big difference in terms of English expressions and the vocabulary that they use. Like many parents of young learners, she considered her child to be more fluent in English after two to three years of learning English at an English kindergarten with NESTs. With the same belief, Korean parents of young learners are eager to send their children to English kindergartens. Even though the tuition of English kindergartens is significantly higher than kindergartens teaching in Korean, some of the English kindergartens are very competitive to get into. Some English kindergartens require young children to take exams and to get certain scores to get accepted. The main purpose for parents to send their children to English kindergarten is to achieve native-like English.

The young children's parents who sent their children to English kindergartens claimed that it was more helpful for their children to learn English than not attending an English kindergarten. Participants whose children had graduated from English kindergartens in Korea indicated that their children were able to speak English as naturally as their mother tongue. One participant, YLP E, stated her opinion that children from English kindergartens showed more progress in English listening, speaking, pronunciation, and vocabulary levels compared to other children who did not graduate from English kindergartens:

> In the case of my child, she graduated from an English kindergarten composed of native English teachers only. It is an unavoidable fact that young students like my child who graduated from an English kindergarten have more exposure to English than children who attended kindergartens taught only in Korean. It seems that my child has gained confidence in speaking English by constantly practicing English with native English teachers and is superior in such areas as pronunciation, listening, and free talking. [YLP E]

When the teachers were NNESTs whose first language is Korean, the children in the study were more likely to speak in Korean, which

they were comfortable with. In the case of English kindergarten children, they spent a lot of time using English because the NESTs taught lessons in English. The parents claimed that exposure to NESTs is important. They considered that when children first encounter English at a young age with relatively little to study, they can naturally learn how to listen and speak through native English speakers, and they can accept English without difficulty.

On the other hand, YLP I, a parent of a young learner and also an English teacher in Korea, expressed the difficult time her son had attending an English kindergarten. She considered her son to be too young to encounter "foreigners" who spoke a different language. Her son acquired some English vocabulary and learned phonics, but he did not enjoy the classes taught by the NESTs. He felt tremendous stress because he could not understand the instructions from the NESTs. From the perspectives of both a parent and an English teacher, YLP I doubted that sending young children to English kindergartens and leaving them with NESTs would benefit them. She rather thought that when children have not yet mastered their first language, which is Korean, NNESTs could better assist young students with explaining words and phrases that they do not know.

Parents of Adolescent Learners in South Korea

These results and analysis are based on the survey and interviews of parents of adolescent learners whose ages varied from upper-grade elementary school students to high school students. The World Health Organization defines the ages of adolescent learners to be 10−19 years old.

Great Importance on Academic Performance

As the 21st century becomes a global society, being able to learn and use English appropriately has become a more important value of studying English. Like the parents of young learners, most parents of adolescent learners in this study also claimed that English communication skills are the ultimate goal of learning English for their children. As shown in Figure 3, among the adolescent learners' parents in this study, the majority of them (86%) selected *native-like communication skills in English* (46%) as the purpose of learning English for their children. The second most popular item was *grade*

(23%), followed by *reading* (15%).

As mentioned above, the parents of adolescent learners also considered native-like communication skills important, but they questioned whether the Korean English kindergarten system would be of great help to their children. While the parents of young learners claimed that receiving education from English kindergartens and NESTs is effective for language learning, the parents of the adolescent learners in this study had different perspectives. Although they did not deny the benefits of learning English from NESTs, they disagreed that their children's experience of attending English kindergartens and learning from NESTs would be of great help to their children in the distant future. Children at a young age can often get confused when they are only exposed to NESTs because English is not their first language, and they have barely mastered their first language, Korean. Thus, it would not be easy for young children to deliver what they want to say and communicate with NESTs right away. In addition, most of the parents of the adolescent students in this study also regarded the ability to communicate in English like a native speaker to be essential. However, in thinking about their children's future, most of the parents of the adolescent students put the focus of English education on school exams.

ALP A, an adolescent learner's parent, had an eleven-year-old son and a fifteen-year-old son. Since her children had graduated from regular kindergartens that were taught only in Korean, she admitted that those who finished English kindergartens and had more contacts with NESTs were better at listening and speaking. In regard to the importance of English education, she chose native-like communication in English and academic performance. The reason why she considered communicating in English to be important is that the scope of activities to meet people from other countries is broadening, as traveling around the world is becoming easier. Next, she chose academic performance for the purpose of English education:

I was more obsessed with English classes that were taught by NESTs for my children, and I had a strong desire for them to accept English as one of their languages when they were young. As time goes by, they need to focus on Korean-style grammar education and study for the entrance exam to get their academic grades right away. [ALP A]

She said that English communication skills are important for their children, but what mattered more as time went by is getting good English grades in school.

Another participant, ALP E, whose child had graduated from English kindergarten also emphasized the importance of her child's academic performance in English at school over English communicative skills. The parents of adolescent learners in this study believed that academic education should be done well in school in order for their children to achieve their desired career or dreams. Among different subjects, English is one of the most important. It has become essential for their children to not only communicate proficiently in English but also to receive a good English score for college entrance.

According to the results of both participants from the young learners' parents and from the adolescent learners' parents, it has been shown that English communication skills are important for the purpose of English education. On the other hand, only 5% of the participants in the young learners' parents group responded that their children should learn English for academic performance (*grade*), while 23% of the participants in the adolescent learners' parents chose it (see Figures 1 and 3). Although both groups were conscious of the essential purpose of English education for communication skills, it became important for their children to get good grades due to the characteristics of Korean culture and the Korean education system. In other words, the Korean parents in this study became more realistic and saw what was in front of their children as their children got older.

FIGURE 3. Purpose of Learning English (Perspective of Korean Adolescent Learners' Parents)
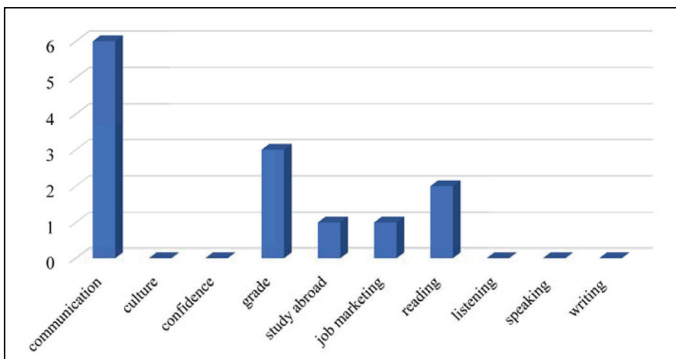
Teaching Strategies of Korean Teachers

The parents of the adolescent students in this study demonstrated that both NESTs and NNESTs influence students positively in their own ways. While all the young learners' parents in this study showed a preference for NESTs, the adolescent learners' parents did not show such an extreme preference for NESTs. As shown in Figure 4, a significant number of the adolescent students' parents chose NNESTs (57%) over NESTs (29%). The reason for these results was that compared to the parents of the young students, the parents of the adolescent students did not see English education as merely a means to communicating in English and learning more about English-speaking countries' cultures but rather as a means to engaging in more practical purposes for their children, i.e., academic performance and global job marketing. The adolescent learners' parents considered the teaching method of NESTs to be less systematic than that of NNESTs. Because academics are so important to Korean society, many parents of adolescent learners wanted Korean teachers to teach English according to what Korean parents and students desired. Korean teachers also have grown up and attended schools in Korea and are aware of Korean culture. Korean parents assume that NNESTs are more suitable for Korean adolescent students because they understand the difficulties that their students undergo.

FIGURE 4. Preference for NESTs vs. NNESTs (Perspective of Korean Adolescent Learners' Parents)
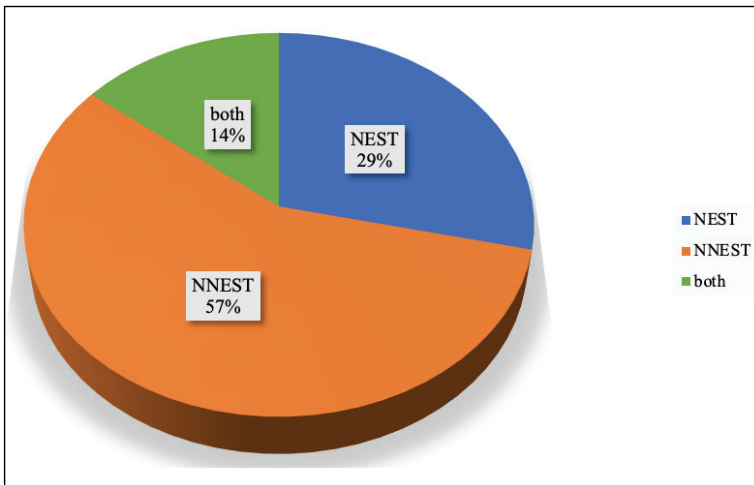
On the other hand, there are some disadvantages of NNESTs that the parents of adolescent learners addressed. Sometimes the students found their Korean teachers' classes boring. Korean-style English education is often called "the stereotypical class," which has a fixed flow and limits students' creativity. These types of classes do not allow students to realize the purpose of studying English and study on their own. In order not to be scolded by their teachers, it is common for students to stay after class and do their homework. Most of the classes that create this atmosphere are taught by Korean teachers. Despite these disadvantages, the Korean parents of adolescent students still wanted to entrust their children's English education to NNESTs. This is because the Korean teachers' classes are mostly systematized and more effective in managing and supervising their students. Also, students felt less distanced from NNESTs than from NESTs. Since there are no language barrier between students and NNESTs, it is easier to ask questions without hesitation. Additionally, NNESTs can analyze and explain the details of the students' weak parts that the students and parents have not noticed and also guide classes according to each student's level.

One participant, ALP E, stated the reason why she prefers NNESTs over NESTs. She insisted that if possible, it would be best for her child to have a well-balanced class between native and non-native English-speaking teachers. However, if she had to choose, she would like to entrust English education to a NNEST. She elaborated that since the NNESTs' native language is Korean, they will be better at managing the needs of Korean students and answering their questions thoroughly. Korea is a society where the academic aspect is considered important. Korean teachers recognize the needs of Korean students in teaching entrance exam studies. Also, they plan and teach accordingly. Although there may be differences in the teachers' tendencies and teaching methods, NESTs tend to be less structured in teaching English than NNESTs from the perspectives of parents of adolescent learners. Participants ALP A and ALP C also expressed their preference for NNESTs over NESTs for their children. They both agreed that not only adolescent students but also young students who are comfortable in understanding Korean, need a process of learning and understanding English through Korean, not in English. ALP A mentioned that a process in which teachers who can speak Korean and English at the same time, such as Korean teachers to accurately point out and help students understand the things that they do not know in Korean, is essential in

English education. While students can listen to and learn accurate English accents from NESTs, it is difficult for NESTs to recognize every detail that Korean students do not understand in class.

English Teachers in South Korea

These results and analysis are based on the survey and interviews of both NESTs and NNESTs who worked in South Korea during the time of the surveys or interviews.

High Investment and High Expectations of English Education in Korea

One of the advantages of learning English in South Korea is that there are many different types of private English education institutions. When there were limited sources for Korean students to learn English in the past, the grammar-translation method, in which students translate from English to Korean, was emphasized. The students focused on memorizing English vocabulary and learning grammar. These days, more focus is placed on English speaking and writing. An English education environment where students are more motivated to learn English has been created compared to the past. There are various types of English education academies, and students can choose according to their needs.

As the private education market in Korea develops, Korean parents are eager to support their children and send them to private English institutions. Due to this phenomenon, it is difficult for Korean students to receive good grades in schools without attending private English institutions. NNEST C is a teacher who runs her own private English institution for five- to ten-year-old students. NNEST C agreed that private education is gradually developing, and consumers of English education can choose and attend various types of English academies. On the other hand, she is concerned that this phenomenon has a downside in Korea. Almost all daycare centers, kindergartens, and schools in Korea provide English education. However, the English education in school is insufficient to catch up with the private education market, and the learning outcomes are not as effective. She noted that most of the parents who come to her academy for consultations tell her that even though their children are receiving English education at kindergartens or daycare centers, their children's English skills are not improving compared to the other children who also receive private education. She

also acknowledged that the Korean private education market will always improve, although it would be ideal if students who do not receive private education could learn high-quality English education in school.

Despite the high cost of private education, Korean parents tend to invest a lot of money in English education for their children. In Korea, parents spend more money on their children's private education than they spend on the education that their children receive at school. Not every parent invests in their children's English study to the extent that it is economically unreasonable. However, knowing that the majority of a person's neighboring children attend after-school English classes in addition to the English classes at school, while there own child does not, a parent could worry that their child would fall behind in English performance. Because of this sense of comparison, many Korean parents want to invest in their children's English education and hope their children learn native-like English.

NEST C, a native English teacher at an international school in Korea, shared her experience of encountering Korean parents and students in school. When Korean parents entrust their children's English education to English teachers, many of them have high expectations of their children acquiring native-like English, especially when their children are young. If their children's English performance does not equal their investment in English education, the parents regard their children's English as not improving because they have not learned English from NESTs. NEST C explained why Korean parents prefer NESTs:

> In Korea, English is considered overly important and a lot of money is spent on it. If their children don't improve their skills as much as expected for the amount of money spent, they may not prefer NNESTs. They may think it's a waste of money and think that it's a teacher's problem, not their children's problem. [NEST C]

Korean parents tend to be prejudiced, thinking that NESTs teach better English than NNESTs. As long as the mother tongue of children is not English, it is difficult for Korean students to acquire native proficiency in English. NEST J's view was that even though they receive English education from NESTs and communicate only in English at school and private institutions, when they return home, they have daily conversations with their families in Korean instead of English. Therefore,

it is only the desire of parents to want their children to acquire English like their mother tongue.

Understanding Different Ages and Needs of Students

Students of different ages have different needs and expectations. When the needs and expectations of students are identified first, this will help in determining which teacher is more suitable for each student. During the time of attending kindergarten and the lower grades of elementary school, the emphasis is placed on the practical use of English, focusing on communicative language teaching. Compared to adolescent learners, young learners have more time to invest in learning English relatively freely and can learn the language quickly. According to the interviews and surveys, the Korean parents of young learners desired their young children to not only be able to speak English fluently but also to be able to do it without having a sense of distance from English. NEST A, a teacher in an international school in Korea, shared her experience in school: "Native English-speaking teachers could be better teachers for young learners. Young learners learn fast. They learn through copying what the teachers say. So, native English-speaking teachers have a higher chance of meeting what young learners' parents want." Additionally, as English is their native language, NESTs can share the culture of English-speaking countries and teach frequently used and up-to-date words with students. NEST D, also a teacher at an international school, addressed the view that NESTs can teach real English. According to her, as every language has a slight change every year, new expressions and idioms are created. For example, the phrase "What in the world?" is an idiom expressing surprise about a certain situation instead of a literal interpretation. NESTs could teach everyday English for students to communicate fluently and fix their awkward English, whereas NNESTs are less skilled at immediately correcting English mistakes that students make. Also, knowing that NNESTs speak Korean, young learners tend to converse with NNESTs in their native language without making much effort to speak in English, which could result in slow growth in English. Considering the advantages of NESTs and the disadvantages of NNESTs for young students mentioned above, the parents of young learners prefer NESTs.

As students are promoted to higher grades at school in Korea, education that focuses on assessment is carried out, and English classes are limited to listening and reading. In this situation, students learn

English through the grammar-translation method, which is English teaching based on the grammatical analysis of English and translation of sentences from the native language into English and vice versa. English grammar is an important part of academic performance in schools in Korea and is a basic need for Korean students. In terms of how to teach English grammar, it is more difficult for NESTs than NNESTs. NNEST B who has been teaching adolescent students stated that just as Koreans learn Korean language naturally from birth as their mother tongue, people who speak English as their mother tongue grow up learning English naturally without noticing the grammatical rules. Thus, she understood that NESTs have limitations in systematically teaching English grammar. It is difficult for NESTs to perceive the point of view of Korean students. For instance, in the case of Korean, the word order of a sentence is subject-object-verb. On the other hand, in English, it is subject-verb-object word order. Since NESTs take the English word order for granted, it is difficult for them to empathize with Korean students who struggle in interpreting English sentences. NNEST A stated that Korean teachers have many tips to share with adolescent students because they have already gone through a similar curriculum in Korea. Also, since it is easier for NNESTs to communicate with students and parents, they could plan accordingly to teach what students and parents need.

NEST G had experience in teaching students of various ages: elementary, middle, and high school students in Korea. She acknowledged that students have different needs to meet. Based on her experience of teaching both young and adolescent learners in Korea, she conceded that NNESTs are more suitable English teachers in the Korean educational environment for both young and adolescent learners, while many young learners' parents tend to prefer NESTs. She added that this phenomenon occurs because Korean parents ultimately aim for their children to get good grades in English and enter prestigious universities in Korea. Students who have learned English with a focus on the grammar-translation method have an abundant knowledge of English vocabulary and grammar rules. However, the ironic situation occurs in which students recognize the content but cannot express their intention or opinion when conversing with another person in English. In fact, the majority of Korean parents have doubts about what to focus on in teaching their children English in the current English education environment.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Many Korean parents are involved in their children's education. Targeting parental interests, the market in private educational institutions is growing in Korea. There are different types of not only English institutions but also English teachers that Korean parents and students can choose from. Many believe that NESTs teach better English because English is their native language. However, having NESTs as English teachers does not guarantee the success of English acquisition for Korean students. It is this study's aim to determine which of the two types of English teachers, NESTs or NNESTs, is more suitable for the Korean educational environment. Because the goals of English learning between young learners and adolescent learners are different, the overall findings of the study suggest that preferences for NESTs and NNESTs change depending on who the target learners are.

Throughout the data selection process, the study found that the population decline in Korea has affected the expectations of English education for parents of young children. They viewed that instead of focusing on school grades, having hands-on practice with NESTs is a crucial part of English education before their children enter adolescence. This perspective of young learners' parents has led them to prefer NESTs over NNESTs. Even though they acknowledged that NNESTs who learn English in Korea have the advantage of helping their children by explaining English vocabulary and sentences in Korean, they considered that it is a more crucial goal of learning English for their children to communicate fluently in English than any other needs. Additionally, this study showed that in order for their young children to achieve native-like English, the young learners' parents in Korea sent their children to English kindergartens where children use English with NESTs.

The study's findings indicated that while parents of young learners believed that receiving education from English kindergartens and NESTs is effective for language learning, the parents of adolescent learners had some doubts about this claim. Despite the fact that they did not deny the benefits of learning English from NESTs, the parents of the adolescent learners disagreed that their children's experience of learning from NESTs at English kindergartens was a great help to their children in the distant future. Additionally, like the young learners' parents, the majority of the adolescent learners' parents viewed English communicative skills

as the ultimate goal of learning English for their children. They also chose school grades as a purpose of learning English. However, compared to the parents of young students, the parents of the adolescent learners did not see English education as important for conversing in English or learning more about English-speaking countries' ideologies, but rather as a means to engage in more practical purposes for their children, such as academic performance and global job marketing. In order to fulfill the expectation of adolescent learners, a significant number of adolescent students' parents chose NNESTs over NESTs. They believed that Korean teachers are aware of how the Korean curriculum works and what Korean study culture is and therefore understand what their children's needs are.

The qualifications of a good English teacher should be judged not by whether they are a NEST or NNEST, but by whether they have sufficient education and expertise. However, this study showed that it is inevitable that NESTs and NNESTs each have their own strengths that can fulfill some student needs. It would be ideal to have a proper balance between NESTs and NNESTs to utilize the strengths of each and compensate for weaknesses.

Even though this study made some contributions to the field of English language teaching, it has certain limitations. First, the division between NESTs and NNESTs was unclear in the study. While they have fluent English-speaking skills, both types of teachers who were born in English-speaking countries and who have attended schools in English-speaking countries for more than five years were considered as NESTs in the study. Second, more than half of the total participants were Korean parents, which do not fully represent the voice of Korean students. In the case of young children, the parents responded on their behalf, as they were too young to express themselves and complete the interview or survey. On the other hand, the adolescent learners would have been able to fully convey their experiences through interviews or surveys. It would be more beneficial to interview them directly rather than their parents in future research.

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APPENDIX A

Survey/Interview Questions for Korean Parents

1. What is your child's gender and age?
2. Is your child currently attending an English kindergarten? If not, have you ever sent your child to an English kindergarten in the past?
3. If your child currently attends an English kindergarten, or if your child has attended an English kindergarten in the past, do you think sending your child to an English kindergarten will help your child learn better English than other children? In what part do you think so?
4. On a scale of 1 to 10, how would you rate the importance of English education compared to other subjects?
5. What do you think is the most important part of English education? Please suggest two or more and provide additional explanations or examples accordingly.
   (Examples: native-like communication in English, academic grades, correct use of grammar, etc.)
6. If there is a native English-speaking teacher and a non-native English-speaking teacher, which would you like to entrust your child with English education? Why? Please explain in detail.
7. Please feel free to share the strengths and weaknesses of native English-speaking teachers.
8. Please share the strengths and weaknesses of non-native English-speaking teachers.

APPENDIX B

Survey/Interview Questions for English Teachers

1. How old are you?
2. What is your gender?
3. Are you currently teaching English in Korea?
4. If yes, how many years have you been teaching English in Korea?
5. What age(s) of students do you mainly teach?
6. What is the best aspect of teaching English in Korea? Please share your experience.
7. What do you think should be improved in the Korean educational environment? Please share your experience.
8. What are the strengths of being a native English-speaking teacher? Why?
9. What are the weaknesses of being a native English-speaking teacher? Why?
10. What are the strengths of being a non-native English-speaking teacher? Why?
11. What are the weaknesses of being a non-native English-speaking teacher? Why?
12. Between a native English-speaking teacher and a non-native English-speaking teacher, which do you think fits the Korean educational environment and meets the needs of Korean students and parents more? Why?

English Curriculum Report of a Chinese Teacher Training University

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This study investigated the English teacher training materials of a well-established teacher training university in China (referred to as CTTU) and the oral reports presented by two students in the master's program. This pilot study revealed that the English language teacher training program in China requires improvements to effectively equip teachers in implementing communicative language teaching (CLT). School administrators are encouraged to consider reducing class sizes and provide practical teacher training to enhance CLT implementation in large classes. This initiative fosters a heightened awareness among teachers about how their beliefs and contextual factors influence their instructional choices (Zheng & Borg, 2014). Moreover, a similar investigation involving Korean English language teachers' personal narratives holds promise in generating pertinent pedagogical implications for educational policymaking, curriculum reform, professional preparation, and ongoing professional development of language teachers.

Keywords: communicative language teaching (CLT) in China, English language teacher training, teacher beliefs and contextual factors

INTRODUCTION

Applied linguists have studied language learning classrooms from two distinct perspectives. On the one hand, discourse and conversation analysts have described particular moments of classroom interaction in detail (e.g., Markee & Kunitz, 2015; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975); on the other hand, social practice theorists (e.g., Astarita, 2015; Donato & Davin, 2017; Showstack, 2014) have studied the privileges, ideologies,

and histories of those very moments lived by teachers and students. These two perspectives on classroom language learning have developed into separate research streams. In the past two decades, various studies have been conducted using discourse analysis methods, but comparatively little has been done in the field of history in person. There are two reasons for this: First, socio-historical research into learner and teacher backgrounds has over-theorized the role of historical context without clearly characterizing its influence on classroom interaction, and second, the influence of the institutional context in which teachers and their students work has not been described in sufficient detail to understand how it constrains and affords pedagogy. To fill the gap, this pilot project, associated with a dissertation, combines those two perspectives and strives for an extensive description of English teachers' personal history and the institutional context in which they work.

LITERATURE OVERVIEW

History-in-Person Perspective and Discourse Analysis Perspectives

Among the few studies that have addressed the synergy between the personal history of teachers and learners and the discourse of language learning in the classroom, most have focused on learners rather than teachers. Three completed studies of language learners include the following. Showstack (2014) described how students in a Spanish heritage language program with different learner histories positioned themselves as language learners and as multilinguals through immersion in Spanish-speaking communities. Toth (2014) documented the relationship between American students' prior knowledge of L2 Spanish when collaboratively formulating explicit grammar rules for use of the Spanish pronoun *se*. Astarita (2015) described the social class identity of first-generation and/or working-class students of foreign languages at university, which was highlighted by classroom activities that elicited personal information.

I know, however, of only three studies of foreign language teachers. Donato and Davin (2017) described the sources of novice teachers' classroom practices, showing that they are shaped by their personal histories as language learners; and in an analysis of narratives, Loh (2012) and Spilchuk (2009) have told stories of a beginning primary

school teacher and the conflict he experienced between his own beliefs about teaching and the accepted community norms of teaching enforced by his own school principal. However, these previous studies have relatively small datasets and neither of them was set in China, leaving the cultural factor unexamined so far. My own research builds on these studies and shifts the focus to China to see if EFL teachers there also experience conflicts between their cognition of language teaching methods and the institutional guidelines under which they work.

English Teachers' Role in the Chinese Education System

Richards and Lockhart (1994) pointed out, "Teaching is an activity which is embedded within a set of culturally bound assumptions about teachers, teaching, and learners. These assumptions reflect what the teacher's responsibility is believed to be, how learning is understood, and how students are expected to interact in the classroom" (p. 107). In China's cultural context, teachers are often considered as an authority partly due to the heavy influence of Confucian ideology (Qi, 2018; Wei, 2016). Teachers have been highly valued by both the Ministry of Education and the public throughout history. They play a pivotal role in the educational system (Qi, 2018).

Norms concerning teachers and teaching is a key element of Chinese education. In Chinese societies, the ideal teacher is typically characterized by several features. First, they are an authority figure, part of which is because of the traditional culture in China that the youth should be respectful of elders and the student should follow the teacher (Wei, 2016). In the classroom, teachers are expected to maintain a disciplined and orderly learning environment, and in realizing this, they are often the dominating decision-makers (Spangler, 2016; Tan & Reyes, 2016; Wang, 2016). During class time, language teachers usually lecture and spend a large amount of time explaining language points, while the students are passive recipients of knowledge, seldom doing any self-learning or self-reflection on their own (Wei, 2016).

Second, the teacher serves as controller and regulator. Teachers often have a particular lesson plan for their language teaching before they go to class. They tend to guide students to read texts and explain difficult points. Students are usually asked to listen attentively and keep silent while taking notes, which would discourage their creative and independent thinking to some extent. In addition, cramming content and

going over it quickly is not a bad choice for most teachers, given their limited amount of class time and large class size (Wei, 2016).

Third, the ideal teacher is an exceptionally competent bearer and transmitter of knowledge. Traditionally seen as respected authority, the teacher must possess deep expertise in their subjects and impart it to students, who are then expected to do their best to master the knowledge in its entirety. English teachers are expected to grasp a wide range of knowledge about English language, including, but not limited to, vocabulary, grammar, and culture. They also need to know various teaching techniques (Wei, 2016).

The conventional notion of a teacher as a knowledge transmitter has heavily influenced many aspects of China's education, including curriculum design, textbook selection, teaching style, and the teacher–student relationship (Qi, 2018). The knowledge orientation of Chinese teachers is in accordance with the textbook-oriented curricula that tend to be highly structured. Both teachers and teaching materials serve the purpose of imparting a large amount of knowledge to students. Chinese teachers usually spend "most of the class time explaining English vocabulary, syntax, and grammatical features in their native tongue, while students repeat and memorize with the help of textbooks" (Hong & Pawan, 2015, p. 31). Grammar-translation and audiolingual methods have thus been the dominant teaching methods in China's EFL classes. And those students who are able to acquire and reproduce the knowledge are deemed as attaining the highest levels of academic achievement (Spangler, 2016).

Nevertheless, the traditional roles of English teachers have been greatly challenged since the implementation of China's reform and opening-up policy in 1978. The focus of attention has now become how to foster students' innovation and creativity to fulfill various purposes in cultural, economic, and political arenas when communicating with English speakers from abroad. It turned out that most college students, after at least eight years of English education starting from primary school, were still unable to communicate functionally with native speakers of English. A lot of students had been spoon-fed English language knowledge by teachers standing and talking on the teaching platform, but they still lacked the ability to communicate in English in real life (Qi, 2018).

It has thus been brought to the attention of public and education administrators that the teacher's traditional roles as authority figure,

controller, and knowledge transmitter are no longer appropriate. Instead, teachers need to help students become individuals with critical and creative thinking to meet the needs of development of Chinese society. Under these circumstances, the traditional roles of Chinese language teachers have been the center of great controversy (Wei, 2016). Teachers are expected to take on flexible and multiple roles to facilitate and motivate students' learning and to help them become more adaptable to a fast-changing world.

Accordingly, in the past decades, education reforms in China have pushed for what has been called "a more student-centered curriculum" (Spangler, 2016, p. 346). In response to the dissatisfaction with the traditional grammar-translation and audiolingual methods, the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach was introduced into China's EFL teaching practice in the early 1990s. By the mid-1990s, CLT had become a general approach in teaching and learning of English in China (Qi, 2018).

With student-centeredness and a more flexible teacher role as its striking features, CLT aims to cultivate students' competence in social interactions, in other words, communicative competence. Adopting the CLT approach in classes, EFL teachers are expected to organize activities and provide students with opportunities to use English for authentic communication (Qi, 2018). Therefore, "rather than being a model for correct speech and writing and one with the primary responsibility of making sure students produced plenty of error-free sentences," EFL teachers are expected to shoulder different roles, such as designer, planner, guide, assessor, mediator, participant, researcher, needs analyst, counselor, group process manager, and others, to facilitate students' English learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, pp. 98–99).

However, though the CLT concept and methodology have been highly influential in language teaching in many countries of the world, the application of CLT in China has not been as successful as anticipated. EFL teachers in China face numerous difficulties in applying CLT due to the cultural, linguistic, educational, political, and social realities (Qi, 2018). These CLT teaching efforts in China are also reportedly different from the notion of "student-centered learning" (Spangler, 2016, p. 346) in other geographical contexts, such as the U.S., where the emphasis is put on maximizing students' active participation and teamwork in classroom talk and activities. Instead, in China, these student-centered approaches are adopted in a teacher-centered environment in

which the teacher still retains decision-making, control, and respect (Tan & Reyes, 2016).

On top of it all, the beliefs and actions of teachers are influenced by their institutional and normative contexts and are largely a reflection of these contexts. Teachers, highly regarded in Confucian-influenced society, follow established cultural and social norms in the process of formulating their own education theories and practices. These include, but are not limited to, a disciplined learning environment in which they are the authority. An emphasis on hard work and perseverance, meritocratic pedagogy, high academic expectations of students, and instilling in them the values that schooling is the way to success (Da & Welch, 2016; Ho & Wang, 2016; Zhou & Wang, 2016). Other aspects of their teaching practice reflect teachers' institutional duty and constraints, such as a pedagogy oriented to the transmission of knowledge, the textbook, and exams, and a focus on drilling and memorization as the primary means of knowledge acquisition and retention. Without a doubt, few individual Chinese teachers display all these aspects of Chinese education models but previous literature suggests there is a tendency for these practices to surface from time to time in classrooms in China (Chou & Spangler, 2016). Nevertheless, teachers are diverse individuals, and thus, it is no surprise that not all of them practice at all times the model of education under which they generally operate, and under certain circumstances, they may even resist those institutional constraints (Guo-Brennan, 2016; Hwang, 2016).

In sum, Chinese teachers are usually highly respected by society and are regarded as authority figures by students (Spangler, 2016; Tan & Reyes, 2016; Wang, 2016). In view of English as a required subject in college entrance examinations and the increase in study abroad by Chinese students, this pilot project of English teachers in China is not only necessary but also uncovers the potential cultural disparities that influence teaching. For example, feeling highly respected, some Chinese English teachers may teach at their own pace rather than closely following the school's requirements and curriculum. Also, Chinese English teachers may or may not replicate their own teacher's way of teaching depending on their own favorable or unfavorable English learning experiences. In sum, this study aims to bridge the gap between history in person and discourse analysis, by investigating the language learning histories of EFL teachers as well as their implicit and explicit attitudes toward English language teaching methods and relating their

personal histories and teacher cognition to the discourse in classrooms in which they now teach.

STUDY BACKGROUND

This pilot study examined the English teacher training materials of an established teacher training university in China (hereafter CTTU) and oral reports by two students in an associated master's (MA) program, who shared their perspectives on how the teacher training curriculum met their instructional needs and their personal expectations. The current undergraduate bachelor's (BA) coursework list and MA course timetable for CTTU show that there are two tracks to the BA degree for English majors at CTTU: One is a teaching track the other is a translation and interpretation track. Graduates with a BA who have followed the teaching track automatically earn a nationally recognized teaching certificate, whereas those who have followed the translation and interpretation track do not. However, the latter group can take relevant coursework on the teaching track during their undergraduate study in order to qualify for a teaching certificate. Some translation and interpretation students do so to be open to more opportunities when they look for jobs. For graduate students, there are four tracks to the MA degree in English at CTTU: a teaching track, a translation and interpretation track, a linguistics track, and a track in English literature. Irrespective of the track they take, all graduates with an MA in English from CTTU are eligible to teach English in high schools.

The BA coursework includes both tracks to the BA degree and includes four major categories of coursework: 32 credits of required classes, 8 credits of core classes, 5 credits of optional classes, and 57 credits of specialized classes for both the teaching and the interpretation and translation tracks. The undergraduate coursework is designed to promote English majors' language skills and to fulfill national requirements of moral and political education. The teaching track includes an extra 12 credits of required coursework in teacher education (including courses in psychology, pedagogy, Modern Education Technology, English Teaching Practicum, English Pedagogy, and Analysis of English Teaching Materials in Secondary Education); there are 4 optional credits in teacher education optional coursework from 14 available courses, including English Teaching Activity Design and

Analysis of Secondary Education English Curricula. There are also 12 optional credits available in 30 available courses, including English Speaking and Debate, and Reading-Aloud Skills in English.

In the 2015–2016 academic year, coursework in the teaching track of the MA program included these nine teaching-related courses:

- Pedagogic Principles
- Pedagogic Psychology
- Foreign-Language Teaching Methodology
- Foreign-Language Teaching Principles and Strategies
- Lesson Plan Case Analysis
- Foreign-Language Teacher Knowledge and Expertise Development
- Pedagogic Skills
- Curriculum Design and Teaching Materials Analysis
- Curricula Pedagogy

Understandably, the academic curriculum mentioned was for several years before the pandemic, which impacted teacher training programs (i.e., online instruction), but the fundamental instructional content remains based in second language acquisition (SLA) principles.

Two informants, known in this project as Jing and Li, were graduate students in the English Department. They shared their teacher training and teaching experiences, including, but not limited to, what and how they teach English, the numbers of students in their classes, and the job prospects for CTTU graduates.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

ELT Course Assigned Teaching Material

Jing described her current teaching of Comprehensive English to undergraduate English majors. She said there are around 30 students in her class, and she mostly used English during her teaching because of the relatively high proficiency of English majors and to maximize the input. The coursebook she used, *A New English Course* (Li, 2012), published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press, focused on reading but also provided training in listening, speaking, writing, and translation. She and her colleagues who taught Comprehensive English

prepared the lessons themselves individually, though there was a PowerPoint presentation designed by the publisher for teaching Comprehensive English. Teachers did individual preparation because they felt that the PowerPoint presentation was somewhat cumbersome, and they preferred to individualize their lessons to their own teaching style.

Li also talked about her teaching of College English to non-English majors. There were almost 200 students in her class, and she did all the preparation and grading by herself. She did not have anyone to refer to or a standard PowerPoint presentation to guide her in how to teach the coursebook, *New Horizon English Course* (Zheng & Hu, 2014), to a large group. Most of the students in the class were of low-intermediate proficiency so she mostly used Chinese because the use of English often dissatisfied the class. She did a lot of grammar-translation by translating English passages into Chinese, though some of the students with higher proficiency found that approach boring. Li said her tendency to explain every sentence was based on experiences she had in one of her previous jobs before she came to CTTU. She emphasized that there were very few students in her class who wanted to improve their English and paid attention to her teaching, and she felt her hard work was underappreciated by some of her students. Though some students paid attention to her lessons, the higher vocational college students and non-English majors were not willing to interact with her and paid less attention. She felt that one reason for their lack of attention was her academic teaching style. She knew that other teachers were more outgoing, and their students enjoyed their lessons, but she felt too shy to change her teaching style. However, she still wanted to encourage her students to learn by giving dictations of vocabulary, which she graded herself − a technique of "effective assessment" she learned from her own English teachers at high school. Her intention was to encourage students to discover "the world behind the language," such as the latest developments in science and technology, cultural differences, e-commerce, and the lives of sports stars. She felt that this content-based approach led students to believe they could make a difference even if they didn't graduate from a top school.

Teaching and Teacher Training Experiences

There was also a final examination designed by the English Department to assess the students' progress. The final exam consisted of

listening comprehension, reading comprehension, and writing. According to Li, the questions on the final exam were very similar to those on the college entrance exam, and though the listening and reading comprehension subtests are multiple choice, she had to grade them by hand because machine grading was not available.

In addition, Li said she had not received any teacher training during her undergraduate study, but she had taught English for two years before she entered CTTU as a graduate student. During her graduate program, she read materials about various teaching methods, including grammar-translation, the audiolingual method, and communicative language teaching. She felt Shu's (2005) *Modern Foreign Languages Pedagogy* provided a summary and synthesis of what she had used during her own teaching before entering the MA program. In other words, from her perspective, her experience was practice-before-theory.

In addition, both Jing and Li were frank in relating that the teacher training they received at CTTU was mostly theoretical rather than practical. Although Jing mentioned that a "micro-teaching" class for undergraduates on the teaching track had existed for a long period of time, the end product of this class was one 10-minute well-prepared and video-taped activity and student journals in which students reflected on their teaching. Li said she thought she learned how to teach English mainly through imitation of her own English teachers in high school and through practice rather than taking teacher training coursework. In sum, according to our participants, the practical training in CTTU was limited.

Job Opportunities and Salary Realities

Jing and Li talked about the job prospects for CTTU graduates. They said that 80 percent of the students who graduate with an MA degree in English are able to find teaching jobs in high schools, mostly located in provinces far from their homes. Very few of them will work in their home province because demand for English teachers is not high and the province has a late recruitment season starting in April. By that time, most graduates have already landed a teaching job in other areas and signed contracts from three to five years.

When asked about the income of high school English teachers, the participants reported that the salary of high school English teachers in the city where CTTU is located can be higher than that of college English professors, which is different from the situation in the STEM

fields of science, technology, and engineering. This is partly confirmed by a news report of Wuhan university teachers' income in the *Wuhan Evening News* (2013). First-rank professors in a STEM field receive funding from the government, whereas teachers in social sciences and the humanities do not. In addition, professors in a STEM field can earn extra income by doing consultancies for the government and businesses. However, these benefits are not available for teachers at the secondary education level. Job Hunters Collections (2016), a job-hunting website, gives the average monthly salary of high school English teachers as 5,490 RMB, which is higher than the monthly salary of 5,270 RMB for math teachers for 2015−2016. And the current average monthly income of residents in the same province is 4,850 RMB. The participants also said that teachers in some high schools, especially famous ones, could make extra money by publishing and selling practice books and charging students extra tuition for courses offered during weekends. In sum, from an economic point of view, teaching English in high school is a highly desirable job in China.

IMPLICATIONS FOR KOREAN ELT

English education is South Korea has long been described as "English fever" (Seth, 202) and academic values like those in China are influenced by the tradition of Confucian education (Lee, 2006). There is a high regard for education and respect for teachers for a level of knowledge as well as moral qualities (Hu, 2002). Although there have been efforts and policies to promote CLT and norms for employing native English-speaking teachers, Dailey (2010) highlights a mismatch between official government policy and how English is commonly taught in the classroom. Policy aims to foster learners' oral proficiency skills to be able to increase the country's national competitiveness (Shin, 2007). However, with the country's exam-oriented culture, the implementation of CLT is often limited as students' needs are understood as having to perform well on standardized tests and the Korean university entrance exam.

Understanding that novice teachers' classroom practices are largely shaped by their personal histories as language learners, an exploration of Korean English language teachers' personal narratives can be beneficial to understand their negotiation of their classroom instructional practices.

With industry standards being training that promotes CLT, how do they resolve their own beliefs about effective teaching practices and the accepted social norms of an exam-oriented focus. Such research would uncover whether Korean English language teachers also experience conflicts between their cognition of language teaching methods and the institutional and social guidelines under which they work.

CONCLUSIONS

This pilot study shows that the English language teacher training program in China has room for improvement to prepare teachers to make full use of CLT. School administrators can think about shrinking class size and/or providing practical teacher training on CLT usage in large classes. Research like this can also lead to a greater awareness among those teachers of how their beliefs and contextual factors influence instructional choices (Zheng & Borg, 2014). In turn, teachers involved in such research are encouraged to provide feedback on different teaching methods to their respective schools and to the Ministry of Education so that education policy and curriculum reform can be adapted accordingly. A similar study on Korean English language teachers' personal narratives is promising to generate relevant pedagogical implications for education policymaking, curriculum reform, professional preparation, and the continuing professional development of language teachers.

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(Un)silencing the Silenced: Understanding EFL Teacher Identity from the Three-Dimensional Space of Narrative Inquiry

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Anchored in the first author's PhD research project, this article discusses EFL teacher identity and the three-dimensional space of narrative inquiry. The study is based on the poststructuralist view of identity informed by Norton (1999) and Clandinin and Connelly's (2000) narrative research. The article starts by discussing the nature of identity and language teacher identity conceptualization. Next, it delves into the use of the three-dimensional space of narrative inquiry to analyze teacher identity. This analysis argues that EFL teacher identity is gradually developed and negotiated within the three bounded systems of identity-in-temporality, identity-in-interaction, and identity-in-situation. This article provides a theoretical basis for understanding the flux and the dynamic nature of EFL teacher identity for further research.

Keywords: EFL teacher identity, three-dimensional space of narrative inquiry, poststructuralism

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, research studies examining language teacher identity in second/foreign language learning and teaching have been mushrooming. Such studies have emphasized the need for teachers to include learning and their professional lives in their careers (Aneja, 2016; Yazan, 2018), which leads to their identity construction. Understanding teacher identity construction has been extensively carried out from various angles. For instance, Zen et al. (2022) looked at Indonesian teacher professional identity construction mediated in an international teacher education program (ITP) in Finland. Findings from

the study highlight that the teachers constructed "Birland" identity as a representative of space in the program. Other work also reveals the identity of a newly minted English teacher in his first year of teaching experience in Finland (Stenberg & Maaranen, 2021). The study unpacks five findings: (a) the complexities of being a teacher, (b) struggles with previous personal reflections, (c) the borderline of teaching experiences, (d) teacher's past experience as a student teacher, and (e) schools as agents in constructing identity.

In a Chinese context, Wang (2021) explored how five teachers in their first year of teaching experience negotiated their professional identity. The findings reveal that the participants faced dilemmas in their teaching activities. These studies highlight the need for further research to engage in a more dynamic perspective and look at language teacher identity as a continuum. According to Clarke's (2009, p. 191) perspective, teacher identity can be considered ongoing based on four angles: (a) the substance of teacher identity, (b) the authority-source of teacher identity, (c) the self-practice of teacher identity, and (d) the telos of teacher identity. Figure 1 highlights these four aspects of teacher identity.

FIGURE 1. Clarke's Angles of Teacher Identity
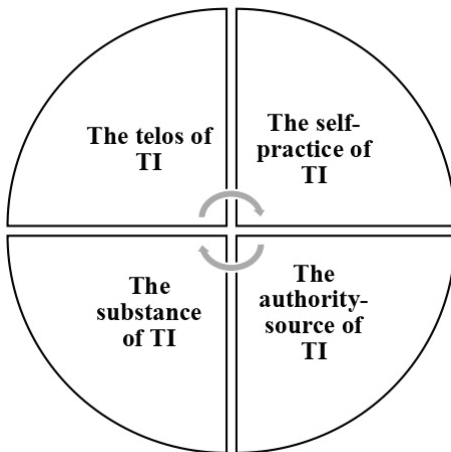
From Clarke (2009, p. 191).

Essentially, the substance of teacher identity explains how teachers relate themselves to their circumstances. In such a matter, teachers negotiate their professional identity and lives in terms of teaching enactment and careers. In the authority-source of teacher identity, teachers inquire about the assumptions and values they might bring to the classroom. Their questions should answer why such values are accepted or rejected by others. In the self-practice, teachers implement strategies and practices that could help construct their identity. In the telos of teacher identity, teachers imagine their future positionalities and how they can reach such goals. While it is true that previous studies on teacher identity have used multiple perspectives in their exploration, little is known about how analyses of teacher identity can be looked at from a three-dimensional space of narrative inquiry such as temporality, interaction, and situation, except for a study done by Nguyen and Dao (2019).

In this paper, we lend our explanation by discussing the nature of identity and language teacher identity conceptualization. Afterward, we continue explaining the three-dimensional space of narrative inquiry to analyze EFL teacher identity construction. Such theoretically informed ideas set out three significances for teacher identity research in the future. First, EFL teacher identity can be seen as an ongoing site of struggle enacted through a three-dimensional space of narrative inquiry. Second, the power of narrative inquiry as a research methodology can be integrated into understanding teacher identity, which is dynamic and in flux, by listening to teacher stories in their professional careers. Lastly, this article informs that teacher identity is not constructed in a vacuum but within practices of identity-in-temporality, identity-in-interaction, and identity-in situation.

IDENTITY AS A MULTIFACETED NOTION

Much research on identity as a multifaceted notion in English language teaching (ELT) has been undertaken. Theoretically, Norton (2000) argues that identity is "how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future" (p. 5). Although Norton's conceptualization of identity is geared to a poststructuralist theory, identity itself is defined using previous

structuralist perspectives, where it is defined as a fixed personality and a stable construct (Kreiner et al., 2006). Recent research that focuses on identity in ELT highlights the need to view identity from sociological and anthropological perspectives. These theoretical lenses drive our understanding that identity is presently seen as multifaceted, dynamic, fluid, and ongoing (Teng, 2019). That being said, identity is practiced in a community of practice where individuals negotiate and participate in the presence of community members so that they may gain full membership (Wenger, 1998).

In relation to this, Gee (2000) suggests four different types of identity definitions that could be conceptualized in teacher education contexts: nature-identity (N-identity), institution-identity (I-identity), discourse-identity (D-identity), and affinity-identity (A-identity). In I-identity, teachers are biologically divided into males and females. Gee's identity concept has highlighted the essence of knowing teacher identity from four angles, as can be summarized in Figure 2.

FIGURE 2. Gee's Summary of Identity Definition
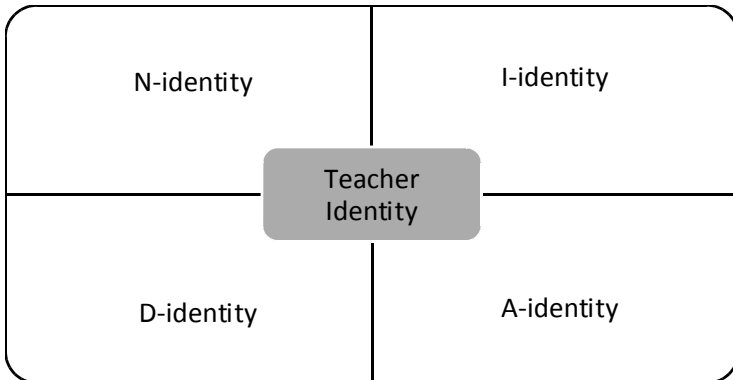
From Gee (2000, p. 100).

Such division has been granted by nature and cannot be redesigned. I-identity relates to institutional factors that mediate teacher identity. It can be in the form of interactions teachers have within institutional structures and activities. D-identity is constructed in relational interactions that see teachers as helpful and active agents. It is not decided by nature or the institution. Teachers exercise their D-identity through participation in their community of practice. Lastly, A-identity is teachers' social

discursive practices characterized by how they belong to certain communities (e.g., the teacher's professional community).

CONCEPTUALIZING LANGUAGE TEACHER IDENTITY

Scholarly attention toward language teacher identity has recently been a buzzword. Understanding how teachers perceive themselves as a part of their professional development is a central point in second/foreign language teaching. Language teachers (e.g., EFL teachers) gradually construct and negotiate their identities in dynamic circumstances. Such a change in the identity of teachers results in how they see themselves in the community of practice, that is, when they interact with colleagues and students (e.g., Kayi-Aydar, 2015), classroom pedagogies (Golzar, 2020), power relations (Miler et al., 2017), emotional experiences (Sulistiyo et al., 2022), and agentive actions (Lasky, 2005).

In the 1980s and 1990s, research on language teacher identity was not exclusively investigated due to, in those years, perspectives of poststructuralism not receiving much attention from linguists. Instead, structuralism was the "giant" of the research paradigm among scholars. In fact, studies in those years mainly focused on teacher belief, teacher cognition, and teacher learning, with no relationship to language teacher identity (Kayi-Aydar, 2019). According to Yazan (2018), in understanding language teacher identity, one needs to consider six aspects that teachers bring to their professional lives: (a) teacher learning, (b) teacher cognition, (c) teachers' participation in communities of practice, (d) contextual factors, (e) teacher biographies, and (f) teacher emotions. The summary of the language teacher identity framework by Yazan (2018) is illustrated in Figure 3.

FIGURE 3. Yazan's (2018) Conceptualization of Language Teacher Identity
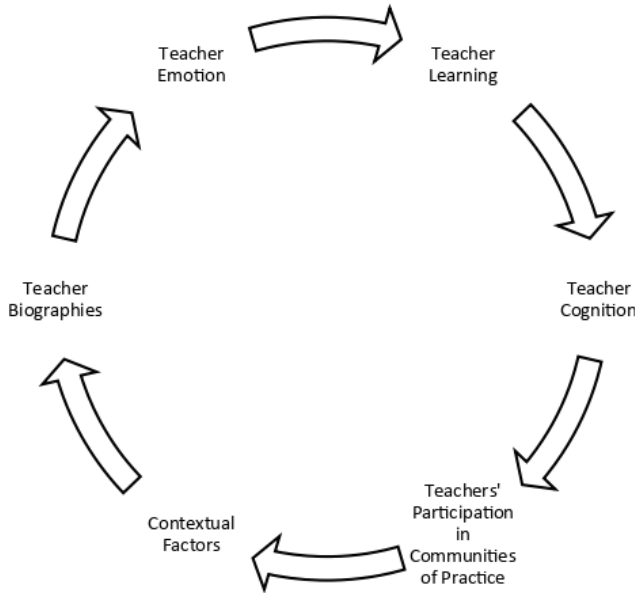
We sample five of Yazan's (2018) ideas of LTI conceptualization in the following sections:

Teacher Learning

The earlier assumption in teacher learning was that teachers (pre-service, in-service teachers, and university teachers) undergo structured and discrete learning experiences in teacher education programs, where they receive decontextualized teaching practices and values. This assumption supports traditional views of teaching in their professional lives. Recent works under the so-called sociocultural lens have criticized such a view by arguing that teaching is a dialogical process and that it is "socially negotiated and contingent on knowledge of self, students, subject matter, curricula, and setting" (Johnson, 2009b, p. 20). Nested in this idea is that language teachers are members of the community where they negotiate their identities as professional agents. They also participate using agentive actions in teaching and interacting with colleagues. The role of this community of practice is essential in

developing language teachers' identity. By aligning with the community, language teachers emerge with opportunities and possibilities to develop their teaching practices.

Furthermore, attention to teacher learning that helps construct language teacher identity is also supported by Lave and Wenger's (1991) situated learning theory. In the context of English as a foreign language, for instance, teachers oftentimes receive marginalization for their non-native status (Ubaidillah, 2018). Through Lave and Wenger's view, EFL teachers participate in learning and navigating identity from peripherality to the central position. It is a view of how they understand the strengths of non-native status and use them in their classroom pedagogy. Recent works have explained that this non-native status has become a yardstick for EFL teachers to develop their professional identity (Ubaidillah, 2018). Through teacher learning, EFL teachers have the ability to gradually construct their identities by constant negotiation with members of their community of practice.

Teacher Cognition

Research into teacher cognition has looked at the non-observable variables that mediate teachers' beliefs, values, assumptions, and ideas in teaching enactment (Borg, 2009). An earlier definition of teacher cognition is provided by Borg (2003) in his seminal work. He mentions that teacher cognition refers to teachers' collections of "beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, images, assumptions, metaphors, conceptions, perspectives about teaching, teachers, learning, students, subject matter, curricula, materials, instructional activities, self" (p. 82). Thus, this theoretical basis explains to us that teacher cognition is complex and multidimensional. It encompasses the dynamic nature of perspectives that may influence teacher's classroom teaching. Therefore, teacher cognition is inseparable from teacher identity as contended by Miller (2009); teacher identity is a construct concerned with thoughts, knowledge, beliefs, and activities, that is, they are "part of teachers' identity work, which is continuously performed and transformed through interaction in classrooms" (p. 175). Both teacher cognition and teacher identity play a key role in teachers' professional lives as the two constructs are rooted in teachers' understanding of themselves.

Participation in a Community of Practice

The concept of a community of practice (CoP) was first developed by Lave and Wenger (1991) in their situated learning theory. We related this notion to how EFL teachers participate in their communities and how they negotiate such participation to gain full membership from the members of the community. Extensive studies have been explored with regard to the function of the CoP on English language learning experiences (see, to name few, Al-Habsi et al., 2022; McLaughlan, 2021; Ubaidillah & Widiati, 2021). The CoP has been deemed "one of the most powerful theories of identity formation" (Tsui, 2007, p. 659) as it portrays how teachers negotiate, interact, and participate in a given community. According to Wenger (1998), during active participation, teachers delve into identification and negotiability enactment in the community. In such ways, teachers engage in three modes of belonging in constructing their identity: *engagement*, *imagination*, and *alignment*. Engagement pertains to how teachers interact with others, build relationships with colleagues, and invest in their shared practices. Imagination relates to how teachers envision themselves in a broader context of a community that shares similar visions in which they engage. It can be done with or without any stereotypes and/or overgeneralizations. Alignment concerns teachers' identity that is assimilated with the community. Through these three modes, we can see that teachers gradually construct their identity within a community of practice and we can understand how they relate to the other members of the community.

Contextual Factors

Contexts are also central in understanding the construction of teacher identity. Context can be divided into two aspects: micro and macro. In the micro contexts, EFL teachers construct their identity in their classroom teaching, their university, and the environment surrounding them. While in the macro contexts, identity is constructed within social, political, cultural, and educational aspects. EFL teachers' identity construction is influenced by these two types of contextual factors. These contextual factors are interrelated and, oftentimes, the construction process of teacher identity occurs at the nexus of the two.

Research has looked in-depth at the impacts of both micro and macro aspects of teacher identity construction. For example, in his

seminal work, Richards (2021) explains the interconnection between teacher identity and classroom practice. He maintains that teacher identity is an influential factor in classroom practice. To understand teacher identity in the classroom, the following issues can be discussed:

- The teacher's understanding of good teaching and the qualities of a good teacher;
- the teacher's role in the classroom (e.g., guide, mentor, or manager);
- teaching objectives (e.g., to empower, encourage, or develop autonomous learners);
- the teacher's position in a community of practice;
- collegial and professional peer interactions;
- English usage;
- teacher initiative for change;
- teacher self-portrayal as an expert;
- leadership and mentoring leadership;
- the teacher's relationship to others (e.g., as equal, as superior, as novice, etc.);
- teacher professional development activities; and
- working values.

A recent study highlights teacher identity from an emotional labor perspective. The study revealed that different educational backgrounds, knowledge of local languages, and workplace interactions have a great impact on teacher identity construction, particularly in the way teachers invest in their practices and participate in the institutional community of practice (Kocabaş-Gedik & Ortaçtepe Hart, 2021). With the micro and macro factors, teacher identity can be thoroughly captured.

Teacher Biographies

Teacher biographies have been considered important in teacher identity construction. The focus on teacher biographies is past experiences enacted by teachers, present experiences they are having, and future aspirations they envision (Barkhuizen, 2016). As identity construction deals with changing beliefs, emotions, agencies, and ideas, teacher biographies would add rich information on teacher beliefs, emotions, agencies, and ideas in their careers.

THREE-DIMENSIONAL SPACE OF NARRATIVE INQUIRY

Narrative inquiry has a long-standing familiarity with poststructuralist research perspectives. It carries the belief that stories conveyed by individuals illustrate their emotions, experiences, subjectivity, and positionality. Narrative inquiry also has an intellectual history anchored in the philosophical ideas of John Dewey (1938) on education and experience. Based on this, narrative inquiry interprets human experiences as those of living organisms that tell stories in their lives (Connelly & Clandinin, 2006).

Connelly and Clandinin further mentioned that narrative inquiry allowed researchers to capture "the growth of transformation" that the research participant experienced during their learning trajectories. Specifically, narrative inquiry inquires into the individual's lived stories/experiences through three-dimensional frameworks of narrative inquiry: temporality, interaction, and situation (see Figure 4). The following section explains the three dimensions of the framework.

FIGURE 4. Three-Dimensional Framework in Narrative Inquiry
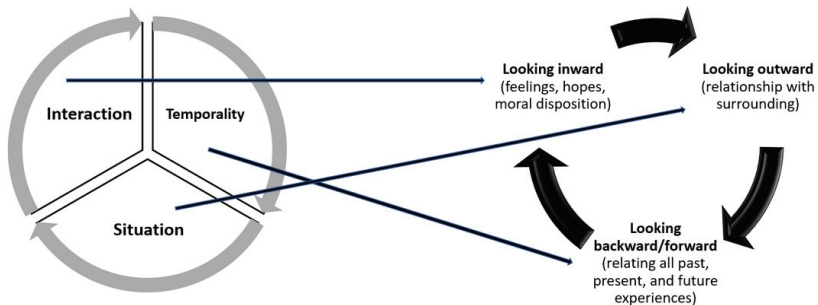
Adapted from Clandinin and Connelly (2000).

Temporality

Temporality in narrative inquiry is related to time; researchers explore the individial as a living being, not as an object excluded from time relational space (*looking backward* and *looking forward*). Stories or experiences shared by the research participant in the narrative study are interlinked with the time dimension: past events, present events, and future events. In other words, narrative researchers believe that "a

particular person had a certain kind of history, associated with particular present behaviors or actions that might seem to be projecting in particular ways into the future" (Connelly & Clandinin, 2006, p. 479). With this in mind, narrative researchers seek to inquire into the individual's lived stories including backward and forward experiences.

Interaction

Narrative researchers, according to Connelly and Clandinin (2006), should explore the participant's personal conditions, such as feelings, hopes, and desires (*looking inward*) and social conditions, such as surrounding factors that shape one's experiential contexts (*looking outward*). In this regard, Connelly and Clandinin remind the inquirers to "negotiate purposes, next steps, outcomes, texts, and all manners of things" (p. 480) that form a relationship to the participant's lived stories. It is then essential that researchers should engage in a conversation with their research participants with regard to the personal and social conditions that shape their classroom participation and identity changes over time.

Situation

Unlike the two dimensions explained above, which are rather abstract, situation in narrative inquiry refers to "the specific concrete, physical, topological boundaries of place where the inquiry and events take place" (Connelly & Clandinin, 2006, pp. 480−481). This implies that the participant's experiences are likely to be influenced by the setting in which they occur.

A Proposed Pathway to Analyzing EFL Teacher Identity

The initial discussion in this article has explained the nature and concept of identity and language teacher identity. We argue that identity is dynamic and is constructed across time and setting. Figure 5 is proposed for future researchers to analyze EFL teacher identity through three aspects. First, identity-in-temporality. It is essential that researchers

see identity from the past, present, and future dimensions of an individual teacher, as the growth of professionalism occurs within these three different time periods. The three dimensions influence one another and have a positive relationship to the professional identity of a teacher. Next, researchers are encouraged to see identity as mediated by personal and social interactions that individuals experience in their communities. It is important since individuals develop and become members of the community where they also learn and enact meaning-making from their interactive experiences. Lastly, future researchers need to see the identity of an individual from the individual's relationship with physical entities, such as the workplace.

FIGURE 5. A Framework in Analyzing EFL Teacher Identity
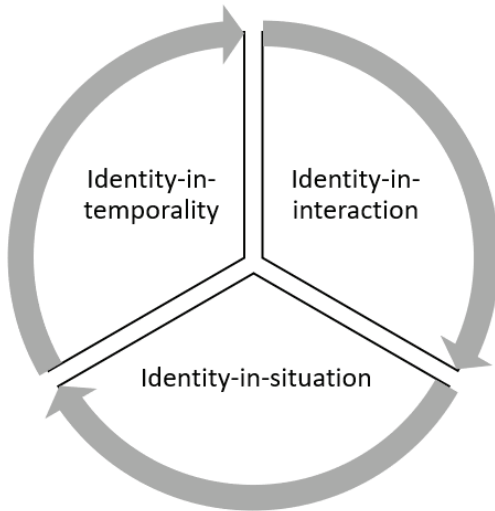
CONCLUSION

In this article, we have outlined a new approach to analyzing EFL teacher identity that is rooted in the theories of identity and language teacher identity concepts. This idea is anchored by the limited research that uses narrative inquiry as a tool for the analysis of EFL teacher identity in a second language curriculum. By proposing this approach, we hope that future researchers, including early career researchers in the

area of language education, benefit much from the concept and start exploring identity as a dynamic entity in EFL teachers' professional lives.

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Brief Reports

Digital Storytelling: A Dynamic Portal into Student Engagement and TESOL Content

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This paper shares the author's involvement in the teaching and use of digital storytelling in his work as an educator, offering a practitioner-oriented perspective. With the increasingly changing dynamic that learners and teachers alike find themselves navigating due to technology, it is not only valuable but also necessary to explore how EFL learners can benefit from distinct means of language output through leveraging digital storytelling. The author's background and teaching contexts are provided, accompanied by a short discussion of the key literature that frames the informal usability study and its outcomes on instructional practice.

Keywords: digital storytelling, language learner identity, student engagement, digital learners, EFL teacher technology instructional practices

INTRODUCTION

Although an educator, I am not a TESOL professional or expert. Nor have I spent a lot of time in Korea. In fact, just one week. The thoughts I want to share do not come from those platforms of expertise. But I would like to believe that my "platform of expertise," which dwells in the relevance and impact of digital storytelling in informal and formal educational settings, overlaps with the goals and strategies of teaching English in Korea and neighboring Asian countries in novel and unexpected ways.

I teach a course titled *Digital Storytelling, Literacy, Youth, the Future: A Combustion*! at Colby College in Maine in the United States. This course is part of the January Plan (i.e., Jan Plan), which is an

investigatory term at the college in which students engage in intensive course study, participate in experiential learning opportunities, and/or conduct research. Students are required to complete three Jan Plans, but 90 percent of students elect to do four. It is just that good. In my most recent Jan Plan digital storytelling course, two students who hailed from the Philippines and Mexico produced a digital story about the challenges the English language posed to their adolescent development in the United States. One spoke of how, as English grew and expanded in his mind, Tagalog and Spanish faded, and along with them, the cultural resonance that the languages embodied. A second talked comically about being confounded by the plethora of baseball idioms with which she was regularly confronted. Upon hearing the expression *That came out of left field*, she would look around the room and wonder, "Where exactly is 'left field'?"

This does make me wonder: Does baseball-saturated Korea have a similar counterpart to that expression?

In any case, these moments cracked opened the door for me as to the intricate and complex nature of the work that TESOL educators are doing. This is not a *subject* that is being taught. It is an *identity*, evolving through the most complicated of media: language, written and spoken.

KEY LITERATURE

Norton (2000, 2001) and Pavlenko (2001, 2004) discuss how a learner's past, gender, age, and experiences in learning English impact how they understand their relationship to the language and its influence on their negotiation of identity. They use the term *identity* to describe how a learner understands their experiences and relationships within their diverse and dynamic communities. Norton and Pavlenko both situate their work on language learners' identity negotiation with post-structuralist theory, which understands language learners' identity within a broader context beyond their immediate context, that often presents inequitable structures and power relations that are replicated in daily social interactions. These relationships, constructed over time and space, not only influence how an individual understands their present identity but also their future opportunities.

Use of digital storytelling in the second language classroom has been

expanding, changing the opportunities and mediums for language consumption and production. Twenty-first century students are raised with technology and use it extensively in their personal lives as well as in the classroom. Positioned with technology readiness, digital storytelling increases learners' creativity (Deligianni-Georgaka & Pouroutidi, 2016) and allows them to produce original and meaningful stories using technology tools, while also benefiting from the expanded knowledge achieved through using both traditional storytelling and digital media (Tanrıkulu, 2020). The use of pictures, audio, and colors in digital storytelling increases learners' interest and supports their understanding of the content with which they interact. It also allows teachers to provide more engaging instruction. Coupling second language learners' negotiation of their identity with digital storytelling provides learners with a dynamic platform to express their multifaceted selves.

BACKGROUND

Digital Storytelling, Literacy, Youth, and Identity

My current work revolves around the idea that in the world today, there are two fully formalized literacies: text-based literacy and digital literacy. Text is no longer the only game in town. Digital storytelling − the "writing" side of digital literacy − is, I would argue, of equal educational value to text-based writing.

Why? Because the digital realm is your students' library. It is their communication platform. It is their social life. It is their source of knowledge. It is a full-blown communication spectrum the breadth and depth of which is unprecedented in history.

Has there ever been a more all-consuming and far-reaching literacy? Has the need to teach toward "writing" fluency in this literacy ever been greater? The question then is "Are we preparing our learners to be meaningful contributors to this digitally literate universe?" And the answer is mostly "No."

What does this mean for the field of TESOL? I would like to believe "opportunity." Digital storytelling is the capacity to communicate using text, sound, music, and imagery (still and moving). Teachers do not have to use all of these tools, but they are the main components of digital storytelling. If we think of this in terms of primary and secondary

colors, then text, sound/music, and imagery are your primary colors. Pacing, visual palette, graphics, voice, tone, and genre (comedy, game show, news, mystery, etc.) might be your secondary colors. It is a relatively vast range of tools with which to work in order to effectively communicate. And in that range lies both its complexity and wonder, its challenge and opportunity.

The opportunity is this: This "literacy" is not language dependent. It demands the use of universally available tools − sound, imagery, and music. These are elements that are not learned or require access or training. And yet they are tools that can communicate ideas as effectively as words. It takes training to use these assets well, yes, but there they are − sound, imagery, and music − free (more or less) for the taking. And when combined with words, the communicative effect can be powerful.

What this suggests to me, a TESOL outsider but educator, is this: If language acquisition is a process within which effective communication is limited and challenged, then digital storytelling may be a vehicle to wrench open that efficacy while still focusing on the detailed curriculum of learning English. And if we agree that the learning of English is also intricately intertwined with personal identity development, then the capacity to explore that more deeply and substantively inside of this emerging and enveloping literacy − digital literacy − is profound.

Digital Literacy Possibilities

Imagine a project where your students are creating a 60-second digital story about their four favorite English words. Or they create a ten-panel photo essay, inside of a video format, that showcases a day in their life, and they caption it with English voice-over. Imagine how much they would be discovering about self as a storyteller of their day, as understood and communicated through the lens of English.

Imagine a digital story where two students are pretending to be sportscasters in the booth. One is speaking Korean and the other English. They are sportscasting, not a sporting event, but instead a live moment, happening right in front of them, about... parents asking their English learning children about when they are going to complete their university/job applications. A familiar and possibly humorous 90-second digital story. These are scenarios that free the student to explore the

English language deeply, *without* the pressure and confinement of sentence structure and grammar, and *within* the literacy in which they live and express themselves. It is a tool. Not *the* tool. But an important one in the arsenal to engage your students and open up exploration of this beautiful language through a portal that yields expressive communication that, perhaps, words alone cannot convey.

Is digital storytelling teachable without prior media production knowledge? Yes! All you need to know is what you know: the TESOL pedagogical content. The answer to any question from the students about digital production and technology-related activities is this: "You figure it out." And they do. Twelve years of experience running a non-profit, a digital storytelling initiative for teachers and students in the United States, support this supposition.

Perhaps it's not *that* simple. Agreed. The question is how to integrate this kind of project-based learning into what maybe is a tightly fortified structure: your classroom. Part of the answer is this: Teachers need to embrace a certain amount of classroom anarchy. And packaged with that embrace is the belief that some extraordinary learning can occur within the bounds of that anarchy.

STUDY OVERVIEW

Informal Usability Study and Resulting Instructional Model

A colleague, Dr. Charlotte Cole, and I conducted an informal study on the usability and impact of a digital storytelling tool for middle schoolers in the United States that yielded a model for implementing this technology-driven, project-based learning in the classroom. And while this may not be the student target age of all readers, I think this model can help to structure ways to integrate digital storytelling into the Korean EFL classroom. As part of our research, we observed nine classrooms in action. Qualitatively, we focused on elements such as the degree of student- versus teacher-led interactions, and the extent and quality of collaboration among students. We also looked at the level of student engagement, their on-task versus disruptive behavior (these were middle schoolers, after all), and the leadership versus other roles of students within given groups. The clarity of the goals for the classroom period and the degree of accomplishment and sense of progress were also

elements we considered.

There was surprising consistency across the different classrooms in terms of how the teachers approached this technology-driven, project-based initiative, allowing us to articulate the following model that could be used by others:

A Proposed Model for Executing Digital Storytelling Projects into TESOL Classrooms

- Classroom Set-up Students arrive and sit with their teams, often with the desks facing each other. Computers stay closed.
- Introduction: During the first 5−10 minutes the teacher communicates three things: (a) clear benchmarks for the overall project and for the day, and (b) sign-off points and dates to match − these can be written on the board for the whole duration of the project and/or articulated verbally as a focus on a singular aspect of the content for that day. And (c) a focus on a single aspect of the process for that day.
  (The interrelationship between content [the curriculum] and process [skills to explore the curriculum] is a theme throughout this model.)
- Implementation: The teams are let loose to work for the remainder of the class period at their own pace. It can take five minutes (or more) to fire up the computers and settle in. The teacher wanders around the room going from team to team to guide and advise. Their guidance is around content first, and then process/skills second. Based on our observations, one round to be sure that students are exploring the content effectively and then a second round to check whether their collaborative digital creation and production processes appeared to yield the most productive results.
- Closure: There is a five-minute wrap-up to allow students to shut down and set goals for the next class.

Instructional Value

This is a project that requires many aspects of communicative language teaching (CLT) and project-based learning (PBL), which enhance not only learners' engagement with one another but also foster deeper engagement with the content, while exploring their own linguistic, personal, and social development. With respect to meaningful

collaboration, the students worked in teams of 3 or 4, which required meaningful *communication,* as the student teams had to produce a video or a scored/voiced visual presentation collaboratively. With regard to *creativity*, all of the challenges required the creation of a script, and many required more: characters, costuming, location shooting, editing, and scoring. Lastly, *critical thinking* was a fundamental element as students had to research content and then, working together, re-narrate that content in their own words using images and words in a prescribed style.

Outcomes of the Usability Study: A Digital Storytelling Resource

The digital storytelling non-profit resource is Meridian Stories (2023), which offers an expansive database of digital storytelling projects across the globe that are accessible through the platform. The library of projects offers in excess of 140 examples that KOTESOL educators can use to develop and implement curricular-driven digital stories with their learners.

Meridian Stories challenges teams of students to create short video and audio narratives around curricular topics. For example, one challenge involved modeling the Crash Course format on YouTube; a second asked students to create fully produced storyboards around central characters in the book they were reading (*The Outsiders*); and a third asked students to reproduce existing essays digitally using text, voice, music, and a few select images in strategic ways to reflect their understanding of the text.

This last digital storytelling project could be a perfect starter project for TESOL teachers. Here's how it works. You give your students a choice of, say, five different English language texts. Say, 250 words, or a length that is appropriate for your students' capacities. The content can be about whatever works for you. A short cultural article about popular music. A baseball article about the New York Metropolitan [Baseball] Club (i.e., NY Mets) and a rising Korean pitcher on that team. Or an op-ed piece that will provoke a reaction from your students. Something that interests them, something that will organically incite a conversation. Their job is to "produce" the piece using only text, voice-over, and music/sound effects. The result is going to be a video production of English words (they will choose the font, the colors, the size, the boldness, and the pacing) that will reflect how they want that written piece to be seen, understood, and experienced. Their team will accompany those words with voice, music, and/or sound effects, as they

see fit. They may choose to narrate the entire piece or let some words just "speak for themselves." They can also, with your permission, mix in Korean phrases as part of the voice-over, letting the dual languages amplify the meaning. They may choose to add sound effects at certain moments to punctuate select moments, to insure, for example, that the reader understands that this moment in their short article is the most important idea in the whole piece. Or they may choose to use colorful fonts to communicate meaning or to build momentum.

In the end, they are going to control the way the reader – now the viewer – is receiving the words, thereby changing the experience of reading, and of understanding. From a content point of view, you have set up your students to engage deeply with a short but thoughtful English text – living, breathing, and creatively re-producing its vocabulary, sentence structure, and meaning for a week or more.

CONCLUSIONS

Digital storytelling experiences will always involve a combination of independent initiative and guidance on two fronts: the curriculum (the learning of English) and the processes (creativity, collaboration, communication, and critical thinking) involved to effectively explore that curriculum. This classroom management model empowers teams to work on their own while ensuring that teachers provide the support needed, yielding an educational experience that is rich in both curricular learning and, I would argue, identity-building, which is organic to your TESOL content.

Interweaving the unfamiliar (English words and sentences) with the familiar (sounds, imagery, and music that resides deep in their culturally safe place: home) to tell a story inside of the literacy most relevant to your students will help to break down the barriers to learning English while helping your students practice the global literacy skills they will need to succeed globally.

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North Koreans in South Korea: Linguistic Differences and Marginalization

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North Korean defectors in South Korea must overcome tremendous bias and stereotypes. Though the countries have only been separated for several generations, language policies in the North and South have accelerated the bifurcation of the language between these nations, making the North Korean variation a stigma and a marker for these stereotypes. Here, we briefly examine landmark linguistic policies, and discuss the literature on the linguistic support and struggles of North Koreans in South Korea. Through these studies, we explore the role that the devaluation of the North Korean language identity plays on the transition of North Koreans into South Korean society. We also highlight the importance of including the North Korean voices in the policies that benefit them, and also including them as active members, not just beneficiaries, of South Korean communities.

Keywords: language identity, language marginalization, identity transition

INTRODUCTION

As North Korea and South Korea continue on very different political paths, their language also continues to diverge. No one feels this more than those North Koreans who fled their country to join South Korean society only to discover new hardships. Despite a shared cultural and ethnic heritage, language barriers and prejudice confront North Korean escapees who reach South Korea. Once there, they struggle with issues of adaptation, identity, and finding a place in the South Korean community. We examine the literature to answer two questions: (a) What factors caused the divergence of the North and South Korean languages

in such a short time frame? and (b) How does this language difference affect North Korean escapees living in South Korea today? We will look at the events that separated the languages, South Korean policies designed to help North Korean escapees, and the major difficulties that North Koreans still face there today.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Early Influences on the Korean Language

Government policies may retard or else stimulate language and dialect development (Song, 1994). In the article "Language Policies in North and South Korea: Divergence and Convergence," Song illustrates how many policies on the Korean peninsula dealt with the influence of the Chinese language on Korean, since 52 percent of Korean are actually Sino-Korean, with Chinese being the official written language of unified Korea for most of its history. Korea attempted to maintain its cultural identity by creating its own script, Hangeul, in the 15th century. However, this did not become the official written language until one year after the country was divided in 1945. Before this, the Seoul dialect was set as the standard spoken language in 1936 in order to preserve the language during the Japanese occupation from 1910 to 1945. The country split when the occupation ended. Since the Korean War ended in 1953, there has been very little contact between the countries except in high-level talks. The countries are divided by the world's most fortified border, and media exchange between the countries has been strictly forbidden.

North Korea After the Korean War

North Korea, whose policies have been dictated by Kim Il Sung's philosophy of self-reliance, has remained isolationist since the division of the Korean peninsula. Conversely, South Korea, which was led by rivaling political parties, remained open to international influence. North Korea made decisive language policies that replaced Chinese with Hangeul as the official written language, and also phased out many Chinese characters, but still used some Chinese derivations written in

Chinese characters for specialized vocabulary. North Korea discarded many loanwords from Russian, Chinese, and Japanese and removed many Sino-Korean words from textbooks, dictionaries, and even changed the names of towns and children, replacing the words with pure Korean words, often making new Korean words in situations in which no Korean word existed. Meanwhile, South Korea let the Sino-Korean words and loanwords remain as part of the language and added many more loanwords from English. In 1966, North Korea officially named the dialect of Pyongyang the standard dialect of the Korean language, while South Korea kept the language of Seoul as their standard. Over time, differences in lexicon, grammar, style, orthography, and pronunciation have increased between the languages. By 1972, the North Korean accent was already considered "outlandish and affected" by South Koreans (Song, 1994). The divergence of the North and South Korean dialects has continued to grow along with accompanying stereotypes.

Transition of North Korean Escapees to South Korea

Despite the boundary set between the two countries, economic, political, and religious difficulties have led 29,000 North Korean escapees to flee to South Korea as of 2016 (Lee, 2016). In the article "Micro Language Planning for Refugee Resettlement Language Support Programs," Lee conducted a study in which 27 young adult North Korean refugees were asked to write a language autobiography about learning South Korean. Ten separate North Koreans were interviewed regarding a language support program (Lee, 2016). The support program, Hanawon, is a mandatory resettlement program that includes help with language adjustment. The results were analyzed and organized to identify recurring themes.

Findings showed that linguistic difficulties for the North Koreans in South Korea included milder South Korean pronunciation, the /l/ in initial position, and countless loanwords from English and Chinese. Many of the participants were ostracized for their accent, encouraging isolation among the refugees. They believed that they could not get a good job or even find a spouse if they did not change their accent. Furthermore, the many loanwords interfered with comprehension of common language used in South Korea. Hanawon reportedly focused on basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS), leading the participants to struggle in schools because they did not develop cognitive academic

language proficiency (CALP).   The participants felt that they needed increased BICS and pronunciation practice in Hanawon. Their greatest desire was to be integrated into society, but they felt that Hanawon did not provide sufficient language training and their needs went unheard. The North Korean voices have little say in the policies that affect them, despite being the major stakeholders in these policies (Lee, 2016).

Difficulties in Transition

Without proper support from the training programs, North Korean refugees use their own codeswitching strategies in order to blend into South Korean society. Lee et al. (2016) examined this strategy in "Multilingual Practices and Ideologies of Refugees in the Neoliberal Era North Korean University Students." In the study, 11 North Korean students in South Korean universities completed language tracking forms and interview questions for seven days. The answers were organized by location and justification of language use. The study found that the students only used North Korean when South Koreans were not around. South Korean was present in all settings and was socially favored. Chinese, which many North Koreans learned en route from North Korea to South Korea, was used for inner circle activity, for some entertainment, and for exclusion purposes. English was only used in the classroom. The interviews revealed that the participants thought English was the most valuable language, and was necessary for upward social mobility. The South Korean dialect was needed for social acceptance. Chinese could be useful, but the combination of Chinese and North Korean was looked down on, so it was used primarily as an inner circle language. North Korean was continually devalued. The participants seemed to accept the inferior position of the North Korean dialect and never criticized South Korean.

Language Identities

How North Korean refugees position themselves in relation to South Koreans is the focus of the study "Relocation in Space, Language, and Identity: Dislocated North Korean Undergraduates in South Korean Universities" (Lee & Ahn, 2016). This study aimed to explore the identity reformation and change in value and function of the language repertoires of the participants as they adapted to South Korea. Four

North Korean undergraduate participants received one-on-one English tutoring from South Korean peers for two hours a week for one semester. The data collected included audio files, student reflection journals, and exit interviews. The data was categorized and analyzed with critical discourse analysis.

The study found that the North Koreans consistently agreed with their South Korean peers, even if the topic was unrelated to study. The North Koreans did not initiate conversation or ask questions and avoided talking about North Korea. The South Koreans never directly degraded North Korea, but they did praise the North Koreans for their South Korean pronunciation. The North Koreans said they wanted to avoid using the North Korean language because it is often made fun of on South Korean television. They consistently marginalized their own language and culture, and felt additionally marginalized because of their lack of English knowledge. They spoke English as an alternative to overcome their marginalization and felt that if they could speak English well, then they could be respected in South Korean society. The study showed that the issue cannot be solved by teaching North Koreans English and the South Korean dialect but that change is needed in the devaluation of North Korean language in South Korean society (Lee & Ahn, 2016).

Social Barriers Between North and South Koreans

Despite the many draws to South Korea, social inequalities are leading more and more North Koreans to leave South Korea after arriving. In "Factors Associated with North Korean Refugees Intention to Resettle Permanently in South Korea," Kim and Atteraya (2018) focus on the reasons why many North Koreans are choosing to leave South Korea despite receiving more support than any other refugee group in the world. Four hundred and five North Korean refugees, ages 20 through 69, were surveyed regarding their wellbeing, situation, relationships, adaptation, and willingness to stay in South Korea. All answers were scaled from complete agreement to complete disagreement. The answers were divided by gender, education, age, marital status, income, and duration of stay.

The study found that those who were young and single, as well as those who had been in South Korea longer, were more likely to desire to leave. The majority of respondents felt lonely and alienated, had

difficulty adapting, and worried about family who remained in North Korea. They did not feel integrated into South Korean society. They felt physically provided for, but they did not want to be burdens on society. They wanted to be active participants in society, not just beneficiaries. Those who wanted to stay in South Korea were more involved and better connected to a community. The study suggested that for change to occur, North Koreans needed to be better integrated into South Korean society. Not only would this provide social support, it could also enhance how South Koreans perceive and show respect to North Korean refugees (Kim & Atteraya, 2018).

Identity Transition of North Koreans

The issue of integration is not just a matter of policy but of identity transformation. Kim (2016), in "A North Korean Defector's Journey through the Identity Transformation Process" explored a 33-year-old woman's attitudes and feelings about school life and learning English as she attended a university in Seoul. The study observed reflective journals and a series of interviews over the course of four months. Standard data analysis procedures were followed, and patterns and themes related to social identity construction were noted.

The study found four distinct phases in the participant's social identity transformation process. In the first stage, she felt strong resistance. She felt that even though she was in South Korea, as a North Korean, English was the language of her enemy. When she could not avoid learning English, as it was a requirement for graduation, she accepted a new identity as an English learner. However, she struggled and felt inferior to her South Korean classmates who studied English since they were children. The teacher connected her to volunteers who tutored her, making her feel comfortable learning English. She negotiated her identity from a passive learner to an active learner. She was encouraged by the care her teacher and tutors showed her and felt an increased connection with her classmates. In the final stage, she wanted to help others who were struggling. She recognized the value of English in an international world and planned to teach English to other North Koreans now and when reunification happens. This study showed the importance of social identity construction in language learning. The participant allowed herself to be transformed from a North Korean, into a member of a unified Korea (Kim, 2016).

DISCUSSION

Devaluation of the North Korean Dialect

There are several overarching themes in the literature; one is that of identity. North Korea pushed to enforce its cultural identity by purifying the language of external influence (Song, 1994). This establishment of North Korean identity in turn made it more difficult for North Koreans to adjust their individual identities when they moved to South Korea. In moving to South Korea, they entered a completely different linguistic marketplace. This devalued the North Korean dialect, while English and South Korean, the languages of their former enemies, became more valuable (Kim, 2016; Lee & Ahn, 2016). The North Koreans refugees had to redefine their sense of identity and how they understood the world (Kim, 2016). Unfortunately, many of them felt that their identities as North Koreans were inferior, which made them desire to hide their identities (Kim, 2016; Lee, 2016; Lee & Ahn, 2016; Lee et al., 2016).

Marginalization of the North Korean Dialect

Many North Korean refugees put a lot of effort into the ability to code-switch. The literature is replete with examples of North Koreans being marginalized, failing job interviews, getting talked down to, being insulted or avoided as soon as they spoke and revealed their North Korean identity through their accent (Kim & Atteraya, 2018; Lee, 2016; Lee & Ahn, 2016) Many North Koreans feel they need to hide behind a learned South Korean dialect whenever South Koreans are present (Lee et al., 2016). Some of the literature suggests that improvement is needed in programs to help North Koreans learn to speak like South Koreans, facilitating the use of loanwords that South Korea has adopted. This would decrease marginalization (Lee, 2016; Lee & Ahn, 2016). However, this would not get to the root of the problem, which is the attitude of South Koreans towards the North Korean dialect. While the programs do need to enable North Koreans to functionally use loanwords, which are part of everyday speech in South Korea, the general attitude and perception of North Koreans, along with their language resources, must change. Integration of North Koreans into society would be necessary for their normalization and acceptance. Several pieces of the literature pointed out that it should not be entirely

on the shoulders of the North Koreans to make adjustments to fit into South Korea but that South Koreans need to adjust positively their mindset and stereotypes towards the North Koreans (Kim & Atteraya, 2018; Lee & Ahn, 2016).

More Than Benefactors

For North Koreans to be truly integrated into South Korean society would mean solidarity and equality for them with their South Korean peers. While North Koreans are physically provided for in South Korea, many of them are unhappy and even desire to leave South Korea because they do not feel connected with the community at large (Kim, 2016; Kim & Atteraya, 2018; Lee et al., 2016). They want to be more than beneficiaries. They want to be respected and acknowledged for how they can benefit society. Above all else, they want to find their place in South Korean society (Kim, 2016; Kim & Atteraya, 2018).

CONCLUSIONS

What caused the quick linguistic split between South and North Korean language? We found that while South Korean continued to receive loanwords from other languages, with the government allowing freer reign of the language, North Korea went in the opposite direction, removing previous foreign influence on the language (Song, 1994). North Korea enforced a standardization based on the Pyongyang dialect, while South Korea continued to use the Seoul dialect as the standard accent. By looking at the lives of North Koreans who live in South Korea, we can see the drastic effects of the linguistic change. North Koreans who escape North Korea feel a great sense of inferiority about their language. They struggle to be able to hide their accent and indeed, their very identity (Lee, 2016; Lee & Ahn, 2016; Lee et al., 2016). While they desire to learn English, a symbol of prestige in South Korea, more importantly, they desire to be accepted as part of the community (Lee, 2016; Lee et al., 2016). They hope to be more than beneficiaries of South Korean society; they hope to be active participants in it (Kim, 2016; Kim & Atteraya, 2018).

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The Korean Wave Reaches the Shores of Global English: K-Words Enter the English Language Lexicon

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This study aims to contextualize the *Oxford English Dictionary's* September 2021 addition of 26 Korean-origin loanwords within the context of recent pedagogical literature on English as a lingua franca and its implications on how this underpins present-day English language teaching ideologies, particularly in South Korea. With focus on the current usage and transmission of Korean-origin loanwords (K-words) within the English language lexicon, the research is supported by empirical data gathered via interviews with a targeted group of highly competent users and teachers of English. The data gathered is compared with a selection of relevant scholarly theories of English as a globalized language from Jenkins (2007) and Graddol (2004, 2006). This evidence is utilized to situate the research findings and to gauge the potential trajectory of K-words as they pertain to English as a global language, English as a (trans)lingua franca, and English as an intercultural language.

Keywords: K-words, English as a lingua franca (ELF), English as an intercultural language (EIcL), translingua franca English (TFE), Global English(es).

INTRODUCTION

The Korean-origin loanwords added to the *Oxford English Dictionary* in September 2021 (Salazar, 2021a, b) are a product of contact between English and Korean language users. South Korea has been referred to as one of the world's "expanding circle" or "norm-dependent" nations of Kachru's World Englishes model (Kachru, 1985). However, English has in recent years been disassociated from its so-called norm-providing "inner circle," consisting of the UK, the USA,

New Zealand, Canada, and Australia (Kachru,1985), and "no longer associated just with Anglophone countries" (Lamb, 2004, p. 14). Twenty years after Kachru's model was created, Canagarajah heralded "the death of the native speaker" (Canagarajah, as cited in Rubdy & Saraceni, 2006, p. 202). The implication of this metaphorical "death" is that we are now in an era beyond Kachru's model, that is, a non-geographical language-origin era of Global English(es) (Crystal, 2003). Code-switching-laden variations of World English(es) are prevalent (Kirkpatrick, 2014, p. 37; McLellan, 2010, p. 435), and all communication conducted in English can be regarded implicitly as "intercultural communication" (Pillar, 2017; Sifakis, 2006, p. 151−164) and in many cases "translanguaging" is also involved in the process. In 2010, Pennycook problematized previous English as a lingua franca (ELF) frameworks, and coined the term "translingua franca English" (TFE):

> We can start with an understanding of translingua franca English, which is taken to include *all* uses of English. That is to say, TFE is not limited here to expanding circle use or so-called NNS [non-native speaker]−NNS interactions, but rather is a term to acknowledge the interconnectedness of all English use. (Pennycook, 2010, p. 685)

"GATEKEEPERS" OF LANGUAGE: OFFICIAL AND UNOFFICIAL

Jenkins (2007) cites ways in which unofficial "gatekeeping" of English occurs in "less obvious ways," such as English language testing (p. 239), noting that the native speaker (NS) bias (i.e., prioritization of English variations as spoken by first-language English speakers from Kachru's inner circle countries (Kachru, 1985)) is problematic. "The prime purpose of learning English in the expanding circle is to be able to use it in lingua franca communication with other NNSs from different L1 backgrounds" (Jenkins, 2007, p. 35).

"Official gatekeepers" of English, such as the *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED), are concerned with maintaining the boundaries of linguistic norms (or N-bound approaches to English as an international language [EIL]) rather than adaptability according to the demands of its

communicative function (C-bound approaches to English as an intercultural language [EicL]; Sifakis, 2006, pp. 151−164). Therefore, "gatekeepers" and their artifacts carry covert ideologies that can be viewed as obstructive and problematic to a communicative approach to language teaching and learning (e.g., Thornbury, 2013). As such, Jenkins argues, dictionaries represent and circulate versions of English within a limited repertoire of NS-centric variations.

The addition of 26 Korean-origin loanwords to the OED in 2021 (Salazar, 2021a) is an indicator of increased contact between Korean and English language users and is evidence of C-bound approaches being implemented in the development of the current English lexicon.

ENGLISH AS A GLOBAL LANGUAGE

In 2004, Graddol argued that a slow and steady decline of English usage would take place globally over the next 50 years (2004 to 2050), based on patterns of the previous 50 years, with English being placed in fourth place globally by 2050:

> The spread of English and other major languages beyond their traditional territories has eroded the idea that "one country, one language" is the norm. In the new world order, most people will speak more than one language and will switch between languages for routine tasks.... The expectation that someone should always aspire to native speaker competence when learning a foreign language is under challenge, as is the notion of "native speaker" itself. (Graddol, 2004, p. 1330)

THE KOREAN WAVE (HALLYU) AS A GLOBAL PHENOMENON

From its outset, the Korean Wave, or *hallyu* (a term understood to be coined in the 1990s; Cicchelli & Octobre, 2021, p. ix) was manufactured and synthetic; a "government construct" (Walsh, as cited in Kuwahara, 2020, p. 13). The international success of hallyu has even been referred to as "propagandistic" (Marshall, 2022, para. 12). Through hallyu, "the Korean government strategically opted for the globalization

of its popular culture in order to generate soft power" (Kiaer & Kim, 2021, p. 1). This so-called "soft power" cultural and economic movement remains closely controlled, monitored, and manipulated by the Korean government, which actively seeks to expand overseas markets for content exports by creating targets and injecting funds: "The Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism set out a goal to achieve $25 billion in content exports by 2027. The ministry will inject 790 billion won ($609 million) in 2023 and 1 trillion won in 2024 in policy funds to help increase content exports" (Kwak, 2023, para. 3).

In the late 2000s, hallyu became "integrated into a social media-embedded cultural landscape" (Jin, 2018, p. 404). This international fan-base led the Hallyu 2.0 movement to progress from a national campaign to a "transnational" form of popular culture (Dal, 2021; Jin, 2018; Jin et al., 2021). Scholars, such as Kiaer, support claims that engagement in Korean culture has also created interest in the Korean language and a corresponding rise in universities offering Korean language and literature courses (Kiaer & Yates-Lu, 2020, p. i).

A key method by which the Korean government has incrementally been making "soft power" gains over the last 25 years is through expansion of "linguistic capital" (Bourdieu, 1977, p. 654) in the form of a test of proficiency in the Korean language (TOPIK). Korea's National Institute for International Education (NIIED) positions itself as an official "gatekeeper" (Jenkins, 2007) of language by standardizing its international usage and maintaining a firm N-bound (Sifakis, 2006) stance. However, up until and including 2022, the TOPIK test has only assessed listening, reading, and writing skills. From 2023, TOPIK II now includes a speaking assessment (Kim, 2019).

METHODOLOGY

The participants of the interview-style questionnaire in this investigation were a targeted sample of 10 highly competent users of English with ages ranging from their 30s to 70s and with a 4:6 male-to-female ratio. All were born in "inner circle" nations. Interviewees were selected to participate on the basis of a level of competence in English, such as teaching experience, published writing, or both. When asked to specify their skill set at the beginning of the questionnaire, eight specified their main job as teacher or lecturer

(including ESL), whilst two identified primarily as academics in the fields of ethnography and linguistics. Languages spoken by the interviewees were listed as French, Italian, Latin, Korean, and Arabic in addition to English. Due to the participants being based in five different time zones, data was gathered asynchronously using the software platform Qualtrics from May to July 2022. Interviewees were asked in an open-ended question format to specify any Korean language vocabulary they could identify as being in current usage in their social networks, and which of these they considered to be "untranslatable" into English (i.e., semantic loanwords).

RESULTS

Figure 1 summarizes the ten examples of Korean-origin loanwords mentioned by the interviewees, which overlap with the 2021 OED entries. Five of these were sociocultural or relationship terms specific to Korean culture, four were food or food-related words, and one was an interjection. These ten words can be divided into 50% standard Korean vocabulary and 50% neologisms (of which 25% could be subcategorized as Korean-origin neologisms and 25% English-origin loanword neologisms). Other Korean-origin words deemed to be in use by English speakers included examples of vocabulary that have not yet been added to the OED; *noonchi* was mentioned in three of the responses and *kkapjil* in two cases. In addition, Interviewee 5 gave two examples of non-standard (slang term) Korean language neologisms; *doenjangnyo* and *kkondae*. *Jeong* was suggested by Interviewee 1. Words denoting specific relational and gender-dependent terms of address (e.g., *noona*) in Korean culture were also considered "untranslatable" into English by Interviewee 10.

FIGURE 1. Interview Responses: OED 2021 Korean-Origin Loanwords

Food & food-related words 40%	Korean sociocultural & relationship terms 50%	Interjections 10%	Standard Korean vocabulary 50%	English-origin loan word neologisms 25%	Korean-origin neologisms 25%
galbi x 2	*oppa*				
bulgogi	*noona*				
mukbang	*K-drama* x 2	*fighting*			
hallyu					

Insight into the Transmission of Korean-Origin Loanwords

Hallyu has been described as a digital and social media-fuelled global trend (Lee & Nornes, 2015). To test this theory, the interview participants were asked to specify their usual sources of information in an open text field format. The majority of interviewees specified more than one source of information, and of these, 62% can be categorized as digital media. The interviewees' information sources largely match the World Economic Forum's 2018 published statistics for social media usage (Ortiz-Ospina, 2019). Overall, the interviewees demonstrated a mix of sources of information, including books and print media (5%). It is assumed that these sources were primarily written in English and were by no means immune to the "echo chamber" effect caused by algorithms inherent in digital media sources. However, these sources may be regarded as offering a variety of perspectives when used in conjunction with non-digital sources.

The Future Fate of English as a Global Language

In order to situate their ideas on English as an international or global language, the interviewees were asked the open-ended question "If you think that English might be replaced in the future, with which language and why?" Responses are recorded in Table 1.

Five interviewees mentioned Chinese (or Mandarin) as a strong contender to replace English in the future, concurring with Graddol (2004); one mentioned European languages, specifically, German or Spanish − again, agreeing with Graddol (2006): "Spanish has grown to be roughly the same size as English in terms of its native-speaker base and may overtake it" (p. 61). Another mentioned an unspecified "new global language." Crystal (2003) also speculates that a global language could be an eventuality of the evolution of worldwide translingual communication.

TABLE 1. Interviewee's Predictions for the Dominant Global Language of the Future

Prediction	Interviewee Number	Question: If you think that English might be replaced in the future, with which language and why?
Chinese	1	"Possibly by Chinese, but I think English will retain its importance globally."
Chinese	3	"Chinese – economic dominance."
Chinese	5	"A lot of people say Chinese will replace English in the future because of the power of their dictator and government."
Chinese	6	"Mandarin may have a shot at toppling English due to the continued rise of China, but even assuming the country's influence grows, I think the archaic nature and inherent difficulty of Mandarin will make that unlikely."
Chinese	7	"Chinese could be a contender. There is so much socio-economic climb and the increasing global reach of the culture. The grammar is simple."
European Language	9	"I don't think English will be replaced, but if it were, I think it would be by German because of its importance in Europe and the opportunities and benefits gained from learning it by second language learners. Spanish is also another option because it is already vastly popular and culturally strong."
New Global Language	2	"I hypothesize that a new, global language will one day replace, or be held as equal, to all native languages."

Interview Question 7 asked, "How much longer do you think English will hold its place as the dominant global language or lingua franca?" Graduated multiple-choice options were given, ranging from *up*

to 20 years to *indefinitely*. Whilst one interviewee chose to respond "no idea," all others picked a variety of time spans ranging from 25−100+ years to indefinitely. Interview Question 8 asked, "What do you predict will happen to the English language in the next 100 years?" This question drew insightful responses across a range of approaches supporting N-bound/C-bound theories (Sifakis, 2006), theories of Global Englishes (Crystal, 2003, 2010), translingual or negotiated Englishes (Cangarajah, 2013; Kirkpatrick, 2014; Pennycook, 2010), and Graddol's (2004) predictions (see Table 2).

TABLE 2. Interviewee Quotes Predicting the Future of English over the Next 100 Years

N-Bound Standardization	"I think it will stay the same. No new words will be invented." (Interviewee 5)
C-bound EIcL (Sifakis, 2006)	"Communication will be prioritized over grammar. Vocabulary will change rapidly and frequently." (Interviewee 9)
	"Expressions will be much more heavily influenced by social media." (Interviewee 4)
Global Englishes (Crystal, 2003, 2010)	"[English] is too entrenched as the lingua franca of the world for the dominance of English to change any time soon." (Interviewee 10)
	"Many people around the world learn English and a lot of business is conducted in English." (Interviewee 1)
	"I think once a language has achieved the global usage that English has, it will likely continue to remain in heavy use." (Interviewee 6)
	"English has long served as a convenient trade language and will continue to do so as long as the United States maintains its position as the world's largest economy and sole genuine superpower" (Interviewee 7)
Translingual Englishes (Pennycook, 2010, Cangarajah, 2013, Kirkpatrick, 2014)	"[English] will have more competition with other languages, but I believe it will continue to hold position as a unifying language in Asia even as Asian countries rise in power." (Interviewee 8)
	"[English] will continue to change, adding vocabulary and new dialects. South Asian English and African English will play a larger role, and perhaps Singapore and other North Asian dialects will affect it." (Interviewee 7)
	"New influences will alter the language." (Interviewee 3)

Graddol's Predictions (Graddol, 2004, 2006)	"English is the neo-Latin. It will evolve beyond itself, and we will have a smattering of vocabulary that originates from it." (Interviewee 2)
	"[I'm] not sure [English] will be replaced, maybe the status of world Englishes will rise." (Interviewee 8)
	"World languages decrease regularly as globalization ensues. I hypothesize that a new, global language will one day replace, or be held as equal, to all native languages." (Interviewee 9)

CONCLUSIONS: LANGUAGE CONTACT THROUGH HALLYU

Despite its recent global transmission, the implications of this study are that Korean-origin loanword vocabulary is unlikely to have any impact on the present status of English as a lingua franca. At least, not for the next 100 years or so. Loanwords add to, but do not replace, existing vocabulary. Therefore, the OED's 2021 addition of 26 Korean-origin loanwords has little impact on the present dominant status of English as a global language. The English language has a long history of assimilating foreign-language loanwords and the relatively small addition of 26 loanwords is a drop in the linguistic ocean. It does not represent anywhere near a critical mass compared to the vast pre-existing lexicon. Furthermore, this study supports existing scholarly claims that English is not under imminent or long-term threat from other current nor future global languages (Crystal, 2003; Rubdy & Saraceni, 2006).

Additionally, this study indicates that the next five years might see a maintained, if not increased, level of interest in Korean culture, Korean studies, and Korean language courses amongst speakers of English. Korean "cultural capital" (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 17) has become institutionalized through legitimized linguistic competence such as TOPIK. For English speakers interested in learning Korean, the introduction of a speaking section of the TOPIK exam brings further opportunities for Korean language learners to embody the language and to implement C-bound approaches. Data presented in this study indicates that Korean-origin loanwords will contribute to future World English variations, or TFEs (Pennycook, 2010) of 2023 and beyond, and the use of K-words supports the notion that English is increasingly being used as an intercultural language (Sifakis, 2006).

Lexical innovation is no longer confined to the traditional centres of English in the United Kingdom and the United States. ... Asians in different parts of the continent invent and exchange words within their own local contexts, then introduce these words to the rest of the English-speaking world, thus allowing the Korean wave to continue to ripple on the sea of English words. (Salazar, 2021a, para. 12)

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Book Reviews

Review of *Cooperative Learning Through a Reflective Lens*
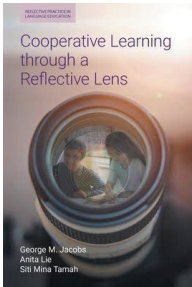
Reviewed by Heidi Vande Voort Nam

INTRODUCTION

I first became interested in cooperative learning because I saw that my students were competing for grades, which is quite common in South Korea. I was looking for a way to help my students see each other as teammates rather than competitors. *Cooperative Learning Through a Reflective Lens* − part of the Reflective Practice in Language Education series, edited by Tom Farrell − presents cooperative learning not just as an approach to language learning but as an approach to life. The authors regularly recognize and celebrate their interdependence with others not only in the classroom but as members of a linked global community. This message of interdependence may feel at odds with the competitive orientation of many areas of the Korean educational system, yet it is precisely this educational climate that may motivate teachers to value ways of promoting cooperation in their classrooms.

Cooperative learning has been defined in different ways, but the authors of *Cooperative Learning Through a Reflective Lens* broadly incorporate any approach that involves students learning through interaction with each other, and they specifically include collaborative learning. Given this broad definition, teachers will find many examples

of cooperative learning (such as a jigsaw or think-pair-square) are already a familiar part of their teaching repertoire.

Nevertheless, some interactive activities will reflect the principles of cooperative learning better than others. As a tool for reflective practice, this book encourages readers to reflect on how their teaching reflects cooperative principles and search for ways to make their lessons even more cooperative. Conversely, the book also suggests that readers use the principles of cooperative learning to enhance their reflective practice through collaboration.

SUMMARY

Through its dual focus on cooperative learning and reflective practice, *Cooperative Learning Through a Reflective Lens* may serve as an introduction to either topic. The first chapter takes a tour through major approaches to language learning − sociocultural learning, behaviorism, constructivism, and critical pedagogy − and demonstrates how cooperative learning could be incorporated into each approach. The suggestions often include having students take on roles traditionally played by teachers, such as providing scaffolding or positive reinforcement. The second chapter introduces the eight principles of cooperative learning, while the third and fourth chapters illustrate cooperative techniques for classroom activities and assessment, respectively.

Chapters 5 and 6 integrate reflective practice and cooperative learning by pointing out the parallels between the two ideas: Both are connected with the development of a trusting, interdependent community. Chapter 5 lays out six principles of reflective practice (Farrell 2019) and eight principles of cooperative learning in a grid, and it proposes that readers consider how each principle of reflective practice could be applied to each principle of cooperative learning. Chapter 6 invites teachers to consider how the principles of cooperative learning could impact their reflective practice. Here teachers will look at ways to improve the health and growth of their communities of reflective practice as they structure their professional development meetings, create a sense of community, and share the workload.

The book closes with a final chapter that has five complete lesson plans, each followed by notes on how the lesson exemplifies cooperative

learning. The lessons in this chapter are based on familiar task types such as extensive reading, debate, and project work, but cooperative elements are added to enhance the interaction. These lessons could serve as a model for teachers who want to tweak their own existing lessons to add more cooperation.

EVALUATION

English teachers in a Korean context may sense tension between the principles of cooperative learning and the norm-referenced assessments that are required in many Korean schools. The principle of positive interdependence requires that students see their own success as interconnected with the success of their peers, whereas norm-referenced grading requires that some students can get higher grades only if other students receive lower evaluations. The writers of the book address this concern head-on by reassuring that norm-referenced grading does not take away the social, emotional, and educational benefits of cooperative learning.

Teachers who want a quick or direct approach to the topic of cooperative learning may object to the frequent anecdotes and reflective questions about cooperation in life outside of the classroom. On the other hand, the repeated call to reflect on life outside the classroom aligns with one of the stated goals of cooperative learning, which is cooperation as a life value. Reflecting on how our students may need to work cooperatively outside of class may help teachers form a better needs analysis of the cooperative skills their students should focus on in class.

Teachers who are mostly interested in finding practical examples of cooperative learning and assessment techniques will find them in chapters 3, 4, and 7. The authors claim that many of the techniques presented will work across a variety of levels, although it seems to me that students at the lower levels may benefit from bilingual support.

Both the structure and content of the book invite reading together with a partner or a larger community of practice. The Reflection Breaks provide questions that welcome not only individual reflection but also discussion. Chapters 1, 2, and 5 would be helpful for a group of teachers to create a basic, shared vocabulary for discussing cooperative learning and reflective practice.

Of course, there are other books that also introduce either

cooperative learning or reflective practice, but what is new here is the potential insights gained from the interaction between the two models. Within a teachers association such as KOTESOL, leaders may be interested in applying cooperative techniques for strengthening group dynamics and sharing the workload.

## THE AUTHORS

Heidi Vande Voort Nam has been teaching English and training teachers in South Korea for more than 20 years. She holds an MA TEFL/TESL from the University of Birmingham, and she teaches at Chongshin University in Seoul. Email: heidinam@gmail.com

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Review of *Win Every Argument*: *The Art of Debating, Persuading, and Public Speaking*
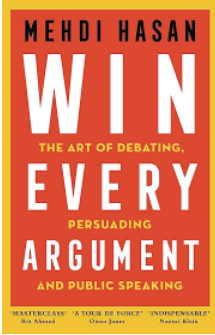
By Mehdi Hasan
New York, USA: *Henry Holt and Company* (*2023*).
Pages: *xvi + 336.* (*ISBN*: *978-1250853462, Paperback*)

Reviewed by KC Washington

INTRODUCTION

Mehdi Hasan is renowned, nee infamous, for his insightful, well-researched, often brutal interviews of everyone from linguist Noam Chomsky to comedian activist Jon Stewart. Enjoying a wide-ranging career, which includes host of The Intercept-produced podcast *Deconstructed* and currently host of MSNBC-Peacock *The Mehdi Hasan Show*, Hasan has released a new book on, as the title proclaims, how to win every argument. Although ostensibly about how honing your debate skills can improve communication, it can also serve as a novel teaching resource providing guideposts to build speaking confidence and encourage a love of learning and resilience in the face of failure or setbacks.

CONTENTS

Joining the ranks of *The Debater's Guide* (2011) and *Thank You for Arguing*: *What Aristotle*, *Lincoln*, *and Homer Simpson Can Teach Us About the Art of Persuasion* (2007), his latest book is broken down into four sections: The Fundamentals (feelings, make'em laugh); Tricks of the Trade (judo martial art moves, zingers); Behind the Scenes (confidence, practice); and the Conclusion. Within these sections, Hasan pithily demystifies his ability to drill down on the most erudite guest or panel to get to the crux of a conversation or argument. While acknowledging a gift for gab and an insatiable pleasure in research and getting things right, Hasan assures readers that they, too, can make their case and win the day:

> So, this book is intended as a practical guide − for trial lawyers who want to triumph in the courtroom; for corporate executives who want to dominate in the boardroom; for political candidates who want to run for office and win their TV debates; for teachers and lecturers who want to succeed in getting their point across; for students who want to excel in speech and debate tournaments or at Model UN; for spouses who...well, you know the rest. (Introduction, para. 30)

And I would argue ESL instructors and English lecturers who want to unlock their often fearful and reluctant students' speaking confidence and motivation. Intermediate to advanced ESL students who desire practical yet interesting new ways to approach English language learning would also find it beneficial. Delving into a rarified world of high-stakes punditry, where he defends his Muslin faith, democratic and republican antisemitism, the glory of research and preparation, and the importance of making a joke to lighten the mood and relax your audience, I think Hasan would agree.

The Indian-Brit, now Indian American (he became an American citizen in 2020), relishes nothing more than thinking outside of the box to challenge himself and those he faces off with, making the case that it's not the subject matter or the opponent but preparation, curiosity, and a willingness to deploy resources and examples from across a broad spectrum that wins the day. In other words, show up to a debate or a classroom with a notebook and an open mind. This last observation is something most educators struggle to impress upon students: that the

journey through the lesson is as important as the outcome.

For example, students often feel a disconnect between the acquisition of English and how it fits into their everyday lives. Creating or using existing methods that highlight the fun of language learning and/or the value of knowledge for knowledge's sake may lessen classroom stress. I recently came across a twist on the KWL chart shared by Seoul KOTESOL member Rhea Metituk. A TeachThought chart with a twist adds an H, so that it becomes what you already know (K), what you want to learn or know (W), how you will learn it (H), and what you learned (L). This creates a sense of connection and ownership to the lesson and in the classroom. One of the many things highlighted throughout the book is the need to take ownership of the knowledge you bring to the table (debate) as well as what you learned in the process.

But as indispensable as preparation and background knowledge are, Hasan believes that nothing is more important than your audience. He urges his readers to "know your audience." I would hazard to say this goes double for teachers. Be it first-day icebreaker games, surveys, general in-class questions, or reflective practices, a productive class is unattainable if an instructor doesn't understand whom they are dealing with. "Be willing to customize your presentation − even the shape of your arguments − to whoever it is you want to win over," says Hasan early on in the book.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

With a deft touch and a lot of self-deprecation, Hasan lays out his strategy for exactly how to get to know your audience/students and grab their attention:

1. Start with a strong opening line.
2. Start with a question.
3. Start with a story.

These steps, which can easily be applied to the ESL classroom, lay the foundation for connection, a vital element in any educational environment, but especially in one where students are sometimes restless and unconvinced about the usefulness of the subject matter.

One of the more fascinating premises Hasan weaves through the

book is Aristotle's three modes of persuasion. He breaks down how every argument can be approached in a targeted manner via character (ethos), emotion (pathos), or logic (logos). In the world of ELT, they can loosely link to parts of Stephen Krashen's monitor model (Richards, 2015). Ethos is the natural order hypothesis. Whether students are trying to master their L1 (native language) or L2 (second language), language is acquired in a specific order. Pathos is the affective filter hypothesis. Educators and learners must navigate their own and others' fears and schemas in order to progress. And logos is the acquisition-learning and monitor hypotheses. Students enter the classroom having acquired certain knowledge and background information. Throughout their education journey, it is their job and the job of their instructors to tap into it and build upon it. Ways to do this often involve student-centered classrooms and using L1 to transfer existing knowledge and comprehension to L2.

Hasan makes a great case for each method, but I believe, as he seems to, that most arguments and conversations contain elements of at least two modes. But no matter which way an instructor leans, all three modes should be deployed at some point for a successful classroom. This may include students interviewing each other, role play, or trust-building exercises.

Making eye contact, heaping praise, and getting personal − all key elements in a great debate and in creating a safe, student-centered environment where ESL students feel comfortable by lowering their socio-affective filters and engaging − are paramount. But, as an oft-embattled Hasan understands, the best lesson plan will fail without the active participation of students. And a good teacher uses any means necessary:

> You might have all your facts in hand, an argument that's unassailable − and make no dent at all. People are stubborn, and wary, and reactive, and bored, and overconfident, and afraid of change − all at once.

Sound familiar? The struggle to convince ESL students from elementary to university that English is useful and worth the trouble is real, and accessing tools like professional development conferences, reflection journals, and yes, even debate books can help ease the pain.

EVALUATION

Over the course of 336 pages, Hasan covers a variety of ways to engage an audience and win them over, stressing active listening, taking notes, and the value of flexibility. He quotes everyone from legendary motivational speaker Dale Carnegie to WWE wrestler and movie star Ronda Rousey to press his point.

The first 110 pages are the most effective, with plentiful examples of real-world methods for winning debates and elevating discourse. The writing is fluid and often charming, and I found myself smiling at tales involving a teenage Kano Jigoro, who, bullied at school, went on to found Kodokan judo, a martial art predicated on flexibility and knowing when to yield. This is something every teacher must learn: when to push a student beyond their comfort zone with new vocabulary or group work and when to yield, letting the student find their way to the material. After all, yielding, moving on, or circling back allows the student to gather their thoughts and vocabulary, while reducing their resistance and, with luck, increasing their confidence.

CONCLUSION

New teachers and veterans alike need to keep on their toes by infusing their lessons and classroom with varying methods and strategies. Books like *Win Every Argument*: *The Art of Debating*, *Persuading*, *and Public Speaking* can teach an old dog new debate tricks, infusing ESL classrooms with energy and new focus. And like Hasan says, "Philosophically, I consider argument and debate to be the lifeblood of democracy, as well as the only surefire way to establish the truth."

Repurposed, this translates to the ability of teachers and students to organize and express their thoughts in a clear, confident manner in a stimulating, safe environment − the foundation of winning every argument and winning in the classroom.

THE REVIEWER

KC Washington is a novelist, travel blogger, freelance writer, and independent historian. She has an Associate of Arts degree in journalism from the University

of Missouri−Columbia, a Bachelor of Arts in English from Brooklyn College, and a Master of Arts in bilingual education/ESL and reading from the University of Texas Permian Basin. She is currently an English language lecturer at Gyeongsang National University in Jinju, South Korea.

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Review of *Engaging Language Learners in Contemporary Classrooms*
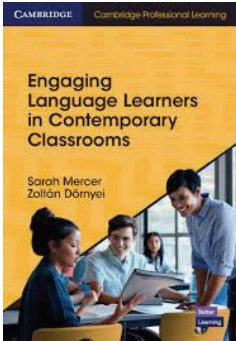
By Sarah Mercer and Zoltan Dornyei
Cambridge, UK: Cambridge Univerity Press 2020.
Pages: vii + 194. (ISBN: 978-1-108-44592-4, Paperback)

Reviewed by Jake Kimball

INTRODUCTION

The concept of student engagement is trending. It even has an entry in Philip Kerr's *30 Trends in ELT* (2022). It is making the rounds as a hot conference topic. And rightly so − engagement deserves our attention. But just what is it? Learners exhibiting consistent, on-task behaviors? Satisfied students leaving class with a smile? Eager, inquisitive hands raised? Homework completed? Evidence of progress and goals attained? Well, of course. All that and much more.

A review of engagement literature offers us a dynamic, multi-dimensional concept, including behavioral, cognitive, social, and affective components. To make engagement even more complex, consider all four of these components to be, for the most part, integrated and interconnected. Engagement to date does not have an agreed-upon definition. But the core foundation of all iterations is the idea of learners taking action, doing, being involved, investing energy, and meaningful, sincere effort. Think of it as flow in language learning (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).

SUMMARY

There is a set framework within each chapter of *Engaging Language Learners in Contemporary Classes*. Each chapter includes a series of Reflection Tasks. These serve as conversation starters, journal entries, and schema-building background tasks. There may be up to eleven of these tasks per chapter. To make the concepts salient to readers, there are a number of vignettes, called Illustrations, penned by real teachers. These add nuance and authenticity to the ideas under discussion. The early parts of each chapter are anchored by Principles. And finally, each chapter concludes with Teacher Actions; these are concrete steps we can take to enact the principles.

Six chapters make up the content, and they are logically sequenced. In Chapter 1, we read about The Contexts of Learner Engagement. It presents some outside-the-box ideas on the wider context of forces that impact engagement: society and sociocultural influences, family, school (policy), values and attitudes, etc. The Facilitative Learner Mindset is the subject of Chapter 2. Here, other trending issues such as grit, mindset, and agency are covered. Another trending topic, coaching, is suggested as a way to move away from the traditional teacher mindset. In short, thinking of learners as partners in the learning process facilitates engagement. Chapter 3 tackles Teacher–Student Rapport. Self-determination, learner autonomy, differentiation, and feedback all influence the social and affective dimensions. Chapter 4 outlines how to foster positive classroom dynamics via conflict resolution, collaboration, cooperative learning, and a host of classroom management techniques. Chapter 5 is where we start to hit paydirt. Initiating Engagement with Learning Tasks is the chapter with classroom performance in mind. We move from the social-affective dimension to tips for dealing with the behavioral and cognitive dimensions. It won't come as any surprise to know that task design is intricately connected to and dependent on context and the social-affective dimensions discussed earlier. The chapter includes an emphasis on needs analysis and materials analysis. Some of the main ingredients of engagement include curiosity and surprise. So read Chapter 5 for more on the engagement's secret sauce. Finally, in Chapter 6, we have Sustaining Engagement on Learning Tasks. This is about persistence, challenge, ZPD, HOTS and LOTS, generating interest, the CLARA criteria, and elements of game design. The Conclusion wraps up everything neatly with boxed summaries of each chapter.

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

As mentioned earlier, each chapter concludes with a collection of practical ideas to implement in class. Teacher Actions are supported by principles. They are relevant and manageable. Sometimes they come in the form of actionable steps, for example, in organizing groupwork, delegating roles for tasks, maintaining discipline, and avoiding conversation killers (i.e., IRF [initiation-response-feedback]). Chapter 5 has some constructive ideas. One of my new favorites is to show a progress bar to students as they make their way through a lesson in order to take advantage of the Zeigarnik effect.

Other times, the Teacher Actions are a bit vague. They are more like strategies where you can simply slot and fill generic activities as long they facilitate a desired outcome. Giving thoughtful feedback would serve well as an example here. While there is a mindful discussion about this issue and some guidance, it is up to the reader to craft the actual feedback. There are no sentence starters or frames.

EVALUATION

This book is a much-needed addition to your personal library. If there is one teacher development book that you should acquire, this is the one. It states in easy terms the principles that underlie engagement. It is fairly short and well-organized. Definitely easy to read. And it offers nuggets of practical advice that teachers can enact in their own classrooms. Basically, it is a springboard for teachers, regardless of the subject or skills taught, age group, or proficiency level of learners. So I found it to be very motivating. Every page had me asking myself, *How can I do that in my classes*?

While there are references to inspire additional background reading, there is not much research modeled. For that, you must read up on the journals and books referenced. In my opinion, some of the concepts deserve more than a cursory paragraph of illustration or explication. That, of course, is both a blessing and a curse. But given the shorter attention spans wrought by social media and our fast-paced modern life in general, maybe the content is appropriately presented.

That brings us to commentary about engagement in general. Is it "the holy grail" of teaching and learning? No doubt, it is alluring.

Engagement encapsulates the ideal student in an ideal context of flow. It is important to note that entire books, careers, and complicated research projects have been devoted to single areas/dimensions of engagement. Take, for example, language learning strategies, TBLT, feedback, cooperative learning, Culture, etc. Then add the difficulty of individual preferences and the fact that engagement waxes and wanes daily, perhaps hour by hour. And the lack of contact time with students as credit hours get cut. Nevertheless, fostering engagement (behavioral, cognitive, social, and affective dimensions) is a worthy challenge. Think of it as a win-win for both teacher-coaches and learners.

CONCLUSION

If you want to be a better coach/teacher, *Engaging Language Learners in Contemporary Classes* is the place to start. It is principled and practical. The notion of engagement plants the seeds for reflection. It offers just enough detail to level up your repertoire, despite being left wanting more at times. Nevertheless, this is a great primer on issues related to engagement and satisfaction.

THE REVIEWER

Jake Kimball holds an MSc in educational management in TESOL from Aston University, and his research interests include program evaluation and classroom dynamics. He is especially interested in classroom management issues that impact willingness to communicate (WTC) and demotivation. Taking part in teacher development activities has been a long-time interest. He is an assistant professor of English in the Liberal Arts Department of Semyung University in Korea.

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Appendices

Korea TESOL Ethical Standards for Research and Publication

ARTICLE I. GENERAL PROVISIONS.

Section 1. Purpose.

The Korea TESOL Ethical Standards for Research and Publication (hereafter referred to as "the Standards"), designed to promote and maintain high ethical standards concerning professional research and publication, shall provide the guidelines for the organization and operation of the Korea TESOL (hereafter, KOTESOL) Board on Research and Publication Ethics, entitled to investigate any wrongdoings against the ethical policies described in the Standards.

Section 2. Scope of Application.

The Standards shall apply to all research related to KOTESOL, manuscripts submitted to the official scholarly publications of KOTESOL, and materials submitted to and presented at scholarly events of KOTESOL. These include the following:

1. *Korea TESOL Journal*
2. *KOTESOL Proceedings*
3. *The English Connection*
4. Korea TESOL International Conference *Extended Summaries*
5. The Korea TESOL website
6. KOTESOL event program books and website (including international, national, chapter, and SIG conferences, symposiums, and workshops)
7. KOTESOL event presentation content, either in-person or virtual (including international, national, chapter, and SIG conferences, symposiums, and workshops)

ARTICLE II. ETHICAL PRINCIPLES.

Section 1. Ethical Principles of the Author.

(a) The *author* (as defined in Art. VIII) shall perform faithful research.

(b) The author shall make the research process transparent.

(c) The author shall be open to constructive criticism of the author's *work* (defined in Art. VIII) by *reviewers* and the *publication chief* (defined in Art. VIII).

(d) The author shall disclose conflicts of interest and be transparent as to any entity that may be supporting or may profit from the author's work.

(e) The author shall not infringe on the privacy, autonomy, rights, or well-being of an individual through a procedure in execution of a work or through the outcome of a work.

(f) The author shall not publish (*publication* defined in Art. VIII) the work of another as the author's own.

(g) The author shall make a concerted effort to adhere to research and publication ethics set out herein.

Section 2. Ethical Principles and the Work.

(a) A work shall conform adequately to the submission requirements of the *publication* (as defined in Art. VIII).

(b) A work shall conform adequately in contents and organization as prescribed by the publication.

(c) A work shall demonstrate respect for participants' autonomy, privacy, and well-being. This includes the use of language that is sensitive to people and places; the avoidance of deficit-centered perspectives that demean participants; weighing potential risks in relation to benefits of the work and taking steps to minimize such risks, especially when considering working with vulnerable groups; and throughout all aspects of the research, being attentive to the well-being of the participants. All work should make a positive contribution to the body of knowledge and ultimately to society.

Section 3. Breach of Ethical Principles

Breaches of research and publication ethics include the following:

1. Fabrication, the act of falsely creating nonexistent data or outcomes.

2. Falsification, the distortion of content or outcomes by artificial manipulation of research materials, equipment, or processes, including selective reporting; or by arbitrary modification or deletion of data.

3. Plagiarism, the appropriation of another person's ideas, processes, results, or words without giving appropriate credit. This includes self-plagiarism, the appropriation of the author's earlier published ideas, processes, results, or words without giving appropriate credit.
4. False authorship, the allocation of principal authorship or other publication credit that does not reflect, in any justifiable manner, scientific and professional contributions of an individual to a work.
5. Multiple submissions, the submission of a manuscript that has already been published, accepted for publication elsewhere, or concurrently submitted for review to another publication.

ARTICLE III. AUTHORSHIP AND AUTHOR OBLIGATIONS.

Section 1. Acknowledgement of Sources.
An author who submits a manuscript shall include proper acknowledgement when drawing upon the ideas, concepts, words, or research of another, including any additional information obtained during the review and proposal evaluation process.

Section 2. Authorship and Author Responsibility.
An author shall have responsibility for and take credit for only the work to which they have made a substantial contribution.

Section 3. Authorship and Contribution Disclosure.
(a) An author shall clearly disclose their relevant affiliations and positions.
(b) In the case of a submitted work with multiple authors, all contributing authors shall be disclosed.
(c) Authors shall be listed in a descending order of the contribution made to the work. Each author shall be able to clearly justify their role and contribution to the work.
(d) No individual shall be credited with authorship without making a contribution to the work.

Section 4. Submission of Manuscript.
An author shall not be permitted to submit a manuscript for review

that has already been published elsewhere, that has been accepted for publication elsewhere, or is being reviewed for possible publication elsewhere. If a case of multiple submission occurs, the author shall notify the KOTESOL publication(s) to investigate the acceptability/unacceptability of the multiple submission.

Section 5. Revision of Manuscript.

An author shall strive to revise their submitted manuscript in accordance with the feedback and suggestions provided by the *reviewer* (defined in Art. VIII) and *publication chief* (defined in Article VIII) during the review and editing process. This includes revisions in accordance with the publication's style guidelines. If an author disagrees with a requested revision, they shall provide in writing relevant evidence and justification for not making the requested revision, which shall then be taken into consideration by the publication chief prior to a final decision regarding acceptance.

ARTICLE IV. EDITORIAL PANEL OBLIGATIONS.

Section 1. An *editorial panel* (defined in Art. VIII) makes decisions regarding the publication of a submitted work. In the decision-making process, each member of the editorial panel shall respect the integrity of each other member as a professional educator, scholar, and/or researcher.

Section 2. An editorial panel shall review fairly the quality of a submitted work and whether it complies with the submission guidelines and review criteria. Submitted works shall be evaluated objectively without regard to affiliation, age, gender, and other personal characteristics of the author.

Section 3. In order to give each submitted work due opportunity to be reviewed and evaluated objectively, the publication chief shall ensure that the reviewer(s) of a work shall have suitable expertise in the area covered by the work, shall be able to make fair and unbiased decisions, and shall not have any conflict of interest with the work or author.

Section 4. The publication chief shall ensure that neither the contents of a submitted work nor the identity of its author be disclosed during the review process to anyone outside that review process. In the case of a blind review publication, the identity of an author shall, in addition, not be disclosed to the reviewer(s).

ARTICLE V. REVIEWER OBLIGATIONS.

Section 1. A reviewer, upon accepting a review request by the publication chief, shall follow the guidelines set forth for review of the work, including the ethical principles described in Articles II and III; complete the review within the designated time frame; and submit the review results to the publication chief.

Section 2. A reviewer shall review a work independently, fairly, and objectively. The reviewer shall explain and support their judgements adequately in the review report made to the publication chief in such a manner so as the basis of the comments may be clearly understood.

Section 3. (a) If the reviewer feels inadequately qualified to fairly and objectively conduct a review of the assigned work, the reviewer shall notify the publication chief of their withdrawal from the review process for the work in question.
(b) If a reviewer detects a possible conflict of interest of any type between the reviewer and either the author or their work, the reviewer shall notify the publication chief of the reviewer's withdrawal from the review process for the work in question.

Section 4. In the review of a work, a reviewer shall respect the author's integrity as a scholar and professional, and respect their right to do independent research.

Section 5. A reviewer shall treat a work for review with the utmost

confidentiality. The reviewer shall not disclose any information about the work under review or discuss its contents with a third party during the review process, which culminates with notification of review results to the author.

ARTICLE VI. THE BOARD ON RESEARCH AND PUBLICATION ETHICS (BORPE).

Section 1. Organization.
    (a) KOTESOL shall establish a Board on Research and Publication Ethics (hereinafter, BORPE) whose duty shall be to oversee matters (that are in KOTESOL's national scope) related to ethical standards.

    (b) The BORPE shall be composed of four (4) permanent members: the Publications Committee chair, the Research Committee chair, the Diversity Committee chair, and the *Korea TESOL Journal* editor-in-chief, When the BORPE is convened to consider a case, up to three (3) additional members may be appointed by the BORPE chair on an ad hoc basis for the duration of the proceedings.

    (c) The Publications Committee chair shall serve as the BORPE chair, and the BORPE chair's term of office shall correspond with that of the Publication Committee chair's term of office.

    (d) Entities within KOTESOL that are not explicitly managed or facilitated by a national committee, such as chapters and SIGs (special interest groups), may establish their own boards to oversee, investigate, and deliberate matters related to research and publication ethics in the spirit of the standards set forth herein.

Section 2. Duties.
The BORPE shall deliberate matters related to research and publication ethics, including administrative affairs related to the implementation and revision of the Standards, and investigate possible violations of the Standards. In the case where the BORPE determines that a violation has been committed, the BORPE shall recommend an appropriate response to correct the violation; if

sanctions against the violator are suggested, the sanctions shall be presented to the National Council for approval.

Section 3. Meetings and Operation.

(a) Meetings shall be convened, either in-person or virtually, as deemed necessary by the Chair or when requested by the KOTESOL President.

(b) A majority of the BORPE members shall constitute a quorum for a meeting. A decision of the BORPE shall be considered valid with the concurrence of a majority of the members present at the meeting. But a BORPE member involved as an author of the work under investigation shall not be permitted to participate in the meeting as a BORPE member.

(c) The meeting shall be held in a closed-door session. The author suspected of misconduct shall be asked to appear at the BORPE meeting if the BORPE deems it to be necessary.

(d) When resolution of a case appears relatively simple and thus does not appear to require intense discussion and deliberation, opinions and suggestions of the BORPE members may be rendered in writing (e.g., via email) when so requested by the Chair, and in lieu of an in-person or virtual meeting. A final written resolution shall be based on the written opinions and suggestions of the BORPE members.

Section 4. Author's Obligation to Cooperation.

An author suspected of a breach of the Standards shall be obliged to cooperate fully and faithfully with the BORPE in its investigation into that possible breach of the Standards. The author's cooperation shall include, but not be limited to, submission of requested documents and appearing before the BORPE (virtually, if necessary) if called upon to do so.

Section 5. Investigation of Misconduct Allegations.

(a) If there is an allegation of a possible violation of the research and publication ethics as set forth herein, the BORPE shall begin an investigation as expeditiously as possible and give the author ample opportunity to respond to allegations within a time period set at up to three (3) months from the date of notification to the

author.

(b) The BORPE shall have the right to request that the author provide ample clarification with respect to alleged misconduct or violations of research and publication ethics.

(c) The BORPE shall scrutinize the author's clarifications and judge if the author's provided clarifications are satisfactory. If they are not deemed satisfactory, the BORPE shall ask for further information in order to make a proper judgement with respect to the allegations.

(d) The BORPE shall conduct investigation of misconduct and violation of research and publication ethics in accordance with the procedures set forth by COPE (Committee on Publication Ethics) in its guidelines for journals and publishers (https://publicationethics.org/).

(e) The BORPE shall finalize any investigation and review as expeditiously as possible within a period of not more than six (6) months.

(f) The BORPE shall not disclose the identity of an author or informant involved in an allegation of misconduct until a final decision has been made in the matter. But, the sharing of information shall be allowed if

(i) there is no response from the author,

(ii) the response from the author is inadequate as determined by the BORPE chair,

(iii) more than one publication is thought to be affected,

(iv) disclosure of such information is necessary to enact the resolution recommended by the BORPE (see, e.g., Section 6(d)).

(g) The BORPE shall report to the President their findings in an investigation of allegations of misconduct along with a description of their rationale and dissenting arguments, and any suggested resolution or remedy to be imposed on the violator(s).

Section 6. Punitive Action

(a) In a case where the BORPE recommends a punitive action of light severity, the President may decide to accept and implement the punitive action or bring it before the National Council for consideration.

(b) In a case where the BORPE recommends a punitive action of

considerable severity, the President shall bring it before the National Council for consideration.

(c) In a case brought before the National Council, the Council, taking the recommendations of the BORPE into consideration, is the final arbiter of the matter, determining an appropriate response by a simple majority vote of the Council members present.

(d) The President shall be able to take punitive action ranging from a warning to suspension or revocation of KOTESOL membership of an author found to be in violation of the Standards as set forth herein. The President shall also have the right to notify other organizations or individuals of the punitive action taken. A typical example of a punitive action would be the following: If misconduct is proven, a manuscript already accepted for publication in the *Korea TESOL Journal* shall be rejected, and in the case where the research is already published in the *Korea TESOL Journal*, the research shall be removed (in the case of digital publication) or notification shall be made of cancellation of the research (in the case of print publication). The author of the research shall not be allowed to make a submission to the Journal for three (3) years following the punitive action.

ARTICLE VII. COPYRIGHT.

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

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

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

Section 3b. If however a satisfactory resolution to the copyright agreement dispute cannot be reached by the publication and the author, the case may be brought before the BORPE for resolution following the procedure set forth in Article VI.

ARTICLE VIII. PROMOTION OF RESEARCH AND PUBLICATION ETHICS.

KOTESOL shall make a concerted effort to make conspicuously available not only these Standards but also materials that an author may use prior to submission of a work to aid in ensuring that research and publication ethics are not breached.

ARTICLE IX. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS.

Terms used in this document shall be defined as follows:
1. *Author* shall refer to any individual(s) submitting a manuscript for review to a KOTESOL publication, submitting a proposal for review for an oral presentation, and/or making an oral academic presentation.
2. *Work* shall refer to any manuscript submitted for review/ evaluation, any summary or abstract submitted for review/ evaluation, any proposal submitted for review/evaluation, or any oral academic presentation and their accompanying materials.
3. *Publication* shall refer to any listed item in Article I, Section 2.
4. *Editorial Panel* shall refer to the individual(s) designated by a publication to render a decision on acceptance/rejection of a work for publication.
5. *Publication Chief* shall refer to the individual of a publication holding the topmost decision-making powers.
6. *Reviewer* shall refer to any individual(s) selected by a publication chief to evaluate the quality of a work.

ARTICLE X. AMENDMENT OF THE STANDARDS.

The Standards may be amended in accordance with protocol set forth

for amendment of the KOTESOL Policy and Procedures Manual.

SUPPLEMENTARY PROVISIONS.

- These Standards shall take effect as of May 24, 2020.
- Amended September 27, 2020, by the Korea TESOL National Council.

Korea TESOL Journal
General Information for Contributors

As an academic journal in the field of English language teaching (ELT), the *Korea TESOL Journal* welcomes the submission of manuscripts that meet the general criteria of significance and scientific excellence. Submissions should be of practical import, dealing with aspects of the Korean ELT context or directly applicable to it. As a journal that is dedicated to the nurturing of research among ELT practitioners, the *Journal* also welcomes quality submissions from the early-career researcher.

The *Korea TESOL Journal* invites submissions in three categories:

1. Full-Length Articles. Contributors are strongly encouraged to submit manuscripts of 5,000 to 8,000 words in length, including references, tables, etc.

2. Brief Reports. The Journal also invites short reports (approximately 2,500 words). These manuscripts may present preliminary findings, focus on some aspect of a larger study, or summarize research done in the pursuit of advanced studies.

3. Reviews. The Journal invites succinct, evaluative reviews of scholarly or professional books, or instructional-support resources (such as computer software, video or audio material, and tests). Reviews should provide a descriptive and evaluative summary and a brief discussion of the significance of the work in the context of current theory and practice. Submissions should generally be 800−12,000 words in length.

Manuscripts are accepted for peer review with the understanding that the same work has not been submitted elsewhere (i.e., not pending review or currently under review) and has not been previously published, online or in print. A statement confirming this should accompany submissions.

Manuscripts should follow APA style guidelines (*Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 7th ed.), especially for in-text citations, reference items, tables, and figures. Submissions should be made with tables, figures, and other graphics included in the manuscript text (and upon request, as separate files). Graphic text must also follow APA style. All figures should be created in black and white, and graphs (pie graphs, bar graphs, etc.) must display distinctive shades or patterning for readability. Manuscripts should be submitted as MS Word (DOC or DOCx) files.

The *Korea TESOL Journal* accepts submissions for two issues annually.

Inquiries/manuscripts to: journal@koreatesol.org

For more information on submissions to the *Korea TESOL Journal*, including paper submission deadlines, evaluation criteria, and manuscript formatting requirements, visit:

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

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