

ANALYSIS OF CLASSROOM DYNAMICS IN A TEACHING METHODS COURSE:  
AN EFL TEACHER EDUCATOR'S BELIEFS AND INSTRUCTIONAL DECISIONS ABOUT  
TEACHING ENGLISH IN SOUTH KOREA

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Submitted to the faculty of the University Graduate School  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree  
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Today, learning language for communication is a priority of language education. Accordingly, the curriculum for English education in Korea has promoted teaching for communicative competence and communicative teaching approaches since the 1990s. After two decades of Ministry of Education's investments in teacher training, materials development, and curriculum revisions, many teachers still find it difficult to employ communicative approaches. One of primary reasons that teachers give for this difficulty is inadequate training for communicative language teaching. In response to this issue, this case study explores one teacher educator's practices in an English teaching methods course in a teacher training program in South Korea, focusing on her beliefs about what prospective teachers should learn from the course and how the course prepared them to teach for communication as well as addressing the challenges of implementation reported in previous studies.

Thematic analysis of the curriculum, classroom observations and semi-structured interviews revealed the presupposed agreement with teaching English for communication. Assuming a shared purpose with her students, the teacher educator's priority was on developing students' knowledge about English, English teaching, and language learning theories. This emphasis resulted in instruction that was more explanatory than participatory. Also, knowing the limitations of the introductory course, the teacher educator had the goal of developing teachers' analytic and critical perspectives for their continuous learning. Instead of labelling methods as

good or bad, the teacher educator intended to prepare teachers to be theoretically and empirically informed so they could make decisions for their own students in their unique settings. These findings suggest three major assertions for teacher educators in South Korea. First, teacher educators should assist pre-service teachers to understand administrative expectations about the goals of English education. Second, to be prepared for knowledge-based decision making, pre-service teachers need opportunities to reflect on their beliefs about English teaching, to contextualize knowledge, and to develop analytic and critical attitudes. Third, teacher educators' practices in pursuing the goal of developing pre-service teachers' competency in using knowledge for teaching must be understood in the context of their programs and educational culture in South Korea.

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## Chapter 1. Introduction

I vividly remember how my English classrooms were like as a middle student during the early 2000s when communicative language teaching (CLT) just became popular in Korea. I officially was introduced to English from middle school according to the national curriculum, although I knew the language from elementary school through private tutoring at home. The English teacher I recall was a middle-aged female who probably was struggling with the brand-new concept of teaching communication in public sectors, possibly without proper training. Not knowing what CLT was, what she could do to teach English communicatively was to ask her students to memorize “dialogue” from the textbook and to perform it in front of the entire classroom for extra credits. The dialogues typically were scripts of conversation consisted of seven to ten sentences between two interlocutors, where many Korean English learners learned a pattern, “Hi, how are you?” “Fine, thank you. And you?”

From that day, more than 15 years have passed. During the time, I have graduated from English Education Department where pre-service teachers are accredited for teaching English at secondary level public sectors, taught English at local public middle school and private high school, and read countless articles about teaching second language while studying in graduate schools. When I first started teaching immediately after teacher training, I could not stop blaming my training for not preparing me for teaching. I kept wondering how I could teach English communicatively and make students interested using textbook in a large class, keeping the same pace with two other English teachers for school exams. I also wondered why I kept going back to the boring method I was taught, which I did not enjoy and I lost my low-achieving students’ motivation throughout the semester. I learned that communicative teaching is what I should do as a teacher, but not about how to create such class and the related elements that I should consider.

Keeping these questions in mind, later in graduate programs, reading research educated me to understand how complicated language teaching is, not a simple issue of teachers' lack of knowledge or one between a teacher and her students but a profound phenomenon intertwined with history and culture in the society. I also read specific challenges that English teachers in Korea have reported regarding teaching for communication, and found that teachers mentioned a lack of relevant training until recently. The most common needs included more opportunities to develop "enough" proficiency in English and contextualized teaching approaches for English classroom in South Korea. These direct and indirect experiences have informed me that the current classrooms still have some things in common with my middle school one, which led me to conduct the research in teacher training, as an effort to find answers for the following questions. Why did I, as many teachers did, feel unprepared even with a successful completion of the training? How could it better prepare me for real teaching within rigid curriculum? What is happening in the training classes these days? What kinds of actual changes were made in classroom, responding to changes from the Ministry of Education (MOE) and previous research? And last, why are many current English teachers in Korea still unable to use communicative approaches in their classrooms after two decades of support?

### **Problem Statement**

After the introduction of communicative competence (Hymes, 1972) in the field of language teaching, it had quickly become a new learning aim (Savignon, 1972; Widdowson, 1978). Accompanying with the globalization of English, the innovative teaching method, CLT in particular during early years, also came to be the major goal for English education in many countries including South Korea. From the late 1990s, the Korean MOE has actively

implemented the groundbreaking teaching method in K-12 English education. Through multiple revisions over 20 years, the MOE no longer recommends communicative language teaching, but the emphasis on communication is explicitly stated as an objective in curriculum for K-12 English education (Ministry of Education, 2015).

Not surprisingly, early research on Korean English teachers' responses to the top-down teaching initiatives demonstrated their immense confusion and confrontational disagreements on many different levels. Initially, teachers criticized the MOE's hasty emphasis on spoken proficiency and that it was simply too radical to implement (e.g., Dash, 2002). Without adequate explanation and support, teachers kept reporting the expectations were not realistic and needs for relevant training (Choi, 2000; Guiloteaux, 2004; S.-Y. Kim, 2002; Li, 1998; Nunan, 2003). Acknowledging being rushed, the MOE subsequently initiated investment for a number of teacher training programs, such as revising English teacher training programs to offer more courses for language skills and pedagogic knowledge, including opportunities for in-service teachers to study abroad in English speaking countries (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2009). Furthermore, some local MOEs provided additional financial aid for English teachers' professional development (personal communication, August 17, 2014). Another major investment included developing textbooks and teaching materials focusing on communication (Kwon, 1997, 2000), in addition to hiring many native English speakers in K-9 schools (Yonhap News, 2015, 2016).

However, classroom-based research indicates teachers' negative perception of teaching communicative competence as an unrealistic goal in their classrooms; this results in confession of their avoidance of teaching communication and going back to traditional teaching methods (K. Ahn, 2009; Butler, 2011; E.-J. Kim, 2008a, 2011; Littlewood, 2007). Teachers primarily blame



ineffective training they have received for not preparing necessary language skills for teaching and express a continuous need for more professional support for speaking proficiency particularly, particularly more opportunities to go abroad (E.-J. Kim, 2011; Na, Ahn, & Kim, 2008). Since Kwon's (1997) report of MOE initiatives, there is a noticeable lack of follow-up research reviewing how effectively the shifts in teacher training curriculum have changed teacher learning and served needs of teachers, besides self-reports. Understanding the perspectives of teacher educators is meaningful, as many of them often serve on multiple committees for textbook, curriculum, and professional development, as well as a teacher certificate examination. The potential impact of teacher educators on teacher education calls for rigorous research on teacher educators' beliefs, knowledge, and lived experiences for training teachers for effective English teaching in Korean contexts. In particular, empirical research on teacher educators' beliefs about teaching for communication and their teaching would assist knowing what pre-service teachers are leaning in training, and how they are prepared to utilize the communicative approaches, not reverting to traditional teaching methods.

Based on the review, this qualitative case study examines one teacher educator in an English teaching methodology course in one South Korean university, which are deliberately designed to discuss teaching methods with pre-service teachers. With an explicit emphasis on the teacher educator, it reports and examines her perspectives about English education and teacher training, as well as challenges in teacher training that were overlooked while teachers' challenges had attention. The focus of language teacher education research has been on teachers' learning and making teachers more aware of their beliefs to bring about desirable changes in their practices, and less on how teacher educators achieve the effectiveness in teacher education. It is probably because teacher educators as researchers often report what their pre-service teachers

learn or changes in their beliefs about language teaching in during training. Observing the lack of teacher educators' perspectives, in the present study I first investigate how South Korean English education policy and the national curriculum have responded to this general concern of implementation. Informed by sociocultural challenges that researchers found using sociocultural theory recently, I draw attention to what are elements of the teacher educator's beliefs about what teachers should learn from teaching training reflecting on mandates from the MOE and how she addressed such practical concerns in the methods course. I also examine whether the course prepares teachers for negotiating their teaching in response to various contextual challenges that they will go through.

### **Overview of Dissertation**

This first chapter introduced the topic of communicative competence (CC) and background of my dissertation about English teacher education in South Korea. In Chapter 2, I review the literature about communicative competence and communicative language teaching in the field, how it changed the goal of language teaching and teaching methods. It continues reporting the literature about teacher beliefs and language teacher education, as informed by sociocultural theory that provides new approaches to language teacher training. Teachers' challenges of implementing communicative approaches within Korean English education context are provided, which explains how I have decided to explore teacher training that English teachers blamed for a lack of relevant training for effective English teaching as the Ministry of Education expects. Chapter 3 about Research Design illustrates how I conducted this classroom-based research about a teaching methods class in one English teacher training in South Korea by answering the following questions:

- a. What are the teacher educator's beliefs about what teachers should learn from the methods course, and how do they inform her teaching?
- b. How does the teacher educator discuss teaching English for communication, as the curriculum promotes, within the broader educational context of Korea?

Thematic analysis of interviews, personal interaction and corresponding through email with the teacher educator informed her beliefs about what pre-service teachers needed to learn in her methods course. Second, observations of the class assisted understanding how such beliefs were reflected in her teaching. The analysis of the curriculum that found administrative expectations about the goals of English education and teaching approaches answered the second research question, understanding the teacher educator's teaching in relation to the curriculum. I address additional elements that affected teaching practices, such as characteristics of pre-service teachers and the teacher training program, from classroom observations and interactions with participants.

Chapters 4 and 5 present my findings by themes. Chapter 4 about the curriculum reports administrative expectations on English teachers, and Chapter 5 about the teacher educator's teaching in the methods course reports knowledge development about English teaching leaving limited time for reflecting and co-constructing knowledge with pre-service teachers. The findings were also supported by students' narratives from semi-structured interviews. Chapter 6 discusses these findings with three assertions for English teacher educators in South Korea and provides conclusion to the dissertation.

## Chapter 2. A Literature Review

This chapter reviews two major research traditions related to second language teaching methods and language teacher education (LTE) that informed this dissertation research. It discusses how communicative competence becomes as a general learning aim worldwide with globalization, including South Korea, and consequent changes it has caused in the Korean English education curriculum. A review of growing research on teacher beliefs and second language teacher education follows, with changes made in teacher preparation programs in Korea according to the focus on communicative competence (CC) in the national curriculum for English education. Last, sociocultural theory as a theoretical framework is reviewed, a new knowledge-base for LTE that addressed contextual challenges of implementing English communicative in Korean context from teachers' reports.

### Communicative Competence in Language Teaching

#### *Two Traditional Methods: Grammar Translation and Audio-Lingual Methods*

When the purpose of language learning was to comprehend literature in Latin and Greek, the grammar translation method (GTM) was dominant. This academically oriented method was concerned with the descriptive aspect of ancient, and eventually modern languages, mainly vocabulary and grammar. Knowledge of grammar was also expected to develop learners' understanding of their first languages. Without consideration of the contextualization of linguistic knowledge, such as cultural understanding, affective factors, and speaking, the method did not serve students whose purpose was to learn practical use of languages. Unlike the GTM, the focus of the audio-lingual method (ALM) was on teaching spoken language and training students to speak as native speakers do. Based on behavioral psychology and structural

linguistics theories prevalent during the 1940s through 1960s, the ALM promoted habit formation and conditioning as methods for language teaching. Students practiced drills, imitation, and memorization repeatedly while being given reinforcement in highly controlled environments (like language laboratories) separated from the real world. Although its emphasis was on spoken language, the ALM still prioritized learning accurate structures and phonology to approximate native speaker accuracy while overlooking meaning and function. Both methods were predominant in modern language classrooms until the late 1990s and early 2000s and influenced later teaching methods (e.g., Lee & VanPatten, 2003). With its lack of opportunities for learners to acquire colloquial and sociolinguistic knowledge and to produce self-generated sentences, these traditional methods did not attain its instructional outcomes, followed by efforts to seek alternatives.

### ***Introduction of Communicative Competence***

Until communicative competence was introduced in the early 1970s (Hymes, 1971), the interactive and negotiating perspectives of language learning were often neglected due to the prevalence of structural linguistics and behavioral psychology. Hymes introduced the notion of communicative competence as a reaction to Chomskyan modern linguistic theory that involving tacit knowledge of language structures only:

Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech-community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance (Chomsky, 1965, p. 3).

Hymes argued that this theory was flawed as it could not account for the actual language development as “communicative beings” (p. 271). He criticized the limited scope of Chomsky’s

term *competence* as failing to take into consideration sociocultural factors, which played a crucial role because they acknowledged functional varieties of one language in the same society. Hymes' position fundamentally questioned Chomsky's notion of the ideal speaker-listener, who shared a completely homogeneous linguistic competence with other speaker-listeners. Rather, Hymes contended, ideal fluency entailed being competent in functional varieties that speakers were likely to encounter when interacting with diverse interlocutors. To expand linguistic theory to include social meanings of language use, Hymes countered the ideal speaker-listener with an alternative concept, *communicative competence*. According to Hymes, a competent language user needed to know what, how, and when to speak or not to speak and with whom in specific contexts as much as how to speak grammatically accurate. Hymes contended that to understand speakers' capabilities to judge appropriate discourses in particular situations, it is necessary to situate linguistic theory within sociocultural theory, which required more than linguistic knowledge.

Hymes' infusion of sociolinguistics into linguistic theory was welcomed enthusiastically in the field of language teaching, and building learners' CC quickly became the goal of language instruction. The teaching method paradigm resulting from the shift was designated as communicative language teaching (CLT), which entailed significant changes in language teaching and learning. For example, Paulston (1974), an early CLT supporter, found that Hymes' notion of CC could explain a number of frustrating moments that she had gone through during her visits to Sweden after spending the majority of her life in the United States. Her personal experiences demonstrated that being a native speaker of Swedish enabled her to perform with linguistic accuracy, yet advanced proficiency in Swedish was not sufficient to enable her to function in socially acceptable ways. To acquire the ability to decide correctness of sentences in

context, learners needed to understand social meanings and practices of a language using dialogues for specific situations for introductions, partying, and compliments, for example (Kettering, 1974).

### ***Communicative Competence for Language Teaching***

Since the 1970s, CC has been defined and redefined for decades, as researchers continue to investigate the concept, as well as its constituent dimensions and functions. Throughout this process, these efforts were expected to yield the best teaching methods to enhance learners' CC, particularly for those who are learning a new language in a classroom setting. As many are learning their additional languages in classroom, which is fundamentally different from a setting in which natural language learning takes place, a definition of the concept and more information about teaching methods are needed. The initial discussions on adopting CC in language teaching (e.g., Campbell & Wales, 1970; Hymes, 1972; Savignon, 1972; Widdowson, 1978), and Canale and Swain (1980) contributed to the development of a comprehensive framework with four major components: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence (modified in Canale, 1983). The framework was widely accepted and cited in many language pedagogy books for teachers (e.g., Brown, 2007a), also in a textbook that was used and referenced in two of three classrooms I visited for this dissertation research.

According to Canale and Swain, grammatical competence is the ability to master phonological, morphological, syntactical linguistic knowledge, as well as knowledge of pronunciation and vocabulary. As a major component of language acquisition, this competence contributes to the achievement of higher levels of proficiency. Sociolinguistic competence refers to the functions of language in specific contexts, for example, expressions for persuading,

explaining, narrating, and asking for information properly and appropriately for their topics regarding social positions, and other contextual aspects. Mastery of sociolinguistic competence could help learners judge not only correct words, sentence structures, and pronunciation for particular situations but also nonverbal features of communication. The third aspect, discourse competence, refers to the ability to achieve coherence by means not only of cohesive devices (e.g., pronouns, adverbs, conjunctions, etc.) but also of meaningful connection of ideas. Strategic competence refers to the ability to repair miscommunications or clarify communication. Using circumlocution, paraphrasing, or gestures can benefit less fluent learners in particular. This foundational framework, which reflects the focus on the social aspect of language that distinguishes it from traditional linguistic theory, is still broadly referenced in the literature and in textbooks for language teachers. Therefore, understanding components of CC could be related to language teacher training programs, in ways they design curriculum with areas that language teachers needed to know for effective teaching.

### ***Features of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)***

With a new aim to pursue, CLT advocates in the 1990s advanced the discussion of its implications by adding tenets that distinguish it from other methods: teaching language in use, being learner-centered, encouraging learners' motivation, being process-oriented, prioritizing fluency over accuracy, and providing meaningful practice through authentic communicative activities (e.g. Savignon, 1991, 2007). Acknowledging the increasing complexity of the concept, Brown summarized features of the CLT approach in his two textbooks for language teachers (Brown, 2007a, 2007b). The four common purposes of CLT that he described were to teach 1) all grammatical, discourse, functional, sociolinguistic, and strategic aspects of communicative



competence, 2) both forms and functions of language, 3) fluency and accuracy, and 4) the use of the language in authentic contexts (Brown, 2007b, pp. 46-47).

In this framework, language learners had to be able to interact and negotiate meaning with other speakers of the language who are not necessarily native speakers. Unlike linguistic competence, which could be developed by individual practices like memorization (e.g., Paulston, 1974), CLT highlighted learning interpersonal aspects through actual interactions. It acknowledged that learners had to acquire the social meanings and values embodied in expressions that were shared by people in the target language culture (Gumperz, 1970), to be able to communicate appropriately. The emphasis on the social aspect of language use and learning through interactions discredited the audio-lingual and grammar-translation methods. The shift to CLT was viewed as very timely in the field, given the changes in the population of language learners both in European and North American contexts (Savignon, 1991): there were increases in the numbers of immigrants and workers who required immediate communication abilities to participate in economic activities. Considered to be the best teaching method satisfying the learners' needs for what Schulz (2006) termed "survival competence" (p. 252), CLT received widespread support by practitioners. Being learner-centered at the core, CLT was the method most responsive to learners' needs. It helped learners to express what they intended to say and to be understood by their listeners outside the classroom setting.

These development of CLT informs the current focus on teaching functional uses of language instead of forms via students' active involvement. Therefore CLT classrooms required teachers to provide comprehensible and authentic input as much as possible, so students could develop their fluency and skills for communication with diverse interlocutors. To do so, CLT describes effective language classrooms as not prioritizing individual work or making students

listen to teachers' explanations, but implementing engaging activities that promote students' interactions with the teacher as well as their classmates. For this approach to be effective, more emphasis was placed on learners' motivation and willingness to participate in those activities. These features are consistently presented as desirable to pre-service teachers in South Korea, introduced in primary textbooks for English teacher training,

### ***Changes in Classroom and Confusion***

The transition to CLT from the traditional methods was not smooth for some teachers. When teachers started employing CLT during the 1980s and 1990s, some researchers found that communicative activities still looked much like those in traditional classrooms in which the teacher maintained control over his/her classroom (e.g., Lee & VanPatten, 2003). With the acceptance of sociocultural factors as fundamental in language learning, teachers who accustomed to a traditional teacher role faced challenges in implementation of CLT. So lively academic discussion followed, about understanding practical challenges and finding the best ways for teachers to enhance students' active practice of the target language via as frequent interactions as possible. From examining language classrooms, researchers found how some features of CLT did not go along with traditional educational norms and confuse teachers (e.g., G. Ellis, 1996; Lee & VanPatten, 2003; Li, 1998).

One reason for the rocky transition was that CLT had significantly different expectations toward teachers' and students' roles that could be new to all. In traditional classrooms, teachers were the authoritative source of knowledge, whose main task was to transmit the knowledge to students. Whereas, students were supposed be attentive, and learning from what their teachers said. CLT rejected this convention and relocated students the central role in the classroom as

responsible for their own learning. For example, few characteristic activities that Savignon (1991) recommended for teachers were role plays, games, and pair or small group activities (p.265). In 1974, Paulston accounted for how role plays, using specific dialogues and discussing certain problem situations with students, could bring students' attention to social meanings of communication in her English classroom in Sweden. More recently, information gap exercises and problem-solving tasks are recommended in a number of language teaching books (e.g., Cook, 2008; Larsen-Freeman, 2000). These activities are intended to offer learners room for authentic communication and allow them to have autonomy in their learning, while teachers are being the facilitators of student learning.

The sudden changes in teachers' and students' roles in the communicative activities puzzled everyone who used to traditional classrooms (see vignettes in Lee & VanPatten, 2003; Nunan, 1987), particularly when norms for other content area classrooms remained unchanged (G. Ellis, 1996). Even though teachers agreed to new roles as facilitators and input providers, these were often incompatible with learners' attitudes and expectations from the established classroom environment. Teachers also reported learners' lack of proficiency to participate in communicative activities. For example, Nunan (1987) illustrated how early CLT classrooms looked like: non-communicative and teacher-centered interactions were observed in five language classrooms, that teachers claimed communicative. He described such interaction as "the pseudo-communicative nature of the exchange" (p.39). Lee and VanPatten (2003) illustrated that patterns of interaction in CLT classrooms remained similar after two decades: teachers initiated conversation by eliciting one student's response and continued the conversation with another student by calling his/her name (pp. 11-12). Teachers also provided written dialogues for

students to memorize rather than having them generate their own, so they continued to generate and control all interactions in the classroom.

These types of interactions were often associated with the teachers' misunderstanding of the notion of conversation as communication and demonstrated further needs of research on teachers. Empirical classroom research could determine the degree to which teachers' knowledge was fulfilled in instruction, and what teachers could do in the implementing processes. For example, Paulston (1974) addressed the issue of teachers' implicit and intuitive use of communicative knowledge that they might be unaware of until explicitly told or questioned. This communicative knowledge could more concern nonnative speaking teachers who might have not used language for communication or not prepared for teaching communication during training when the features were still new. Without explanation, the preference for fluency over accuracy could be confusing for such teachers as it was no longer asking teachers to do what they used to do, such as correcting all grammar, pronunciation, and other noticeable mistakes that might not necessarily affect students' fluency and intelligibility. Instead, many teachers' left to make decisions on their own about what to correct and when to intervene. This lack of knowledge drew attention to pre-service teacher education and teachers' professional development, to understand what teachers learned and how they were trained to teach English communicatively.

Meanwhile, the efficacy of teaching English for communication in non English-speaking contexts was questioned, as teaching communicative competence primarily assumed that language learners were located at where the target language was spoken (e.g., Paulston, 1974). Having little in common with the setting, the method and educational norms that some second/foreign language education settings carry with were deemed socioculturally inappropriate and often resulted in refusal of communicative approaches by both teachers and students. For

instance, G. Ellis (1996) doubted the appropriateness of the Western-based communicative approach in Asian cultures from his experience of being a native English-speaking teacher in Vietnam. He claimed that culturally unfamiliar activities triggered strong resistance from students, especially those who were not highly motivated to practice communicative skills. At the end, G. Ellis suggested for teachers to be flexible in their attitudes and be wary of different cultural norms toward developing CC as an instructional goal, and that institutional approval of CLT did not necessarily guarantee students' success in their settings. Therefore, the role of English teachers becomes crucial in mediating their instructional practices consistent with their cultural contexts and learners' needs.

### ***Changes in South Korean English Education***

In light of the status of English as the language of the world along with content-based teaching methods, a number of non-English speaking countries started English education as part of their national curricular. In 2003, Nunan reported an investigation of the significant impact that English as a means of global communication has had on both educational policies and practices in seven countries in the Asia-Pacific region<sup>1</sup>, including South Korea. Commonly observed changes were designating English as a compulsory subject in either elementary or junior high school, and recruiting native speakers of English as appropriate models. Importantly, governments made tremendous financial investments in teacher training programs to establish language teaching methods and materials development and target language skills. Unfortunately, these reform efforts in many countries have not resulted in the desired outcomes of teachers competently teaching English for communication in their classrooms. Until the early 2000s,

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<sup>1</sup> The investigated countries are China, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan, and Vietnam.

Asian educational innovations oriented to CC were considered too hasty and lacking proper support (e.g., Butler, 2004; Li, 1998; Nunan, 2003) for teachers, who are the major variable determining the success of curriculum reform (Gorush, 2000). In the next section an examination of a Korean case follows, with a review of changes in the national curriculum for English education. Types of supports that Korean Ministry of Education (MOE) has initiated for training English teachers for CLT are also provided.

### ***Introduction of CC in the National Curriculum for English Education***

Policy makers in Korea have embraced the notion of CC and adoption of CLT as a pedagogical framework in its educational system for K-12 English education curriculum since the late 1990s. Two major transformations for public English education were the introduction of the national university entrance examination, setting English as one of the testing subjects in the test, and the new 6<sup>th</sup> national curriculum that first introduced CC and CLT (Kwon, 1997). The key purposes of the university entrance exam represented the national interests not only in developing students' English ability to be able to read textbooks written in English, but also in redirecting the focus of English education to enhancement of communicative competence. The exam for English consisted of items measuring reading and listening comprehension, and use of language, no longer testing knowledge about spelling, vocabulary, and grammar. Accordingly, Korean MOE developed the 6<sup>th</sup> national curriculum for English education to fulfill the reformed expectations of the new test. Kwon (2000) described the curriculum as “revolutionary” for teachers, due to its attempts to regulate what to teach and how to teach. It adopted a completely new method CLT, which required use of communicative functional syllabus with an emphasis on CC, comprehension before production, and fluency over accuracy. These renovations were

devised in a hope of enlightening both teachers and students to see the value of practical use of English. Second, the 6<sup>th</sup> curriculum first introduced English as a required subject in elementary level from 1997, in a significantly different form from those for secondary level. It asked teachers to cover spoken aspects of language using games, songs, chants, and role-plays not to overwhelm students. Notably, elementary English learning was not assessed by standardized test, but verbally expressed.

The emphasis on CC remained a primary tenet for following 7<sup>th</sup> national curriculum with minor modifications for grammar teaching. For instance, it suggested using grammatical-functional syllabus, which explicitly prescribed structures instead of the functional syllabus, which fostered implicit teaching grammar embedded in communicative activities. E.-J. Kim (2008b) reported refined learning aims for junior high school students in the 7<sup>th</sup> national curriculum<sup>2</sup>, as motivating learners, teaching communicative competence, and increasing awareness of other cultures. Therefore, English teachers had to know and aim at making their students are;

- (1) interested in and confident in the English language and cultivate basic (language) ability to communicate,
- (2) able to communicate fluently about everyday lives and general topics,
- (3) able to understand diverse foreign information and foster the ability to use it, and
- (4) able to recognize the value of and have a positive attitude toward South Korean culture by understanding other cultures. (E.-J. Kim, 2008b, p. 7)

These four aims that the curriculum set for junior high English education reflected features of CLT from the literature. To build students' competence for fluent communication in

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<sup>2</sup> After the 7<sup>th</sup> curriculum (2001), the Korean MOE does not develop new curriculum; instead, revised revision is released occasionally as needed.

English, this document also suggested classroom activities to be communicative and relevant to students. Employing topics that students find interesting can make them interested in English learning and facilitate their participation in activities. It also emphasized fluent use of English to various purposes, beyond communicating about familiar topics. The last two statements broadly spoke about using English as a medium, to gather information available in English and to raise cultural awareness, that teachers need to keep in mind lesson planning.

### ***Teaching English Through English (TETE)***

An additional remarkable innovation made in the 7<sup>th</sup> curriculum (2001) also involved teaching English through English (TEE or TETE) as a mandate for English teachers in junior high schools. TETE became very controversial and many teachers complained that the policy was introduced without preparing them to achieve the level of necessary proficiency. English teachers were in their urgent need of proficiency under the new policy (e.g., J.-Y. Choi, 2008; S. Choi, 2000; S.-Y. Kim, 2002). Researchers and English teachers themselves considered teachers' lack of English proficiency as a primary reason why these innovative policies were failing (K. Ahn, 2008; E.-J. Kim, 2011; Li, 1998). Taken together with expectations for CC and CLT, these changes resulted in the MOE's tremendous investment in teacher training and teachers' professional developments, that focused on teachers' proficiency development. Details of initiatives from Korean MOE are elaborated below, including changes in teacher training curriculum and various study abroad programs for in-service teachers.

What is important is that many English classrooms in Korea are still not communicative and English teachers do not speak English as expected. Many teachers and administrators tended to attribute the failure to a lack of relevant training about proficiency and CLT, which informed



offering more English and pedagogy related courses in teacher training. However, a close investigation of an English teacher in her junior high English classroom (E.-J. Kim, 2011) and interactions with novice teachers (Shin, 2012) showed that the reality is much more complex. Teachers made decisions about their instruction considering their students' needs and attitudes that were influenced by the macrostructure in Korean educational system. In particular, Shin found that new English teachers who were proficient in English still chose Korean as a medium of their instruction due to the school system and culture that did not allow individual teacher's flexibility with teaching practices. These findings reflected existing macrostructures in schools and suggested a need to prepare English teachers for these related aspects in training, in addition to developing proficiency in English and knowledge about English teaching. Informed by reported challenges and sociocultural features of English education in Korea, below a review of important changes in English teacher training curricular follows, that the MOE initiated to support English teachers since the 1990s.

### ***Changes in English Teacher Education in Korea***

As Korean MOE identified existing focus on linguistics and literature in teacher training as one of major reasons of teachers' lack of capabilities to adopt CLT, it called for significant changes in teacher education curricular in 1996 to offer more courses to develop teachers' English proficiency and pedagogical knowledge (Kwon, 1997). The MOE expected the revisions would result in not only preparing pre-service teachers for the teacher qualifying exam, but also teachers' performing the new teaching responsibilities in class. At the same time, the MOE also developed various programs for in-service teachers who had not received relevant training for CLT at that time.

First, elementary school teacher education programs had newly started English department or revised their curricular to double the required credits for English (Kwon, 1997, pp. 171-172). For in-service elementary teachers, the MOE offered a uniformed 120-hour program consisted of English teaching pedagogy (34 hours) and conversation skills (84 hours), to 25,000 teachers in 1996. In the same year, 700 teachers participated four-week overseas training in English speaking countries as a part of training. The government could support 45,302 teachers by 1998, and planned to keep supporting 18,000 teachers every year, so teachers could offer one English-only class for 3<sup>rd</sup> – 6<sup>th</sup> graders every week after 2002. A number of secondary level pre-service teacher training programs, which are referred as English education departments/programs from now on<sup>3</sup>, also revised their curricula to include at least ten required courses for language skills and three required courses for language pedagogy (Kwon, 1997). Programs were encouraged to provide more pedagogy courses up to ten, to obtain a better score on their program evaluation, which would eventually influence their rankings and incentives they would receive from the MOE.

Second, for in-service teacher training, local MOEs seemed to have more freedom in designing their own curriculum. For example, Kwon (1997) presented how two local ministries respectively utilized the 180 hours of first-class teacher certificate training programs (pp. 175-177). Again, one commonality across the programs was emphasis on language pedagogy and developing communicative competence, specifically conversation skills. For in-service teachers who already owned the first-class certificates, 64-hour of general retraining was offered.

Unfortunately, I was unable to track more recent information about professional development,

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<sup>3</sup> By English education departments (or departments of English Education in some cases), I refer to pre-service teacher training programs for secondary level English education. There are respective institutes for elementary level teacher education, named as “national university of education.”

due to differences in local ministries and a lack of official data available to public. This is the type of information that is internally distributed to in-service teachers directly as official notices. Thus, here I referred to official MOE reports and related media reports, which may not represent general professional development programs in Korea.

In 2006, 22.2% of 74,463 in-service English teachers participated in various types of trainings for English teaching for one to six months periods (Yonhap News, 2006), with a month of overseas training. The MOE (2009) showed that the numbers of teachers who went to abroad for training had increased continuously from 2003 to 2008 (Table 2.1).

**Table 2.1**

*Report on Advanced Programs for English Teachers' Professional Development During 2003 – 2008 (Ministry of Educational Science and Technology, 2009, p.1)*

| Year  | 2003  | 2004  | 2005  | 2006  | 2007  | 2008    | Total |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---------|-------|
| The number of in-service teacher participants | 200   | 245   | 333   | 396   | 912   | 1,174   | 3,260 |
| Budget (million)                              | 2,384 | 1,683 | 2,137 | 2,672 | 4,092 | (6,750) | -     |
| In USD <sup>4</sup> (million)                 | 2.1   | 1.5   | 1.9   | 2.4   | 3.6   | 6.0     |       |

As a policy maker and a teacher educator, Kwon (1997) evaluated the initial administrative efforts as a meaningful action, while acknowledged that offering more training might not guarantee teachers' achievement of communicative competence and necessary teaching skills. Following research on teachers' perception of their own proficiency proved that the concern was valid. For instance, Butler (2004) demonstrated that Korean elementary school

<sup>4</sup> The last row is inserted to show the budget in USD. USD equivalents are calculated based on the exchange currency rate on October 29, 2016 (\$0.87 equals ₩1,000).

teachers said that their proficiency was significantly lower than their desired level to teach English. However, the concern about the level of language teachers' appropriate proficiency is questionable, and general English proficiency has to be distinguished from proficiency for classroom English teaching (Freeman, 2017). As mentioned above, Korean English teachers' practices have not changed until recently, not because of their lack of proficiency (E.-J. Kim, 2011; Shin, 2012) but because of related contextual issues. It showed that immense governmental endeavor for teacher training was needed, yet it did not achieve what the national curriculum aimed for.

Analysis of course offerings in recent pre-service and in-service English teacher training programs in Korea is available (E.-J. Kim, 2008). It includes English teacher training programs in three major accrediting institutions: a) 35 colleges of education (undergraduate), b) 33 graduate schools of education, and c) 14 professional schools (named TESOL programs). The analysis shows that college level programs tend to offer more courses about linguistic knowledge and English literature (32.38 %), followed by practical language skills (27.86 %) and effective teaching techniques (16.05 %). Significantly fewer courses for second language acquisition, teaching techniques in contexts, and language evaluation skills are offered. At a graduate level, linguistics and literature also take 31.12 % of course offerings, while 35.81 % of TESOL programs are about practical teaching, such as effective teaching techniques (p. 274).

These support the needs for empirical research about teacher training, to fulfill the unceasing focus on communicative competence (Ministry of Education, 2015) in classroom through more relevant training. In addition to calling for post action after trainings to assess teachers' achievement of knowledge, the review suggests analyzing the efficacy of these training programs with respect to attaining their purposes through classroom research. Therefore this

research is designed to investigate a classroom in teacher training, paying attention to the following aspects. What changes did the new curricular cause in contents and practices in teacher training? Do the changes better serve teachers' needs? Answering these questions will enable to provide a critical review and evaluation of the current English teacher education informed by challenges reported, which is as important as a continuous investment for teachers (W. Lee, 2015; Nunan, 2003).

### **Research on Teacher Beliefs and Second Language Teacher Education**

Regarding the importance of individual teachers' abilities to mediate a new teaching method, the teacher's role as a decision-maker has been observed recurrently and complexities of teachers' decision making were reported (Shavelson & Stern, 1981). A strong connection between teachers' beliefs and what they do in the classroom motivates a series of reforms for teacher education programs to make teachers develop particular knowledge about teaching. Then teachers' beliefs have become an interest of many researchers who investigate the effective classroom implementation of educational innovations initiated by government agencies. For example, Savignon (1991) has consistently emphasized the importance of in-service teachers' voices in policy implementation: "examples of successful substantive reforms that involved theorists and practitioners working together" (p. 268). Language teacher education has enriched with this new perspective to teacher training. Teaching is viewed as a complex process of making multifaceted decisions for classroom instruction, and teachers have abilities to make real change in language teaching, more than traditional teacher training in linguistic and pedagogical knowledge (Prabhu, 1990).

To examine how educational reforms are implemented in classrooms, researchers started with an investigation of teacher beliefs that are believed to play significant roles in teachers' decision making. Teachers' perception of the changes received attention in particular, when the new educational policies were introduced. In Asian context, some teachers are remarkably resistant to changing their instructional practices (e.g. Gorush, 2000), in addition to general negative attitude to imposed imperatives in the beginning. Thus, one reason that researchers have addressed to explain the unsuccessful policy is resistance or stability of individual teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes toward teaching, classrooms, and their profession, whether they were aware of it or not (Fang, 1996; Freeman, 1989, 1998). Regardless of teachers' personal agreement with the innovations, some pointed out that the complexities of the educational systems constrain teachers' classroom practices. Teachers find external reform demands, being dispersed and filtered through the multiple-tiered system, impossible to implement (Cuban, 1993; Gorush, 2000).

Overall, researchers have agreed on a need to include teachers' practical knowledge in the educational innovation process to make curricular feasible (Elbaz, 1981). Including teachers would enable to pay attention to the processes of policy implementation, how teachers implement the policies, that could contribute to the success of educational policies (Fullan, 1994). Understanding teachers as a foundation of instruction and their stability can help policy developers address better ways to help teachers transform beliefs, which could be resulted in make positive changes in their instruction. According to the focus on teachers' belief, examining how teacher training programs change teachers' beliefs about English teaching and related policies becomes one of major topic of interests in the field.

### *Language Teacher Education (LTE)*

Language teacher education is a relatively new theme that has become popular recent two decades, undergone significant changes along with theoretical development in education. Until the mid-1970s, the focus of teacher education was on finding how certain teaching behaviors contributed to the achievement of anticipated learning outcomes based on traditional inquiries. Research on teacher education at the time consisted of two major areas: teachers' cognitive processes and how the process explained teachers' behaviors (Clark & Peterson, 1986). In other words, teachers' observable behaviors were examined in relation to students' success. Within this product-oriented framework, what was unobservable, like teachers' decision making or thought processes, was addressed as "the missing paradigm" (Shulman, 1986) that was not taken into consideration. A unidirectional causality between teachers' instruction and its effects was also presupposed, and the same assumption was applied to teacher learning as well.

Thus, to train teachers for effective teaching, teacher education offerings included two main domains of knowledge: content knowledge and best teaching methods to deliver the knowledge to students (Hunter, 1982). It showed that the focus of teacher education research was on examining the most effective teaching practices to ensure students' learning, assuming its universal usefulness across contexts (Dunkin & Biddle, 1974). Teacher education operated as a means to achieve a product, the best teaching practices, while paying less attention to the processes happening within teachers (Fang, 1996; Freeman & Johnson, 1998). The drawbacks of this approach in teacher education were three-fold: failure to take teachers' individual experiences into consideration, decontextualization of knowledge and conception of teaching as a set of discrete skills, and researcher-initiated perspectives on the nature of knowledge (Freeman & Johnson, 1998).

In the late-1970s, a new trend emerged, which was to consider teachers' own cognition in guiding their teaching practices. Teachers as subjects were making rational decisions for their classes, based on such sources as their teaching contexts and their teaching philosophy. Accordingly, the locus of research shifted to understanding teachers' cognitive processes and developing models of effective teacher cognition that pre-service teachers could refer to. During the next few years, another dimension of teachers' cognition relevant to teaching, individual perspectives and experiences, emerged as a primary research interest. By the mid-1980s, when the complex nature of teacher knowledge formation was fully acknowledged, the field began to take various factors into account, such as the value of teachers' prior language learning experiences (Lortie, 1975), their values (Parajes, 1992), and their understanding of teaching contexts (Kleinsasser & Savignon, 1992). Taken together, these factors emphasized that teachers' knowledge was not static but socially constructed, negotiated, and therefore dynamic, calling for changes in ways training teachers. An important implication was not to view teachers only as transmitters of given content knowledge using best methods, but to recognize that teachers as professional subjects had to make decisions, drawing on their prior knowledge, skills, attitudes, and awareness (Freeman, 1989). Along with teachers taking on heightened significance in education and policy implementation, research on language teachers and language teacher education also matured.

The review of research about teaching English for communicative competence has addressed changes in the goal of English education in South Korea. Furthermore, it shows how expectations on local English teachers have changed while many teachers, their students, and school administrators remained unsure about adopting communicative approaches within unchanged macrostructures. The observed gap between the expectations and practices draws



attention to the role of English teacher education, in preparing teachers for contextualized challenges that research has reported, along with in-service teachers' consistent criticisms on a lack of relevant trainings and supports. To respond to such needs, this dissertation research examines current practices in English teacher education in Korea, particularly in a course designed to discuss English teaching methods. . Analysis of teacher training practices will enable to understand how pre-service English teachers are trained, in ways to understand and achieve the administrative expectations on them. Also importantly, this research will examine whether the training prepares teachers for practical challenges that research has articulated since the introduction of CC and CLT in Korea, for example students' lack of interests in communicative activities that are less relevant to their high-stake exams.

### **Theoretical Framework: Sociocultural Theory**

Responding to a new perspective toward learning, the sociocultural turn, the premise of educational research has changed since the 1980s: learning is a dynamic social activity occurring when people engage in social activities. Drawing from Vygotsky (1978) and his followers' works, related cultural environment of the particular activity that participants use, mediate the process of human cognitive development while they engage in activities (Leont'ev, 1981; Vygotsky, 1978, Wertsch, 1985; for L2, Lantolf, 2000; for L2 teacher education, Johnson, 2006, 2009). Through continuous participation in various social activities and interacting with interlocutors, individuals learn not only about contents and socioculturally acceptable ways of using language, but also about strategies for effective meaning-making, knowing their contexts.

Individuals frame and develop knowledge by participating in external interpersonal activities that are socially and culturally situated, followed by individual intrapersonal mediation

process. In the sociocultural perspective, such internal mediation could result in the transformation of both the learner and the activity itself (Johnson, 2006). In addition to these sociocultural factors related to learning, the sociocultural perspective emphasizes the role of individual agency in their learning procedure (Johnson, 2009), acknowledging impacts learners' prior experiences and expectation about learning besides instruction. In addition, the rest of this chapter reviews sociocultural theory in second language teacher education, such as the reconceptualized knowledge-base by Freeman and Johnson (1998), teaching challenges and implications that the theory has addressed in the field, and lastly how the theory underpins this dissertation.

### ***A Sociocultural Turn in Language Teacher Education***

Within sociocultural framework, LTE is a form of social activity that requires this higher-level thinking development as well. According to this perspective, the goal of teacher education research is no longer the documentation of best teaching practices; rather it considers teacher training as a lived development process, which is situated in socially, culturally and historically particular contexts. It means that teachers' knowledge construction about teaching occur through participating in social activities including teacher training, and also through interactions with students, parents, administrators, and fellow teachers in their professional contexts (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). As a framework, the sociocultural perspective enables to resolve the gap between what teachers learn in their training and how they will accomplish actual teaching after the training. Answering more interpretive questions about teachers' complicated mental process behind their observable behaviors, sociocultural theory has proposed knowledge-base of LTE to focus on teachers' learning about teaching, influenced by their former learning experiences and

social structures. With the new knowledge-base, researchers are asking following questions about teachers and teacher learning process to understand current teacher education: what teachers need to know, how they develop their knowledge and how they learn to teach during training, and what decisions teachers make for teaching in classroom (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2009).

### ***Reconceptualization of Knowledge-Base of Language Teacher Education***

A traditional perspective to LTE used to define its own profession assuming an existence of a codified body of knowledge for language, and language learning and teaching (Freeman, 1989). Such belief resulted in disconnected course offerings about linguistics, applied linguistics, methodologies, and language learning theories in many TESOL programs (Reid, 1995). This way of compartmentalizing knowledge is also observed in Korean English teacher education curriculum with a particular emphasis on linguistic knowledge and reading literature until the mid-1990s. With the development of second language acquisition research, Korean MOE has amended English teacher education programs to offer more courses for English teaching methods and practical English skills (Kwon, 1997, 2000), expecting improvement in English teachers' ability to teach communication. This traditional approach to teacher learning focusing on delivering knowledge expected teachers to be able to know how to use the knowledge for effective teaching. It may not necessarily focus on preparing teachers for teaching English in their unique context with practical concerns. A lack of discussion about contextual challenges became an issue for teachers in non-Western contexts, where they are prescribed to adopt foreign language teaching methods to theirs that carry different contextual and educational features.

As a response to “the epistemological gap” between practice and LTE, Freeman and Johnson (1998) proposed to reconceptualize the knowledge-base of LTE, knowing an absence of teachers in their preparation cannot be followed by successful teaching. The new knowledge-base consisted of three major domains, teachers’ learning, classroom and schools, and teachers’ pedagogical process. An important element of the new frame was that teacher was included as a primary focus, teachers’ learning of teaching. Positioning of teachers as subjects in their learning was a critical step to consider complexity of teachers’ learning process in teacher education, as all types of learning influenced by multiple elements related to teaching. Importantly, the new knowledge-base acknowledged what teachers brought to teacher training. Like every learner does, teachers come with former experiences of language learning in their educational system, where they observed how their teachers taught the language (e.g., Lortie, 1975). These personal values and beliefs that are established from their experiences (Pajares, 1992) determined teachers’ interpretation of new contents from the training. The impact and scope of teachers’ prior experiences as language learners and teachers can be extensive in their training, when the training promotes methods that teachers have not experienced. Some pre-service teachers showed strong disagreements with the visions of teaching promoted in their training, no matter how much evidence they read (e.g., Lo, 2005).

One way to convince teachers to change their beliefs and practices is to make the training more relevant, and sociocultural perspective provides some suggestions. Effective teacher training had to take related elements into account, to assist teachers to contextualize knowledge in relation to their unique settings (Johnson, 2006, 2009). Thus teachers’ existing beliefs about English teaching had to be accounted within their previous and current experiences in schools and schooling, which are socially constructed. Those experiences in schooling as students

influenced development of teachers' beliefs that they tended to rely on to interpret what they learn during training and retraining, and also when they teach in their classrooms and schools. As these beliefs and norms could negatively affect teachers' negotiation of their beliefs, research calls teacher educators' attention to pre-service teachers' beliefs early in the training. To understand what consisted schools and schooling experiences, Freeman and Johnson (1998) distinguished classroom and schools as synchronic, and schooling as diachronic contexts. Schools are respectively about "the physical and sociological settings" of teaching in space and time, and schoolings about "the sociocultural and historical processes" that had developed over time and are accepted as educational norms in the society (p. 408). So they reflected the impacts of macrostructures on learning and teaching, that teachers do not have control over.

Positioning teachers at the center of their learning and a need of considering sociocultural influences on LTE questioned the conventional approaches in three major ways: rethink what English teachers have to know, how teachers should teach, and how it delivers the content and pedagogies to teachers. The organic relation of the three domains also criticized classifying knowledge parceled out to prospective teachers in separate courses, often disconnected from the contexts in which teachers were going to be involved. The role of LTE therefore, includes preparing teachers to have agency in negotiating knowledge they developed with constantly-changing contexts (Johnson, 2003). Referring to Freire's (1970) praxis, Johnson (2006) claimed that LTE has to offer reflective opportunities that teachers can achieve praxis of theoretical knowledge (p. 240). Given the constantly changing nature of contexts, depending on students and educational policies, reflective activities could assist teachers to develop habits for a life-long learning through continuously participating in professional development. These suggestions could respond to teachers' newly-addressed needs from practices, arose after the completion of

teacher training or passing the teacher qualifying examinations. This sociocultural perspective resonates among researchers for decades, and informs research on LTE (see Borg, 2003; Freeman, 2002; E.-J. Kim, 2008; Johnson, 2006).

### ***The New Knowledge-Base and Teacher Educators***

The increased emphasis on LTE and the reconceptualized knowledge-base draw attention to understanding current teacher educators' perspectives, as they determine what to teach and how to train pre-service teachers during training. Teacher educators' decisions include, but not limited to issues like what knowledge should be included and excluded from training, what are the best ways to teach and learn in the context, whose values and interpretations are accepted as norms in the knowledge-base and how to address them in relation to their educational context. At a micro level, issues exist in teacher educators' and institutional decisions about ways of delivering knowledge in teacher training classroom that may play a role in shaping teachers' knowledge about teaching. At a macro level, issues relate to macrostructures, as teacher educators often involve external committees for teacher employment exams, curriculum revisions (for both English education and teacher education), and textbook development that are closely related to teachers' learning and teaching.

Therefore, constant negotiation with "ever-changing sociopolitical and socioeconomic contexts around the world (Johnson, 2006, p. 245)" is a significant part for teacher educators, in addition to developing teachers' knowledge about related fields. Also responding to specific local norms and needs that in-service teachers reported can contribute to making teacher training more relevant to teaching. The roles that teacher educators play in LTE supported why research on them is in need as much as understanding changes in teachers' beliefs throughout training. In

particular, it is important to understand success or failure of certain methods or teaching approaches through empirical research on teacher education classrooms, whether LTE prepared teachers for practices. Informed by the literature, this dissertation research explores a teacher educator's perspectives to LTE, particularly about what pre-service teachers need to learn during training and the ways the educator trains teachers in class.

### ***Sociocultural Challenges of CLT in Korean Context***

From the beginning of CC and CLT, some researchers have cast doubt on the possibility of offering genuine communication opportunities, arguing that it cannot be authentic in any classroom settings (e.g., Savignon, 1991; Paulston, 1974). The same issue is likely to become more challenging to manage in environments where both English teachers and students have much limited access to communicative English in their daily lives, which is the case for South Korea. Another primary aspect of CLT, achieving cultural understanding of language use is challenging for the same reason. These concerns pertain to English teachers in Korea, who reported a lack of appropriate training about English and English pedagogy to teach communication. To train language learners to become "a communicating member" (Hymes, 1974, p. 75), Magnan (2007) calls for reframing CLT within sociocultural theory, with a focus on what community does in creating language mediation.

Research found that the implementation of the method in foreign contexts is very complicated and bounded to their sociocultural features. When CLT-based curriculum was first introduced during the 1990s in Korea, Li (1998) claimed that adaptation of CLT in EFL contexts had to be gradual and carefully contextualized, considering their educational norms. From questionnaire with 18 in-service English teachers who came to a Canadian university through

MOE-supported retraining, Li categorized reported challenges into four: constraints related to teachers, students, the educational system in Korea, and CLT as a foreign method without applicable suggestions to Korean context. Observations of these challenges were consistently reported throughout years, by in-service teachers' reports (S. Choi, 2000; Guiloteaux, 2004; S.-Y. Kim, 2002; Liu, Ahn, Baek & Han, 2009). Among many challenges, often teachers' lack of proficiency has been criticized (K. Ahn, 2008; E.-J. Kim, 2011; Li, 1998), and the perception guided changes in teacher training and retraining programs (Y.-H. Choi, 2007; Kwon, 2000).

Recently activity theory (Leont'ev, 1978), grounded in sociocultural theory, enables a systematic examination why CLT implementation was unsuccessful in context of larger educational systems. Adopted in various fields (Engeström, 1987, 1999; for L2 education, Lantolf & Thorne, 2004), activity theory in language education primarily considers teaching as artifact-mediated and objective-oriented, mediates and is mediated by the social relationships and social conditions. These factors, importantly, are unique to every society that it has developed throughout their history. Activity theory informs why CLT-based curriculum is unsuccessful in South Korean English classroom and related social elements (K. Ahn, 2011; E.-J. Kim, 2008b, 2008c, 2011). E.-J. Kim (2008b), for example, reports how an experienced English teacher carries out the top-down policy in her middle school English classroom. From the interviews and classroom observations, the teacher shows unchanged practices, regardless of multiple retraining she attended for CLT implementation. Two factors that the teacher pointed were her students whose proficiency was not enough to participate in communicative activities and high-stake exams that drove the educational culture. Students, a part of community who share the same objective with English teachers, do not find participating in communicative activities as learning, neither accept communicative competence as a learning objective. Rather, gaining good scores



from the school/national exams matters the most for the teaching (the *outcome*). The testing primarily measuring grammatical knowledge and reading comprehension was another influential component. Another English teacher showed resistance to CLT curriculum, despite her personal agreement with a need of teaching for communication (E.-J. Kim, 2011). Blaming her former training irrelevant, the teacher taught English with traditional approaches, putting communicative activities periphery to her teaching. The impact of grammar-based testing also played a significant role in her teaching. The analysis depicts how teachers and students in Korea unwittingly agree on the outcome of English teaching activity, admitting teacher-centered classroom as a *rule*. This holistic picture confirms how the teaching activity is shaped within the context. As mentioned above, Shin (2012) also addressed impacts of incompatible school culture that did not allow teacher to adopt unconventional teaching, as one form of macrostructures that affected novice English teachers' decisions about the language to teach English.

These recent analyses explain why teachers cannot negotiate their principal beliefs about effective English classroom as a place to deliver language forms and to prepare students for exams given their unique sociocultural features in South Korea, no matter what the curriculum tells to do for the past thirty years. Regardless of teachers' personal agreements with what they learn from (re)training, there were associated aspects that discouraged teachers from adopting innovative approaches. Sociocultural theory has addressed impacts of those educational norms and of accepted English teaching approaches in districts on classroom practices. These findings suggest one unit of analysis for this research, analyzing how a teacher training course reflects needs to raise teachers' awareness of contextual features in teacher training and discuss ways to implement teaching methods from the textbook, understanding the impacts of macrostructures as an important part of training teachers for teaching in context.

In conclusion, sociocultural theory as a theoretical framework defines roles of teacher training, as teaching not only the knowledge about language and language pedagogy, but also as preparing teachers to negotiate their practices with “educational reform policies, high-stake tests, and the norms of schooling” (Johnson, 2009, p. 77) while teaching for communication. Within that framework, this dissertation research investigates how teacher training informs teachers about these expectations, and discusses the potential consequences of these structures on their teaching. Working from and beyond current understanding of why the top-down policy is often turned down by teachers and students, this research investigates practices in English teacher education in South Korea. An empirical examination of practices in English teacher education could assist identifying areas where teacher educators can provide more interventions to help teacher candidates to negotiate unfamiliar knowledge about language and language pedagogy.

This study also responds to the growing interests in English teacher education in South Korea, where there is a great need for evidence-based practices (K. Ahn, 2015). Research on pre-service and in-service teacher training has included analysis of teacher training curriculum, effectiveness of micro-teaching and practices. Data collection has often relied on measuring English teachers’ perception about efficacy of professional development programs through questionnaires, or analyzing program course offerings and pre-service teachers’ self-reports. Therefore this evidence-based dissertation research on training practices in an English teaching methods course is going to contribute to understanding current training practices in Korea in relation to the curriculum and research, including areas that have been absent from the literature.

## Conclusion

This chapter reviewed an introduction of communicative competence in second language education and subsequent methodological changes it has caused in the field, also in the national curriculum for English education in South Korea. Features of communicative language teaching were provided, followed by a review of changes and confusions that local English teachers experienced to implement top-down expectations for communicative teaching. The second part reviewed research on second language teacher education and English education in Korea, explaining the focus on LTE as response to criticism about a lack of relevance in teacher training for communicative teaching. The reconceptualized knowledge-base for language teacher education, informed by sociocultural theory was explained, as a theoretical framework for this dissertation research.

### **Chapter 3. Research Design**

This chapter explains the research design for this qualitative case study of a Korean teacher educator in a course on English teaching methods. First, I provide my research questions and describe pilot study that guided me to conduct a single qualitative case study. I explain my rationale in selecting the research setting, participants and my recruitment, data collection, and data analysis procedures. The chapter concludes with a discussion of my subjectivity and its potential effects on the data analysis and validity.

#### **Research Questions**

In previous chapters, I have reviewed evidence that, two decades after the introduction of curriculum to implement communicative language teaching (CLT) in English classrooms in Korea, for which teacher training has been persistently blamed for a lack of or irrelevant training. This situation emphasizes the need for classroom-based research in language teacher education (LTE), to achieve a deeper understanding of current practices, in addition to further documentation of teachers' reports about their teacher training. Informed by a sociocultural perspective and second language teacher education research, both internationally and in Korea, this dissertation research explores the pedagogical approaches and practices that a professor in a graduate level English teacher training program in Korea, employs when introducing pre-service teachers to language learning and teaching theories and methods in the methods course, guided by the following two research questions:

1. What are the teacher educator's beliefs about what teachers should learn from the methods course, and how do they inform her teaching?

2. How does the teacher educator discuss teaching English for communication, as the curriculum promotes, within the broader educational context of Korea?

### **Pilot Study**

After three data collection trips to observe English language methods courses in four Korean universities in summer 2017, winter 2017, and summer 2018, I decided to rely on the last case for the dissertation for methodological purposes, due to the quality of data I could collect in multiple settings within limited time, as well as discrepancies across cases. In the first trip, I visited two classes on “*English/Content Textbooks and Teaching Methods* [교과/영어 교재 연구 및 지도법]” during weeks 6 to 8 of the semester, an undergraduate course on teaching speaking in the Department of English that met twice a week (Tuesday and Thursday afternoons) and a graduate course on communicative competence in the MA TESOL program that met every Wednesday night. In addition to the differences in degree programs, institutional expectations, and teacher educators’ instructional designs, differences in student populations became a concern, as the undergraduates were all full-time, on-site students, while some in the TESOL program were part-time students who had daytime teaching jobs and commuted from different cities and so were unavailable for additional meetings outside the class meetings.

During this three-week data collection period, I observed one course five times and the other two times, which I found too short to learn about the setting and participants. I needed more time to get used to the classroom cultures and meaningfully capture events. As a stranger entering a class in the middle of the semester, I often I felt unwelcomed and was restricted in my data collection. In one class I was not allowed to audio-record class meetings and did not have access to classroom materials available through online platform for affiliated personnel. More

importantly, I needed to be able to talk to participants outside of class, which was difficult both because of commuters' tight schedules and because I was unable to establish sufficient rapport. Relying on observation notes could provide only a partial picture of the context. During the second round of data collection, in which I observed an in-service teacher training course, which I did not expect to be so exclusive, I also experienced quite strong resistance to the young female Western-trained researcher who popped up in the middle of the training.

Moreover, I found that often the classes were behind or ahead the syllabus schedule, so I was missing what I intended to observe. Through these experiences I realized that for in-depth, consistent data on how and to what extent prospective teachers were being introduced to English teaching methods both directly and indirectly, through examples and class activities, I needed to conduct an extended on-site study of one course. For these reasons, I scheduled another data collection trip for the summer of 2018, during which I focused intensively on one course for all class meetings, interacted with the participants more frequently, and better understood the context, such as departmental and institutional cultures. Through conducting this pilot study, including the second trip made to an in-service teacher training, I was able to avoid the pitfalls of a short-term qualitative approach in my data collection.

### **A Single Qualitative Case Study**

To address the research questions about a teacher educator's beliefs that explain her teaching, and how those are influenced by broader educational factors, I employed a qualitative case study methodology, which was appropriate to answer exploratory and descriptive questions about the "how" and "why" of complicated "real-life" social events in depth (Yin, 2003). In particular, a case study approach enabled investigation of how a contemporary case was bounded

by its context, which may not be clearly distinguishable in real life, but it was crucial for precise understanding of the case (Yin, 2014). Any single entity, whether an individual, a group of individuals, a program, an institution, or a society, can be a case (Dörnyei, 2007; Yin, 2014). The scope of each case can be determined with specific unit(s) of analysis relevant to the context. In Applied Linguistics, context could mean a particular learning setting, often a classroom, or broader settings like school, or home and community, that impacts social interactions in language use and learning (Duff, 2008), depending on the research focus and approaches (e.g., sociocultural approach). Therefore, for accurate understanding of real-life phenomena, decisions for selecting units of analysis informed by “spatial, temporal, and other concrete boundaries” (Yin, 2014, p. 32) of the case must be made carefully.

In this dissertation study, one teacher educator and her methods course constituted a case and a primary unit of analysis. This case was bounded by its overall context including its institutional program and the national systemic framework, all of which shared an educational framework and goals (van Lier, 2005) for training teachers for secondary English education in Korea. Thus, this dissertation research is an embedded single case study to be examined within two broad layers of analysis, as Duff (2008) described in her study of teacher participants within two higher levels, schools and bilingual education in Hungary. The first layer being a teacher education program within a particular institution, and the second the larger education system, the English education curriculum and requirements for teacher training presented by the Ministry of Education (MOE) were two larger contexts considered. The emphasis on the case’s boundedness to its context assisted answering the second research question about macro aspects that affected the teacher educator’s teaching as part of the teacher training program and the English education system in Korea.

Duff (2008) describes the key characteristics of a case study as “boundedness or singularity, in-depth study, multiple perspectives or triangulation, particularity, contextualization, and interpretation” (p. 23). It allows examining a single case in-depth with rich data and multiple perspectives (for example, students’ narratives about the teacher educator and the class). These features enabled me to pay attention to the uniqueness of the case in relation to the broader context. The last attribute, interpretation, was epistemologically important in this research, as I took an interpretative approach to my data, meaning that my subjectivity shaped my perspective in the data analysis. As Duff pointed out, however, such subjectivity is expected in qualitative research in general and should be accompanied by the researcher’s acknowledgement of possible biases and transparency in decision making, data analysis, and data representation. Lastly, as Yin (3014) comments, the flexibility and data-driven aspects of a case study allow accommodating emerging variables by “making an in-depth inquiry, studying conditions over time, and covering contextual conditions” (p. 212). Because this research was conducted in an active classroom in which I was a non-participatory observer with multiple non-controllable components, such the influence of a different group of students every semester, the case study approach allowed me to consider any emerging variables that I did not originally take into consideration.

Thus, this dissertation took a single case study approach to explore the dynamics of a particular, the teacher educator, complemented by the findings from two additional classes observed in the pilot study. Considering the autonomy and flexibility given to professors and programs in higher education, the differences among educators, programs, institutions were enough to justify treating each class as an individual case despite the fact that all teacher training programs belonged to the same Korean system. Due to the limited amount of data I found I could



collect from the three classes investigated in the pilot study, I determined they could not constitute individual cases (this decision procedure is further explained under recruitment), but could contribute to discussion of general concerns (Dörnyei, 2007) in English teacher education in Korea. Thus, data from the pilot study are referred to in discussion of the primary case to demonstrate the teacher educators' diverse teaching practices in preparing teachers for the teaching of language communicatively, to relate findings across similar but separate contexts, and to discuss ways to utilize teacher training programs to narrow the gap between educational mandates and classroom practices.

## **Research Setting**

### ***The Graduate School of Education (GSE) in a Korean University***

The course I conducted research was offered through a master's program in the Graduate School Education in one university in Korea. It was one of degree programs in the Department of English Education. Below information about the master's program is provided, followed by descriptions about the English teaching methodology course.

**Degree Programs in the Department of English Education.** The mission of the department I visited was to train local pre-service (undergraduate and graduate) and in-service (master's and doctoral) English teachers. The pre-service program trained teachers mostly for the secondary level, while the graduate programs mainly served in-service teachers from both elementary and secondary schools. Unlike the two graduate programs offered for in-service teachers through Graduate School, the graduate-level pre-service training program was offered through the Graduate School of Education (GSE), the setting of this dissertation research. It was

one of two pre-service English teacher training programs available in the university: undergraduate and graduate. The structures of graduate programs and their target populations may vary across universities. For example, the English Education Department in a university in a different city in Korea also offered separate graduate programs in the graduate school and the graduate school of education, but the former was for full-time students with a strong focus on research, not on training teachers, and the latter was for in-service teachers' professional development. However, some students in GSE program had chosen a program without knowing these differences, assuming that GSE should be related to education.

**Structure of the GSE Program.** The GSE in this large university in Korea offered a two-and-a-half year master's program requiring a practicum (typically during the last semester), an examination for graduation, and completion of a master's thesis in English. When all these requirements were met, students were granted second tier/level teacher certificate, which made them eligible to take the very competitive teacher employment test to become an English teacher in public middle and high schools. Key features of the GSE program, in which students from a diversity of undergraduate majors were pursuing a master's degree in English education, included an intense and atypical schedule and a small number of courses offerings.

First, in GSE, students met for intensive sessions (three hours every day for three and half weeks to four weeks) twice a year, during the regular summer (July) and winter (January) breaks for other programs, which I learned was to accommodate the schedules in-service teachers, whose school would also be on break. Due to this limitation, the Department offered only two or three courses for GSE students, while the graduate school offered five or more courses on diverse topics. In summer 2018, the Department offered two courses besides the required English

teaching methods course (10:00 am – 12:50 pm): *Studies in British and American Literature* (required, 10:00 am – 12:50 pm) and *English Phonology* (optional, meeting 1:00 – 3:45 pm). It was explained that the methods course was a last-minute offering for students who had missed it earlier, so they could graduate on time, suggesting that not following the prescribed sequence of course could delay students' graduation. In addition to its periods of intensity, this lack of flexibility in the schedule left little room for students to take courses of their own interests, and that GSE students were more likely to graduate as a cohort with similar experiences than students in other degree programs. For the same reason, for many of the students, this course was the only teaching methods course they took during their program. For my research, however, the compressed schedule was beneficial, allowing more interaction with students who remained together after class. Although as noted the students had different undergraduate majors, because they had passed an examination for admission to the program, their foundational knowledge in second language acquisition (SLA) was assumed. Their needs and expectations for the program varied as well. Some were not merely pursuing a teaching credential but had genuine academic interest in the field of second language teaching.

### ***English Teaching Methodology: Instructed Second Language Acquisition***<sup>5</sup>

**Purpose of the Course.** The expected learning outcomes of this required course, as specified in the syllabus, were as follows:

Excerpt 1. Learning outcomes from the syllabus (Lee, English teaching methodology course syllabus, 2018, p.1)

1. To become familiar with theories, methods, and findings in the field of ISLA;
2. To develop an expert understanding of ISLA;
3. To raise awareness on aspects and issues on ISLA;
4. To develop their ability to read ISLA research reports critically and meaningfully;

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<sup>5</sup> The title of the course has been altered to protect the participant's anonymity.

5. To relate understanding on ISLA with current L2 classroom settings in Korea or in other countries;
6. To promote research in the field ISLA.

There was one required text in the course, Shawn Loewen's (2014) *Introduction to instructed second language acquisition*. Additional resources were listed in the syllabus, such as Rod Ellis's (2012) *Language teaching research and language pedagogy*, Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Snow's (2014) *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*, and Brown's (2016) *Principles of language learning and teaching*, and Brown and Lee's (2015) *Teaching by principles*. During teacher, Professor Lee mentioned these texts multiple times, telling students to read additional references as needed. As indicated in the second part of the course title, the focus of the course was on an approach called "instructed" second language acquisition, a subfield of SLA. Thus, as explained on the first day, Professor Lee's emphasis was on instruction and teachers' interventions in students' learning in classroom settings. The syllabus also presented a list of domestic and international journals about language teaching with which graduate students, who were expected to contribute to the field as researchers, needed to be familiar. Given their current lack of knowledge about the field and related research, Professor Lee expected students to use the list of references to find additional academic resources as needed in class.

**Three Assignments.** Students were required to complete three major assignments: two reaction papers, which were to be completed as preparation before the semester began; a presentation; and a final exam. To assure that students understood when the reaction papers were due, there was a warning on the first page of the syllabus, written in a large red font, that students would fail the class if they did not submit the assignments before the semester. In these reaction papers, students had to reflect on (not summarize) readings, write in English, and provide one or

two questions for discussion. On the first day, the professor explained that she intended to use those questions for discussion in class, yet expressed her dissatisfactions with students' writing, discussion questions, and failure to follow the style guide. This assignment was not mentioned for the rest of the semester.

The second assignment was to give a presentation on a chapter chosen on the first day from nine content chapters of the textbook, which included the following topics: second language knowledge, classroom interaction, focus on form, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, pragmatics acquisition, contexts, and individual differences. To give the students time to prepare their presentations, professor covered the textbook's introduction (Days 1, 2, & beginning of Day 3) as well as the chapters on classroom interaction (second half of Days 4 & first half of Day 5), which had not been chosen by the students and on pronunciation (Day 8), a topic that was drawing more attention in the field. It should be noted that, due to my focus on the professor's talk in this study, many data Excerpts reported in findings are drawn from these six days when Professor Lee was presenting in addition to when she intervened in students' presentations. She made her expectations for presentation clear from the first day, telling students that they had to become experts on the content and prepared to preside for two and a half hours, as if they were teaching a class. In terms of the structure of the chapters, each consisted of theoretical concerns, empirical evidence, pedagogical implications, and activities. For example, Chapter 4 about vocabulary acquisition, had eight pages of theoretical material, including issues in vocabulary acquisition and instruction; five pages reporting salient research; a page and a half of pedagogical implications; and five pages on three types of vocabulary tests for use in research methods but not necessarily for teaching. As this breakdown of page allotments suggests, the textbook, though written about instruction and used in a methods course, was heavily oriented

toward theory and research. The final exam measured the students' knowledge about the readings. The exam included defining concepts (e.g., communicative competence, recast, prompts, or intelligibility), explaining them with examples, and discussing ways to incorporate theory into practice (e.g., input processing).

**Course Structure.** The textbook's emphasis on research and theory framed the structure of the presentations and therefore the course content, which consisted largely of Professor Lee's and the student presenters' summaries of chapters and Powerpoint slides with bullet pointed lists taken verbatim from the text. This reliance on presenting the textbook created an explanation-oriented classroom in which the instructor or presenter talked most of the time while the rest of the class listened except to respond to an occasional question. Professor Lee sometimes brought additional materials, mostly from provided in the syllabus, such as R. Ellis's (2012) introduction to explicit vs. implicit learning, teaching pronunciation, content-based and immersion models of second/foreign language teaching, and the L2 self-motivational system. Although Professor Lee encouraged students to be creative in their presentations, all resorted to summarizing and explaining the readings, and some students played videos found YouTube to demonstrate concepts or activities that were not always related to the readings. Besides, there was one student who brought related items from the previous teacher employment exams.

**The Classroom Setting.** The class met in a building managed by the Institute of Continuing Education, which was within a 5- to 10-minute walk from the education building where the department and professors' offices were located. Every morning the professor walked from the education building to the classroom, catching her breath while climbing the stairs to the second-floor classroom in the summer heat, while the students drove directly to the building from their homes. The hallway in the building was very dark with limited natural light from two

tiny windows near the stairs. When the artificial light was off, there was no source of light between the stairs, the elevator, and the classroom. The small hallway before the classroom entrance was crowded with many (some broken) desks and chairs piled up in a corner. Overall, the building was well managed and clean, yet the second floor felt neglected. Earlier I thought that only one course was meeting in the building as I did not see any other people around, but later I learned that a course on British and American literature was meeting on another floor.

There were large windows on the side of the room across from the double doors. There were two big white boards on the left side of the entrance and 18 movable individual desks with large blue office chairs facing the boards. Near the window, three rows of paired-desks were lined up, but rest of the desks were randomly scattered, which made the room feel crowded. During class meetings, students usually sat on left side of the room, near the windows, and in the back of the room. One student, who moved from the front to the back, said that it was hard on her neck to look up for hours at the projector screen, which was scrolled down in the corner between the windows and the board. There were two built-in air conditioners on the ceiling, and a grey security device and thermostats were attached on the wall next to the doors.

On the morning of the fourth day, two students and I arrived 30 minutes before the class and found that the air conditioners in the classroom were turning themselves off automatically every two minutes. A few minutes after a student made a call to the department office, a staff member came and told us to use another room on the fifth floor for the rest of the session, as the office could not fix the air conditioners quickly due to high volume of service requests made in the middle of summer. After the rest of the class had arrived, we all climbed up to the new room, which was much brighter with natural light coming through large windows though the blinds were rolled down to provide some shade from the sunlight and heat. This room was twice as

large as the previous room but equipped with only two air conditioning units and, located at the top of the building, it became extremely hot overnight and took a long time to cool down each morning. I remember that when I came in one morning, the classroom was stiflingly hot, and I had to go out to the hallway where the a/c was kept running. Even after 30 minutes, the room still felt warm even after the class started.

### Figure 3.1

*Picture of the New Classroom, Taken from the Window Side Facing the Entrance*



This new room had four rows of four double-desks at which two students could sit together, yet students sat separately near the entrance side in front of the projector screen. Most of the time the professor was sitting next to the podium, facing the students, as shown in the picture. From this position, it was difficult for the professor to see the student who was presenting at the podium. The professor rarely looked back to observe the presenter or check what a presenter put on the blackboard.



**Summer 2018 in South Korea.** The class met during the warmest time of the year, and brief information about the weather is important for understanding the context. The summer of 2018 was notorious for its unusual heat in East Asian countries, recorded as the worst since weather records started being kept in 1904 in Korea. The highest temperature every day was 40 degrees Celsius (roughly 104 degrees Fahrenheit, which felt higher due to the humidity) and the lowest was around 28-30 degrees Celsius (82-86 Fahrenheit). This summer, many people were suffering from the relentless heat day and night, often unable to sleep, including the professor and students, which lowered their energy level and concentration in the classroom.

## **Participants**

### ***Criteria for Recruitment***

To be eligible as the focal figure in this research, a teacher educator had to be teaching a course on instructional methods to pre-service English teachers, covering English and/or language teaching methodology along with supporting theories and research. Such a pedagogical course, which was recommended by the Korean MOE for every pre-service English teacher (Kwon, 1997), was common across English teacher education programs and typically the first (or sometimes the only) course that introduced pre-service teachers to the concepts, teaching theories, methods, and/or empirical research relevant to second language teaching and learning. Therefore, this course was likely to strongly influence how prospective teachers developed or negotiated their beliefs about English teaching (Busch, 2010). Other courses about classroom language teaching were ruled out as they were often optional and not core courses. For example, courses focusing on second language acquisition (e.g., Angelova, 2005; Busch, 2010; Lo, 2005),

were not included as they were not necessarily about teaching or included in teaching training curricula in Korea. Therefore, a course on teaching methods was selected as an appropriate setting for an extended investigation into introduction to teaching methods, a teacher educator's pedagogical practices, and their effects on pre-service teachers' (re)conceptualization of knowledge for English teaching.

In the existing body of LTE research (e.g., Borg, 1999, 2005; Lo, 2005; Pajares, 1992; Peacock, 2001), researchers tended to investigate the impact of teacher training on teachers, pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching cultural background or grammar and using audio-lingual methods, in-service teachers' awareness of their pedagogical beliefs (Borg, 2011), and language acquisition in a course (Busch, 2010). I found the omission of teacher educators' voices problematic, especially in studies that concluded with recommendations for them, such as to take an experiential and reflective rather than a test-oriented approach to teaching and evaluation (Attardo & Brown, 2005; Bartels, 2005; Busch, 2010; Lo, 2005). Also I perceived that teacher educators' practices of making suggestions germane to particular contexts as if relevant to other contexts needed further investigation.

### ***Selecting a Teacher Training Course***

According to the *2011 Report of Teacher Training Programs* issued by the MOE, in South Korea secondary level teacher training programs were located in four types of settings: (a) 사범대학 [Colleges of Education] (b) 일반대학원 교육과 [Graduate Departments in Schools of Education], (c) 교직과정 설치학과 [undergraduate certificate programs in other departments], and (d) 교육대학원 [Graduate Schools of Education]. In a review of training programs for elementary and secondary English teachers, E.-J. Kim (2008a) identified 14 MA TESOL programs as well

as 35 colleges of education and 33 graduate schools of education. My preferences for the setting for this dissertation study were first a College of Education followed by a Graduate School of Education, as these were mainstream pre-service English teacher training programs designated for education in the public sector.

I began recruitment in early 2017 using a short survey distributed to graduates of Korean English Education or TESOL programs as well as my personal connections in Korea. The survey elicited their recommendations of teaching methods-related courses or professors, to which 15 responded and shared the names of professors and their affiliations. In summer 2017, I used this information to invite 10 teacher educators through email before my fall data collection trip. In addition, I sent invitations to two professors who regularly published articles about Korean English teachers and teacher education. I heard back from seven professors, four of whom allowed me to sit in their courses, while the other three said they would not be teaching related courses while I was there due to sabbatical, administrative responsibilities, or retirement. I met three of the four professors during the first data collection trip and observed two courses, which became my pilot study. I visited the fourth professor and her class on my third trip, and they constituted the case study of this dissertation research.

### *Professor Lee*

After years of teaching English in public secondary schools with an undergraduate degree in teacher education, Professor Lee (pseudonym) went to the US for a PhD in second language acquisition. During her PhD program, she began her career as a teacher educator, typically teaching an undergraduate course about teaching methods every spring as well as other undergraduate and graduate courses about second language acquisition. In 2018, Professor Lee

was teaching a GSE course after a break of two or three years. In both personal meetings and class meetings, Professor Lee implied that GSE courses were not her favorite type to teach due to their rigid schedule. She preferred full-semester graduate courses, which allowed for more readings and extensive in-depth discussion on topics. She also considered GSE students' lack of background knowledge in the field as an issue requiring her to explain basic terms, concepts, and theories, which was unnecessary for graduate students who knew the field already, but necessary to prepare GSE students for the teacher employment exam.

By 2018, Professor Lee had been in the department for a few years, long enough for students to know about and discuss her teaching and advising styles, including high academic expectations, which she made clear from the first day of class. She repeatedly emphasized that, as graduate students, they should take responsibility for their own learning by preparing for class and taking part in discussions. For example, in an authoritative voice, she said, "As a grown-up, you should be responsible for decisions that you made after (age) 20. You didn't come to graduate school because your parents asked you to do so. [스무 살이 넘었으면 자신의 결정에 책임을 질 줄 알아야죠. 부모님이 가라고 해서 대학원 온 거 아니잖아.]" So as not to leave students uncertain about her expectation, Professor Lee repeatedly highlighted that they should read closely and critically, relating the readings to their teaching while becoming "an expert for your presentation." Expectations included looking up unknown jargon and reading additional materials about the topic that students were presenting, to be able to provide clear explanations and to answer any questions that the rest of the class might have, which could be anticipated considering the students' general lack of familiarity with the research in general. Such heavy emphasis on students' maturity and attitudes made me wonder whether the professor had had negative experiences with GSE students before. Also from day one, Professor Lee wanted to

establish an open classroom environment fostering student participation rather than a lecture-based culture. Indeed she asked many questions, inviting students to openly share their thoughts rather than produce expected answers. Her attempts to elicit responses from the students are reported in the findings. Also, Professor Lee told students to ask questions during their presentations and not do all the talking for two hours.

### ***Students in the Course***

There were seven students in the course, one male and six females (referred to as pre-service teachers in the GSE hereafter). Two were in the first year, four in the second year, and one in the third year of their programs. As members of the same cohort, the four second-year students were particularly close. Also, the second- and third-year students knew one another from taking courses together in previous semesters, and some had built close relationships. Four of the seven students were in their mid to late 20s and early 30s, and the other three, who were married, were in their mid to late 30s. Two had recently had their first babies, which made finding time to prepare class a bit challenging. In terms of their backgrounds, their undergraduate programs included English Language and Literature, German Language and Literature, and Korean Language and Literature. Two students, one working as full-time teacher in a public elementary school and one in a private high school, had time conflicts with the course schedule due to school responsibilities and had to miss one class meeting during the first week. The rest of the students also had taught English, or were teaching or tutoring secondary students in the private sector concurrently.

## **Data Collection**

### ***The National Curriculum***

Before I started data collection in the classroom, I had gathered available official documents issued by the MOE, such as the national curriculum for English education, documents about teacher training programs and their curricula, teacher qualifications, budget reports for teachers' professional development, and curricula for English education departments, supplemented by media reports on information that was not publicly accessible on governmental websites (e.g., a budget report about retraining in-service teachers, particularly expenses related to sending English teachers abroad). Media reports were included to represent public discourse about selected issues in Korean English education or English teacher (re)training. These documents informed me about the expectations for teacher training programs from the administrative side and provided the context of the influential backdrop of the focal methods course and how those macro-structures constructed, regulated, and empowered the teacher educator. I also analyzed the national curriculum to determine the official learning objectives of English education in Korea, both general and specific, and how clearly the document provided suggestions for teaching methods, which I could compare with what Professor Lee taught in class and how.

### ***Classroom Data***

As a qualitative classroom-based case study typically entails, I collected archival and course materials (the syllabus, handouts, and the textbook), classroom observation field notes, audio-recordings of class meetings, and interviews (Dörnyei, 2007) with Professor Lee and four students for an intensive description. Although as a non-affiliated person I could not access the

institution's online platform, *e-class* (similar to *Canvas* and *Blackboard* in the US), as it was used for uploading students' presentation slides for evaluation, printed copies of which were provided, my lack of access to the platform did not affect the completeness of my data. With all participants' verbal agreement, collected on the first day with the help from Professor Lee, I audio-recorded all class meetings from the second day of semester. During observations, I also took notes focusing on what the professor said, how she introduced and discussed certain topics, and how she commented on students' presentations, paying particular attention to how her teaching methods and skills accorded with the stated national curriculum, such as the mandate to teach English communicatively. I also jotted down non-verbal reactions of the participants, including facial expressions or emotional body language that audio-recordings could not capture, along with my own immediate responses. These data helped me understand how Professor Lee perceived and communicated the purposes of the course with the students, as well as its structure of the course and her management of the classroom.

**Reflection on My Presence in Class.** I was a non-participant observer in the classroom, so as to not to affect the class or interfere with communications between Professor Lee and her students by giving the impression that they had someone who could speak for them. At the same time, this non-participant position allowed me to concentrate on observing and recording events and interactions and my reflections. So as not to bother the class, I sat separately from the group in the third row, fairly close to the podium in front, so my phone could record the professor's and student presenters' voices clearly. From this seat, I was able to make eye-contact with the presenter or the professor, who barely looked at me in class. I turned my gaze toward the students when they asked questions of the professor or the presenter, or answered questions

posed to them. It should be said, however, that my non-participatory position in class did not mean I lacked rapport with the participants.

During class meetings, I sensed that students quickly understood that I was not participating in class and so were not much affected by my presence. In any event as I was observing them, students seemed to focus their attention on the presentation so as to be able to answer the professor's and presenters' questions, which could pop up anytime. However, most of the time they were looking down at handouts or the textbook, rarely making eye contact with the professor or the presenter, unless they were answering questions or there was an awkwardly long silence while everyone waited for someone to respond. On the other hand, outside of class I interacted with the students, who appeared to find me more accessible to talk with than the professor as well as knowledgeable, as they seemed comfortable asking me questions about the readings before and after class. For example, on the morning of her presentation, one student asked me, "Could you explain what "focus on form" and "focus on forms" are? The differences between them?" And another student asked, "Do you know what the Involvement Load Hypothesis is?" This student complained, "All this jargon has meanings I don't know." Some students also asked my thoughts about their presentations or interpretation of Professor Lee's responses to them, telling me they could not remember what she said during presentation due to high anxiety. There could be two reasons for this level of rapport: I was literally more available to students as I arrived early before class and occasionally joined them for lunch after class, while Professor Lee came on time and had to talk to next presenter after class. Secondly, students did not have to worry about my thoughts about them, as I was a neutral party, not involved in their program or any grading process in class.



## *Interviews*

Instead of the formal interviews I had intended to conduct, I ended up having mainly informal interactions with both the professor and student participants, and only one round of formal interviews near the end of the semester, which allowed me to build rapport, to become acquainted with the setting, and to learn more about the professors' teaching philosophy from both her and her students' perspectives. The narratives I collected during the interactions were major authentic data sources for exploring the pre-service teachers' and the teacher educator's experiences and understandings (e.g., Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Johnson & Golombek, 2001), as well as their interpretations of activities (Johnson, 2009). After the first few classes, I casually interacted with the professor to discuss the purposes of my project and the setting, and in the middle of semester we talked about her course and the students. After conducting initial data analysis upon my return to the US, I asked the following questions about her instructional choices via email:

- Why did you choose the textbook? (Why was it different from the one used in undergraduate training?)
- What was the purpose of asking students to present? And how did you evaluate students' presentations?
- Did the department or MOE provide any guidelines or recommendations for the course design/structure?
- What aspects of teaching, theory, and research did you want your students know from your explanation? Could you explain what the foci of your explanations were?

After to a lack of interaction with student participants in the pilot study, during the 2018 data collection period I purposefully spent time with the students, to hear how they talked about what they learned from the class and Professor Lee's way of teaching. Luckily, the students' similar schedules in GSE provided ample opportunity to interact with them. For example, all seven student teachers were taking another three-hour long class in the afternoon following the morning class with Professor Lee, and there was one-hour lunch break during which I

occasionally joined them. These casual interactions informed me about students' concerns and challenges in the course, as well as their reflections after each class meetings. For example, I heard two students discussing that they liked Professor Lee's class, as she related the readings and theories to real-life issues, such as when a student talked about her child's language learning.

Additionally, I conducted formal audio-recorded interviews with five students at the end of the semester. I asked them why they had started the program and what they wanted to achieve from it, what they had expected the methods course to be about, the extent to which the course and professor met their initial expectations, and what aspects of the course were helpful to them and in what ways. I also asked general question about their interactions and contributions in class and how they felt in a class in which the professor asked many questions. The data from these student interviews with students were triangulated with my analysis of the observation and the professor interview data, addressing the questions of what students perceived that they learned from the course and how they had learned it, and determining the extent to which the students' reports, the instructor's reports, and my observations were consistent with each other or provided multiple perspectives on a phenomenon. Regarding the language of interview, I had initially intended to give all participants their choice of Korean or English for the interviews; however, as all prior interactions with them had occurred in Korean, it was understood without asking that the interviews would also be in Korean.

## **Data Analysis**

### ***Thematic Analysis***

Immediately following data collection, I first organized my field notes and transcribed the classroom and interview recordings in Korean, using following transcription symbols to

capture overlaps in interaction, emphasis in speaking, and pauses. In this dissertation, original data are presented as they were transcribed with the notation symbols, although they do not necessarily contribute to answering the research questions about identifying components of Professor Lee's beliefs and understanding her teaching practices. Transcription notations, adapted from the Jeffersonian transcription notation system (1984), are following:

|             |  |
|-------------|--|
| P           | Professor Lee  |
| S(s)        | student(s)   |
| (.)         | noticeable pause, shorter than a second  |
| (2)         | number of seconds for timed pause  |
| @@          | unintelligible sound   |
| (text)      | unclear speech or a grammatical correction of mistakes, including mispronunciation                   |
| ((text))    | paralinguistic sounds such as laughter, giggles, audible inhale and exhale, sigh                     |
| ::          | elongated sound  |
| =           | at the end or beginning of sentences, equal signs indicate that there was no pause between sentences |
| /           | noticeable rise but not high as questions  |
| <b>bold</b> | accented to emphasize  |
| -           | interruptions in utterances (by another speaker)   |
| [ ]         | when speech overlaps   |

Except for the raw data, which were collected and transcribed in Korean, I primarily used English during data analysis process to codes, analytic memos, and reflections in preparation for writing the final report in English. Using English for data analysis encouraged me to take enough time to reflect on my translations throughout the process, to avoid possible misrepresentation of original data. All data segments reported in the findings are represented in both languages, first in Korean, followed by my translation in English. To be accurate, I checked and confirmed my translation with two colleagues who were fluent in both languages and then with a monolingual speaker of English.

### ***Coding Procedure***

Given the exploratory nature of the study, I conducted multiple cycles of thematic analysis of the transcripts and other documents using NVivo, a qualitative data analysis program. Initially I conducted inductive line-by-line open coding to capture recurring patterns and unique themes in the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Initial codes were often descriptive, including summaries and phrases from Professor Lee's statements and the curriculum materials. During this process, I occasionally reviewed the codes generated so far to determine possible relations among them, organize some into categories, and divide others into multiple new or sub-codes. For example, two related codes identified in the initial coding, *general pedagogical knowledge that teachers should know* and *appropriate teaching behaviors*, were grouped under a new code related to Professor Lee's talk, *teacher attributes*. The list of codes is following.

**Table 3.1**

*Codes and Sub-codes*

| Codes                                      | Definition  | Sub-codes   | Supporting examples  |
|--|---|---|--|
| Positioning English education and teachers | Invite pre-service teachers (students) to think about broader aspects: the roles of English education and English teachers in Korea | [In the course] Effectiveness of classroom English teaching for communication; creating an equal and effective English classroom for all learners; being a responsible teacher; assisting students to see value of knowledge from classroom | <b>Example 1 from Day 3</b><br>P: 기본적으로 L2 instruction ( ) 을 하는 ( ) 많은 사람들은 어떻게 생각을 하느냐 ( ) 아 L2 classroom에서 뭔가를 학습하는 것은. Needs 가 다양할 수도 있겠지만 어떤 사람은 TOEFL 점수, 잘 얻어야 되고. 어. 그런 것들에 초점이 맞춰져 있을 수 있겠지만. In general, communication을 위한 거 아닌가? 언어라고 하는 근본적인, 어. 언어를 학습하는 근본적인. 어. ((inhale)) needs 중에 하나는. Fundamentally ( ) communication 아닐까? 그리고/ 그렇다면은. 그러한 communication을. 궁극적으로 조금 성공적으로 해 나갈 수 있게끔 수업을 효과적으로 진행하는게 맞지, 않을까 라는 거예요. (2) ((inhale)) 그리고, 거기에 대해서는. Pros and cons가 존재를 하는데. 그럼 수업 잘 진행한다고 communication 잘 할 수 있나? 배워서? 이 방법에 대한 역시/ ( ) 어떤 사람은 "그거, 수업으로 한다고 안돼." 라고 생각하는 사람도 있고. "수업에 굉장히 도움이 되지." 라고 바라보는 관점도 있다.라는 거예요<br>P: So many people who do L2 instruction think, needs of learning in L2 classroom vary. Some might work for TOEFL. [Learners] may want things like that. But in general, [isn't it] for communication? Foundational reason of learning language, uh. ((inhale)) Isn't the fundamental need communication? If so, [teachers] have to assist [students] to achieve the competence for communication. (2) ((inhale)) And, regarding that. There are pros and cons. Then does good language teaching help [learners] achieve CC? From learning [in class]? Some people think "Well, learning in classroom doesn't help," while some think "Classrooms are very effective." |
|  |   | [In the curriculum] teaching English for communication; CC as one competence for English education; English as a means of global communication; English to understand cultural diversity  |  |

**Example 2 about English education from the curriculum (p. 2)**

영어는 21세기 현재 국제적으로 가장 널리 통용되고 있는 언어이다. 따라서 세계화와 지식 정보화 시대에 발맞추고, 나아가 선도적 역할을 수행하기 위해서는 영어를 이해하고 구사하는 능력은 필수 역량이다. 세계인과 소통하며 그들의 문화를 알고 우리 문화 또한 확장시켜 나아갈 수 있도록 기초적인 영어 의사소통능력을 길러주는 것이 학교 영어교육의 기본목표이다. 이를 위하여 영어에 대한 흥미와 관심을 불러 넣어주고 이를 바탕으로 학습자가 주도적으로 영어 학습을 지속하게 해주는 것이 필요하다.

뿐만 아니라, 인성이 중요한 핵심 역량으로 다루어지고 있는 이때에 영어학습을 통한 타인에 대한 배려와 관용, 대인관계 능력 함양은 교육과정이 추구하고 있는 인간상이기도 하다. 또한 학생들은 영어를 배움으로써 개인적인 지적 역량이나 학업지식을 배양할 수 있으며, 서로 다른 사고방식, 경제적 가치관, 문화적 다양성 등에 관한 이해를 증강시킬 수 있다. 이를 바탕으로 학생들은 글로벌화 된 세계 속에서 살아가는데 필요한 역량을 발휘할 수 있는 든든한 토대를 마련할 수 있게 될 것이다.

English is the language that is used worldwide in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Therefore, being able to understand and use English is necessary to follow this globalized, and knowledge and information-based era, and also to take a leading role.

The primary goal of school English education is to establish [students'] basic competence for English communication, so they can communicate with people in the world, understand their culture, while expanding our culture as well. Therefore, it is important [for teachers] to motivate students in continuous and self-guided English learning.

In addition, developing [students'] generous and understanding attitudes toward others, and interpersonal skills through English learning is another aim of the national curriculum, as character is one of primary elements for competence. Also learning English enables students to develop personal intellectual competence or

content knowledge, as well as deeper understanding about various ways of thinking, economic values, or cultural diversity.

Example 1 from Day 5

P: Focus on form과 focus on forms는 거의 비슷하잖아. 어, 뭐만 달라  
 () s가 있고 없고만 다르잖아요, 그죠? Focus on forms. Plural  
 이잖아요. 그러면, 기본적으로 여기에서는 어떤거야? Forms, 온갖  
 grammatical, aspect. 온갖 form에 다/. 관심이 있는 거예요.  
 그러니까, 이거는 학습의 목표 자체가 어디에 초점이/ () 갔다?  
 문법. form. grammar structure에 갔다. 그러니까 학습 목표를 서술  
 할 때 () 자체가, 수업 자체가, 문법을 학습하는게 목표다. 라는  
 거예요. 맥락 이런 거 별로 상관없어 오늘 관계대명사 배울 차례다/  
 관계대명사 배워보자 이거예요. (!) 자 그 다음에. 분사구문, 오늘  
 배울거야. 분사구문 배울 차례니까. 그거 배워보자 어? 그래서 문법  
 교육이. 학습의 목표예요. 그래서. 어느 특정 문법에 관심이 갖는게  
 아니라 온갖 문법에 다 관심이 () 갖는 거예요.

P: Focus on form and focus on forms look very similar. What's  
 the only difference () There's an s, isn't it? It's plural in  
 focus on forms. Thus, what does it mean? It cares about all  
 grammatical aspects, and [language] forms. What's the focus  
 of teaching? On grammar, form, grammar structure. Thus  
 learning objectives are on learning grammar. Regardless of  
 context, today's goal is to learn about relative pronouns.  
 Let's talk about relative pronouns. (1) And then the next one  
 is about participial construction. Let's do it cause it's the next  
 thing [in textbook]. Uh? Teaching grammar is the goal. Not  
 about particular grammatical aspects but about grammar in  
 general.

Example 2 from Day 6

P: 자 그리고, elicitation, 이라고 하는 것은 기본적으로 ()  
 끌어내는거야. 가장 typical한 방법은 앞 부분만 말해주고 뒤를  
 재워라, 니가. 이런 식으로 말을 하는거, 어, elicitation의 대표적인  
 예고. repetition은 말 그대로 repeat만 해도, 틀린 부분을, 여기자람,

|  |  |
|--|--|
| Professor<br>Lee's<br>explaining<br>concepts and<br>theories   | Heritage language context,<br>interlanguage, contrastive<br>analysis, L1 transfer, error<br>analysis, universal grammar,<br>sociocultural theory, scaffolding,<br>zone of proximal development,<br>declarative vs. procedural<br>knowledge, etc. |
| Help pre-service<br>teachers understand<br>concepts and theories in<br>the related fields of<br>second language<br>acquisition, language<br>teaching, and English<br>linguistics |  |



a third person singular 이렇게 말을 하는 것은 metalinguistic feedback 으로 분류가 되는거지 repetition 으로 분류가 되는 거는 절대 아니예요. 그러니까, 이것도 repetition이다, 이렇게 하지 말고, 각각 따로 따로, 그런데 combined 되서 more two feedback types ( ) 가/ combined 되서 사용할 수 있다. 라는 식으로 이해를 해야 되는 거죠. (2)

P: And elicitation is basically about ( ) drawing [students' responses]. Typical way is to give the beginning part and ask you [students] to complete [sentences]. That's the typical example of elicitation. Repetition means, literally, repeating [students'] mistakes. As you see here, saying "a third person singular" is metalinguistic feedback, having nothing to do with repetition. Thus, don't think that it's repetition, [you] need to understand them as two different feedback types that can be used together.

Example 1 from Day 8

- P: 아 그럼 음성학 수업들, 왜 배웠니? ((다같이 웃음)) 가르쳐봤자, 어? Explicit 하게 되지도 않는데 ((웃으면서))
- P: Well then why on earth did [you] take the phonology class? ((loud laughter)) There's no point of, uh? teaching [knowledge] explicitly ((chuckles))
- S: 제가 말을 잘못 했네요. 되지 않을 수도 있기 때문에.: 어, 좀 안 가르치는 거 같아요 ( ) 막, 주 되:게 major로 가르치지 않는 거 같아요.
- S: I shouldn't say that. As it may not become [explicit knowledge] uh, [teachers] tend not to teach [knowledge explicitly] ( ) Not as primarily in their teaching-
- P: -같은, L2 speaker 교사가: 음성학적 지식이 있는 사람과. 음성학적 지식이 없는 사람이. 아이들에게 발음을 가르칠 때 누가 훨씬 더 잘 가르쳐.
- P: -The same L2 speaking teachers. The one with the phonological knowledge. One without the phonological knowledge. When [both] are teaching pronunciation to students, who is much better at teaching [pronunciation].

Phonology (English sounds that do not exist in Korean, English as a stress-timed language, & functional loads), pragmatics (cultural use of language, honorifics, origins of names), and differences across local dialects

Develop knowledge about English as a language and associated cultural background of language use

Linguistic aspects of English



Ss: 지식이 있는-  
 Ss: One with knowledge-  
 P: -당연히 있는 사람이 훨씬 더 잘 가르쳐. 어. 이따가 말 합시다. 일단 해봐 계속. ((웃으면서))  
 P: -Surely the one who has [the knowledge] is much better. Uh. Let's talk about it later. You can go on for now. ((chuckles))  
 S: 그래서. 어: ( ) 전 안 된다고 생각을 했.진 않았어요-  
 S: So. Um ( ) I didn't think that [we] couldn't [teach explicitly]-  
 P: -그러니까: 개인의 경험이 이렇게 중요해요 ((웃음))  
 P: -This is why personal experience matters ((chuckles))

Example from Day 8  
 P: 제가: ( ) 수업 할 때 (1) 수업 시작하기 전에: 막 ( ) 질문을 막 많이 했죠 여러분한테

P: When I was talking (1) before the class ( ) I asked a number of questions

Ss: 네  
 Ss: Yes

P: 생각해보라고 그러고( ) 그: whole chapter하고 관련된 면에서/ (1) 질문도 하고/ ( ) 개인 경험도 이야기 하고. 이랬죠 어 (1.3) 그렇게 시작을 하는 거하고 "자 (2) 1 chapter. 어 몇 chapter ( ) Theoretical concerns 들어가겠습니다." ( ) 하는 거하고 ( ) 집중도라든지: ( ) 어제 말한 ( ) 뭐? (3) Vocabulary 할 때나 (1.6) 집중도라든지: (1) ((overlap with a student's talk, inaudible)) 내가 무슨 @@을 하고 있는지 ((학생들 크게 웃음)) engagement level 이라든지

P: [I] told [you] to think ( ) about the chapter as whole (1) I asked questions ( ) and talked about [my] personal experiences, right (1.3) Compared [that] to saying "I will start chapter one. Chapter X. Or theoretical concerns." ( ) How does that affect [listeners'] attention to, like what you said ( ) what, (3) something like vocabulary (1.6) [their] attention (1) what I am doing ((loud laughter from students, inaudible)) or engagement level

[In the course] Responses to observed students' pedagogical behaviors during presentations (asking many questions to assure students' understanding, eliciting students' participation, ways of asking questions that make students think, giving enough time to think about questions; keeping postures straight in class, and being reliable and knowledgeable resource

Develop knowledge about general pedagogy for teacher attributes that affect students' learning, informed by educational psychology

Professor Lee's comments about teachers' pedagogical behaviors

[In the curriculum] Consider students' various cognitive developmental status

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| <p>S: 아:: engagement<br/> S: <u>Ab</u>:: engagement<br/> P: (2) 고런 게 포금/ ( ) 달라질 수 ( ) [있쵸.<br/> P: (2) That [engagement level] could be a bit ( ) [different.</p>   | <p>Example from Day 2<br/> P: 그렇쵸. (1) 옛날에 연구를 했어. 그 옛날 연구 결과가. 요즘에/ ( ) 적용이 되리라는 보장이/ ( ) 없쵸. 심지어는 요즘은 굉장히 급격하게 사회가 변화하고 있기 때문에. 이삼년 전 data가/ ( ) 현재에 적용되리라는 보장도/ 딱히 없는 거쵸. 그리고 topic에 따라서는 어떨 수 있어요? 굉장히 시대의 흐름을. 많이 타는 topic이 있을 수도 있어요. 어. 그럴 경우에는/ 당연히. 옛날 것을 그대로 갖다 쓰기가/ 어려운 면이 있겠쵸. 그러니까. 결과지라든지 이런 것이. 뭔가: 급격하게. 어. 변화되는 면이 있기 때문에. 딱 ( ) 내 상황에. 현 시점에 적용하기 어려운 면이 있을 거고/ 그렇다면/ ( ) 현 시점에 내가 궁금한 바에 대한 ( ) answers를 얻기 위해서는/ 내 data를 지금/ ( ) 모으는게 필요할 수 있겠쵸. 또 (1) 어떤 이유가 있을까 ((작은 목소리로)) (7.1)<br/> P: Right. (1) There is research from long time ago. [We] cannot expect to see the same results these days. Things are changing rapidly these days. [We] should not assume that data from two or three years ago ( ) are still useful now. And what about topics? Some topics were trending in some era. Uh, then [we] cannot pick up the old ones as they are [in our classroom]. Thus, results can be dramatically changing [depending on context] ( ) so I cannot use them for my context or for current context. Then to get answers for the questions I have now, I need to collect my own data. And (1) what other reasons can you think of. ((speaks in a lower voice))</p> |
| <p>Professor<br/> Lee's emphasis on learning about research</p> <p>Understand various aspects of research to develop analytic and critical perspectives as teachers; and train students as researchers, to be able to ask pedagogical questions and answer their inquiries scientifically</p> <p>Introduction to research (types of research, research methods, research terminology), development of SLA research, researchers' attributes, needs of primary research for teachers; reading with critical perspectives, interpreting research knowing terminology (research methods as well as theoretical concepts and theories), thinking about implications of research to their contexts (including time and place); finding novel and manageable research topics for their theses, contributing to the field by reporting their research</p> | <p>Example 1 from Day 6<br/> P: Theoretical concerns of rule-based, item-based, rule-based는 기본적으로 generalize 할 수 있는 특징이 있다: 라는 거쵸. 하나의 rule을 습득을 해서 그것을, 같은 상황에 적용을 하는 ( ) 그런데</p>   |
| <p>Professor<br/> Lee's summarizing and</p> <p>Assist students' understanding about readings, normally at the beginning and the end of class; assist</p> <p>Reviewing definition of research, nature of L2 knowledge; interaction, theories of L2 instruction (skill acquisition theory, input</p>   | <p>Professor<br/> Lee's summarizing and</p> <p>Assist students' understanding about readings, normally at the beginning and the end of class; assist</p>   |

reviewing readings

students to make connections to concepts and theories introduced earlier in class

processing, and interactional hypothesis); teaching approaches based on focus on forms, etc.

item-based는 단어를 외우는 게 아니라 item by, item. 개, 개인/별로. 각각의 학습을 요하는거, 그게 item-based, learning 이라고, 할 수가 있겠쥬. 여기까지 정리, 되쥬. 기본적인 개념들.

P: Rule-based and item-based [learning] from theoretical concerns. Rule-based can be *generalized*. Learning one rule and applying it to similar contexts (.) But item-based learning is not about memorizing vocabulary but about learning individual element. It's item by item, requiring an individual to do their learning. You understand so far, about basic concepts.

### Example 2 from Day 8

P: Instruction and Pronunciation Acquisition/ (.) ((in a louder voice, refreshing)) 보면은. 역시.: (1) 그 동안에 배웠던 게 조금/ (3.2) 뿌듯하게 Focus on form focus on forms가 더 이상 나오지 않는게 아니라 (.) 꾸준히 계속 나온다는 거예요 Vocabulary 에서도 나오더니/ Pronunciation 에도 나오더라. 그래서. Focus on form (.) 과 관련하여 보자면. Brief attention during the context of meaning-focused interaction. 뒤를 통해서 corrective feedback 이라든지. Noticing 이라든지. 이게/. 비단 (1) grammar (.) specific 하게 적용되는 것도 아니고 vocabulary specific하게 적용되는 것도 아니고. (1) Pronunciation에도/ 적용 될 수 있다. 그래서. 거의 모든 언어 전반적인 영역에 걸쳐서 (.) Focus on form의/ (1) 개념이 적용되는 것이다. 당연하겠쥬.

P: In Instruction and pronunciation acquisition (.) ((in a louder voice, refreshing and changing topic)), also: (1) has *focus on form* and *focus on forms* that we learned before. They didn't disappear, they appear consistently in [following chapters about] vocabulary and pronunciation. From the *focus on form* perspective. "*Brief attention during the context of meaning-focused interaction.*" ((reading handout))  
Through *corrective feedback*. Or *noticing*. Thus the notion of

*focus on form* applies to almost all aspects of language, not just to grammar, vocabulary, or pronunciation. It surely does.

Example 1 from Day 3

Professor Lee's comments about lifelong learning for teachers

Develop students' self-driven learning attitudes for continuous knowledge development after training

Encouraging students to continue learning, review readings repeatedly, referring to additional materials as needed (both introductory and advanced texts); relating readings to their students and contexts; thinking critically about implication; finding their interests

P: "어.. 대학원 수업인데, 기본적인 내용이라고 하는 건데 나는 왜 이런 걸, 하 나도 모르지?" ( ) stress 받을 필요 없어. 왜. 계:속 반복 되서 나오니까. 앞으로. 알아 나가면 되는 거니까. (40.1)

P: "Uh... it's a graduate level course, but why am I clueless about this basic stuff?" ( ) You don't need to feel stressed about [not knowing everything from the text]. Why. [Those concepts] appear again and again. From now on. You can learn about them. (40.1)

Example 2 from Day 3

P: 제가 막: 이렇게 example 이 뭐가 나와있어 뭐 이렇게 물어보는데. 어, 나는 이런, 것을. 지금 숙제 할 때도 읽었고, 어제도 읽고 들어왔는데. 처음 듣는 내용이다. 이러면 어째야 돼. (2) 책을, 오늘/, 그 부분을 다시 한번/ 읽어봐야겠쥬. 그러면은/ 훨씬 더, 오랫동안 기억에 남겠쥬. 오랫동안 기억에/ 남고, 아 이 부분에서/ 이야기기가 이 이야기 였구나. 라고 연결: 지를 수 있을테니까 ( ) 본인들이 학습하는게 어떤 게 최선인지 방법을 잘 찾아가지고 해나가도록 하십시오.

P: I asked about the *examples* from the textbook. Uh, I read it when I was writing my reaction paper and also yesterday. But what if they sound completely new. Then what should you do. (2) You need to review the text again today. Then [it] will stay longer in your memory. It stays longer and then [you] will be able to think about their relations to something else. Think about whatever works the best for you.

Example from Day 2

Professor Lee's comments about implication for teaching

Demonstrate how to think analytically as teachers and researchers; prepare teachers for theoretically and

Choosing appropriate teaching methods as needed for their students; considering sociocultural and contextual aspects in teaching, knowing students' needs (e.g., prepare for

P: 그렇게 된다면: ( ) the results of research, cannot be simply applied to teaching/. But. The value of this research lies in its ability to/ ( ) identify problems/ that otherwise. Might go unnoticed. (1) 별 관심없이 쑥! 지나가고 ( ) 늘 이렇게 배워 왔는데.



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| <p>(contextualization)</p>                               | <p>empirically informed decision-making, knowing their students and related challenges of teaching English in Korea</p> | <p>exam) and different learning styles; social expectations about teachers' pronunciation and misconceptions about English pronunciation)</p>  | <p>아유, 잘하는 애들은 잘하고, 안 그런 애들은 안 그러겠지. 이런 게 아니라. (1) 속 지나갈 수 있는 문제도. ( ) 어, 유난히 이런 대목에서는 조금 어려움이 있는 것 같네? ( ) 어? 쓰: ((inhale)) 애들이 level에 따라서. 요 부분 학생들이 ( ) 이런 방법을 썼을 때 훨씬 더 재밌어 하면서 잘 배우는 것 같네? ( ) 이런 대목들에 대한 것을 조금 놓치지 않고 ( ) 잡아 가면서/ ( ) 어떻게 하면 ( ) 조금 더 많은 학생들이: 수월하게 따라올 수 있는 방법을 생각해 볼까. 라는 pedagogical issue와/ ( ) 연결될 수 있지 않을까. 라는 거예요. (1.9) P: If so ( ) "The results of research, cannot be simply applied to teaching but the value of this research lies in its ability to ( ) identify problems that otherwise ( ) might go unnoticed." (1) [You] may not pay attention to it ( ) .We've always learned it like that. Don't think like, "Well, kids who do well will do well, and those who don't won't do it as always." ( ) Huh? ((loud inhale)) According to students' level. This part, students seem to enjoy and learn more effectively when [I use this approach? ( ) Pay attention to such aspects ( ) and think about ways to teach effectively for more students. This is how you could think pedagogically.</p> |
| <p>Suggested teaching approaches from the curriculum</p> | <p>Approaches and features that the curriculum suggested for English teachers to use and promote</p>                    | <p>Communicative, student-centered, participatory, relevant tasks; use familiar topics to encourage students' participation and motivation; a dichotomous perspective to traditional vs. communicative approaches;</p> | <p>Example 1, Learning objectives for 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> grade elementary English education from the curriculum (p. 11)<br/>초등학교 3~4학년군의 듣기 영역 성취기준은 학생들이 영어의 소리, 강세, 리듬, 억양을 식별하고, 쉽고 간단한 어휘, 어구, 문장, 표현 등을 듣고 이해하며, 일상생활 속의 친숙한 말이나 대화를 듣고 세부 정보를 파악할 수 있는 능력을 기를 수 있도록 설정되었다. 학생들이 3~4학년군의 듣기 영역 성취 기준을 달성함으로써 영어 듣기 의사소통능력의 기초를 다지고, 영어에 대한 흥미와 자신감을 가지며, 다른 문화와 언어의 다양성을 이해할 수 있도록 한다.</p>   |
|  |   | <p>teachers' use of English is encouraged, but it can be decided given students' commands in English</p>   | <p>Learning objectives for 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> grades listening in the elementary school is to distinguish English sounds, stress, rhythm, and intonation, to listen and understand simple vocabulary, phrases, sentences, and expression, and to grasp detailed information from listening daily conversations.</p>   |

Achieving these objectives, students establish foundations of English communicative competence for listening, keep motivated and confident in learning English, and understand different cultural and linguistic diversity.

Example 2 about teaching, learning approaches for elementary school from the curriculum (p. 40)

- (나) 학생들의 실제 언어 사용능력을 배양할 수 있는 교수·학습 방법을 선정한다.
- (다) 학생의 영어사용능력, 인지적·정의적 특성, 학습유형 및 전략 등을 고려하여 다양한 학생 중심의 교수·학습 방법을 선정한다.
- (라) 단일 언어 기능에 대한 교수·학습 방법뿐만 아니라 두 가지 이상의 언어 기능을 연계하는 교수·학습 방법을 선정함으로써 실제적이고 통합적인 영어사용능력을 신장하도록 한다.
- (마) 학생들이 협력하여 과제를 해결하는 경험을 많이 가지도록 유도하고, 타인에 대한 배려와 나눔의 실천 등 인성교육을 강화할 수 있는 방법도 고려하여 선정한다.
- (바) 영어권 및 비영어권의 다양한 문화를 이해할 수 있는 교수·학습 활동을 구안한다.
- (사) 교수·학습 내용 등의 성격에 따라 교수·학습 방법의 선정 과정에 학생들을 참여시켜 창의적인 활동을 도출하고, 학습 흥미와 학습 동기 유발을 도모한다.
- (아) 필요한 경우 타 교과와 연계·활용할 수 있는 교수·학습 방법을 선정한다.
- (b) Choose teaching, learning methods that could build students' competence for actual language use.
- (c) Choose student-centered teaching, learning methods considering students' abilities to use English, cognitive and affective characteristics, learning styles and strategies.
- (d) Choose teaching, learning methods that develop more than two language functions as well as an individual language function, to develop [students'] authentic and integrative competence.

(e) Encourage students to solve tasks in collaboration and choose methods that enhance [students'] character education about considerate and sharing attitudes.

(f) Choose teaching, learning methods that assist [students'] understanding about various cultures in English-speaking and non-English-speaking contexts.

(g) Invite students to lesson planning to choose teaching, learning methods, depending on learning objectives, to promote [students'] creative activities and to increase [students'] interests and motivation [for English learning].

(h) If needed, choose teaching, learning methods from other content areas.

Example 1 from Day 8

P: 여러분도 L2 학습자예요. 그렇기 때문에 어, “나는 그래도 L2, nativelikeness, 되고 싶어.” 그 중에 American English, 왜, 우리 그 중에 그래도 가장 많이 접하고. 그래도/ 많이 norm 으로 작용을 하고 있기 때문에. “아 나는 영국 영어가 되게 듣기가 좋아.” 할 수 있어. No problem. 하지만 교육자적/ 관점에 있어서는, 어느 하나의 single criteria가 존재를 하고, 그게 굉장히 positive 하느냐 가르치는 것은, 조금 문제가 있겠다. 아이들이 어쩔 필요가 있다. 다: 양한 언어에, 노출, 시킬 필요가 있다. 다양한 언어에 노출시키고, 그랬을 경우에, 애들이 언어에 대한 편견이 줄어들기 때문에 ((목소리 낮아짐)) (

P: You are all L2 learners too. Therefore, uh, you may think “I want to sound like a native speaker.” Among many, particularly *American English* that we are used to. And we accept [it] as a norm. Or [you may think] “I like how British English sounds.” No problem. However from a pedagogical perspective, adopting a single criteria and promoting it as positive could be problematic. What do we need to do for our kids? [They] need to experience various languages [English], which help reduce their prejudice toward the language. ((speak quietly))

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|------------------------------|---|---|
| Critical issues in the field | Providing equal learning opportunity to all students, promoting critical awareness of teachers and students | [In the course] Linguistic varieties of English (World Englishes) associated with race, discrimination toward black, indigenous, or second-generation speakers of English, issues of nativelikeness and accentedness, notion of native speakers |
|                              |   | [In the curriculum] Fluency-based evaluation; intelligibility over native-like proficiency  |

Example 2 about speaking evaluation approach for elementary school from the curriculum (p. 15)

- 말하기 능력을 평가하고자 할 때는 등급적 수행평가를 실시한다.
- 수행평가는 학생이 습득한 지식이나 기능의 직접적인 사용을 평가하는 것을 의미하며 직접 말을 하는 것을 평가한다.
- Performance-based evaluation is recommended for speaking evaluation. Performance-based evaluation means evaluating use of students' knowledge and functions, so it evaluates [students] speech.

Example 3 about pronunciation evaluation approach for middle school from the curriculum (p. 31)

- 발음 평가 시에는 원어민과 같은 발음보다는 이해 가능한 (intelligible) 발음을 추구하는 재점 기준을 적용하도록 한다.
- For speaking evaluation, adopt criteria that measures intelligible pronunciation, not native-like pronunciation.

Example 1 from Day 3

Contextual challenges for Professor Lee

GSE-specific features that affected Professor Lee's teaching in the methods course

Compartmentalized and disconnected courses, limited time (tight schedule), an introductory level course, students' lack of background knowledge, an emphasis on preparing for teacher employment exam

P: 근데 여러분들은/ 실질적으로 background가 굉장히 다양하죠. 현지 교사도 있고. 학부가/ 전공이 아닌 사람들도 굉장히 많고. 그냥 학점. 채워가지고/ 등록해 가지고 교사 자격증이 필요해서 오신 분들도 있고. 굉장히 background가 다양하고. 고만 고만해요 다. 그렇기 때문에. 또 발표하는 사람은 아, 내가 이런 게 잘 익숙지 않아. 그리고/ terminology 정의를 읽었는데/ 나는/ 잘 모르겠어. 이러면은/ 학생들도 마찬가지로일 테니까. Example 같은 거 잘 준비를 해와가지고/ 같이, 이해하면서 넘어갈 수 있도록. 그렇게 하도록 합시다

P: But you all are coming from different backgrounds. Some of you are in-service teachers. Many of your undergraduate [degrees] are not English education. Some may come for teaching certificate. With various backgrounds, and [your knowledge about the field] are similar. That's why, presenters, if I [you] don't know enough about this [what you present], or don't understand some terminology. Then



students [in this class] might feel the same. You need to bring *examples*, to help all of us understand. Let's do [the presentation] like that.

Example 2 from Day 3

P: Needs, needs analysis 이런 거/ 굉장히 보편적으로 많이 쓰이고 있는 terminology 고. 역시, 제가. 쓰고 있는 거의 모든 terminology는. 그 학부 때 배우는, 기본적으로 여러분들이/ 종합 시험에서 봐야하는 책들. 에 나온 내용이에요.

P: *Needs*, or *needs analysis* are terminology that are used a lot [in the field]. Likewise, almost all terminology that I use [in this class] is from undergraduate level training, in the texts that you need to read for the graduation exam.

Example 1 from Day 2

P: 요즘 중고등학교에서 뭐를 기본으로 한다:라고 해서 교육이 지침이 나와요. (3.7) 영어? (2) 그만 거에 관심이 없어? ((학생들 살짝 웃음)) (5.1) communicative language teaching method ((음: 하는 소리에 교수님 말소리 뒷부분이 안 들림)) 또. (4) 듣고 봤더니 그런 것 같애? () 또. 뭐가 있어.

P: What's suggested [by MOE] as a primary [teaching] approach for middle and high school these days. (3.7) English? (2) Not interested in such things at all? ((students giggles)) (5.1) [It's] communicative language teaching method. (Ss: Mum...) ((overlapped with Professor Lee's talk, inaudible)) What else. (4) Do you agree with it? () What else can you think of?

Example 2. Selected statements about teachers' use of English from the curriculum

1. 영어로 진행되는 영어 수업을 학생들의 언어 능력 수준에 맞게 점진적으로 확대한다. (p. 43, concerns, elementary)
- Increase the amount of class time taught in English gradually, considering students' language abilities.

[In the course] CLT as a recommended approach; teachers' use of English

[In the curriculum] Teaching English for communication; teaching English relevant and interesting; using English considering students' language abilities

Addressing national curriculum during teaching approaches from the MOE/administrative expectations to teachers and suggested teaching approaches from the curriculum

2. 수업을 영어로 진행할 때는 학생의 수준, 학습 내용의 특성 등을 고려하여 영어 사용량과 수준, 속도 등을 적절히 조절한다. (p. 44, concerns, middle school)

When teaching in English, adjust the complexity and pace of instruction properly, considering students' levels and the contents being taught.

3. 수업은 고급적 영어로 진행하되 학생의 수준을 고려하여 영어 사용량과 수준, 속도 등을 적절히 조절한다. (pp. 135, 140, 144, 149, 156, 163, concerns for advanced classes, high school)  
Teach in English as much as possible, and manage the use, complexity, and pace of English instruction with consideration of students' levels.

The list of codes for Professor Lee's was reviewed multiple times based on their topics and purposes. The initial rounds of analysis enabled me to indicate that Professor Lee emphasized knowledge development as a primary purpose of the course, sharing the same goal of English education with the curriculum: teaching English for communication. During the later coding phases, I investigated the meanings of these codes beyond what Professor Lee explicitly said in order to develop relationships among the codes and themes from them. In answering the first research question about Professor Lee's beliefs about English teaching in Korea, I found that the codes were clustered around knowledge development. The significant amount of codes about explaining and clarifying second language teaching theories revealed how the development of disciplinary and pedagogical knowledge was prioritized over discussing practices or contextualization with her students.

This table of codes assisted me to determine the three elements of her beliefs: knowing about English and English teaching theoretically and empirically, understanding teachers' desirable pedagogical behaviors, and developing analytic attitudes for further learning. In Chapter 5, the supporting data showed how much time Professor Lee allocated to different purposes in class, explanatory talks that were often expanded. I observed that some codes were informative and reflective at the same time, posing some overarching questions for students to think speculatively, for example, about their understanding of the role of English teachers or how to teach English equally to all students. This position of knowledge as a priori within one introductory course, in which Professor Lee was unable to explain everything, also explained her emphasis on establishing her students' attitudes toward self-directed learning to gain knowledge as needed after training. However, the priority on knowledge development did not indicate an absence of conversation about practices, contextualizing readings to the Korean English

education. Professor Lee occasionally modeled how to make relations between theory to teaching and learning, or how to contextualize research findings to specific settings, referring to her personal anecdotes.

Lastly, contextual challenges addressed external features that affected the class, including institutional characteristics and the larger context of the English education system in Korea. Salient constructs from Saldaña's (2016) dramaturgical coding (pp. 145-147) of six subcategories helped answer the second research question about the larger systems that affected Professor Lee's teaching and interactions with students in the course. In addition to addressing her objectives, the category for conflicts included codes related to the session's limited time or other aspects related to her students and the tactics she used to achieve her goals, and students' attitudes (Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2014; Saldaña, 2016). The fourth category about students' attitudes and feelings in the class analyzed what students said during personal interactions and semi-structured interviews, which included to support analysis of Professor Lee's teaching. Below are four categories with their relevant codes:

- Objectives: teaching about second language teaching methods, reading and relating research findings to teaching in Korea, students' motives for entering teacher training
- Conflicts: students' lack of related knowledge, tight schedule, a misunderstanding about students' prior (and sole) needs, such as to prepare for the teacher qualification exam
- Tactics of Professor Lee (to encourage effective learning and teaching): share personal learning strategies; provide frequent summaries; and make explicit connections between readings and practices with examples
- Attitudes of students: general respect for the professor's position and knowledge, feeling worried about Professor Lee's intense teaching style and high expectation, and anxious about being judged negatively by Professor Lee, feeling exhausted and overwhelmed with readings, presentations, and outside duties from their jobs and family

As I worked with the data, I kept all emerging codes and later filtered out those unrelated to my research questions about the teacher educator, including codes related to students for example, translating verbatim from the textbook into Korean during their presentations,

recognizing and correcting their mistakes on their own, asking questions, and making connections to their teaching contexts on their own. My focus on the teacher educator's beliefs further excluded investigating aspects of classroom interactions in this research, more than addressing types and topics. Therefore, I did not report types of students' mistakes and conflicts that Professor Lee's interventions stimulated (e.g., ignorance or rejection, & acceptance), their emotions expressed during and after the conflicts.

### **Validity**

Measures I took to ensure validity of my analysis valid included triangulation, thick description, member checking, and documentation of my data analysis procedures (Creswell, 2008; Merriam, 2009). I used a variety of data sources, such as classroom observations, field notes, interviews, and documents, to support the themes, maps of themes, and findings I identified. I used different sources of data for cross checking apparent discrepancies in the data set (Merriam, 2009). I discussed parts of observation notes with participants during interviews when necessary to clarify incompatible components. Last, my data analysis processes are documented and explained in this chapter.

### **Conclusion**

This chapter explained how I conducted this single qualitative case study to answer the research questions. It included details about the research setting, participants, and types of data collected. Data analysis process using thematic analysis was illustrated, with examples of codes, sub-codes, and excerpts from the curriculum and classroom observations. The following chapters report findings about administrative positions to English teaching from the national curriculum

for English education in South Korea (Chapter 4) and the teacher educator's beliefs about what pre-service English teachers should learn and how the beliefs are reflected in her teaching in a course about English teaching methods (Chapter 5). Lastly in Chapter 6, I provide discussion of the findings.

## **Chapter 4. An Analysis of the Curriculum: The Goal of English Education and Suggested Teaching Methods for Teachers**

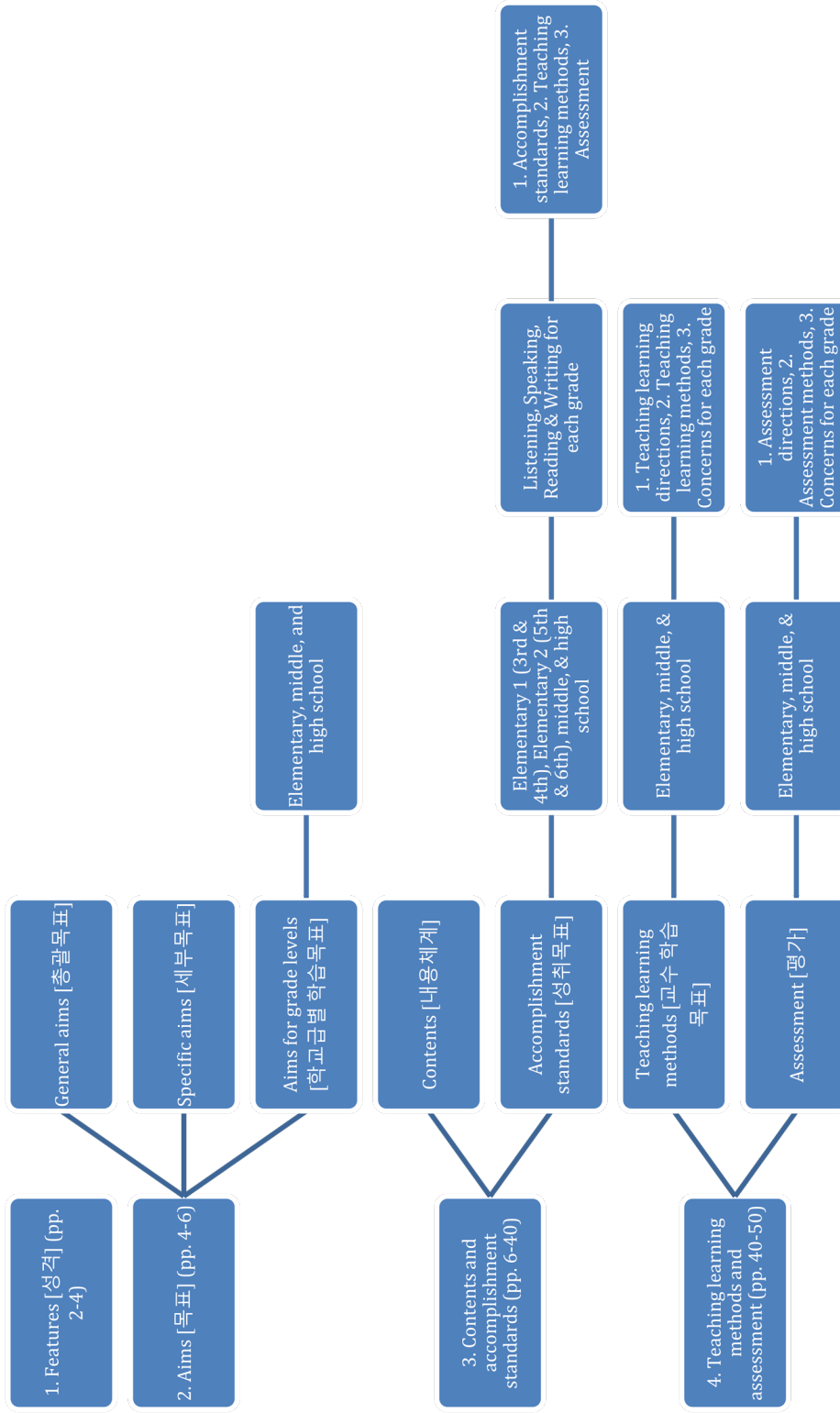
In this chapter I discuss how the goals of English education are defined in the Korean curriculum (2015) and the teaching approaches advocated for teachers based on the thematic analysis. First, I describe the structure of the English education curriculum, starting with its overarching 10-year goals of in Korea and a comprehensive definition of English as a content area with related assumptions. Then I discuss the expectations embedded in the curriculum proposed regarding teaching, classroom features and approaches for teachers to employ in each grade, followed by perspectives on teachers' use of English in classroom and traditional methods.

### **Structure of the Curriculum**

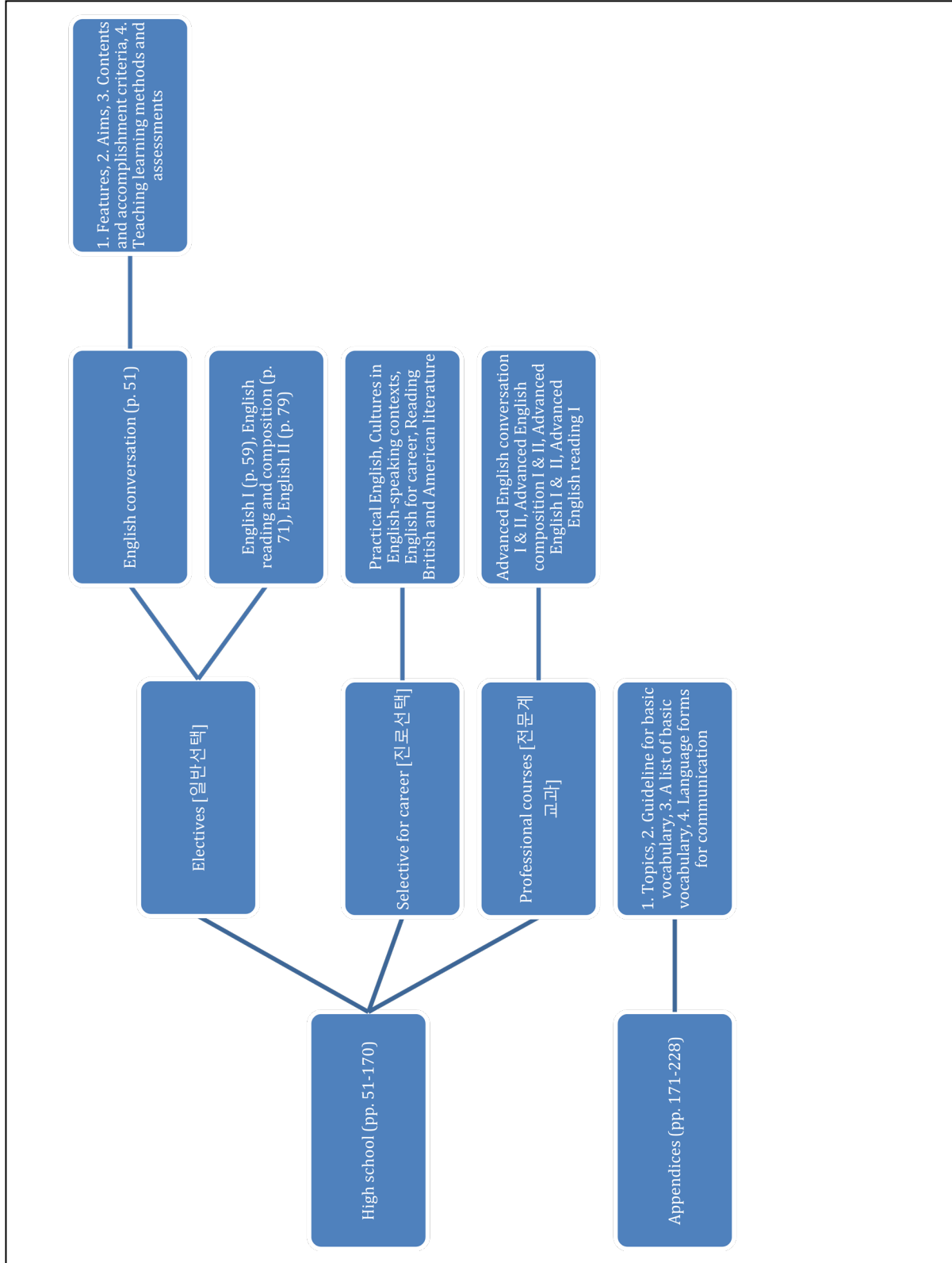
The 170-page curriculum for English education consisted of six major sections, of which the first four were 1. Features [성격], 2. Aims [목표], 3. Contents and accomplishment criteria [내용체계 및 성취기준], and 4. Teaching learning methods and assessment [교수 학습 방법 및 평가]. Except the part three, in which four levels are specified, two for elementary school as well middle school and high school, the rest of the curriculum is structured for three levels, elementary, middle, and high schools. Each elaborated accomplishment standards, teaching learning methods, and assessment for the four language skills. Figure 4.1 shows how the first four parts overlap, for example teaching learning methods and assessment appeared in both part three and four. The fifth part, pertaining to high school, not numbered, explained advanced courses such as electives, selective courses for careers, and professional courses. The curriculum concluded with the four appendices (58 pages) for 1. Topics [소재] (p. 171), 2. Guidelines for

**Figure 4.1**

*Curriculum Structure*







basic vocabulary [기본 어휘 관련 지침] (pp. 184-186), 3. A list of basic vocabulary [기본 어휘 목록] (pp. 187-217), and 4. Language forms for communication [의사소통에 필요한 언어 형식] (pp. 218-228). This chapter selectively presents relevant statements or sections from the curriculum, that show its perspectives toward developing learners' CC as a goal of English education in Korea, and its broad definition of CC. It also reports how the curriculum sets specific learning objectives for each grade level, and teaching approaches that it suggests for English teachers accordingly.

### **Purpose of English Education: Teaching for Communicative Competence (CC)**

The curriculum begins the document stating English as an accepted means of communication in the globalized world and information-based era. It supports justifying a need of learning how to “use” English for communication through school education, that is emphasized in the curriculum. Below Excerpt 2 shows how the curriculum introduced the aim of English education for CC and related competences from the first page.

Excerpt 2. Aim of English education from the curriculum<sup>6</sup> (Ministry of Education, 2015, p. 2)

세계인과 소통하며 그들의 문화를 알고 우리 문화 또한 확장시켜 나아갈 수 있도록 기초적인 영어 의사소통능력을 길러주는 것이 학교 영어교육의 기본목표이다. 이를 위하여 영어에 대한 흥미와 관심을 불러 넣어주고 이를 바탕으로 학습자가 주도적으로 영어 학습을 지속하게 해주는 것이 필요하다. (...) 이에 영어를 매개로 말이나 대화를 듣거나, 혹은 글을 읽고, 중심내용, 세부정보를 이해하고, 제시된 과제를 해결하는 능력, 자신의 의견이나 생각, 판단 등을 말이나 글로 표현하는 능력 함양이 초등학교에서 고등학교에 이르기까지 영어교과가 성취해야 할 목표이다.

The primary aim of English education in schools is to build foundational communicative competence in English, so [students] can communicate with people in the world understanding foreign cultures and expanding our culture. To do so it is important [for teachers] to motivate students, so they can continue learning English independently. (...) The aim of English education from elementary to high school is for students to achieve competence in listening and speech or conversation in English, comprehending major and

<sup>6</sup> In excerpts, I present original data in Korean first and translation in English. Translations were confirmed with two fluent speakers of Korean and English and one native speaker of English.

detailed information in texts, solving given tasks, and expressing their perspectives, thoughts, or decisions in oral and written forms.

The curriculum stated broadly that the purpose of English education was to develop students' CC in English, so they could interact with people in this globalized world. For this purpose, foundational skills for English communication meant capabilities in three broad areas, understanding conversations and texts in English, completing given tasks (unidentified here), and expressing one's own perspectives in written or oral forms. Teaching for these essential skills implied a perspective on English learning as a long-term process. Accordingly, English teachers' primary roles included motivating students and teaching strategies that they could use in and outside English classrooms, as well as teaching knowledge about English. At the same time, the curriculum stated an expectation about developing students' cultural knowledge through English education, both cultures of their own and of others. As a medium of global communication, "foreign cultures" of various interlocutors were not limited to those of English-speaking contexts. The statement about culture also implied an association between language and culture without explanation, drawing teachers' attention to a need to make cultural aspects clear to students in teaching.

In addition to the focus on teaching for CC in English, this introductory passage reflected the broader concept of competences that the curriculum set for English education, explained in detail later. Therefore what English teachers had to do included not only teaching essential language skills for communication, but also inspiring students for continued self-directed English learning to master advanced skills. These long-term goals, for example maintaining students' motivation were repeated in the rest of the curriculum, in recommendations for teaching practices, telling teachers to avoid contents, activities, or approaches that might lose students' interest or confidence in learning English (see Excerpt 4 about teaching CC for each grade level

below). However, an absence of explanations was also observed, regarding ways to achieve these primary expectations in English teaching, using the typical teaching materials like textbooks.

After Excerpt 2, the curriculum also pointed out being in an EFL setting as a major drawback of teaching for communication, calling for teachers' input in English and providing opportunities to use English in classroom as much as possible. This is related to an expectation about teachers' use of English in classroom, which is explained later in this chapter. However, ways to implement these suggestions did not follow.

### ***Assumption 1: English as a Means of Global Communication***

Before I present how the curriculum defined target competence for English education. It is important to mention three assumptions that Excerpt 2 represented: English as a means of communication, English education developing cultural knowledge, and English as a representation of foreign languages and cultures. First, the discussion of the curriculum was based on the premise of the status of English as the primary world language for communication. Accordingly the goal of English education was to prepare Korean English learners to be able to interact with people from diverse countries, not limited to those from English-speaking countries, as the phrase "people in the world" suggested. Although not explicitly stated, English as an accepted means of communication indicates linguistic and cultural varieties of interlocutors, regardless of their nationalities or primary languages. This perspective supports the curriculum's position toward why English education should teach English for communication.

### ***Assumption 2: English to Understand Cultural Diversity***

Second, the attention to international interactions in English involves another goal of being able to understand various cultures as stated in the first sentence in Excerpt 2. These expectations for teaching “foreign or various culture” may require further explanation and clarification for readers, as the curriculum only distinguishes two types of cultures: “various cultures of English speaking and non-English speaking settings [영어권 및 비영어권의 다양한 문화]” (p. 40) under teaching and learning methods without explanation. No information about these two groups was provided elsewhere in the curriculum. As reflected in the first assumption, these phrases support how the curriculum positioned English as a representation of foreign languages and cultures, and English as a medium of understanding various cultures in the world.

Evidence reflects these assumptions are observed in the following statement from suggested teaching and learning methods: “Plan teaching and learning activities that promote [students’] understanding of various English-speaking and non-English speaking cultures. [영어권 및 비영어권의 다양한 문화를 이해할 수 있는 교수·학습 활동을 구안한다.]” This exact same sentence was used 18 times in the curriculum, repeatedly under methods for English teaching in high school (e.g., p. 68, p. 76, p. 88, p. 99, etc.). Due to a lack of explanation about this suggestion, however, it could be hardly informative for teachers. It oversimplified differences across contexts that speak English as a primary or an official language or differences within the same country. In terms of teaching, this statement did not inform teachers about cultural aspects to teach and how to develop Korean learners’ cultural awareness of foreign cultures in English classroom. Therefore in the curriculum, there was no mention of which culture(s) teachers needed to represent to students, how to locate appropriate materials on different cultures if textbooks (the primary educational material in Korean educational setting) did not provide them, or what kinds of questions or activities could be used to teach cultural diversity.

## Comprehensive Notion of Competence and Lack of Explanation

Informed about assumptions above, this section provides how the curriculum defined competence in English education after Excerpt 2. Table 4.1 presents the four competences with brief definitions and related components for each competence that the curriculum expects to develop through English education. These competences as goals are emphasized in the curriculum, reflected in general aims, accomplishment standards, and suggestions for teaching.

**Table 4.1**

*Competences in English Education as Defined in the Curriculum [영어과 교과역량] (p. 3)*

| 교과역량 요소<br>Elements of subject<br>competence            | 의미<br>Description  | 하위요소<br>Specific elements   |
|---|--|---|
| 영어 의사소통 역량<br>Communicative<br>competence in<br>English | 일상생활 및 다양한 상황에서 영어로<br>의사소통 할 수 있는 역량<br>Ability to communicate in daily life<br>and various situations using English  | 영어 이해능력, 영어 표현능력<br>Ability to understand English, ability<br>to express in English   |
| 자기관리 역량<br>Self-management<br>competence                | 영어에 대한 흥미와 관심을 바탕으로<br>학습자가 주도적으로 영어 학습을 지속 할<br>수 있는 역량<br>Ability to continue self-directed<br>learning based on interest in English   | 영어에 대한 흥미, 영어 학습 동기, 영어<br>능력에 대한 자신감 유지, 학습전략, 자기<br>관리 및 평가<br>Interest in English, motivation for<br>learning English, maintaining<br>confidence in English competence,<br>learning strategies, self-management<br>and self-assessment |
| 공동체 역량<br>Community<br>competence                       | 지역·국가·세계 공동체의 구성원으로서의<br>가치와 태도를 바탕으로 공동체 문제 해결에<br>참여할 수 있는 능력<br>Ability to contribute to solving<br>community issues based on values and<br>attitudes of local, national, and global<br>communities | 배려와 관용, 대인관계 능력, 문화 정체성,<br>언어 및 문화적 다양성에 대한 이해 및 포용<br>능력<br>Empathy and generosity, interpersonal<br>abilities, cultural identities,<br>understanding and supportive attitudes<br>toward linguistic and cultural<br>diversities         |
| 지식정보처리 역량   | 지식 정보화 사회에서 영어로 표현된 정보를<br>적절하게 활용하는 역량.   | 정보 수집, 분석, 활용 능력, 정보 윤리,<br>다양한 매체 활용능력   |

|                                   |  |   |
|-----------------------------------|--|---|
| Information-processing competence | Ability to properly use information provided in English in the knowledge-information society | Abilities in gathering, analyzing, and utilizing information, information ethics, and abilities in using multimedia |
|-----------------------------------|--|---|

Table 4.1 shows the curriculum's wide-ranging conceptualization of competence in English, influenced by globalization and media development. In addition to being able to communicate in English and understand various cultures, in English classrooms students should acquire strategies to manage their own learning; to collaborate with community members to solve social issues at multiple levels; and to gather information from various sources and make good use of them. However, there was a noticeable absence of clarification of each competence, its associated elements or of implications of these items, which would be important for teachers to know. Communicating in English, the first competence, included the ability to understand and express oneself in English, also mentioned in Excerpt 2. Even with a lack of explanation near the table, readers could easily predict specifications of this competence from reading the curriculum. For example, a following table for language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) with detailed learning objectives, provided on pages 6-9 (see Tables 4.2 & 4.3 below), informed how the curriculum categorized skills for English communication. The curriculum structure also repeated these four elements of CC, explaining learning outcomes, and suggested teaching and learning methods for the four skills for each grade. Details of CC were then elaborated later in this chapter from page 91, after discussing broader competences as the curriculum described. The three competences besides CC were relatively less self-explanatory in the table and the document, with little or no direct relevance to English learning but alluded to the general educational goal of using English to develop skills in these areas. The curriculum related competence in self-management to learning English, but the focus was on acquiring effective learning strategies for students' continuous learning broadly. Maintaining students' interests in

English learning was repeated as a primary goal in suggestions for providing opportunities for practice, using familiar topics that were meaningful and interesting to students. Teachers were also told to include references to students' personal lives such as family, school and friends, hobbies, leisure, traveling, and health, or to natural phenomena in an appendix to the curriculum (p. 171) (see Appendix A for a complete list). Besides these suggestions, various skills for learning, self-management, and self-assessment that students should develop in English classrooms were not explained in the curriculum.

Likewise, the brief descriptions and elements for the last two competences could confuse readers as the relevance of community and information-processing to their English teaching was unclear. In the table, the explanation of community competence emphasized problem-solving and possible collaborations with other community members on social, national, and international issues. To have a sense of possible community issues, readers had to refer to the same list in the appendix. The list was no more informative than offering general topics such as environmental concerns, human rights, gender equality, and democratic awareness. Except for some recommendations for effective collaboration among students, such as respecting the diverse experiences and perspectives of community members, it was left to readers to decide the scope of the community or themes for their students, and details about how to develop students' community competence in their classrooms, and what skills to promote and how. Readers may also have questions about the subordinating elements for the competence, how they could teach for students' attitudes, interpersonal skills, or cultural identities in addition to cultural and linguistic varieties. Without further explanation, these three skills are merely reiterated in the curriculum, for example in assisting students' English learning, and developing students' abilities to understand their interlocutors' diverse cultures and express their own (Excerpt 2).



The last competence about information processing was least clear regarding its relevance and its implication for English teaching. In its description, the curriculum limited information written in English, being able to find, analyze, and use the information for various purposes. However, types of information, where to find it, or purposes of collecting information in another language were not explained. When the curriculum stated ICT or multimedia elsewhere, they were associated with the second competence, eliciting students' interests, not as a respective competence. What it recommended for teachers was to adopt various educational media as in the following sentence: "Although students in elementary school learn quickly, [teachers need to] utilize various teaching/learning methods, multimedia materials, and educational mediums like ICT, considering their memories do not last and the period of time they could focus is short. [또한 초등학교 학생은 쉽게 배우지만 기억이 오래가지 못하고 집중하는 시간이 짧기 때문에 학생들의 흥미와 관심을 끌 수 있도록 다양한 교수학습 방법을 적용하며, 멀티미디어 자료와 정보 통신 기술(ICT) 도구 같은 교육 매체를 적절히 활용하도록 한다.]" (p. 3). The second part of the elements included learning about ethical issues of collecting and consuming information from various sources which needed explanation about what these elements meant and how to teach them in English classrooms.

### ***Assumption 3: English as a Primary Foreign Language***

Additionally, inclusion of linguistic and cultural diversities as well as knowing one's own cultural identity under the communicative competence implied how the curriculum framed Korea as a member of a world community beyond the nation, sharing English as a medium for communication and collaboration. At the same time, the use of the general term "language" might signify foreign languages overall, not just "English," a reminder that English is the

primary medium of global communication. The same assumption applies to the use of the term “culture,” which signifies various cultures in comparison to the Korean culture. This assumption about English as the default foreign language and culture appeared consistently in the curriculum. For example the last competence regarding handling information in Table 4.1, the scope of information refers to that is available in English, but not limited to information about English or English-speaking cultures. As a medium, English is expected to broaden Korean English learners’ understanding and supportive attitudes towards diversity in the world. This assumption, English as a representative of foreign languages and cultures is observed throughout the curriculum.

### **Teaching for Communicative Competence based on the Four Competences**

These four competences and associated elements influenced the following sections for [learning] Aims (pp. 4-6) and Contents and Accomplishment Criteria (pp. 6-50) for four different grade levels from the third and fourth grades in elementary to high school. Excerpt 3 from the beginning of Aims section shows how the curriculum lists five items as overarching learning goals of English education, reflecting Table 4.1.

Excerpt 3. Introduction to aims of English education in the curriculum (p. 4)

이에 따라 ① 영어로 듣기, 말하기, 읽기, 쓰기 능력의 습득을 통한 기초적인 의사소통 능력을 기르는 것, ② 영어 기초학습능력, ③ 평생교육으로서의 영어에 대한 흥미와 동기 및 자신감 유지시키는 것, ④ 국제 사회문화 이해, 다문화이해, 국제 사회 이해 능력과 태도를 기르는 것, ⑤ ICT 활용 능력 및 정보 문해력 등을 포함하여 정보 진위 및 가치 판단 능력을 기르는 것을 영어교육의 목표로 삼는다.

Therefore English education aims at (1) acquiring foundational communicative competence through listening, speaking, reading, and writing abilities; (2) developing basic English learning abilities; (3) maintaining interest in and motivation for continuing to learn English; (4) understanding the global society and culture as well as diverse cultures; and (5) enhancing the abilities to evaluate trustworthiness, understand information, and know its value, including the ability to use information and communications technology (ICT).

The list in Excerpt 3 comes after the sentence repeating the goal of English education from elementary to high school, as being able to communicate students' thinking in written and verbal forms and to solve given tasks using available information. The first item from the list specified developing students' four language skills in English, implying the curricular perspective to the skills as primary components of CC. The perspective also provided the structure of the curriculum, categorizing accomplishment standards for each CC skill for each grade level. For example, the following section, "Learning components for each grade level" (reproduced in Tables 4.2 & 4.3), consisted of details for Accomplishment Criteria, Teaching/learning Methods, and Assessing respectively for listening, speaking, reading, and writing at each of the four grade levels. The second, self-managing competence was reflected in the items two and three, about teaching English for students to acquire the learning skills and to maintain their interest for lifelong English learning. The emphasis on acquiring basic English skills was associated with one of the major suggestions for teaching (see Excerpt 5 later), maintaining students' interests through manageable and interesting activities, so that they could pursue learning more advanced language skills as well as competences in the fourth and fifth items. The fourth item was about students' community competence, as indicated in phrases like understanding "diverse cultures" and "global society," and "learning about foreign cultures." The last item illustrated the competences for information processing, as abilities to find legitimate information from various sources and use it appropriately. As they do not specify English, the last two items are not limited to learning English-speaking cultures or using information available in English, but apply generally to developing desirable attitudes toward diversity and information usage. The lack of immediate relevance to English education and possibilities of readers' various interpretation of these purposes, requires more information about how to

implement them. However, this chapter shows how the curriculum did not inform about raising students' sensitivity to cultural diversity beyond English-speaking contexts and to ethical use of information.

So far, this chapter has dealt with how the curriculum broadly defined competences for English education in Korea and three related assumptions supporting the need of teaching for communication in the globalized world. However, a lack of explanation about the competences except CC and assumptions was observed. Informed by these patterns, the rest of the chapter reports two major sections regarding teaching practices, first, the meaning of CC in English and learning objectives proposed for each grade level, and second, related implications provided for teachers in order to accomplish the objectives.

### **The Breakdown of Communicative Competence**

In the beginning of the document, the curriculum represented four language skills for CC. It reiterated again on page 9 after the comprehensive table about learning objectives for the skills and culture (see Tables 4.2 & 4.3 below). Broadly CC consisted of spoken and written forms of language and their respective sub-components, listening and speaking for spoken, and reading and writing for written language. The sub-components reflected two language functions [언어 기능], comprehension (listening and reading) and expression (speaking and writing), that the curriculum emphasized as needed for communication. However, the inclusion of culture as one of areas for CC was not elaborated in this section. Elements for each skill for each grade level were elaborated in an extensive table that is reproduced in part in Tables 4.2 and 4.3.

**Table 4.2**

| Language skills  | Listening   | Speaking   | Reading   | Writing  | Culture   |
|------------------|---|--|---|--|---|
| Primary elements | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>·Sounds</li> <li>·Vocabulary and sentences</li> <li>·Detailed information</li> <li>·Key information</li> <li>·Context</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>·Sounds</li> <li>·Vocabulary and sentences</li> <li>·Discourse</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>·Spelling</li> <li>·Vocabulary and sentences</li> <li>·Detailed information</li> <li>·Key information</li> <li>·Context</li> <li>·Implied meaning</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>·Spelling</li> <li>·Vocabulary and phrases</li> <li>·Sentences</li> <li>·Composition</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>·Cultural diversity</li> </ul> |

Table 4.2 shows how the curriculum assigned learning elements for the five areas of language skills, which are elaborated for each grade level in Table 4.3. The curriculum defined the first skill, listening, involving abilities to recognize sounds, stress, rhythm, and intonation of words, and sentences. Listening also required abilities to understand both main and detailed information of conversation, and contexts. As the table shows, the abilities to recognize and speak word-, phrase-, and sentence-level language were common to all language skills except culture; however, inclusion and exclusion of the rest of the elements in the table were inconsistent and questionable. For example, the elements of listening looked like those of reading, probably as both are receptive skills and involve being able to comprehend information from given sources, while being able to understand what is between the lines or draw inferences was addressed only for reading.

Uncertainty of the rationale for selecting elements was also observed in the spelling component for reading (p. 7), which was elaborated as the ability to understand the relation between sounds and spelling. The same knowledge was also necessary to pronounce and write language correctly, but not included for speaking and writing. Instead, sounds for speaking only described as imitating, and speak words, phrases, and sentences for the second element vocabulary and sentences. Likewise, describing spelling in elementary school only as the skill

for reading was questionable, recognizing lower- and upper-case letters, and understanding the relation between sounds and spelling were applicable to effective listening and speaking. For the same reason, assigning “stress, rhythm, and intonation of sentences” as part of reading for 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> graders in elementary may confuse readers about target language skills. This may reflect how four language skills are intertwined, however, such perspective needed to be clarified. With this inconsistent element assignments, the table provided a limited, or incorrect representation of that sub-competence. Finally, related information about materials (or topics), target vocabulary and language forms had to be found in a following table about Language Materials [언어 재료] (p. 9). Readers have to consult Appendices to find what they are, as the curriculum directed in the table saying “Consult ‘communicative functions and example sentences’ in Appendix 2 [별표 2]에 제시된 ‘의사소통 기능과 예시문’ 참조]” Last, explanation of cultural diversity as a respective language skill was vague or unclear in such descriptors as understanding cultural aspects of English expressions or differences across cultures (p. 8) in the table, despite the significance accorded to culture as the curriculum highlighted from the beginning. These limited or absent details of the primary language skills and their constituent elements could be confusing, and may not obtain readers’ agreements about described skills and learning objectives.

### **Target Elements for Each Grade Informed by CC**

Below Table 4.3 illustrates how the curriculum sets learning contents for each grade level, for two of primary elements from Table 4.2 as examples: discourse for speaking and context for reading. The primary elements for each row are indicated in the first column, with a label “content” that described meaning of the target element. Then following columns represent development of key components for learning contents over the four grade levels in the

curriculum, showing how each level builds upon components from previous levels. The last column presents one or two specific language functions that students are expected to practice while learning about discourse and context (in the first column for content).

**Table 4.3**

*Learning Components for Discourse in Speaking and Context in Reading (pp. 6-8)*

| Primary elements - content [내용]                           | Key [learning] contents for each level [학교급 별 주요 내용 요소] |  |   | Function [기능]  |                             |
|---|---|--|---|--|-----------------------------|
|   | Elementary [초등]   |  | Middle [중등]   |  | High [고등]                   |
|   | 3-4 <sup>th</sup> grade                                 | 5-6 <sup>th</sup> grade  |   |  |                             |
| 1. Speaking-Discourse-To deliver meaning (p. 7)           | ·Self-introduction<br>·Instruction, explanation         | ·Self-introduction<br>·Instruction, explanation<br>·Nearby people, objects<br>·Surrounding locations, places | ·Objects, people<br>·Places<br>·Opinion, feelings<br>·Pictures, photographs<br>·Graphs<br>·Methods, procedure<br>·Self-introduction                       | ·Objects, people<br>·Places<br>·Opinions, feelings<br>·Pictures, photographs<br>·Graphs<br>·Methods, procedure<br>·Self-introduction<br>·Topics, main idea | To explain<br>To express    |
| 2. Reading-Context-To understand logical relations (p. 8) | (Does not apply)  | (Does not apply)   | ·Order of events, causal/causative relations<br>·Causes and consequences of events<br>·Intentions, purposes of writers<br>·Feelings, attitudes of writers | ·Order of events, causal/causative relations<br>·Causes and consequences of events<br>·Intentions, purposes of writers<br>·Feelings, attitudes of writers  | To understand<br>To predict |

Table 4.3 includes the first of two sub skills of discourse, for speaking. To be able to deliver and to exchange meanings (content), students were to practice how to explain and how to express given topics (function). According to the table, students first learn expressing themselves in elementary school, including a self-introduction. The following contents, instruction and

explanation, were less clear about their relation to speaking practices and required readers' interpretation. It may involve listening aspects on an students' end, getting used to teachers' talk in English first, as students were unlikely expected to give instruction or explanation in English when they first learned English in elementary school. With exposure to English patterns for instruction and explanation, then students could produce them later in elementary school. For the higher level of teaching how to deliver meaning, the table provides some topics for each grade, from talking about simple and familiar topics (e.g., people, objects, locations, and places around) to explaining more general and complicated aspects (e.g., feelings and thoughts, ways of thinking, procedure, or summarizing main ideas).

The same pattern of practice speaking about simple to complicated topics is observed in the second example about teaching contexts as part of reading. This content was selected to show how the curriculum assigned "does not apply" for advanced skills in the elementary level, such as "understanding logical relations in readings" (content). It is a complex component that teachers should teach after students learned essential skills for reading in elementary grades, for example understanding sounds and spelling relations that were assigned for the elementary level only. Therefore context was not prioritized until students learned how to spell and comprehend meanings of words, phrases, and sentences as preparation for reading longer texts in middle school. Being able to read long texts, students could practice the given learning elements, such as telling order of events, causal relations, and author's intention of writing. For the components repeated across multiple grade levels, for example self-introductions for speaking and content for reading context, the curriculum explained that teachers could use advanced vocabulary, materials, or language forms (p. 8) for higher levels. Students in middle school were expected to describe people, objects, or places more generally after they had practiced speaking about what



they were familiar with in elementary school. As with reading context, Table 4.2 shows reiterated components for both middle and high school levels. The expectation for teachers, again, was to adjust the level of difficulty in their materials.

These tables provided an overview of learning objectives for language skills for each grade level, reflecting the four competences for English education. The contents were developed gradually upon previous elements, with intended language functions that the curriculum elaborated in the rest of its section about Contents and Accomplishment Standards. At the same time, the table showed ambiguity in the curriculum, regarding its criteria to set details of objectives, without providing definition or explanation for practices yet. This section also confirmed the significant repetition observed in the curriculum that required readers' interpretation, checking external resources, or supports from teacher training.

### ***Teaching for Communicative Competence in Different Grade Levels***

Informed by the detailed elements, this section revisits the beginning of the curriculum, to see how the curriculum explained developing CC as the goal of English education for elementary, middle, and high schools respectively. Parts related to the first competence from pages 3 to 4, CC in English for three grade levels are presented below.

Excerpt 4. Communication competence component in general descriptions for English education in the curriculum

#### 4.1. English education in elementary school (p. 3)

초등학교 영어는 일상생활에서 사용하는 기초적인 영어를 이해하고 표현하는 능력을 길러 주는 교과로서, 음성언어를 중심으로 한 의사소통이 바탕이 되는 언어 기능 교육에 중점을 둔다. 문자 언어 교육은 쉽고 간단한 내용의 글을 읽고 쓸 수 있는 내용으로 하되, 음성 언어와 연계하여 내용을 구성한다. (...)

English in elementary school is a subject that enhances [students'] abilities to understand and express basic English used in daily lives, and focuses on teaching language functions of sounds that are necessary to communication. Written language education should be about reading and writing easy and simple contents, in relation to sounds.

#### 4.2. English education in middle school (p. 3)

중학교 영어는 단일한 학년군으로 편성하고, 초등학교에서 배운 영어를 토대로 하여 학생들이 기본적인 일상 영어를 이해하고 이를 사용할 수 있는 능력을 기름으로써 외국의 문화를 이해하고, 고등학교의 선택 교육과정 이수에 필요한 기본 영어능력을 배양시키는 데 역점을 둔다. (...)

English instruction in middle school as a single level develops students' abilities to understand and use English in daily life based on what they have learned in elementary school, so they can understand foreign [English speaking] cultures and achieve necessary competence in English to take selective courses in high school.

#### 4.3. English education in high school (p. pp. 3-4)

공통과목을 포함한 선택 과목으로서의 고등학교 영어 교과는 영어로 의사소통할 수 있는 능력을 길러서 학생 각자의 지적 역량이나 지식을 넓혀 주고, 미래의 주역으로서 시대적 변화에 능동적으로 대처할 수 있는 역량을 마련하기 위한 교과이다.

고등학교 영어는 학생들이 초·중학교에서 학습한 내용을 기반으로 영어를 이해하고 사용하는 능력을 길러 각 분야의 연구와 실무에 적극적으로 활용할 수 있도록 도와주며, 우리 문화를 외국인들에게 효과적으로 소개할 수 있는 능력을 배양하는 데 중점을 둔다. (...)

English in high school, including the introductory course, is a subject in which [students] achieve sufficient competence to communicate in English, to use it to expand students' intellectual abilities and knowledge, and to achieve the flexibility to deal with [social] changes as prospective leaders.

Based on what students learn in elementary and middle schools, English in high school establishes [students'] abilities to understand and use English, so [they] can utilize it for learning and application in different disciplines, and for introducing our culture to foreigners effectively.

According to the curriculum, officially students in South Korea begin to learn English in the third grade in elementary school. Assuming that this is students' initial exposure to a new language, the focus at the elementary level is on introducing English and developing literacy foundations for communication in English, with a particular emphasis on sounds and basic language functions. Learning written English is included, but the curriculum encourages teachers to associate written forms with sounds to keep reading and writing simple and manageable for young learners. In the rest of the description, the curriculum told (teachers) to use various learning activities such as songs, games, or plays, that could make learning enjoyable. Regarding language forms for communication, Appendix 4 of the curriculum provides 11 pages of

sentences written using target language structures. For example, “The water is very important for life,” was for elementary grades; “I couldn’t hear a sound,” for middle school; and “The Chinese drink tea a lot,” for high school, without explanation or attention drawn to grammatical aspects in given sentences.

Teaching basic literacy skills in English are emphasized throughout middle school, as shown in phrases like “use of basic English,” “basic communication,” and “foundational English skills.” With the foundational knowledge, students could practice using English for daily purposes. Until middle school, the curriculum described English education more relevant to personal aspects, less academic. It encourages student-centered and task-based English classrooms, that students could practice speaking English. Therefore the completion of middle school English education should prepare developing skills for various other purposes, such as students’ individual knowledge development, beyond English learning. Selective courses in high school were considered as preparation for disciplinary and professional learning in post-secondary education. However, the curriculum first stated “being able to communicate in English” for high school English education, that could be used for students’ further education regardless of their disciplines. This reflected that the curriculum emphasized the functional role of English across fields.

Brief descriptions for grade levels show the focus on communicative competence and how it develops from basic to advanced skills for various purposes over years. Changes in expectations from elementary to high school align with the elements addressed in Tables 4.2 and 4.3; however, in descriptions communication is not defined or associated with particular language skills, but generally referenced. These descriptions also represented some teaching

approaches that the curriculum promoted, illustrated in detail later in this chapter under Teaching Approaches and Methods for CC.

### ***Learning Objectives in Accomplishment Standards***

Here Excerpt 5 shows seven learning objectives for speaking in elementary school that the curriculum presented under the section for primary accomplishment standards and learning components [주요 성취기준 해설 및 학습 요소]. As defined competence consisted of four language skills, the curriculum provided a list of accomplishment standards for teaching each skill, in the order of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, for all four grade levels.

Excerpt 5. Accomplishment standards for speaking, 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> grade level in elementary school (p. 13)

- <성취기준 1> 알파벳과 낱말의 소리를 듣고 따라 말할 수 있다.
  - <성취기준 2> 영어의 강세, 리듬, 억양에 맞게 따라 말할 수 있다.
  - <성취기준 3> 그림, 실물, 동작에 관해 쉽고 간단한 낱말이나 어구, 문장으로 표현할 수 있다.
  - <성취기준 4> 한두 문장으로 자기소개를 할 수 있다.
  - <성취기준 5> 한두 문장으로 지시하거나 설명을 할 수 있다.
  - <성취기준 6> 쉽고 간단한 인사말을 주고받을 수 있다.
  - <성취기준 7> 일상생활 속의 친숙한 주제에 관해 쉽고 간단한 표현으로 묻거나 답할 수 있다.
- <1> Being able to listen and repeat sounds of alphabet and words.
  - <2> Being able to repeat English with correct stress, rhythm, and intonation.
  - <3> Being able to describe images, objects, and behaviors in simple words, phrases, or sentences.
  - <4> Being able to introduce self in one or two sentences.
  - <5> Being able to make command or explain in one or two sentences.
  - <6> Being able to exchange easy and simple greeting.
  - <7> Being able to ask and answer [questions] about familiar topics from daily life, using easy and simple expressions.

This list provides a breakdown of four functions to practice for speaking activities in elementary students: to imitate, to express, to explain, and to apply. The first and second items are restricted to imitating sounds of alphabet and repeating words with correct accent, corresponding to emphasis on teaching for sounds for elementary level (Excerpt 4.1). Students

can then practice speaking words, phrases, and one or two sentences about familiar topics, sometimes accompanied by physical movements (item 3). When they can speak simple sentences to greet and introduce themselves (item 4 & 6), and have become used to expressions in the teacher's instruction (item 5), the teacher can introduce activities in which they speak English for other purposes. Such activities included asking and answering questions about daily topics (item 7), having conversations about different people, finding locations, or describing personal experiences in middle school as addressed in Table 4.2 (also in pp. 30-31), or giving summaries or exchange thoughts with interlocutors in high school (pp. 36-37).

The curriculum also provides guidelines for lengths of sentences at each level (p. 10), e.g., no more than seven words for third and fourth graders, and nine words for fifth and sixth graders in one sentence. The same key learning components were tweaked in lists for other skills at the same grade levels, for example being able to "listen" and understand meanings of easy and familiar expressions (p. 11), being able to "read" and understand meanings of and simple sentences (p. 16), and being able to "write" after words or phrases learned verbally (p. 18). The same patterns were reiterated in lists of more complicated accomplishment criteria for higher levels, being able to pick up details after listening conversations (p. 29) and reading materials about "familiar general topics"<sup>7</sup> (p. 32) or being able to ask and answer about personal experiences or plans (p. 31), and write briefly about themselves, others, or daily life (p. 34) in middle school.

## **Teaching Approaches and Methods for Communicative Competence**

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<sup>7</sup> I used two adjectives without any conjunction, to best represent the way the curriculum used the terms. The same pattern was observed commonly in phrases, teaching learning approaches or teaching learning methods.

MOE's expectations for English education were not only to facilitate students' CC in English with cultural understanding of English-speaking contexts, but also to emphasize knowing more about foreign languages and cultural diversity, and being prepared for self-directed learning and collaboration with community members. In descriptions of learning aims of CC, the data showed some general suggestions for teaching as well, such as using topics that students found interesting and relevant to themselves in order to elicit their participation in discussions. Given these purposes in mind, this part presents how the curriculum clarified teaching approaches and methods for English teachers, paying attention to how it provided practical ideas to achieve stated goals above. Excerpts are mainly selected from parts three and four (see Figure 4.1) of the curriculum, which both include subchapters entitled "Teaching Learning Methods" and "Assessment." Here, although the curriculum tends to provide more details for elementary teaching and fewer for higher levels, I provide Excerpts about teaching instruction for middle school for three reasons. First, in middle school English classrooms an educational culture is established that is less affected by young students' developmental features or by high schoolers' standardized exam requirements. Second, providing Excerpts from various levels can represent the curriculum more fairly than using evidence from the same level repeatedly. Last, the pre-service teacher training course in which I collected data primarily served secondary level teachers, so not all suggestions for elementary level were relevant to the context. Only one of seven students in the classroom was teaching in elementary school, one was teaching in high school, and at least three were preparing teaching for the middle school level.

***No One Best Method: Create a Participatory and Enjoyable Learning Environment***

On earlier pages that introduced features and aims for each grade level, the curriculum provides a few pedagogical expectations. Some of these are represented in Excerpt 3 above, in which teachers are told to choose teaching methods appropriate to students' affective and cognitive development. For example, activities in elementary school could involve physical movements, like acting in plays, as young children are highly curious but can concentrate for only short periods. Adopting various activities, songs, chants, or games based-on multimedia resources or information and communication technology (ICT) were also expected to hold students' attention and make English learning enjoyable for them. Another important expectation was to offer participatory activities in which students could practice speaking English [영어가 발화되는 수업] (p. 4) for communication. However, the curriculum did not promote particular methods, such as communicative language teaching. Instead, the curriculum told desirable features of effective English learning environments, that are elaborated below. The only method stated in these descriptions was task- or activity-based teaching approaches [과제 혹은 활동 중심의 교수 학습 방법] (p. 4). These suggestions were reflected in the following three lists for teaching learning methods from part four about teaching methods.

### ***Directions for Teaching: Student-Centered and Tasked-Based Approaches***

The curriculum provides three lists for general suggestions for teaching, teaching methods, and related concerns in the order of elementary, middle, and high schools. The section four "Teaching/Learning Methods and Assessment" is supposed to provide detailed information about English teaching approaches and methods for teachers. I included all three lists for English teaching in middle school together in the same way they are presented in the curriculum, to show

to what extent the curriculum explained the classroom implications of what it claimed earlier. From the first list for suggestions (Excerpt 6.1), general statements like “(a) Review learning objectives based on the curriculum” or “(b) Plan lessons according to the standards for accomplishments” were excluded, as they were not related to English teaching or repeated from the above. Three complete lists for Excerpt 6 are available in Appendix B.

Excerpt 6. Suggested teaching learning approaches for middle school (p. 43)

6.1. 교수·학습 방향 [Teaching/Learning approaches]

- (다) 영어 학습에 대한 학생들의 동기를 유발하고, 흥미와 자신감을 유지할 수 있도록 교수·학습 계획을 수립한다.
- (라) 학생들의 영어 사용 능력 및 인지적, 정의적 특성에 있어서의 개인차를 함께 고려한 교수·학습 계획을 수립한다.
- (마) 학생 중심의 과업 및 체험 학습을 통해 자기 주도적 학습이 이루어지도록 교수·학습 계획을 수립한다.
- (바) 의사소통역량, 자기관리역량, 공동체역량, 지식정보처리역량이 구현되도록 교수·학습 계획을 수립한다.
- (c) Plan teaching and learning to maintain students’ interests and confidence in English.
- (d) Plan teaching and learning appropriate to students’ individual English abilities, and cognitive and affective development.
- (e) Plan teaching and learning to encourage self-directed learning, through student-centered tasks or field-trips and other activities.
- (f) Plan teaching and learning to promote [students’] competences in communication, self-management, community, and information-processing.

Six suggestions for teaching and learning were consistent with the essential features and general aims of English education, not necessarily practical as shown in the four items in Excerpt 6.1. The list suggests motivating students, maintaining their interest, and building their confidence in English learning informed by one area of competence for self-management (Table 4.1). The three of four items (c, e & f) call for considering higher learning aims in lesson planning for English classroom, without offering any new suggestions for practices than general descriptions provided earlier. Regarding recommendations for teaching, the list made two new recommendations: taking students’ various capabilities in English and personal characteristics



into account (d) and using tasks or activities that foster students' active learning (e). First, differences in students' abilities in using English could be easily interpreted without explanations. For example, teachers have to keep in mind that students can be more or less knowledgeable in English. However, various cognitive and affective features that could affect effective English learning were rather ambiguous in the curriculum and need further explanation, than young students' curiosity and limited attention span, or students' different learning paces. Readers who were not familiar with educational psychology had to seek more information about students' possible developmental features outside the curriculum, particularly those of secondary students, as the curriculum significantly lacks explanation about students' differences except for their competences in English. Second, readers may question about implications of (d) and (e) for typical classrooms in Korean educational settings, in which one teacher had more than 30 students with various levels of knowledge. More explanation about creating student-centered classroom was in need, given reported teachers' challenges with managing students' resistance to communicative activities as secondary, in addition to their lack of proficiency and willingness to participate in classroom activities. The curricular expectation about adopting student-centered and task-based teaching and experiential learning is the positive impacts of those approaches on students' autonomous English learning. Excerpt 6.1 shows how the curriculum provided general directions for teaching, in accordance with the four competences that it introduced earlier.

### ***Meaningfully Communicative, Integrative, Collaborative, and Participatory Teaching***

#### ***Methods***

Below Excerpts 6.2 for teaching and learning methods, and 6.3 for concerns related to teaching are presented together based on their relevance to each other. Ideally, these lists need to

provide explanation about teaching strategies, about ways to achieve the learning objectives (or accomplishment standards) that the curriculum prescribed earlier. However, similarities and repetitions across three lists question an ambiguity in the curriculum, why it has to provide three lists that looked alike without further elaboration for implementation. For unknown reasons, the curriculum provided respective lists for six areas (listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary and language forms, and culture) under the section for teaching and learning methods in elementary school, while it had one comprehensive list for all language skills in sections for middle and high school.

#### 6.2. 교수·학습 방법 [Methods for teaching/learning] (pp. 43-44)

- (나) 학생들의 실제 언어 사용능력을 배양할 수 있는 교수·학습 방법을 고려한다.
- (다) 학생의 영어사용능력, 인지적·정의적 특성, 학습유형 및 전략 등을 고려하여 다양한 학생 중심의 교수·학습 방법을 선정한다.
- (라) 단일 언어 기능에 대한 교수·학습 방법뿐만 아니라 두 가지 이상의 언어기능을 연계하는 교수·학습 방법을 선정함으로써 실제적이고 통합적인 영어사용능력을 신장하도록 한다.
- (마) 학생 간 활발한 상호작용을 유도할 수 있는 모둠별 협동·협력 학습을 적절히 활용한다.
- (바) 학생들이 협력하여 과제를 해결하는 경험을 많이 가지도록 유도하고, 타인에 대한 배려와 나눔의 실천 등 인성교육을 강화할 수 있는 방법도 고려하여 선정한다.
- (b) Consider approaches that could develop students' actual language use abilities.<sup>8</sup>
- (c) Choose various **student-centered approaches**, taking **students' language abilities, cognitive and affective features**, and learning strategies into consideration.
- (d) Develop practical and integrative English learning abilities by employing approaches involving more than two language skills as well as those for single skill.
- (e) Use **collaborative group work** to encourage **active interactions** among students.
- (f) Foster **students' experiences in collaborative task-solving** as much as possible, and include methods for character education, such as developing generous and sharing attitudes to others.

#### 6.3. 유의 사항 [Concerns] (p. 44)

- (가) 학생들이 학습목표에 도달하도록 학생들의 능력이나 수준 등을 고려하여 다양한 학습의 기회와 방법을 제공한다.
- (나) 교사 중심의 활동보다는 교사와 학생, 학생과 학생 간 상호작용이 활발히 일어나도록 한다.
- (다) 게임 및 역할놀이 등의 활동 중심 수업에서는 흥미 유발과 함께 언어 학습이 활발히 이루어질 수 있도록 한다.

<sup>8</sup> I added emphasis to highlight key terms repeated across the three lists in Excerpts 6.1, 6.2 and 6.3.

- (라) 다양한 모둠별 협동·협력학습을 통하여 학생들이 과업을 수행해 나가면서 영어 의사소통 활동에 많이 참여할 수 있도록 한다.
- (마) 개별 학습 및 모둠 학습을 적절히 활용하여 자기 주도적 학습 태도와 나눔과 배려의 공동체 의식도 기를 수 있도록 지도한다.
- (사) 학생의 개인차 등을 고려하여, 수준별 지도를 실시한다.
- (a) Offer various learning opportunities and methods for students to accomplish learning objectives, taking into account **their abilities and levels**.
- (b) Encourage **active interaction** between teacher and students, and among students, instead of teacher-centered activities.
- (c) Provide **activity-based** classes using games or role-plays to motivate students and engage them in active language learning.
- (d) Help students to participate in **group collaborative communicative activities in English**.
- (e) Develop positive attitudes toward **self-directed learning**, sharing, and respectful community membership using individual and group learning activities appropriately.
- (g) Teach in accordance with **students' individual differences**.

In these lists, the curriculum once again reiterated its purposes of English education and a few key words that had been said in Excerpt 6.1. First, three of the target competences (Table 4.1) were reflected in both lists: enhancing students' communicative competence (6.2.b, 6.2.c, 6.2.d & 6.3.d), self-managing strategies for learning (6.3.e), and attitudes as community members (6.2.e, 6.2.f, 6.2.g, 6.3.d & 6.3.e). In particular, a focus on students' character education (6.2.f & 6.3.e) and their awareness of cultural diversity (6.2.g) stood out. Second, the lists provided a few more suggestions for practices, creating communicative, interactive, and collaborative activities than the general directions list in Excerpt 6.1 or the introductory descriptions above. It is important to note that the exact same statements for these aspects were included under general suggestions for elementary school. Repeating seven of eight items in different lists, except 6.2.e, was confusing to readers with its unclear intentions, in addition to a general lack of clarification and elaboration. It also meant that the section titled as teaching and learning approaches was not fully informing readers about teaching English communicatively, through student-centered and collaborative tasks.

From these lists, teachers could tell that they were expected to find ways to elicit students' active interactions in English (6.2.b) through learner-centered (6.2.c), authentic and integrative (6.2.d), and collaborative (6.2.e) tasks. However, this section on teaching approaches did not elaborate specific approaches or activities that teachers might consider using in class. The only two examples were games and role-plays mentioned in 6.3.c, without further detail about using, which teachers could not rely on for all of their classes. More example activities had to be found in different places in the curriculum, mainly for teaching at the elementary level. For example, the curriculum listed using puppets, picture cards, favorite objects, colors, foods, or talk about families and friends (p. 14, accomplishments and concerns for teaching speaking in elementary school), or collaborative group tasks such as purchasing airline tickets or planning for family trips (p. 23). In this section for the teaching learning methods (pp. 40-42), it also provided more suggestions for each language skills in the elementary level than the general descriptions in Excerpts 6.1, 6.2 and 6.3. A quick summary of stated activities are following: listen and react, listen and perform, listen and find information for listening; and listen and repeat, ask and answer, learn corpus expressions, games, and role-plays for speaking; write the alphabet in order, pair upper and lower case letters, and sing an alphabet song for reading; and do controlled writing (taking dictation of letters, words, or sentences; completing sentences with words according to given instruction or pictures, arranging words to form sentences), guided writing (completing scenarios using given words, writing invitations or letters of appreciation), and free writing (journal writing). Elsewhere in the curriculum, it gave two examples of CLT activities for middle school level listening and speaking, information gap and jigsaw using drawings by popular artists or charts (p. 30 & p. 31).

The absence of examples for secondary level teaching is in contrast with the rich suggestions for the elementary level in previous pages (pp. 40-43). Perhaps the curriculum supposed teachers' active reading and interpretation across the curriculum, expecting middle school teachers' adaptation of suggestions given for elementary grades to advanced learning objectives. For example, listen-and-react or listen-and-find information activities could be used throughout levels, to practice finding both major and minor information or inferring speakers' purposes (p. 29, accomplishment standards for listening in middle school). Students in high schools could practice determining logical relations in given information or inferring speakers' feelings (p. 35, accomplishment standards for listening in high school) and achieve CC by participating in daily communications. The same approaches could apply to other suggestions, drawing students' attention to details in in the same materials that were not discussed earlier. Or teachers can bring in more complex (or academic) materials so students would be prepared to use English for higher education or professional purposes (p. 6, 59, 79 & 84) in addition to having established their CC for daily purposes. An emphasis on academic competence appears in selective course descriptions for later years in high school, the time known for students' concentration on preparing for the university entrance exam. The lists in Excerpt 6 show how these suggestions were written generally without available and feasible activities for all levels. Teachers have to refer to sections for English teaching in elementary school to make instructional decisions for their contexts.

### ***Use of Familiar Topics in Class***

These lists in Excerpt 6 and part three reflect recommendations that are repeated throughout the curriculum; teachers should prepare materials that encourage students to develop

broader competence in English. Another primary suggestion for teaching CC was to use familiar and general topics [친숙한 일반적 주제] (p. 35, p. 36 & p. 37) that are relevant to students' lives [일상생활] and interests. In teaching learning methods, the themes of familiarity and daily lives are associated with promoting students' meaningful communication (e.g., p. 30 & 31 for middle school, p. 35 & 36 for high school), often followed by reminders of the importance of maintaining students' interest in English learning (e.g., p. 32 & 35). These recurring prompts imply that students' participation in classroom activities, particularly those that are communication-oriented, depends on the extent to which they find them relevant, as perceived irrelevance is a primary obstacle to successful communicative and participatory English teaching in Korea. The focus on using familiar topics is related to another suggestion for teachers, not to overwhelm students with unnecessarily complicated vocabulary or grammar (pp. 35-39, teaching learning methods and concerns) or to put pressure on students to produce mistake-free sentences.

Regarding such topics, the curriculum provided a list of 19 general topics in Appendix A, for example, 1. Topics about personal life [개인생활에 관한 내용], 3. Topics about domestic life and living [학교생활과 교우 관계에 관한 내용], 7. Topics about various communicative approaches in English-speaking context [영어 문화권에서 사용되는 다양한 의사소통 방식에 관한 내용], 8. Topics about daily lives in various cultural contexts [다양한 문화권에 속한 사람들의 일상생활에 관한 내용], 12. Topics about public order, manner, cooperation, solicitude, volunteer, and responsibility [공중도덕, 예절, 협력, 배려, 봉사, 책임감 등에 관한 내용] and more. Near the end of the list, the curriculum introduced more sociocultural, academic, or professional topics than personal. However, besides the list, the curriculum does not explain how to come up with ideas

for lesson planning, or how to create supplementary materials compatible with the textbooks that in-service teachers relied on in their courses.

Therefore, analysis of directions and methods for English teaching and learning showed that the curriculum advocates adopting task-based teaching, learning through experiences, and CLT-related features such as student-centered, communicative, and participatory approaches, but not explicitly CLT. The absence of particular teaching methods differentiated it from previous versions that maintained promoting CLT and TETE (K. Ahn, 2010; E.-J. Kim, 2008). These changes toward teaching is also observed in the following section about representation of traditional methods.

### ***Perspectives on Traditional Methods in Contrast with Communicative Competence***

Although the curriculum does not explicitly reject any particular methods either, its negative perspective on certain features of traditional approaches was indirectly disclosed in the lists for assessment. As mentioned in the literature review, features of traditional Korean English classrooms were in contrast with those of communicative classrooms: it was teacher-centered in which teachers talked most of the time, explaining grammar and translating texts while students remained quiet and memorized vocabulary and grammar rules. Also the emphasis of English education was on perfect use of grammar or advanced vocabulary. Therefore, the curriculum's repetition of ideal features of English classrooms can be associated with the rejection of the teacher-centered classroom. With a focus on students, not teachers, a classroom is described as a place in which students learn authentic English for communication by participating in various activities, not through drills and memorizations. For example, multiple items in Excerpt 6 disclose such perspective for teachers to initiate interactions with students and among students

(6.2.e, 6.3.b & 6.3.d) rather than conduct teacher-centered activities, or to adopt communicative and student-centered approaches (6.2.c, 6.3.d & 6.3.e).

Rejection of traditional features in the curriculum also reflected one macrostructure that teachers attributed to returning to teacher-centered practices in research. It is the form of standardized exams at both school- and national-levels, which tend to focus on measuring knowledge in vocabulary, grammar, reading, and listening skills. It creates a classroom culture in which students are driven to seek high scores and view communicative activities as secondary. Probably to counter the effects of testing on English classrooms, in sections on assessment a negative position on memorizing grammar in the curriculum stands out sharply. For example, the curriculum repeated “Avoid [types of] reading evaluation that directly measure grammar component [문법요소를 직접 측정하는 읽기 평가는 지양한다.]” (p. 33, p. 39, p. 47, p. 97) for reading evaluation across levels, with similar admonitions for writing and speaking assessments (see Excerpt 7 below). Likewise, under lists of concerns regarding for the four language skills in high school, the curriculum repeatedly cautions against requiring students to study more vocabulary than the items in the lists of vocabulary for each grade level, available in appendix 3 in the curriculum (pp. 187-217).

**Fluency and Intelligibility over Accuracy.** In lists about writing and speaking evaluation, the curriculum referred to new concepts, fluency and intelligibility as opposition to accuracy-based criteria. These statements came from separate lists for evaluation across the curriculum, but the exact verbatim was repeated as shown in Excerpts 7.3 and 7.5. These were no additional elaboration about these statements in the curriculum.

Excerpt 7. Fluency over accuracy in statements about assessment in the curriculum

7.1. 쓰기 평가는 유창성을 중심으로 채점한다. (p. 35, writing assessment, middle school)



Grade writing assessment based on fluency.

7.2. 학생의 다양한 글쓰기 활동의 평가 시 문법적 오류 보다는, 자신의 생각을 자유롭게 표현하는 것에 초점을 맞춘다. (p. 75, writing assessment, high school)

In assessing students' writing assignments, focus how they articulated their thoughts, not on grammatical mistakes.

7.3. 어휘나 문법의 정확성 보다는 유창성을 중심으로 적절한 의미전달능력을 평가한다. (p. 67, writing assessment, English I; p. 87, writing assessment, English II, both in high school)  
Measure [students'] abilities to deliver meaning rather than accuracy in vocabulary or grammar.

7.4. 정확성보다는 유창성을 강조하며, 과정 상에서 적절한 내용을 자신감 있게 말할 수 있는 것을 중점을 두어 평가하도록 한다. (p. 37, speaking assessment, high school)

Concentrate more on fluency than accuracy, evaluate being able to speak appropriate content confidently.

7.5. 복잡한 표현이나 문법적 정확성보다는 의사소통의 유창성에 중점을 두고 다양한 말하기 활동을 통해 학생들의 불안감을 낮춰 주도록 한다. (p. 63, speaking assessment, high school; p. 83, concerns of teaching speaking, English II)

Focus on fluent communication, not on using complicated expressions or grammatical accuracy, and relieve students' discomfort [with speaking English] in various speaking activities.

In these statements, the curriculum consistently discouraged reliance on grammar-focused rubrics for rating accuracy in writing (7.1, 7.2 & 7.3) and speaking (7.4 & 7.5) assessment. It says that accuracy of advanced vocabulary or language forms should not override fluency in assessment. Here, fluency was a newly advocated criterion, used consistently yet without definition. The absence may indicate another assumption in the curriculum, regarding teachers' knowledge about the term and its implication. In Excerpt 7, fluency could be interpreted as an ability to express one's thoughts comfortably (7.2 & 7.4) without pressure of producing grammatically perfect phrases. The ability was related accuracy to students' active participation in class, as an impediment for the participatory and communicative classroom that was highlighted throughout the curriculum. However, the curriculum does not fully explain the primary concept and ways to implement it. Given the reported exam-oriented educational

culture, a lack of discussion about consequences in actual evaluation and school examinations these statements may not obtain teachers' agreements.

Another important concept that the curriculum introduced was “intelligibility,” a concept used once without a definition or explanation in a statement about speaking in middle school. It said, “In speaking assessment, use criteria pursuing intelligible pronunciation, not native-like pronunciation. [발음 평가 시에는 원어민과 같은 발음보다는 이해 가능한(intelligible) 발음을 추구하는 채점 기준을 적용하도록 한다.]” (p. 31). Here the curriculum used intelligibility as an alternative to native-like pronunciation, as part of its support for fluent communication. Given the aim of English education and suggested teaching approaches, it seemed to claim that native-like pronunciation was not necessary to communicate with others. However, this statement could have been better explained and contextualized, as the assumed understanding of intelligible pronunciation could be perplexing to teachers without guidelines about how teachers should evaluate the intelligibility of students' speech. In particular, a notion of intelligibility itself could be confusing, as intelligibility would not necessarily be the same among interlocutors from various linguistic and cultural backgrounds that the curriculum expected. Intelligibility of speech could be subjective to the interlocutor, and adopting it may require meticulous justification from teachers. Furthermore, the continued emphasis on fluency and intelligibility for high school (Excerpts 7.2, 7.3, 7.4 & 7.5) might be not feasible, given students' immediate need to attain exam scores to get into universities.

### ***Teachers' Classroom English***

Claims for teaching English for daily communication and creating activities to practice authentic English in classroom draw attention to the curriculum's position on teachers' use of

Korean and English in teaching. Understanding the expectation on classroom English also responds to a controversial policy Teach English through English (TETE) that was required for English teachers since the sixth curriculum (1992), a policy which was a major reason why English teachers found themselves unprepared and under resourced. TETE is also related to the MOE's and teachers' understanding about English teaching for communication, thinking that teachers' fluency, ideally nativelylike, as a major aspect needed for CLT. Informed by what literature reported recently regarding unsuccessful TETE and CLT in Korea, impacts of the macrostructure and students' resistance (e.g., E.-J. Kim, 2008b, 2011; Shin, 2012), examining related statements allows to look at how the curriculum responded to the practical challenges.

An expectation of teachers' use of English in classroom is implied in some statements without being prescribed. For example, immediately after Excerpt 2, the curriculum referred to the constraints of being in an EFL learning environment. It was a major concern that English teachers should keep in mind for teaching English as students did not use English for communication in their lives. A related expectation on teachers was to consider ways to overcome the lack of English input outside classroom by creating opportunities for students to experience English in classroom. It was a recurring theme tied to teaching English for CC, for example reflected in suggestions in Excerpt 6, realizing communicative competence (6.1.f), enhancing students' abilities to use English (6.1.d, 6.2.b & 6.2.d), and providing activities to use English (6.3.d). These recommendations implied teacher's active use of English or at least giving instruction in English or demonstrating performance during communicative activities. This expectation of teachers stood out more explicitly in the following statements in Excerpt 8 about "classroom English [교실 영어]" and teachers' input in English. Like statements presented in Excerpt 7, Excerpt 8 also reports the statements from different lists across the curriculum, mainly

from those for concerns except 8.1 from the list for teaching methods and concerns for speaking in elementary school. All statements are presented as they were in the curriculum. It means that entire phrases for each item from the lists are reported, without any additional details.

Excerpt 8. Statements related to classroom English across the curriculum

8.1. 교사가 교실 영어로 명령하거나 요청하는 말을 자주 들려주는 것이 필요하며 이러한 표현을 자주 들은 학생들이 교실에서 일어나는 활동이나 필요한 행동에 관하여 자연스럽게 말할 수 있도록 한다. (p. 14, teaching methods and concerns for speaking, elementary school)

Teachers have to provide classroom English as much as possible when giving instruction and making requests, so students get used to these expressions from listening and become able to speak naturally about classroom activities or expected behaviors.

8.2. 영어로 진행되는 영어 수업을 학생들의 언어 능력 수준에 맞게 점진적으로 확대한다. (p. 43, concerns, elementary)

Increase the amount of class time taught in English gradually, considering students' language abilities.

8.3. 수업을 영어로 진행할 때는 학생의 수준, 학습 내용의 특성 등을 고려하여 영어 사용량과 수준, 속도 등을 적절히 조절한다. (p. 44, concerns, middle school)

When teaching in English, adjust the complexity and pace of instruction properly, considering students' levels and the contents being taught.

8.4. 수업은 가급적 영어로 진행하되 학생의 수준을 고려하여 영어 사용량과 수준, 속도 등을 적절히 조절한다. (pp. 135, 140, 144, 149, 156, 163, concerns for advanced classes, high school)

Teach in English as much as possible, and manage the use, complexity, and pace of English instruction with consideration of students' levels.

8.1 was the only statement in the curriculum that directly prescribes teaching in English, providing such as examples as regular instruction, giving directions, and asking questions. This statement reflected an accomplishment criterion related to teachers' input for elementary students (p. 20), that students should be able to listen, understand, and produce two or three consecutive statements of the teacher's instruction in English. Regarding language forms or sentence structures for instruction, the curriculum suggested repeating the same structures across levels with different key terms for different activities. However, there was an absence of such

structures or a corpus of common classroom English. Appendix B in the curriculum provided target language forms for communication, that teachers could consult to decide learning objective, but not necessarily to know what suggested forms for consistent instruction as the curriculum said. This lack of information and resources supporting its suggestions might imply the MOE's expectation on teacher training programs, preparing teachers' knowledge to decide these on their own accordingly. When students get used to classroom English with the repeated exposure, and then teachers can use more English (8.2) or even give entire lessons in English in advanced speaking or writing courses in high school (8.4). Thus, promotion of teachers' use of English in the classroom could be inferred from these statements providing opportunities to practice communication in English (6.3.d), which would necessitate teacher's demonstration of expressions and modeling speaking English.

On the other hand, some statements could be read as cautionary with regard to the teacher's English, presenting it as conditional not required. Three items from concerns, Excerpts 8.2, 8.3, and 8.4, all noted that teaching in English had to take students' English competences and knowledge into consideration. Without further explanation, this advice sounded that excessive use of English could cause leaving some students behind, those who did not have enough language skills. The same concern applied to the second point in 8.3, advising teachers to match the contents being taught with students' competence so they do not become discouraged or lose interest in learning English, which was incompatible with the curriculum's emphasis on fostering students' self-management competence. Although the implications of these statements were not clear as to the effectiveness of TETE, for example, for younger or older learners, for novice or advanced learners, or for teaching language forms or language functions it showed recognition of teachers' autonomy in making practical decisions. Knowing their students well,

teachers are the ones who can make micro decisions for their classes. Importantly, this suggestion also reflects the MOE's moderated position on some English teaching methods or approaches it suggested, perhaps informed by feedback from teachers regarding CLT and TETE in classroom.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter reports how the curriculum for English education in Korea (2015) consistently emphasized teaching for communication and set the learning outcomes that the MOE wanted teachers to achieve throughout the ten-year curriculum. To develop competence in English communication and related competences for higher educational goals, the curriculum promoted adopting communicative, integrative, collaborative, and participatory activities that students could practice English and learn how to continue English learning on their own. However, the curriculum consistently did not provide information about what these characteristics are, why they important for students' learning, and how to create such learning environment, assuming readers' agreement and related knowledge for teaching. One of important changes observed was that the curriculum did not prescribe the best teaching methods for teachers. Instead, teachers' agency for classroom was acknowledged, in making decisions for their students who may react to teaching approaches differently. Analysis informs administrative vision of English education in Korea and related expectation on English teachers.

## **Chapter 5. Professor Lee's Beliefs about Knowledge-Base for English Teacher Training in Korea**

This chapter addresses the research question concerning the teacher educator's beliefs about what students should learn from her course and the effects of her beliefs on her teaching. Thematic analysis revealed an emphasis on three major areas that Professor Lee was teaching for in the methods course: a) developing knowledge about English and English teaching as a primary goal preceding to effective teaching, b) being mindful about impacts of their micro pedagogical behaviors on students' learning, and c) establishing teachers' analytic attitudes as lifelong learners of the language, the discipline, and research, and as novice researchers. With supporting data, this chapter illustrates how these components of beliefs informed Professor Lee's teaching, in the structure of the course, her pedagogies, and her instructional decisions, including those on topics to elaborate within the limited time available for discussions with pre-service teachers within the context of GSE.

### **Beliefs about Developing Knowledge as a Primary Objective**

The analysis showed Professor Lee's beliefs about developing her students' knowledge as a priority of her instruction in the class. From the first day of the course, Professor Lee consistently emphasized that the goal of the course was for students to improve their theoretical and conceptual knowledge of second language teaching (or instruction as defined in the textbook), as stated in the syllabus:

Excerpt 9. Course description (Lee, English teaching methodology course syllabus, 2018, p. 1)  
Instructed Second Language Acquisition (ISLA) is defined as any type of learning that occurs as a result of manipulating the processes and conditions of second language acquisition. This course provides a cohesive view of the different theoretical and

pedagogical perspectives of ISLA. (...) It then goes on to discuss the theoretical, empirical, and pedagogical aspects of such key issues in ISLA as grammar learning; interaction in the classroom; focus on form, function, and meaning vocabulary learning; pronunciation learning; pragmatics learning; learning contexts; and individual differences. (...)

Starting with the definition of the field, this excerpt from the course description indicates Professor Lee's intention of focusing on foundational concepts and theories in this class. Developing students' "theoretical and pedagogical perspectives of ISLA" in the excerpt corresponds to the first course objective in the following section, "To become familiar with theories, methods, and findings in the field of ISLA." These statements imply that significant time of the course would be spent on explaining these aspects. According to Professor Lee, to manipulate effective students' learning later, teachers' knowledge in supporting theories has to precede, as data show in this chapter. With established knowledge about English teaching, she attempted to train her students for knowledge-based teaching later. In addition to the focus on theories, the syllabus also presents an expectation for teachers' knowledge about research, reading it analytically and critically to draw their pedagogical implications. This research component is associated with theories or concepts as presented in the readings, that directed the explanation-centered classroom culture. The following section describes how this focus on knowledge influenced Professor Lee's teaching.

### ***Theoretical Underpinnings for Instruction in Second Language Classrooms for CC***

The priority on knowledge was observed from the beginning of the class, in the syllabus and introductions that first defined the field and clarified primary constructs. Professor Lee devoted the first two classes to explaining the theme of L2 teaching research instruction from introductory chapters from Loewen (2014) and R. Ellis (2012), both are heavily research



oriented, reporting empirical findings as well as theoretical issues. Therefore the first two days for introduction included conversations about the meaning of research, types of research, and researchers' attitudes. Below Excerpt 10 illustrates discussion of two primary assumptions guiding the field of ISLA to her students: first, whether teachers' instruction can help students' language learning, and second, assuming the answer was yes, that the aim of the field was to look for effective teaching approaches. It shows the conversation about the assumptions in ISLA, drawing students' attention to English for communication in a classroom setting.

Excerpt 10. Transcript about Classroom Teaching and Communicative Competence  
(Classroom observation, Day 2, July 24)

P: 자 introduction::을 보면은. 기본적으로 ISLA는/ 어떤 질문에 대한 대답을 하고자 하느냐 (.) 면.

첫번째:: (.) is instruction beneficial for second language learning? (1.3) 가르치는 거. (1)

Teaching을 하는 거. 교수를 하는 것이. L2 learning에 도움이 되긴 할까? 라는/ (.) 의문점에서 시작을 하는 거예요. 자. (1) 여러분의/ (.) 대답은 어때요? (3) 효과가 (.) 있는 거 같아요?

((Ss 작게 소곤소곤 하는 소리))

P: 어? 다? (1.7) 어쩔 거 같애 여러분. (2) 기본적으로/ 그게 정도의, degree의 차이는 있을 수 있지만. 있다:: 라고 배우기 때문에/ 우리가 이 분야가 있는 거고/ (.) (...) 그리고/ 우리는.

영어의 실력이 정도차가 조금은 있을 수 (.) 있지만 기본적으로/ (.) 어떻게 배웠어요? (1.9)

Classroom setting에서 영어를/ (.) 배운 사람이죠. (1) classroom에서 영어를 배워서::

여러분이/ (.) 어느정도/ (.) 읽고. 어. 어느정도/ 쓰고 (.) 어느정도/ 의사소통을 해 내고/ (.) 있는

거죠. (3) 찢리는 사람들 있어 지금, 어? ((S 살짝 웃음)) 다 조금씩은 할 수 있어. 그죠. 그게/ (.)

어쨌든. Classroom setting에서 배운/ (.) 효과일 거란 말이에요. 그렇기 때문에. 정도의 차이가

있을 수 있겠지만 우리는/ beneficial 하다:: 라고 생각을 하고/ (.) 그렇다면/ (1) 이라고 다음

단계를 생각해 보는게/ 맞겠죠.

P: Let's look at the introduction. **What** is the question that ISLA intends to answer.<sup>9</sup>

Firstly (.) "Is instruction beneficial for second language learning?" (1.3) [The field] started from this question, does teaching, giving instruction, help L2 learning? What is your answer? (3) Do you think it's effective?

((Ss talked softly, inaudible))

P: Huh? (1.7) What do you think. (2) There might be differences, yet we [teachers] learn it's effective. That's why **the field** exists. (.) (...) And how did we learn English? (1.9) Your commands of English can be somewhat different, [but] you all learned English

<sup>9</sup> This is a question. Professor Lee did not raise the end of sentence in her speech, and I transcribed it as a statement to represent speech accurately.

in classrooms. You are able to read, write, and communicate to some extent based on what you learned in classrooms. (3) Some of you might feel uncomfortable, huh? ((Ss' soft giggles)) All [of you] can practice basic [communication], right. That's because we learned English in classroom settings. Therefore, even though degrees of effectiveness [of classroom instruction] may vary, we assume that it's beneficial and then move on to the next step.

### **Thinking about Classroom English Teaching in Korea Informed by Theoretical**

**Assumptions for the Field.** In Excerpt 10, Professor Lee started the conversation by asking for students' thoughts about the purpose of classroom teaching in relation to a question posed in the textbook, the purpose of giving instruction. When the students did not answer, she prompted them to reflect on their experiences with mandatory English education in schools. In this Excerpt, Professor Lee revealed at least two assumptions about English education in Korea and about her students' learning experiences in order to establish the value of formal instruction before moving to the second question about types of effective instruction. In her statement "we learned English in classroom settings," Professor Lee expressed the assumption that her students (who were in late-20s and mid-30s) had been taught with the CC-based curriculum and gained at least rudimentary levels of competence from it. Thus the second assumption was related to the goal of CC instruction, teaching students for abilities to read and write, which consisted of CC in English. In addition to explaining effectiveness of instruction in English learning, Excerpt 10 showed Professor Lee's understanding of CC that corresponded to what the national curriculum presented for English education in South Korea. These assumptions were mentioned as established underpinnings to the efficacy of the field and CC was presented as an agreed goal of English education. It means that Professor Lee did not follow this conversation with discussion in which students themselves expressed their beliefs about CC and the role of instruction, or experiences in classroom settings as learners and teachers. Therefore students' actual

perspectives on these primary assumptions in the class and the textbook, and whether and how they might differ from Professor Lee's, remained unknown.

Subsequent to her rhetorical questioning about English teaching, Professor Lee explained that a premise of ISLA research was that the efficacy of L2 classroom research depended on teachers' roles in facilitating learning. She also stated that the assumed similarities of cognitive processes involved in language learning, regardless of learners' first and target languages. It explained why teachers needed to carefully read the review of research, most of dealt with a variety of populations and not been conducted in Korea, to infer how the implications of findings related to their students. The focus of reading research further related to the need of conducting one's own research as teachers later. These attempts to situate and justify ISLA research were evident early in the semester and mentioned less as the textbook transitioned to specific topics about acquisition of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and so on.

At the end of Excerpt 10, assuming students' agreement with the effectiveness of schooling as adequate, Professor Lee moved on to the next topic of the purpose for studying ISLA to find effective instructional practices for "my" students. This excerpt shows that Professor Lee not only defined the field and related foundations of classroom language teaching to teachers' responsibilities, but also went on to justify why reading academic texts was necessary for students as teachers to be theoretically and empirically informed. Reading about theories and related classroom research is related to another objectives for the course, "to read ISLA research reports critically and meaningfully" (syllabus, p. 1) and "to related understanding on ISLA with current L2 classroom settings in Korea or in other countries" (p. 2). She continued to make a point of drawing implications of "specific (language teaching) methods" from readings

with a pedagogical perspective as often as she could throughout semester while she was explaining concepts and theories.

### *CLT as Expected from the MOE*

As Excerpt 10 revealed Professor Lee's perspective about teaching English for communication, this section reports what she said about CC and communicative teaching for English teachers, in relation to administrative expectations from the curriculum. During class meetings, there were 11 occasions when Professor Lee mentioned CC and specific approaches for teaching English communicatively, which had to be inferred most of the time as in Excerpt 10 above. Excerpt 11 below was an exception, as communicative language teaching (CLT) was explicitly associated with the MOE.

Excerpt 11. Conversation about popular English teaching methods (Day 2, July 24)

P: 또 (5) 요즘 중고등학교에서 뭐를 기본으로 한다::라고 해서 교육이 지침이 나와요. (3.7) 영어?

(2) 그딴 거에 관심이 없어?

((학생들 살짝 웃음)) (5.1)

P: communicative language teaching method ((Ss: 음::)) 또 (4) 듣고 봤더니 그런 것 같애? (.) 또.

뭐가 있어. (6.2) 영어 유치원 막 이런 거 선전할때. 우리 영어 유치원에서는 뭘 사용합니까::

이렇게 설명하잖아 ((작은 목소리)) (3) 관심이 없으면 안 보이는데 (1) ((소리가 작아서 안

들림)) (3) 들::으면 앞으로 이제 보이기 시작할 거예요. (1) 대단한 거 하는 것처럼 선전하는데.

((S 살짝 웃음)) (2) TPR. (3.2) 뭐야? (4.9) 자:: 교육 **대학원**이야 우리. 대-학-원 ((학생들 크게

웃음)) 어. 집에 가가지고. 어 반성하면서 ((교수님 웃으면서)) total physical response. (S: 아::)

(3.1)

P: Also (5) what is the guideline [from the MOE] for [English teaching in] junior high and high school these days. (3.7) English? (2) Don't care about such things at all?

((students' soft chuckles)) (5.1)

P: Communicative language teaching method. (Ss: Mm::) What else. (4) Does it make

sense as you heard it? (.) And. What else. (6.2) In ads for English kindergarten, telling

that this English kindergarten uses this:: ((in a lower voice)) (3) You may not be able

to recognize these if you're not interested (1) @@ ((inaudible)) (3) It will pop out

from now on once you hear [about the method]. (1) [The ads] say as if they're doing

something incredible ((S chuckles)) (2) TPR [Total Physical Response]. (3.2) What's

that? (4.9) Well, this is **Graduate** School of Education guys, g-r-a-d-u-a-t-e school

((Ss loud laughter)) Uh. Go home and. Uh reflect on [lack of your knowledge about teaching methods] ((P laughter)) Total physical response. (S: Ahh::) (3.1)

This excerpt is from Day 2, when the class was reviewing early trends of L2 classroom research, comparing different teaching methods to find the best one(s). Before Excerpt 11, Professor Lee asked about popular English teaching methods that students knew from other language pedagogy texts or courses. Listening to students' answers like direct method, audiolingual method, grammar translation methods, content-based and task-based methods, except CLT, Professor Lee had to remind students to think about what the administration expected. She seemed to be surprised to see students' lack of knowledge about the method. Although Professor Lee recognized it, Excerpt 11 shows how she moved on talking about another common method, that English kindergartens in Korea often included in their advertisements. To talk about Total Physical Response, again she had to prompt students multiple times with couple of hints like "The method you often see in advertisements for English kindergarten" or "You may not recognize it if you're not interested in" or paying attention to such examples they encounter in daily life, regarding English education in Korea.

It was wrapped up shortly without any elaboration about CLT, TPR, or any other methods, probably given the focus of the day and expectations for students' background knowledge about the field. First, reviewing research trends in ISLA was the purpose of the section, not explaining these old-fashioned teaching methods. Second, Professor Lee considered knowing about these well-known teaching methods as foundational information that students were supposed to know before entering the program in graduate school. This is also related to the point that Professor Lee made consistently in the course, reading more references as needed. Also in personal interactions and email communications, Professor Lee expressed clearly that the goal was to introduce issues in English education in general, to students who came from different

undergraduate backgrounds. Thus she concluded this excerpt telling students to build background knowledge and think about issues related to English education in Korea. This could be opportunities for students to reflect on current sociocultural expectations on English education and also teaching approaches for their teaching.

Regarding classroom interaction, Excerpt 11 also represents a common pattern between Professor Lee and students. There was a lack of students' vocal responses to the questions from Professor Lee, even after repeated nudges and long wait time, which affected Professor Lee's understanding about students' knowledge and deciding issues to explain more. Evidence for the students' limited participation is consistently observed in excerpts included in the rest of this chapter.

### ***Professor Lee's Flexible and Realistic Perspective to Choosing Teaching Methods***

Among seven teaching methods mentioned on Day 2 and throughout the semester, excerpt 10 was the only time when Professor Lee related anything to the MOE's expectation. However, her approach to choosing teaching methods was not exactly the same with what curriculum said to achieve CC. No particular teaching methods were promoted or rejected in this class, it could be communicative depending on how teachers teach. In Excerpt 12, two moments from Day 6 and Day 8 show how Professor Lee talked about present, practice, produce (PPP) and drills, as examples of typical traditional approaches.

#### **Excerpt 12. Professor Lee's perspectives about traditional teaching methods**

##### **12.1. Transcript about PPP (Day 6, July 6)**

그런데 PPP도 어쩔수 있다. 라는거예요. Present practice produce. 라는 것도/ 얼마든지 재미없고, Mechanical하고 (.) 정말 form만 다루고. behaviorism (.) 에 입각해서, repetition만 하고 있을 수도 있고. 조금 더 communicative한 활동으로 전환이 될 수도 있고. 차이가 분명히 존재한다. 그래서/ PPP 옛날건데 구식인데 사용하지 말아야지 (.) 이럴 필요는 없다. 그리고/

모든 언어를/ (.) 포함한 모든 학습은 어느 정도의 repetition이 없이는/ (.) 일어날 수가/ (.) 없다::라는 거.

But PPP, present practice produce, can be boring and mechanical, focusing on [teaching] forms and repetitions [if teacher takes] a behavioristic approach. Or it can be communicative. There are clear differences. So you don't need to think that PPP is too old-fashioned and inappropriate for my class. And all types of learning, including language learning, involve repetition to some extent.

#### 12.2. Transcript about using drills (Day 8, July 2)

우리 Drills 하면 일단 좀 거부감이 있잖아. 똑같이 듣고 반복하고 막 이런거. 그럼에도 불구하고/. 어쩔 수 있다? 언어 학습에서/. 굉장히 효과적일 수도 있다. 그리고 발음과 관련해서는/. 듣고, 끊임없이 따라하고 고치고 하는 것이 효과적일 수 있다.

We often feel resistant to drills. Like listening and repeating. However, [drills] can be? [Drills] can be very effective in language learning. Particularly regarding pronunciation [teaching], countless listening, repeating, and correcting [pronunciation errors] can be effective.

Professor Lee showed a more flexible attitude to traditional methods and activities, not following the binary, traditional versus communicative. Unlike administrative stereotypes associated on each side, traditional approaches to discard, what Professor Lee emphasized here was use of various methods for communicative purposes. To make decisions appropriately requires teachers' knowledge in available methods. In Excerpt 12.1, Professor Lee mentioned one of traditional methods PPP to remind students that the method could be mechanical or communicative, depending on how teachers implement it. She said that teachers had to make methodological decisions depending on the learning objectives, not on how old the methods were. If this excerpt was followed by an example of using PPP for communicative purposes, that could have informed students about how to use the method differently. At the end of Excerpt 12.1, Professor Lee told language learning necessarily involved repeated practice to some extent, no matter how drills and repetition negatively impress teachers and learners in Korea, as if they are against communicative classrooms. Knowing that the notion of drills is associated with some traditional methods like grammar translation and audiolingual teaching, Excerpt 12.2 indicated benefits of drills in language learning. She said, repeating and imitating what they listen could be

very beneficial in language learning, particularly to improve pronunciation. To support her point, Professor Lee shared two more anecdotes after this excerpt, about her friend who imitated CNN radio repeatedly to achieve natively like proficiency, and one of her previous students in the US who also achieved natively like proficiency in Vietnamese while serving U.S. army during the Vietnam war. Knowing that many English learners in Korea were pursuing natively like proficiency, including students in this class, Professor Lee related consistent training with feedback to such purpose as a relevant example. These moments supported a more flexible and realistic perspective toward teaching methods, choosing ones needed for various learning aims and students' needs, not judging their effectiveness based on traditional or not.

Elsewhere on Day 6, Professor Lee said that there could be contexts where teachers had to provide grammatical explanation intensively, for example, to advanced adult learners who were preparing for exams in a short period of time. At the same time, she warned not to take such explanatory approach to young learners who are in elementary and secondary levels. As the curriculum emphasized, Professor Lee also told there's no need to stress young learning with exam preparation. She gave specific examples of teaching grammar using metalinguistic terminology, for example relative pronouns or grammatical construction, could be a primary reason that make students lose their interests in English. What Professor Lee said was not to rely on drills, repetition or traditional methods for their convenience, but to find ways to make English learning effective and meaningful considering students' needs and interests. In more exam-related settings like high school, Professor Lee addressed teachers' realistic concerns, telling that teaching communicatively cannot meet high school students' immediate needs. That might also lose students' attention to English classroom. These comments show how Professor Lee called for teachers' understanding of their students' needs in different levels and their



flexibility with planning lessons and teaching.

### *Teachers' Instruction in English*

A literature review around CC and CLT in Chapter 2 and the analysis of the national curriculum reported an administrative expectation about teachers' use of English as a medium of instruction. As it was one aspect that created tension from English teachers, a lack of training to achieve the necessary level for teaching English through English (TETE), I examined what Professor Lee said about teachers' use of English in classroom or TETE.

Excerpt 13. Transcript about providing input in English (Day 3, July 25)

그리고/ **뭘** 고려를 할 필요도, 있어요. (2.1) 어:뎀 아이들은. **내**: 영어 수업 시간이. 영어를 접하는 **유일한** 시간 일수도 있다. 라는, 생각을, 명심을, 해야돼요. 그러면 그만큼 책임감이/ 있을거고 (.) 어, 어떤 애들은, 내 영어 수업:시간에 영어 듣는게 전부:야. **그런데**, 나는/ (.) 40분 수업에. 50분 수업에. 30분 동안 한국말을 해. 그리고 애들은, 영어를, 한 오분? (.) 들을까 말까. 그리고 자기들은/. 한 1분. 말할까 말까. 해. ((inhale)) 그런 것들이/ 바람직한지. 특히, 시간이 쪼끔, 많은. 여유있는. 초등학생이라든지. 중학생. 을 가르칠 경우에. 쪼끔만 고민을 해 봐야할. 여지가, 있겠죠.

And what else you need to consider (2.1) You have to keep in mind that for some students, my English classroom might be an only place to experience English. And [you should] feel more responsible [for teaching]. Some kids hear English only in my class, but I speak Korean for 30-minute out of 40-minute or 50-minute class. And students barely hear English about 5-minutes maybe? And [they] speak it for a minute or less than that. ((inhale)) You need to think about whether that's okay [for effective learning], particularly when you teach elementary and middle school students, that are flexible in terms of time.

Professor Lee's perspective to use of English in classroom was related to providing students an equal access to English through mandatory education, beyond creating opportunities for students to use English for communication. In this excerpt, Professor Lee encouraged English teachers to use more English, assuming Korean as a dominant means of their instruction currently. Reasons behind the same recommendation with the curriculum was different, more than overcoming a drawback of learning English in the EFL setting. Unlike the curriculum, here

Professor Lee wanted her students to reflect on how they should be ethically responsible for teaching English in Korea, in which English is not used as a primary language. In the setting, students who did not attend extra-curricular English education outside school may have limited exposure to English compare to those who attended. In Korea, it is true that many families are invested in their children's English education, heavily relying on private tutoring and study-abroad programs. However it is also true that there are many students who cannot afford those activities, which could affect their performance in English classroom and exams in school. Students without those experiences could be marginalized in classrooms, compared to their peers who are better resourced and in need of more advanced information. It corresponds to what I heard from in-service teachers in 2014 during interviews, telling that many of their students learned English from external sources already. Some teachers told me that serving needs of those advanced students overrode teaching those who were behind the curriculum, who were even unable to read and write English alphabet. Then English classroom broaden the gap between students who had different access to English. Perhaps informed by these realistic challenges, Professor Lee often reminded her students about ethical concerns of English education in Korea. For example her belief in equal English education was also reflected in Excerpt 10 above, when she talked about the roles of English education and English teachers, to help students develop foundational competence for communication. This approach not only informs students about practical challenges, but also draws their attention to aspects that the curriculum did not address. It is what English teachers have to be mindful about as well.

***Beyond Translating Texts: Reading Actively in Relation to Teaching***

The overarching focus on training teachers for knowledge-informed teaching also reflected in what Professor Lee said in class, including her consistent attempts to relate readings to practices, not expecting students to be able to do so without assistance. This section focuses on the general suggestions for pre-service teachers about how to read the text effectively. Excerpt 13 reports two moments when Professor Lee explained the implications of “form-focused” task types, in a way to make them meaningful so as to elicit more output L2 from students, and of “input flood” to find a way to provide more input to my students.

#### Excerpt 14. Discussing implications of readings

##### 14.1. Transcript about how to elicit students’ output (Day 5, July 30)

그렇다면 우리가 좀 생각해 봐야 할 것은 (.) L1을 조금 덜 사용하고 L2를 사용하는게 output이 굉장히 중요하다 라고 그랬으니까 (S: 네) L2에서 조금 (.) classroom에서 opportunity를 가지려면 meaning focused. 된 task가 좀 더 추가되면 좋겠구나. 그리고 form focused된 task를 했을 때는 어째야 돼요? 훨씬 더 (.) 많은 (.) support가 있어야겠다. 하기 전에 이런 걸 사용할 수 있고 이런 걸 사용할 수 있고 이랬을 때는 이런 표현이 중요하고. 그래서 keyword building도 조금 해주고 background knowledge building도 조금 해주고. 그래서 훨씬 더 많은 focus가 아니 support가 있었을때 그나마 L1 사용이 줄어들지 않겠느냐 implication을 우리가 조금 생각을 해볼수가 있겠죠.

Then what we have to think about is, as it’s important to use less L1 and produce L2 output (S: Yes), we better have more meaning-focused tasks in classrooms. When we employ form-focused tasks, it should be with **more** support. Let students know what forms or expressions they can use to complete the task, and build related vocabulary and background knowledge. One implication here is, we can decrease students’ L1 use with much focus, no (P’s self-correction), with support [for L2 output].

##### 14.2. Transcript about contextualizing readings to teaching (Day 6, July 31)

“어 이런 거 쓰이나보네?” 이렇게 끝나면은 별로 교육적으로 의미가 없겠죠. 여기서 어 효과가 있다는데 그런데 나는 이걸 그대로 쓰기에도 좀, 우리 애들한테 조금 뭐한테? 했을 경우에는. 비슷한 방식으로 내가/ (.) 어떻게 활용할 수 있는지에 대해서는 조금 고민을 해봐야겠죠. 아까도 input flood나 이렇게 딱, 잇한, 적합한, 아니 (.) 자료를 찾기가 어려우면 내가 frequency를 높여주는 방법이 뭐가 있을까? 이런 식으로 (.) 조금 고민을 해 보는 게 (.) educator (.) 로써 필요한 자세가 될 수 있을 거고.

It is pedagogically meaningless if you end up thinking “Oh they used so and so this way.” Well [this method] was effective, but you might doubt whether you can use it with your students. In such a case, you have to think about ways you can employ it. Like input flood [discussed] before, if you cannot find the perfect materials, you can think “How can

I improve frequency [of students' use of L2]?" You need to think like this, which is important for educators.

Professor Lee made the first comment while she was elaborating on the empirical evidence of Storch and Aldosari (2013) in the chapter about focus on form, in which they reported on Saudi students' interactions during pair work. Based on students' various interaction patterns and the development of their accuracy and fluency depending on task types (i.e., meaning-focused vs. form-focused tasks), Professor Lee further related the findings about students' L1 and L2 uses to the *output hypothesis*, which had been introduced in the previous class (Day 4). In this way she helped students think about empirical evidence in relation to theories and also teaching, in this case why meaning focused tasks were important to create opportunities for students to produce as much as output possible. In the second half of Excerpt 14.1, Professor Lee discussed what kinds of "support" that teachers could provide, such as providing vocabulary and building background knowledge as preliminary activities to facilitate students' interactions. This pattern of exemplifying theoretical or conceptual content to develop students' analytical reading skills and to prepare them for the teacher employment exam that tested pedagogical knowledge was observed throughout the semester.

The following excerpt was also made when the student was presenting about pedagogical implications of focus on form activities, at the end of her presentation. The suggestions included four ways of adopting form-focused tasks in teaching. In Excerpt 14.2, Professor Lee explicitly encouraged students to read the literature as educators, thinking about the pedagogical implications of concepts, theories, research, and suggestions. While summarizing the chapter, Professor Lee referred to the concept mentioned before, *input flood* as an example to draw students' attention to research findings related to teaching their own students. Telling students to think proactively, she encouraged them to seek ways to increase the amount of input and to adopt

*input enhancement* to raise learners' *noticing*, which was highlighted in the chapter, but not elaborated by the student presenter. After this comment, Professor Lee provided a popular counter example as well, the two articles *a* and *the*, which were difficult to master regardless of their high frequency.

Professor Lee further related the example of article to make another suggestion for teaching, why teachers had to make target forms *salient*, saying that input enhancement without raising learners' awareness could be pedagogically ineffective. She said, "In many cases, pedagogically speaking, [linguistic] forms became salient [to me] when [I as a learner] can relate the forms to my life or interests. [많은 경우에 교육학적으로 어떻게 말을 하나면 (.) 어떠한 요소와 나의 삶이나 관심사가/ (.) 연결이 됐을 때, 그 요소는 굉장히 salient 해진다:: 라고 말을 해요.]" At the same time emphasizing learners' interests, Professor Lee criticized relying on mechanical drills or teacher-centered talks for teaching vocabulary that was irrelevant to students' interests. In the data, this comment concluded with a suggestion for teachers to learn about students' interests and include them, not teachers' interests, in activities and materials in class. These are rather unrelated, but consistent in a way that they show how Professor Lee emphasized students to contextualize readings from an educator's perspective with demonstrations. Another practice that Professor Lee showed was reminding concepts and theories to the pedagogical implications, so students could think about theoretical support for teaching approaches.

### **Effective English Learning Conditions**

In addition to the primary focus on pedagogical understanding of the field in the course, terms that Professor Lee used in the syllabus ("ISLA," "processes and conditions of SLA," "the processes involved in L2 learning in classroom settings") also represented her beliefs about

knowing about the processes of language learning and related aspects from SLA as crucial for teaching. Professor Lee related the attention to the processes and conditions that teachers needed to consider creating effective classrooms for English CC. Her primary advice was to motivate students, as mentioned in the previous section, by meeting their needs and relating content to students' daily lives.

### ***Knowing Students' Needs and Interests***

To motivate students for English learning in class and for long-term learning, Professor Lee emphasized the importance of knowing their students' different needs. It enables teachers to incorporate topics and activities that are relevant to students' interests, instead of teaching forms for exams, which she repeated consistently throughout the course. She suggested conducting needs analysis to discover students' genuine interest and determine their actual needs.

#### Excerpt 15. Transcript about motivating students (Day 3, July 25)

학생들의 immediate needs를/ (.) 고려를, 해야된다. 그렇지만. 초등학교 중학교. 에서는 좀 어쩔 필요가 있어. (...) 아이들이/ 그 언어 자체에 대해서 흥미를 가지고. 어. 접근하게끔. 수업을 진행할 필요도, 있죠 (.) 이 모든 공부. "나중에 십년 뒤에, 오년 뒤에 구년 뒤에 수능을 위해서다." 이렇게 학습을 할, 필요는 없죠 (.) 그러면 어때, 지치죠. 하기 싫고. 그니까 조금, 내년에도 조금 공부하고 싶고, 학년이 올라갈수록/ (.) "어 할만하네" (.) 그리고/ "해봐도 되겠네" (.) 하는 마음가짐을 가질 수 있게끔/. 가르치는 게, 필요하겠죠. 다양한 (.) Topic과 방법을/ 가지고 (.) 배운대로/ (.) 가르치지, 않고 (.) "우리 선생님은 저것을 해석해주고, 읽어주고 했으니까 나도 그렇게 해야지." 그렇게 가르치면/ (.) 절대로, 안되겠죠. 어. 특히 (.) 저학년 (.) 의 경우.

[Teachers need] to take students' immediate needs into account. With elementary and junior high school, however. (...) it's better to take approaches that can inspire kids' interests in the language **itself**. You don't have to tell them "You're doing all this for the exam you will take after five or nine years." It will exhaust and daunt [them]. So motivate them to stay interested and feel confident as time goes by, every year. Help them think "I can do this" using various topics and [teaching] methods. Don't teach the way you were taught: "I will do what my teacher used to do, translating and reading." You shouldn't do that, particularly for young students.

In her introduction to ISLA on Day 3, Professor Lee called for analyzing students' immediate needs, observing her students' limited understanding. When she first mentioned current students' needs, preparing for exams, she mentioned the need assumed to be most popular particularly in high schools, which she rebutted immediately in Excerpt 15. She said, knowing elementary and middle schools are less affected by the exams, teachers should not teach for exams but make English classroom interesting. In this excerpt Professor Lee criticized a common practice of relying on drills in English classroom, blaming students' needs. Instead, with young students, teachers deliberately need to make an effort to establish students' genuine interests in English itself. To teach English so, implementing interesting topics and teaching approaches was suggested, although teachers had experienced teacher-centered classroom, reading and translating during their schooling.

It is important to mention that this excerpt came after a conversation about possible students' needs of learning English in school. Before Excerpt 15, Professor Lee shared her experience of conducting a quick survey with her high school students, asking them to write about why they wanted or needed to study English. She noted how she was surprised to read students' creative responses that teachers might not think of, for example to be able to communicate for their families while traveling abroad, to play online games well, or to watch soccer games in the premier league and to talk to their favorite athletes in English. These examples were in contrast with what her students said about their students' possible needs. When she asked, "Okay then. Students' needs, particularly students that we will be teaching, students in elementary, middle, and high schools. What are the needs of those students who are learning English in Korea. [자. 그렇다면은. 학생들의, needs는. 특히, 우리가 가르칠 학생들. 초등학생들, 중학교, 고등학교, 학생들. 한국에서. 영어를 배우는. 응. 학생들의, needs는 뭘까.]," the first answer from her

students was “[To do better on] the university entrance exam” even for students in elementary and middle schools. This strong belief about learning English for exams made Professor Lee laugh and prod students to think about more than external motivations such as preparing for exams, finding good jobs, or simply doing what their parents or teachers ask them to do. This discrepancy showed pre-service teachers’ lack of understanding about students’ current needs and a need to discuss their beliefs about English teaching in teacher training. Otherwise, believing in teaching for exam is the best teaching could result in choosing traditional teaching approaches that lose students’ interest in English.

### ***Perspectives on Teacher-Centered Classrooms***

Excerpt 14 also showed Professor Lee’s assumptions about traditional teacher-centered English teaching methods in Korea, which involved reading and translating as typical teaching methods that her students might have experienced as well. While Professor Lee acknowledged that taking more communicative approaches may not be accepted in high school given students’ immediate concerns, she was explicitly opposed to such exam-oriented and teacher-centered methods in elementary and middle schools (also mentioned on Day 6). Professor Lee told her students not to adopt the same ineffective approaches that they had experienced in schools. It is different from what Professor Lee said regarding adopting traditional teaching approaches, that could be still communicative and meaningful depending on how teachers used. Excerpt 15 shows that she responded teachers’ common excuses for not teaching communicatively and how she clarified stereotyped features of traditional methods in Korea. Using repetition and imitation might be necessary to develop students’ CC, yet teachers having control and translating texts in class without students’ participation was not recommended. Furthermore, teachers’ roles include



sustaining students' motivation and preparing them for long-term English learning, beyond studying for immediate rewards or invisible goals that were set by their parents. Although Professor Lee did not relate this suggestion to the curriculum, it resonated the curriculum's suggestions for teaching English interesting and relevant, also specifically teaching elementary students with "songs, chants, games and playing" so they could experience "the joy of discovery [발견의 즐거움]" (MOE, 2015, p. 3).

### ***Relating Knowledge Gained in the Classroom to Practical Values***

Regarding the suggestion to teach English interesting about various topics and pedagogical impacts of making class explicitly relevant from above, Professor Lee told students to make practical values of what they teach explicit in their teaching. Excerpt 16 below was said On Day 5, when Professor Lee was wrapping up the chapter about classroom interaction, explaining the last section about pedagogical implications. Suggestions that the textbook made to encourage students' interaction were to use tasks. Professor Lee continued to explain additional benefits of eliciting more output from students from her perspective, such as building students' autonomy, creating more participatory classroom culture to all students (not only for selected students who always talked), and motivating students, followed by Excerpt 16.

Excerpt 16. Transcript about emphasizing practical values (Day 5, July 30)

그러면 어, "내가 교실에서 배웠던 거 평생 안 써먹고 그럴 줄 알았는데 따로 배워야 이야기 할 수 있을 줄 알았는데 실제로 사용하기도 하네?" 라고 생각하고 **조금 더** 관심이 생길수 있는, 여지가 있으니까. 그니까 classroom/과. outside of the classroom이 어째야 된다. 조금은/ 긴밀한/ 연관이 있어야지 내가 조금 공부할 맛이 난다:: 라는 거예요.

Then there's room [for students] to think, "I thought what I learned at school is useless and I needed to study more to be able to communicate, but it's actually useful." And be a **bit more** interested. Thus there should be some close relevance between the classroom and outside the classroom, to make me [as a student] interested in studying.

Excerpt 16 recommends telling students explicitly how to use the knowledge for communication, so they could be aware of practical aspects of what they learn in the classrooms. Professor Lee explained such “real life relevance,” the first feature of task feature, could be opportunities to communicate with native-English speaking teachers at school using what they learned, or preparing multimedia materials (e.g., movies or drama) showing how those expressions were used in speech. It went back to her discussion about making their instruction relevant to students’ lives and knowing students’ practical needs for English learning. To support her point, after Excerpt 16 Professor Lee also referred to a reason that many Koreans found familiar, losing interest in studying mathematics or science due to a lack of their relevance of such knowledge to one’s life. Although those are closely related to life, the problem was about a lack of clarification of such relevance and treating the knowledge from the classroom as separate. Therefore in this section about pedagogical implication, Professor Lee constantly emphasized the teacher’s role in facilitating students’ learning, saying that teachers need to make the relevance salient to students, so they could personalize the knowledge and be engaged with learning. This emphasis on real-life relevance corresponded to her later recommendation that she made for her students for their knowledge development, to study theoretical aspects of knowledge from the textbook and strive to make sense of the readings in relation to their own learning and teaching experiences. She also told guessing, or making stories using academic terminology might be useful learning strategies for students’ higher level of engagement (Day 8) and longer retention.

### ***Specific Suggestions for English Teaching***

While the suggestions for effective learning conditions were made generally, Professor Lee also made those for English teaching, in association with specific constructs or terms from the readings. Excerpt 17 below reports three occasions that Professor Lee elaborated input-based instruction, elements of instruction, and functional loads to make specific suggestions for English teaching. These comments assisted students to practice thinking about readings in relation to teaching.

Excerpt 17. Perspective about translating constructs in relation to teaching

17.1. Transcript about interpreting input-based instruction (Day 6, July 31)

자, 다시 돌아와서 (.) input-based instruction에서 input processing (2) 을/ 보면은 기본적으로 학습자들은 다 어떻게? L1에 의존해서 processing하는 경향이 있다. 그런데 그게 어쩔 수 있어, **잘못될** 수가 있겠죠. 그러니까 가르칠 때 어째야 된다는 거예요 (.) 그/ (.) 차이점을. clear하게 제시를 하면서. **올바로** 처리하게끔/ (.) 만들어줘야 된다 (.) 가 input processing의 **기본인** 거예요. Going back to input-based instruction, what do learners do normally within input processing [theory]? [Learners] tend to process [L2 input] using their L1 system, which can go wrong. Then what should the [teacher] do about it? Present the differences [between L1 and L2 processing] clearly, help [learners] process [L2 input] properly. This's what input processing is.

17.2. Transcript about three elements of interaction (Day 5, July 30)

그래서 처음 (1) 첫 번째 category, factors affecting interaction (.) 라고 살펴보면. 앞에서도 말했듯이 task, interlocutor/, context characteristic (.) interlocutor는 L2 learner들이 자체가 가지고 있는 특징이고 task나 context는/ 선생님이 manipulate. 할 수 있는 특징이죠, 어, 그렇지만 interlocutor도 어쩔 수 있어? 어, 짝을 조금 다양하게 해준다던지 연구 목적에 맞게, 또는 수업 목적에 맞게 짝을 달리 지어 준다던지 하는 식으로 해서 선생님의 역할이 어느 정도 들어갈 수가 있겠죠.

So first, the first category is factors affecting interaction (.) As explained before, task, interlocutor, context characteristic (.) Interlocutor is about L2 learners, and task or context are what teachers can manipulate. Uh, but then what about interlocutors? [Teachers] can pair students differently, depending on [their] research purposes or lesson objectives, so teachers can play their part.

17.3. Transcript about functional load (Day 8, August 2)

All sound carry an equal load? 이걸 배웠는지 모르겠네? Functional load 이런 거? (.) 배웠다고? ((대답없음)) 안 배웠어도 할 수 없어 ((학생들 가벼운 웃음)) (.) @@가 모두 equal 하지 않다는 거야 function 에 있어서, 어? (.) 가르칠 때 효과가 @@ 많이 사용되는 것부터 가르칠 필요가 있다. 라는 거지. 이렇게 말해도 저렇게 말해도 별 차이가 없는 것보다 아, 집중해서 가르치는 @@ ((목소리가 낮아짐)) 대표적인 거 escalation. 응. 안한다고 뜻이 안 통해? (.) 아니죠, 어 (.)

“All sounds carry an equal load?” Did you learn about this? Like functional load? (.) You did? ((no responses from Ss)) (.) [Loads] are not equal, in terms of their function, uh? (.) [Teachers] need to teach ones used more frequently first. Not the ones that do not make any difference. ((in a lower voice)) A typical example. Escalation. Does that affect meaning? (.) No, uh. (.)

Excerpt 17 represents three specific pedagogical implications that Professor Lee provided. First 17.1 showed that Professor Lee related input-processing to practice, a theory discussed in the reading about grammar acquisition. Given language learners’ tendency to use their existing first language processing system for input in target language, teachers could proactively prevent learners’ mistakes by addressing predicted differences between L1 and L2 processing. To clarify a mistake in processing different sentence structures, Professor Lee then referred to the frequently-reported example from the textbook, of the tendency of English learners of Spanish to perceive the first word in a sentence as the subject. Therefore, this excerpt explains how theory could inform teaching, reminding students that an object came first in Spanish. The second excerpt also showed possible interventions that students could think about in relation to the three components of classroom interaction (task, interlocutor, and context characteristics). Professor Lee explained that teachers could manipulate tasks and contexts with their choices of activities. Regarding interlocutors she first said that interlocutors as unique features of learners, but it could be also manipulated by pairing up students differently for purposes, considering their particular characteristics. Later, in a discussion of pronunciation on Day 8, Professor Lee also talked about features on which to base the pairing of interlocutors for activities from research, such as proficiency levels and listening attitudes (passive roles). She also talked about how students’ interaction and participation in classroom could be affected by interlocutors’ characteristics.

Excerpt 17.3 shows a moment when Professor Lee introduced a new term on Day 8 about pronunciation acquisition, “functional load,” from a handout that she had prepared. It was the term that students did not read from the Loewen (the textbook), but introduced in other primary texts for English teachers in Korea (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Snow, *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*, 2014). After asking whether students learned about this term, expectedly from the phonology class that six of seven students were taking, Professor Lee briefly explained what functional load meant. Reading the handout, students could learn that they could prioritize teaching sounds with high functional loads in teaching. Without looking at additional materials, at the end of Excerpt 17.3 Professor Lee spontaneously gave “escalation” as an example that could be identified as foreign accent but did not affect communication. What escalation meant was not clear, but two examples were given, *p* in spike and *t* in strike. She pronounced the words differently twice, first with a clear Korean accent, and second with accurate *p* and *t* pronunciation. These excerpts show how Professor Lee emphasized analytic reading with a pedagogical perspective, and demonstrated how knowledge informed teaching. As she recommended her students to do for effective teaching, she guided teachers’ attention to pedagogical aspects of concepts within limited time. At the same time, these Excerpts support Professor Lee’s beliefs about understanding theoretical concepts as a priori to teaching, an emphasis that increased the amount of Professor Lee’s talk to clarify readings.

### ***One-sided Suggestions from Professor Lee***

In these sessions, students did not co-constructively discuss the suggestions provided in class, such as CC as a goal in Korean educational system and ways to teach English communicatively. Accordingly, the class lacked time to talk about practical concerns of teaching,

what relevant activities or materials could evoke students' interest and how it would look like in classroom when students seemed not interested as research reported. Lacking such discussion, students might remain unclear about potentially effective activities beyond the familiar admonition to using more English, avoiding mere translation or tedious drills with young learners, or bringing real life examples of using what they learned in class. There could be many associated aspect that produced professor-centered and explanation-oriented class, the emphasis on knowledge development (notably about pedagogy and research) and students' lack of verbal participation, regardless of lengthy waiting time, seemed to be major reasons in this case.

Excerpt 18 below shows a moment when Professor Lee explained why she could not elaborate teaching approaches related to her suggestions.

Excerpt 18. Transcript about time limitation in class (Day 6, July 31)

그러니까 아이들의 눈높이에서 애들이 요즘에 뭐가 관심이 있는지에 대해서 민감하게 파악하고. 그것과 수업 content를 조금 연결시킬 (.) 필요가 (.) 있다:: 라는 거예요. (2.6) 그러한 방법들도 여러가지가 존재할 수 있는데. 우리는 갈 길이 멀기 때문에 ((웃음)) 일단. 보도록 하겠습니다. Thus [teachers] have to be attentive to what kids are interested in these days, and relate that into their teaching. (2.6) There could be various [teaching] methods to do that [contextualization], yet we will move on [with readings] now as we have a long way to go. ((gentle laughter))

In this excerpt, Professor Lee excused herself from elaborating practical suggestions due to a lack of time for it. It was a comment came after she repeated the suggestion about knowing students' needs and making class relevant (from Excerpt 15). In the second sentence, Professor Lee wrapped up the conversation saying that "We will move on," to the next point in the reading. Although she's knowledgeable and capable to discuss ways to contextualize the readings about teaching methods to the Korean contexts as shown in Excerpt 17, her priorities on teaching about knowledge overrode others that might take too much time from knowledge development. This perspective was also observed during email communication (personal communication, January 9, 2019), when she said that the course was "To introduce the field of English education in general

to people who are coming with different backgrounds, from reading a textbook that isn't too difficult for students and also is relevant to an actual educational setting. [영어교육 전반에 대해 지식을 어느 정도 습득할 수 있게 하되, 학생들의 영어 실력 등을 고려해서 학생들이 너무 버거워하지 않을 수 있는 교재를 선정하되 실제 교육 현장과 관련성 등을 갖을 수 있는 것으로 할려고 노력하고.]”

The implications were not neglected, but not prioritized in this context as students were assumed as beginners to the field. Often as an only course about English teaching methods in the program, one of primary purposes was to learn about the field broadly, including theories and research about second language (not limited to English) acquisition. Therefore, Excerpt 18 illustrates what Professor Lee prioritized, which are supported by excerpts of her talks reported in this chapter, and explains why many suggestions for teaching were made without further discussion with students. These general comments on practices were observed throughout semester, sometimes with but often without discussion of implications. The limited time resulted in the lack of opportunities for students to relate the knowledge to their own experiences or implications.

### **Teachers' General Pedagogical Behaviors to Create Effective Learning Classroom**

On Day 3, still defining ISLA and the course, Professor Lee identified “general pedagogical concerns” as of less concern in the methods course. These included issues about classroom management, such as dealing with adolescents, or having thirty students who were at many levels and with different socioeconomic backgrounds in one classroom. Professor Lee explained her decision to exclude such aspects from this class as “These issues occur in **every** classroom. Therefore, these pedagogical, general concerns have to be distinguished from [those] of ISLA, as they are not **L2 specific**. Therefore, [the textbook] tends to narrow down its focus to ISLA here. [모든 수업 시간에 발생하죠. 그렇기 때문에. Pedagogical 한. General concern issue는 또/.

ISLA에서 다루는 범위하고는 조금/ 차별화가, 되어 된다::라는 거예요. **L2 specific** 한, concern이/ 아니기 때문에 (.) 그래서 ISLA에. 분야나. 이런 것들에 대해서 narrow down 시키는/ 경향이 있는거죠 여기서는.]” (Day 3, July 25). Despite this standpoint, Professor Lee could not overlook a few pedagogical practices and had to address them in class. These suggestions were emphasized from the beginning, made as responses to behaviors that her students demonstrated during their presentations, or sometimes mentioned all of a sudden from her own reflections. This section reports some of suggestions, informed by general pedagogy: find ways to engage students, consider pedagogical impacts of teachers’ language, and be mindful of their behaviors as teachers.

### *Ways to Engage Students*

Below Excerpt 19 reports two occasions when Professor Lee told students to “ask questions” to the rest of the class during their presentations. It was the recommendation that she highlighted from the first day, to make sure of students’ understanding and create a more welcoming environment by occasionally asking confirmation questions while presenting and teaching in the future.

Excerpt 19. Transcripts about asking questions to engage students

19.1. Questions to encourage listeners’ thinking (Day 1, July 23)

가르치는게 아니라 interaction 이 있는 수업이 되도록. 나 혼자 말하지 마세요. 듣는 분들도 계속 생각하게끔 해야하고, 듣는 사람이 이해하는지, 질문은 없는지, 다른 의견은 없는지 확인하면서. [You are] not teaching, you are eliciting interactions in class. Don’t talk by yourself all the time. Make sure that your listeners are thinking, and check regularly whether your listeners understand, or have questions or any different thoughts.

19.2. A comment to a student presenter who talked all by herself (Day 5, July 30)

어 질문도 하라 그리고, 선생님들 질문도 하고. 한 chapter가 끝났으면은 응? 질문이나 comment가 있는지 없는지. 이해를 했는지 안했는지 check를 해야 할 거 아니야, 응?



Well tell [students] to ask questions and, ask questions after each chapter, right? You need to make sure whether there are questions and comments [from your students] or whether they understood it or not, right?

Excerpt 19.1 was part of Professor Lee's response to a question from a student on the first day, regarding how to prepare for presentations. From the beginning, she told her students to ask questions during presentations. These Excerpts showed three reasons for encouraging her students to develop a habit of asking questions often, to assure listeners' understanding, to engage the rest of their peers in class (and students in their future classrooms), and to keep students attentive while the presenter is talking. Excerpt 19.1 also pointed that asking questions was one way to elicit interactions from students, offering opportunities to ask questions and express their thoughts, in addition to confirming their understanding. These excerpts reflected Professor Lee's expectations for creating a participatory and discussion-based English class and the value of interaction in class, with or among students. One way to achieve such class was asking questions, and she reminded her students countless times during the semester. For example, before the first student presenter started her presentation on Day 3, Professor Lee said "Ask many questions during your presentation. [질문을 많이 하면서 해::]." Similarly in Excerpt 19.2, Professor Lee jumped in when a second student presenter was talking, to tell her to ask more questions for confirmation after every major section in the chapter. Seeing the student went on talking herself without any interaction with the rest of the class, Professor Lee told that the presenter had to check in often, at least whenever sub-sections were done. Although students may not have anything to ask, asking occasionally can elicit their talk.

This intervention was a typical move on the part of the professor, who interceded at least once in every student's presentation as students often forgot to ask questions and went on talking themselves. Often Professor Lee stopped presenters and asked the rest of the class for the

presenter, “Stop there. Any questions so far? Or comments?” (Days 5 & 6) or “Do you understand what was said?” (Day 3). On Day 6, when a student asked confirmation questions during the presentation as suggested, Professor Lee said “Right, you [as a teacher] should ask those questions ((Ss soft laughter)) (2) Any questions? [그래, 선생님이 그렇게 물어보아야지 ((학생들 가벼운 웃음)) (2) 질문].” In relation to asking confirmation questions, Professor Lee cautioned that students could feign understanding the contents by saying yes to the question “Did you understand?” Therefore she suggested asking students to elaborate, as a strategy to assure their comprehension. This emphasis on asking questions resonated with the importance Professor Lee placed on discussion-based learning and teaching, that could assist students learning and develop critical thinking, taking active roles in their learning. Small talk on the beginning of Day 8 supports this point, saying asking questions and reminding students to think about their experiences to the topic of the chapter could change their “engagement level.”

The expectation of creating a participatory class was also expressed in her saying on Day 3, “Wait here (talking to the presenter), if you need to clarify something or have questions, you guys have to jump in (1.5) and ask a question [to the presenter]. [선생님 여기 잠깐만, 응? 요 중간중간에 여러분이/ (.) 잘 clear 하지 않거나. 물어보아야 되겠다. 라고 생각을, 하는 경우가 있으면 jump in 해서/ (1.5) 질문을 해야돼요.]” telling the rest of the class to ask questions to the presenter. Importantly, questions from students help Professor Lee understand their challenges and make the class more relevant, instead of relying on her intuition to assume what points required elaboration. Later at the end of the semester Professor Lee said, “If you don’t ask questions, I’m not gonna explain things to you [질문하지 않으면 설명해주지 않겠어요],” probably because she got tired of students’ lack of verbal participation.

## *Pedagogical Impacts of Teachers' Language*

Other suggestions included giving students enough time to think about and answer teachers' questions, and using language carefully in consideration of possible impact on students' perceptions. These comments occurred sporadically in class, when Professor Lee found students' language or behavior during presentations pedagogically problematic. When commenting on those behaviors, Professor Lee elaborated in detail to inform students about why she had to point these out. Two occasions about language uses are shown below.

Excerpt 20. Transcripts about students' language use

20.1. A comment about "It's gonna be difficult." (Day 5, July 30)

이거 하나 둘 사이에 해야될 태도 중에 하나가, "야 어렵겠지?" (.) (S: 억) 이런 것들, 어. "너무 많지?" 어, 이런 것들. 그러면 애들이 별로 그런 생각을, 안 했다가 (.) "아 어렵다고 그러네? 진짜 고생하겠네." 어 "너무 많은거 아냐?" 이렇게 생각하고 들어간다? (.) 교육학적으로. 나도 그런 말 하는데, 그런데/ 실제적으로 선생님들이 novice 할 때 염두해 두어야 될 것 중의 하나가 (.) 그런 거예요. 그리고/. 반대로 (.) "쉽죠? 이해 다 되죠" ((학생 작게 웃음)) 이런 말도 마찬가지로. 나한테 안 쉬웠어. ((웃음)) 안 쉬웠던 말이야. 이해도 다 안됐어. 그런데 (.) "쉽죠, 이해 다 되죠." 그러면은. 마치/. 이해를 못 하면은. 평균이 이르지 못하는 뭔가를 하는 것 같은 (S: 죄송해요) 그런 생각이 든단 말이에요 별로 쉽지도 않았는데. 그래서 flustered가/ (.) 된다는 거야, affectively.

What [teachers] need to consider is, saying "It's going to be difficult" (S: Urk) or "There are too many things [to learn]." These will make your students think "Oh [my teacher] said it's difficult. It's gonna be really demanding." Or "Isn't there too much?" Pedagogically. Sometimes I said those things, but this is one thing that novice teachers have to keep in mind. On the contrary, the same for "Isn't it easy? You all understood it." ((S giggles)) It wasn't easy for me. Not at all. [I] didn't get it either. However [when teachers said] it's easy or you've got everything, it could make your students feel bad about themselves, not being part of the majority or below average (S: I'm sorry), if they don't understand. When it wasn't easy at all. [Your students] feel frustrated.

Excerpts 20.1 and 20.2 (below) were responses to what one student unconsciously said during her presentation, probably coming from her established teaching habits, evoking Professor Lee's intention to fix them. As an introduction to her presentation, the student said "These are what we are going to cover today. Quite a lot (.) We have to do it, although we don't

want to, as it will be on exams. So... ((Ss started laugh)) [저희가 오늘 앞으로 할 내용이에요. 조금 많죠 (.) 그래도 하기 싫지만 결국 해야 돼요. 왜냐면 시험에 나올 거니까. 그래서... ((학생들 웃기 시작))]

In Extract 20.1, Professor Lee directly told the student not to tell the class whether something was (or was going to be) easy or difficult, as such comments could unnecessarily frustrate and discourage students psychologically. She further explained, when a teacher described the material as difficult, for example, students could feel overwhelmed even before they were introduced to the target forms. When told it was easy, on the other hand, students who did not understand might feel not only discouraged but also disconnected from the rest of the class who seemed to understand everything as the teacher said. After 20.1, Professor Lee provided the use of *you* (e.g., “You are going to learn past tense today”) instead of *we* or *us* as another example of what to avoid in teachers’ language, as it could make students feel alone, not as part of a team working together. Professor Lee told students to be mindful about the impact that these seemingly trivial choices might have on students’ learning, in relation to a need to be informed about related fields, including educational psychology as well as second language acquisition.

#### 20.2. A comment about asking questions with two choices (Day 5, July 30)

P: 자, input flood 가기전에, 질문할 때, 선생님들이, 선생님들이 어떻게 질문을 했냐면 (1)

“시간이 오래 걸릴까요? 작게 걸릴까요?” 이렇게 말을 했죠, 어. (.7) 그죠. (.) 그리고, 뭐 (...)

“나중에 나타날 거예요 ((학생들 웃기 시작)) 빨리.. 나타날 거예요” 이렇게 말했다? 이렇게 말을 했죠. (.) 다, 나도 모르게 어떻게 질문을 하는 거예요?

Ss: 답은 정해졌어 ((여럿이 대답하고, 크게 웃음))

P: So before we move on to input flood, when [you] asked a question, how you asked it

(1) “Is it going to take long? Or not long?” Right. (.7) And (.) “It [the effect] will appear later ((Ss started to giggle, realizing what the issue was)) [or] quickly.. appear.” You said so? You did. (.) How did you ask the questions, unconsciously?

Ss: There’s an answer you want ((a few students answered together and laughed out loud))

In this Excerpt, Professor Lee was correcting the way that the same student presenter asked questions with two choices, “How much time does L2 knowledge development take, not

explicit knowledge but implicit knowledge. Does it need a lot of time? Or not so much? [L2 지식의 발달, 특히 explicit knowledge가 아니라 implicit knowledge는. 시간이 오래 걸려요 짧게 걸려요?]" The student repeated the same pattern immediately, "And also, what about the effects of implicit instruction? Do [the effects] of the method appear **sometime after** or **immediately**? [implicit knowledge를 교수법이, 교수법이 효과가 시간이 좀 지나서 나타날까요? 바로 지금 당장 나타날까요?]" As noted in the literature about teachers' talk, what Professor Lee pointed was that the student put the intended answer first in both questions. Saying it was quite common for teachers to do so, Professor Lee suggested that they need to pay more attention to how they asked questions and to make them real questions, not with presupposed answers first, so their students actually think about the answers. Although students might not be aware of these minor differences, Professor Lee said that teachers had to know about them and use the language mindfully.

**Speak Clearly with Various Tones.** On Day 6, Professor Lee commented on another student's very soft and monotonous voice, which was hard to hear. After the student had introduced herself, Professor Lee immediately asked, "Can you speak a bit louder? [선생님 좀만 더 큰 소리로 해주면 안 될까?]" After half of the presentation, Professor Lee had to ask again to speak loudly with various pitches, otherwise she would lose students' attention or make them fall asleep. She said, "What if you talked too quietly? (1) It may help [students] concentrate, but it could sound like a lullaby after some time. [너::무 작게 말하면 어때? (1) 때로는 집중이 되지만/ 어느 시간이 지나면은/, 약간 자장가처럼 들리는 거지.]" Before the comment, Professor Lee talked about

positive aspects of talking gently, how it could make teachers' corrections or feedback less offensive to students. Later when I talked to Professor Lee about the student, she frankly admitted that she struggled to get accustomed to the student's speech, her unusual way of talking, and not just because of low volume. I also found this student's presentation was the most difficult one to transcribe as her voice was not clear. As Professor Lee said, it was also the most difficult to analyze as often I was unsure what the student was trying to say. Listening to unusually long pauses and reading of bullet points from the handout without explanation made me doubt the student's understanding of the text. These suggestions showed that Professor Lee was paying attention to students' language uses and behaviors during presentations, which, as she explained in the interview, was why she asked students to present. As these directly responded to students' habits, some students found it more relevant and tried to adjust their way of speaking as Professor Lee suggested.

### *Teachers as a Reliable Source of Knowledge*

There was another suggestion, more generally related to teachers' preparation to the class and being reliable source to students, being able to able answer questions.

Excerpt 21. Transcript about teachers being reliable resources (Day 8, August 2)

그리고. 애들이 질문을 했어. 어. 그러면 교사는 기본적으로 어째야 돼? (.) 답을 해/ 줄 수 있어야 돼, 왜. 교사의 역할 중 하나가 resources의 역할, 이기 때문에. 교사가 사람이니까 어쩔 수 있어요. 물어보는 거에 대해서/ 정답을/. 모를 수 있지, 어떻게 다 알아. 모를 수 있어요 충분히. 모를 수, 있지만. 그러면은 어째야 돼. 찾아봐서 해결해서, 반드시 알려줘야 돼. 그리고. 모를 수 있는게. 어찌면 안돼 (.) 매번 반복되면 안돼 (.) 어? 모르겠는데 아우 선생님도 모르나보다. 선생님이 찾아가시고, 이야기 해줄게. 이야기 해줬어. 우리 선생님은 잘 몰랐는데, 난 되게 친절하게 가르쳐줬어. 물어볼 때마다 모르겠는데? 모르겠는데. 모르겠는데 (.) 그러면 어때. 애들이 물어보고 싶겠어 나중에? 물어봐봤자 물어보면 모를텐데. 이렇게 되겠조. 그것보다 더 큰 문제는 또 뭐야 (.) 신뢰도가 떨어지겠지. 그 사람에 대한. Trust, 가 안 생기는 거야. 그럼 그 수업에 집중을 하겠어?

And [your] students ask questions. Then what teachers should do? (.) [They] should be able to answer them. Why? One of teachers' jobs is to be resources. Of course teachers may not have answers all the time. There could be things that you don't know. How can [teachers] know everything? It's okay. Yet, what should you do if it happens? You should look it up and let the student know the answer. And. Such situations should not occur again. Huh? I don't know. Ah, my teacher doesn't know either. I will get back to you after I look it up. You did that. My teacher didn't know, but I returned [my students] kindly [with answers]. [sic] But if it is repeated, [you] don't know whenever [students] ask questions, I don't know, I don't know (.), then would your students want to ask you anything? [They] think well, [my teacher] doesn't know anyway. What is more important than that (.) [You] lose [students'] **trust**. Do you think those students would pay attention to [your] class then?

Excerpt 21 was one of comments made spontaneously out of context, not from observations of students' behaviors on Day 8. For example on the day, approximately an hour before the end of the class, Professor Lee quickly wrapped up the first handout about the textbook. It was obvious that the students were hopeful the class would end early until they saw another handout. Reading students' mood about disappointment, Professor Lee talked about preparing backup materials for occasions such as having extra time that could happen for unexpected reasons. And then Professor Lee suggested teachers being reliable resources for their students in Excerpt 21. This Excerpt followed the point about teachers' class preparation, yet seemed a bit disconnected from what she was saying, suddenly telling that teachers should be prepared to answer any questions from their students. She acknowledged that there could be occasions that teachers may not have answers immediately. However, Professor Lee strongly stated that teachers "must provide answers" afterwards, and such situations should not occur repeatedly, as it not only silenced students, discouraging them from asking questions, but also affected students' trust in teachers' expertise. A lack of the trust in teachers could result in losing students' interest in English learning and participation in class. Therefore, Professor Lee argued for teachers' responsibility in general, saying "If **my attitude** and **my class** could influence a **number** of students, then [I] **should feel responsibility** [나의 태도와, 나의 수업이 다수의 학생에게

영향을 미칠 수 있는 여지가 있다면/ 책임감을/ 가질, 필요는 분명히 있겠죠.]” In line with her previous emphasis on teachers’ job as to offer equal English learning opportunities for all students above (e.g., Excerpts 10 & 13), Professor Lee kept reminding students about the ethical aspects of teaching profession.

### ***Teachers’ Behaviors***

Lastly, Professor Lee gave two additional, and not contextualized suggestions for teachers’ behaviors: being active and energetic (Day 5) and keeping upright posture in class (Day 8). The former, being more cheerful and encouraging, was related to a suggestion about speaking with expression above. Related to her comment about monotonous voice on Day 6 from above, Professor Lee told about it a day before, “What teachers need to be in class. They need to be energetic [교사는 교실에서 어찌는 게 좋아요. energetic한게 좋아],” casually after the break. She told students to keep in mind that their attitudes as teachers could affect students’ learning, saying that “A teacher [I] cannot demonstrate all these. That’s why I’m telling this. ((giggles)) [가르치는 사람이 다 충분히 example로 줄 순 없어. 그렇기 때문에 말로 해 주는 거예요. ((살짝 웃으면서. 학생들도 가볍게웃음))]” Unlike pedagogical suggestions from above, it was not associated with particular students’ behaviors in class, but said out of context.

As for the latter comment, it might have been another reflective comment on her own posture, as she was sitting on a chair in class, not standing, with her back turned to the presenter and the projector screen. She was telling students, “You shouldn’t do what I do. [You] are looking at a very bad example. ((chuckles)) [여러분 이렇게 하면 안 돼요. 나쁜 예를 보고 있는 거예요. ((웃음))]” Then she mentioned other physical behaviors of teachers, such as folding arms and



crossing legs, body language that is known to signal defensiveness. She explained that displaying such defensive attitudes [방어적 태도] in classrooms could make students feel distance from the teacher. Telling that she, as a teacher, was not always demonstrating ideal behaviors, perhaps Professor Lee felt a need to remind students explicitly, not to think it's appropriate to do the same in their classrooms. A few more comments about teachers' general instructional behaviors included being tech-friendly and using more technology resources to maintain the interest of students these days, and relating lessons to daily life with many examples.

Professor Lee knew that she was pouring on much additional information in addition to the targeted content in this course. She said, "You might go crazy [정신병 걸릴 수도 있어]" from paying attention to all these details about their own language or behavior for teaching. It may not be possible to adjust all of their behaviors, Professor Lee expected to see gradual changes in a long term, by raising awareness consistently. This could be one reason why Professor Lee tended to respond to behaviors of students, that were more relevant to them, not giving full lists of what to do and not do in class. Here Professor Lee's belief about knowledge was clear again, that teachers needed to know and be mindful about these psychological effects on learning, no matter how demanding it could be. She wanted her students to understand that teaching was a very complicated task and a need to be pedagogically informed, saying "There are differences between when you know and when you don't know [about these aspects]. [알고 있는 거하고 아예 모르고 있는 거하고는 다르죠.]" This approach to knowledge-informed practices was observed throughout semester, and related to the following section about developing teachers' attitudes as lifelong learners and novice researchers.

## **Developing Research and Learning Attitudes**

The third component of Professor Lee's beliefs was reflected in her efforts to develop her students' learning attitudes as lifelong learners and analytic dispositions as novice researchers. In addition to developing linguistic and language pedagogical knowledge from teacher training, Professor Lee as a teacher educator wanted to prepare English teachers for their continuous learning after training, so that they could be able to manage unexpected challenges arose from teaching. Also importantly as an instructor of graduate students, Professor Lee considered her responsibility included preparing students as researchers, as stated in the syllabus and explained during personal communications. The focus on research stood out from the first day of class, when she drew attention to its importance, knowing that it was a new area for most of her students. Three major categories of inquiry were observed in this class: a) understanding research related jargon, b) reading findings analytically and critically, and c) finding one's own research interests and developing necessary research skills. These research-related topics were highly associated with the emphasis on developing students' self-guided learning attitudes, needed to learn more about anything that they did not understand from the class. This section first illustrates an explicit emphasis on research in the methods course, followed by excerpts that supported the three categories of inquiry.

### ***Research Focus in the Methods Course***

Reading materials in relation to one's own English teaching was Professor Lee's first major emphasis introduced above. Not limited to drawing pedagogical implications, she spent significant amount of time to establish students' analytic and critical reading attitudes as consumers of research, not only in this class but throughout their careers. The emphasis on

thinking as a researcher was explicitly conveyed on the first page of syllabus, where Professor Lee concluded the course description with her expectation to see students' "intellectual commitment and academic effort," and "professional growth," which were elaborated as "growth in their capacity to contribute original and useful ISLA research in the L2 field" in the following sentence. Ideally these could be achieved through "readings, discussions, in-class data analysis, and execution of original research by [course] participants" (Course syllabus, 2018, p. 1). However, many of these activities did not occur in this class, as major assignments for the course were reaction papers, student presentations, and the final exam. Professor Lee explained that she decided to have a final exam not a research paper, considering students' lack of familiarity to the field. Instead, she used the course as an introduction to theories of second language teaching necessary to graduate training and up-to-date research (personal communications, January 9, 2019). Regarding preparation to conduct research, it consisted multiple components of learning about researchers' attitudes, analytic and rigorous research methods, and writing academically. The course description below in Excerpt 22 represented these expectations, assisting students to contribute to the field with their own research.

Excerpt 22. A list of course objectives (Course syllabus, 2018, pp. 1-2)

On successful completion of this course, students will be able:

1. To become familiar with theories, methods, and findings in the field of ISLA;
2. To develop an expert understanding of ISLA;
3. To raise awareness on aspects and issues on ISLA;
4. To develop their ability to read ISLA research reports critically and meaningfully;
5. To relate understanding on ISLA with current L2 classroom settings in Korea or in other countries;
6. To promote research in the field ISLA.

In addition to comprehending the textbook's coverage of topical issues in ISLA, such as teaching grammar or vocabulary, relevant research aspects were explicitly stated in course objectives 1, 4, and 6, and implicitly in 2 and 3. Altogether, students were expected to

understand issues/topics, theories, methods, and findings in ISLA, critically relate readings to the Korean context. These are necessary to achieve the last objective, “to promote research” in the field. As mentioned above, contribution to scholarship involved conducting original research in their own classroom informed by knowledge about theories, issues, and research about ISLA, which explained Professor Lee’s focus on introducing students to research during first two days and emphasis on developing analytic perspectives throughout the course.

These research-driven objectives explained the selection of the textbook, Loewen (2014), which was heavily focused on theoretical concerns and empirical research findings with less space devoted to pedagogical implications. The optional text (R. Ellis, 2012) might have been included to address research areas that were not included in Loewen from other perspectives, such as classroom discourse, interactions, tasks, and instruction. However, Professor Lee was able to cover only the introduction of the Ellis text on Days 1 and 2, which she used to initiate conversations with students, about what research meant and different research types. For the rest of the course, the text was rarely referred to. Not surprisingly, students never mentioned Ellis during their presentations, as they were already struggling with reading the primary textbook. Two additional texts that Professor Lee suggested students to read for more information in class and from which she drew supplementary materials for the class were Brown and Lee’s (2015) *Teaching by principles* and Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Snow’s (2014) *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*. As mentioned before, these texts were two of primary texts required for English teachers. When I asked about why she did not use one of those texts, three reasons Professor Lee gave was to avoid repetition for students who already took methods courses in undergraduate, to introduce issues in the field generally but not too complicated, and to cover recent research findings (personal communications, January 16, 2019). On the syllabus, the

expectation about self-guided learning and reading more references was observed when Professor Lee reviewed a list of additional references and journal articles that students needed to check out as researchers. While reviewing both lists on the first day, Professor Lee asked students whether they knew any of those journals or domestic conferences. Students' immediate answer was no, showing their novice status and general lack of knowledge about research. Professor Lee responded cynically saying "Not at all? You must be proud of [your ignorance]. [없어? 자랑이다]"

### ***Conversation about Research in Class***

The emphasis on research immediately emerged on the first day, when Professor Lee opened the class with general open-ended questions about research: What is research?

Excerpt 23. Professor Lee's perspective about research

23.1. Definition of research from handout about Introduction (Handout provided on Day 2, July 24)

What is research?

➔ What kinds of ideas or expressions can you come up with whenever you listen to the word "research"?

(1) Collins dictionary: work that involves studying something and trying to discover facts about it

(2) Oxford advanced learner's dictionary: a careful study of a subject especially in order to discover new facts or information about it

(3) Dornyei (2007): trying to find answers (or information) to questions in a rather organized and systematic way.

23.2. Transcript about meaning of research (Day 2, July 24)

그리고 기본적으로. 여러분이 지금 일학년도 있고: 이학년도 있고 삼학년도 있고:/ graduate level 이라고 하지만은/ (.) research나 이런 단어가 조금 생소한 경향이 있어서. research 라고 하는 것은 어떤 것인지. Dictionary definition을 한번/ 찾아 보았고. 그리고 L2 field에서는 주로 어떻게/:: broad하게 정의를 하고 있는지. 생각을 해봤죠. 그랬더니/ 뭔가 의문점이 생기거나 의심이 생기거나 하는/, 경우에. Answers. 또는/ Facts. 또는/ information.을 찾으려고 노력을 하는데/ 그냥 random 하고 subjective한 방법으로 찾는게 아니라/ rather/ organized and systemic 한 방법으로/ 그 답을 찾아나가는 일련의 과정들을 다 research라고 한다더라 (.) And some of you are in first year, second year, or third year in graduate school, but not familiar with terms like research. So [we] looked at the definition of research in

dictionaries. And how it was broadly defined in the field of L2 research. Then [we found that] research is a process of finding answers, facts, or information for questions or doubts, using rather organized and systemic ways, not random or subjective ways.

Professor Lee asked “What is research?” and “What kinds of ideas come to your mind when you hear the word research?” from Excerpt 23.1 multiple times in English and Korean. To elicit more responses from students, she also asked alternative questions about their thoughts, impressions, or anything about research as a concept, its definition or meaning. Then students gave short answers such as “Do [something] voluntarily to know about something [of my own interests] [자발적으로 뭔가 알아보고 싶어서],” “It should be grounded on facts [팩트에 기반을 두어야 할 것 같아요],” “It just sounds demanding [그냥 힘들 것 같아요],” “Think I have to read a lot of literature [선행 연구를 많이 읽어야 할 것 같아요],” and “Graphs, numbers.” Using an answer from one student, “Choosing a topic of interest and reading references [about it]... [관심 있는 주제를 정해서 참고 문헌도 읽고...],” Professor Lee pointed out that research was primarily driven by questions or interests of a researcher (who can be a teacher in classroom research), for example, to find effective instructional strategies or classroom activities. What she intended to explain was that research did not need to be theoretical, but can be about practical questions that teachers wanted to know more about from teaching. With these answers Professor Lee moved on to the definition of research on Collins and Oxford dictionary in Excerpt 23.1, where she explained research as “discovering new things” that were supported by “factual” evidence. She also emphasized taking “organized, systematic, and scientific” approaches to answer questions not random or subjective without established criteria. This conversation was repeated on Excerpt 23.2, from the beginning of the class on the following day. On Day 2, Professor Lee started the class reminding the addressed features of research as answering questions in systemic ways,

telling students to review what they learned after every class. Then she expressed the expectation about research in graduate level, telling it might be still new to many students. The excerpt shows Professor Lee's teaching to assist students understand unfamiliar contents, with quick summaries at the end of major sections or at the end of class, also at the beginning of the class. Within limited time, she tried to reiterate key ideas as much as possible, so students could remember more. In addition to students' lack of knowledge about research and Professor Lee's teaching practice, this series of interactions showed how Professor Lee had to repeat the same question multiple times to elicit students' responses. Students' reluctance to answer and often meagre responses might indicate that they were not used to sharing their thoughts in class.

### ***Explaining Research Jargon***

Knowing students' lack of background knowledge, Professor Lee explained various research terms from the textbook throughout the semester. The scope of research jargon is broad, but this section focuses on explanation about research methods and their particular terminologies, given the emphasis on organized and systemic approaches in definitions of research drew attention. Below Excerpts 24 and 25 report explanation about "research methodology" and "recall methods" respectively.

Excerpt 24. Transcript about explaining research methodology (Day 3, July 25)

자 SLA research methodology하고. ISLA, research methodology는, 동일하지 않을 수 있다::라고 이야기를 해주고 있어요. (...) 동일하지, 않거나. 또는/ directly relevant하지는 않을 수 있다. 라고 이야기를 해주는데. 도대체 SLA research methodology가 뭘 줄 알아야지. 동일하지 않:네, 동일하네:: 직접 연결이 되네 안되네 이야기 할 수 있을 거 아니야. 그래서. 어떤 면에서 한번/, directly relevant 하지 않을 수 있느냐. 하고 봤더니 (.) Empirical and methodological issues surrounding conducting research (.) 하는데 있어서 사용되는 Methodology (.) 자체가. 쓰, instruction 상황에서는 (.) 그렇게, 중요하지 않거나 (.) 또는 (.) Pedagogically 교육적인 함의를/ (.) 지니고 있지 않거나. 교육적인 문제를 해결해 나가고 싶어서 방법을 사용하지 않거나. 하는 경우가 종종, 있다::라는 거예요 (.) 그러니까, 다시 말하자면. 그냥. Research를 하기 위해

사용하는 method. 일 뿐이지. 그게 pedagogically, 의미가 있는 method (.) 는 아닐 경우가 종종, 있다. 그렇기 때문에. SLA에서/ 쓰여지는 많은 연구들이. 완전히 똑같이 차용해서 ISLA에서/ 똑같이 사용할 수 있다. 라고 말하기는 힘들다.

[The text] says that SLA research methodology and ISLA research methodology could be different. (...) [It] says that [they] could be different or not directly relevant. But then you need to know what on earth SLA research methodology means in order to tell whether it's the same, relevant or different. So [the text] looks into the aspects that they are not directly relevant. Methodology used in "empirical and methodological issues surrounding conducting research" might not be meaningful for instruction, not have pedagogical implications, or not be used to solve educational issues. Therefore, in other words, it's just a method to conduct research, not necessarily a pedagogically useful method. Therefore, it is difficult to say that all SLA research is applicable to ISLA research.

Excerpt 24 is from Professor's review of three orientations regarding instruction in SLA and whether they supported effectiveness of instruction. Telling the differences between SLA and ISLA, Professor Lee pointed out that students had to understand research methodology from SLA may not be the same with ones finding effective instruction. In order to understand how they were different, it required understanding about the term "research methodology" meant, as Professor Lee said in the excerpt. However in the following statements, it was uncertain whether students could understand what "methodology" was, as she used another terminology without definition, "empirical and methodological issues." She continued to explain those differences were due to the purpose of conducting research in SLA, that was not necessarily related to instructional concerns. Therefore one message inferred from this Excerpt was that students should understand the focus of ISLA on teachers' instruction and its impacts on students' learning, which both distinguished it from theoretically-driven and closely-related fields like SLA and linguistics. What English teachers had to do was drawing pedagogical insights from these fields. For example Professor Lee told students to remember that skill acquisition theory, interference hypothesis, and interaction approaches from SLA as principal theories supporting instruction. The emphasis on understanding theoretical underpinnings prepared students to be theoretically informed supporting teaching behaviors, that they need to address in the teacher



employment exam later. For example later Professor Lee asked students to explain the relation between SLA and ISLA with examples in the final exam. Clarifying relation of these theories with teaching was one of areas that required Professor Lee's explanation early in the class, when the texts were introducing development of the field. Additional concepts that she explained on Day 2 included interlanguage, contrastive analysis, error analysis, L1 transfer, generalization, immersion or content-based classroom, focus on form, and more. As these terms often appeared in the textbook for different issues as primary constructs or research methods, knowledge about them was important for students.

Limited time in class did not allow Professor Lee to relate all concepts to teaching, so she could elaborate on selected ones and intended to develop students' analytic reading skills as well as their theoretical knowledge. In a long term, it was more beneficial for students to practice how to make connections to their teaching on their own. The intention of develop students' analytical thinking explained why Professor Lee tried to create discussion-based class, to understand readings from various perspectives (personal communication, January 16, 2019). She asked many questions calling for students' understanding or questions that they needed further explanation, as well as their thoughts or experiences. Students' verbal confirmation and participation in class could have directed Professor Lee's instruction more relevant to students' concerns and to practical issues they had experienced. Regardless of her awareness of the need for clarification, however, sometimes Professor Lee got distracted and did not give explanations immediately or clearly when the terms appeared as shown in Excerpt 24, where she used a related term, "empirical and methodological issues," and "method," to explain "research methodology" that students might not know.

## ***Reading Research Terminology and Methodological Concerns***

Another research-related aspect that Professor Lee wanted her students to know methodological concerns, which assisted drawing implications of readings and also conducting their own research. Excerpts 25 and 26 below show how Professor Lee went beyond simply explaining the popular data elicitation methods, think aloud, recall, and stimulated recall.

Excerpt 25. Transcript about recall and stimulated recall methods (Day 3, July 25)

P: 그게, recall, test. 또는 stimulated recall은/ 말씀하신 것처럼. 뭔가를, 했어. (1.5) 애들이 interaction을 하거나 뭔가를 막 했던 말이에요. 그것을/ 딱 녹화를 해 봤어. 그리고 나서 어, “이때 이런 말을 했었는데. 이때/ 무슨 생각을 가지고 이런 말을 한거야? 이런 행동을 한거야? 아, 이 말은 넌 정확하게 어떤 의미로/ 했던 거야?” 이런식으로/ 기억을 해내라고 요구할수도 있는 거죠. 그런 것들은 다 recall 이나 stimulated recall이에요. 자. 이것도. 문제가 있다면 어떤 문제가 있을 수 있어 (.) 장점이 분명히 있겠지만. 그리고 어떤 상황에서는. 항상 과거의 경험이나 기억을 한번 생각해봐라, 라고/ 그런식으로 물을 수밖에 없는 경우가 생기겠죠. 항상 우리의 경험은/ 과거치가 되니까. (2) 근데 만약, 문제가 있을 수 있다면. 어떤 문제가 있을 수 있을까?

S: 그 기억이 왜곡됐을 수도 있을 것 같아요

P: As you said, recall test or stimulated recall are about. Something (1.5) done by students, did interaction or something. [You] video recorded that. Then [you are] asking [students] to talk about, “You said this at that time, why did you say that? Why did you do that? What did you mean when you said this?” Those are recall or stimulated recall. Then. What kinds of issues can you expect? (.) There surely are advantages. In some cases, you can only ask retrospectively about [participants'] experiences or memories of the past. Our experiences are always of the past. (2) But then, if there could be problems. What kinds of problems can exist?

S: That memory could be biased.

With the focus on research, that students were not familiar, Professor Lee tended to spend time on methods as much as possible whenever they appeared in the text. Excerpt 25 shows an instance of two data elicitation methods, recall and stimulated recall, which she elaborated after talking about another popular method, think aloud. Earlier Professor Lee asked what recall and stimulated recall meant, as they were related to think aloud at least in two aspects: researchers could use these methods to determine what participants were thinking in verbal forms, and they were widely used due to their convenience. Before Excerpt 25, Professor Lee gave two sample

questions researchers asked to elicit former experiences from their participants: “When did you feel least motivated to study English?” Uh, “When did you feel most motivated to study English? If you weren’t motivated, what made you feel so? [가장:: 영어 공부를 하고 싶지 않았을 때는 어느 시기였습니까? 어, 영어를 가장 공부하고 싶었을 때는 어떤 때였습니까? 하기 싫었다면, 어떤 이유에서 하기 싫었습니까?]” So students heard about popular data elicitation methods, including questions to ask that Professor Lee further elaborated in Excerpt 25. When students’ interactions were video-recorded, then researchers could ask students to talk about their particular statements or behaviors as prompts for targeted recall.

In the second half of Excerpt 25, Professor Lee prompted her students to think about possible drawbacks of using these convenient methods which she cued by alluding to the limitations of memory for accurate recall. Following the cues at the end of this excerpt, the class discussed such possibilities as that participants were not always able to recall accurately, were not used to expressing their thoughts in verbal forms, or did not report their feelings honestly to save face. Professor Lee concluded this conversation telling that participants’ behaviors in responding to the methods could affect the quality of the data. Professor Lee also cautioned that experienced participants might recognize what researchers were looking for and tailor their answers accordingly, saying that “Drawing discussions [implications] from those less honest [responses] could not be very meaningful. [그럼 덜 솔직한 것을/ 바탕으로 해서 막 결과를 내놨다. 그러면은/ 별로 의미가/ 없을 수 없는 게 되겠죠.]” This knowledge about methodological impacts on research findings is important for students to decide whether they can adopt the reported approaches in their teaching, reflecting on how reliable the research methods and findings are as shown in Excerpt 26 about the term “effect size.”

Excerpt 26. Transcript about explaining effect size (Day 5, July 30)

그냥 (.) 우연히 점수 차이가 나는게 아니라 뭔가 이유 때문에 이 반이 더 높았어, 그런데 어쩔 수 있어? 그 효과가 굉장히 (.) 작을 수 있죠 그런데 나는 진짜 백날, 백시간 준비를 해가지고 딱 한번 써. 한번 썼는데 요 반의 점수가, 진짜 **요만큼** 유의미하게 높게 나왔어. 어, 그리고 효과가, 별로 그렇게 두드러지지 않아. 그렇다면은 어때요, 그것을 하는 의미가 (.) **크게** (.) 없겠죠. 그러면 **조금 더** 효과가 있는 방법을 찾아보는게 더 (.) practical 할 (.) 수가 있죠. 내 준비 시간에 비해서. 그런 것을 따는, 따지는게 effect. 또는 effect size라고 말을 해요. 그래서 small effect 또는 small effect size 이렇게 말을 하면은 (.) 오? 유의미하게 나타나긴 했는데 그 효과라고 하는게 엄청 크진 않다. 조금 있어 라는 거고 medium effect size 그러면 어느 정도는 있어. Large effect size 있어보면 **진짜** 효과가 커. 이렇게 나타나는 거예요. 그러니까 large effect size는 정말로 시도해 볼 만한 가치가 있는 것이 되고 medium도 (.) 내 학생들에게 어떻게 나타날지 모르지만 그래도 어느정도 검증된 거니까 한번 해볼만 하죠. 그런데 small effect size는 (.) 내 경험치하고 조금 비교를 해봐가지고 (.) 또는 내 학생들의 성향을 비교해봐가지고 신중하게 조금 선택을, 할, 필요가 있겠죠.

The differences in [experiment] scores were not accidental because there is something unknown about the class, but what could happen? The effect could be insignificant. But I spent hours and hours to prepare that [method] and used once, which increased this class's score **slightly** meaningfully. Huh, and the effect is not obvious. Then it's better to seek for more effective ways, considering my prep time. This is what effect, or effect size is about. Thus small effect, or small effect size means that its effect is not big enough but small. Medium effect size is moderately effective. Large effect size is **really** effective. Thus large effect size deserves trying, and probably medium too. It may work differently for my students, but may deserve trying as it's proved. But for small effect size, you need to make decisions carefully, considering your experience and your students' traits.

This Excerpt, in which Professor Lee used the terms “effect size” and “statistically significant” or “meaningful” effects to explain how knowing research terms facilitates active reading of research, was prompted by a phrase in the text, “a large effect for L2 learning....” Telling that these terms were commonly used in (quantitative) reports of the impact of instruction on learning, Professor Lee told students can refer to the effect size of an intervention to predict its effectiveness. Excerpt 26 shows an explanation about small, medium, and large effect sizes of statistically meaningful results. Although the intervention was meaningful, one with small effect size may not deserve spending hours and hours to adopt it. Instead, finding approaches that reported large or medium effect sizes might be practical, as larger effect sizes

indicate broader applicability. Professor Lee concluded her suggestion telling to choose interventions that proved higher efficacy. If students want to try those with smaller effect size, they need to carefully evaluate contextual information from the methods part (e.g., students' features) as well as research findings and discussion to determine contextual differences and to predict effects in their classrooms. Once again, the importance of making informed instructional decisions by understanding settings was highlighted.

**Preparing Students' Own Research.** Explaining research terminology reflected Professor Lee's one of primary intentions, to prepare for their own research projects, which was one of main degree requirements for GSE. Their awareness of various aspects of research is expected to be resulted in conducting a rigorous research and writing a report about it, to fulfill the requirement for their master's degree and to contribute to scholarly conversation about English teaching in Korea. Although above Excerpts about research all belonged to this category in the end, this part reports data that Professor Lee addressed an importance of conducting empirical research from one's own classroom, followed by one example research topic she provided in class.

Excerpt 27. Transcript about the need to collect primary data (Day 2, July 24)

우리는. Primary data를 가지고 하는 연구를 주로:// 행하고 있어요. 많은 경우에. Primary data. 를/ 가지고 하는. Primary research가 갖고 있는/ 중요성이 있기 때문에 그렇게/ (.) 그렇겠쥬. 당연히. 그렇다면. 도대체 왜 primary research를 할 필요가 있을까요 (.) 이미:: (.) 연구된 것도 많고. 거기서 그냥/ 따오면 될텐데 (.) 왜 primary research를/ 할/ 필요가 있을까요. 왜 그게 중요할까. (4.5)

Conduct (.) **my own** research (.) with my **own** data (.) 를 할/ 필요가 있다면. 도대체 그 이유가 뭘까. (2.7) 나보다 열심히 공부한 사람들이 수년 동안 (1) 이거@@ 뭐 이것도 하고 이것도 하고. 다:: 한 거 같은데. 그럼 열심히 읽고 나서 적용하기만 하면:: 될 거 같은데. 왜/ primary research를/ 할 필요가 있을까요. (2)

In many cases we do research using primary data. Of course because there's an importance of conducting primary research, using primary data. For sure. Then why do

[we] need to do primary research (.) There are tons of topics that are reported already and we can replicate what's reported there (.) Why [we need to do] primary research. Why it's important. (4.5)

What's a reason for conducting (.) my own research (.) with my own data (.) what's the reason for that. (2.7) People who worked much harder than I do did this @@ and that over years, seemed to do all [research]. Then [I] just need to read and apply them. Why [do we] need to do primary research.

Excerpt 27 is from a discussion about types of research on Day 2: primary and secondary.

Two common examples of the latter that students brought up were literature reviews and meta-analyses, from which drawing general answers to questions by reviewing related studies.

Professor Lee used these examples to compare primary data with secondary data and then discuss reasons for conducting their own research using data that they collected in Excerpt 27.

She asked, why “we [educators] do research with primary data” that we collected from our own classroom settings. After repeating the question of why teachers should collect primary data

three times in this Excerpt, one student said “Doing research with existing data ((chuckles)) could mean accepting someone else's research [without questions] (P: Mhm), which makes

[researchers] be passive [있는 자료::를 가지고 ((웃으면서)) 연구를 하면:: 어떻게 말하면 타인의

연구(.)를 수용하는 거:: 니까. (P: 응) 수렴적이 될 수가 있을 거 같아요-].” This may not be the

answer she was expecting, but Professor Lee associated it to the overarching topic, researchers'

analytic attitudes toward answering questions, which she used to emphasize the relevance of

primary data to teachers: “That's why **I** have to collect my own data, to find effective methods

for **my** students. [내가 내 학생들한테 적용을 해서 효과적인 방법을 찾아 내기 위해서는/ (.) my own

data를 collect. 해야 할 필요가있겠다 라는 거예요.]” This is why we need to do primary research in

our classroom, although students might think that scholars seemed to investigate all possible

topics. Given the various contexts of research reported in the textbook, this comment broadly

underscored the need to developing analytic reading abilities drawing pedagogical implications, collect primary data in classrooms with our own students, and contribute to the advancement of English teaching research in Korea. These comments showed Professor Lee's intention to develop students' knowledge about research and encourage them to think about possible research ideas for their own contexts.

**Research Idea: Wait Time.** In the meantime, Professor Lee also tried to assist students to think about some research topics for their projects. She recommended ones that were reported but not fully investigated, so it was not difficult to find related literature and there was no need to provide completely novel claims. Informed by students' lack of knowledge about research, Professor Lee suggested an example of practical inquiry they could ask about teaching behaviors.

Excerpt 28. Transcript about wait time (Day 2, July 24)

그러니까 내가 실제적으로 교사로서 뭔가를 기다리면서 느끼는 시간 (.) 과 실제 시간의 gap이 굉장히 많이/ 존재를 한다라는 거 (.) 또 어떤 연구들도 있나면/, waiting time을/ 거의 안 주고. 1, 2초 주고. 어. (.) 하는/ 수업과. Waiting time을 5초에서 7초 정도 주고 하는 수업 (.) 의/ interaction의 정도와 (.) 애들의/ (.) creativity 의 정도 (.) 를 장기적으로 바라보는 거. 그리고/ (1) 영어 성적의 발달 @@.를/ 장기적으로 바라본 연구들도/ (.) 상당히 존재를 해요 (.) 그니까 그런 것도, 내가/ (.) 내 연구 주제가 될 수 있다::라는 거예요. 내가 내 수업시간에 실제적으로 행하고 있는데/ 조금 궁금한거. 어. 이런 것들도/ 다:: topic이 될 수 있다::라는 거고/

Thus there's a huge gap between how I felt as a teacher waiting for something [students' answers] and actual time passed during waiting. So there are research investigating [students'] interaction and their [development of] creativity longitudinally with no waiting time, 1 or 2 seconds waiting time, or 5 to 7 seconds waiting time. (1) There are a number of research about effects [of waiting time] on students' exam score improvement over time. So these could be my research agenda. Something I actually do in my class and want to know more about. Uh. These all could be your [research] topics.

Such comments pertaining to students' own research were less frequent than explanations of research, probably due to Professor Lee's primary attention to make sure that students understood terminology and interpreted findings properly. Excerpt 28 shows how Professor Lee elaborated what she already said as an example of research topics that arose from teaching.

Teachers' waiting time was first mentioned on Day 2 with regard to Professor Lee's instructional suggestion to give students enough time to think after asking questions. She first mentioned how providing enough wait time was proved as an important strategy for encouraging students' participation and improving their critical thinking, but was challenging for teachers without practice. She said it was easy to be impatient when time was limited in class and teachers tended to answer their own questions unconsciously when students were hesitating or still thinking. Professor Lee warned how such practice can silence students and develop a classroom culture in which the teacher does all the talking. Thus in Excerpt 28, Professor Lee told students to be mindful about wait time, as research already reported about differences between teachers' perceived and actual wait time. Teachers thought they waited long enough, but they did not. Another example that could be done regarding wait time was examining long-term effects of 1 or 2 seconds or 5-7 seconds wait time on students' interaction, creativity, or performance on exams. The excerpt was concluded reminding these practical questions about effects of their minor pedagogical behaviors can all be students' research projects. Therefore in suggesting that wait time could be a topic for a master's thesis, the point that Professor Lee wanted to address was that research did not have to be complicated or theoretically sophisticated. It could be an attempt to answer a specific question arising from their practice or reading. Professor Lee did not offer more suggestions for research topics but strongly recommended avoiding some topics that were already thoroughly examined in the program and in Korean educational journals, such as curriculum or textbook analyses.



## *Developing Reading Habits for Continuous Learning and Researching*

In order to find what they were interested in, students had to invest more time to do extensive reading, which was in line with Professor Lee's repeated emphasis on developing knowledge through reading and preparing for research in graduate level teacher training as addressed in Excerpt 29. Knowledge development required reading many sources, both introductory and advanced, to learn about concepts, theories, and terminology that were not explained in the textbook for the course. Knowledge about the field was necessary to inform students' choices of constructs, theories, and analytic approaches.

### Excerpt 29. Transcript about checking references (Day 3, July 25)

in-depth 하고, 막 특수한 terminology가 나오는 책이 아니야. 그러니까 이 책은/. 거:의 모든 terminology가 여러분이 학부때에. Cover를 했던/ TBP나, PLLT나, 이런데 다 다루어졌던 terminology가 나오는 거거든요? 그러니까. 여러분이 뭔가에 낯선 terminology가 나왔는데 좀 익숙하지 않다, 그러면은/ (.) 찾아봐야 돼요, 어? 찾아봐가지고 계속해서 반복하고 반복하고 반복하고 듣고 그러다 보면은/. 뭐 두번째 세번째는 "어 들은 적 있는데 잘 기억이 안나는데?" 이러다가/ 쯤 지나면은, 다음 학기 되면. 그 다음 학기 되면. 다음 학기 되면은/ 머릿속에 떠올르고/ settle down되고 이런 일이 있을 테니까/. 딱 보면은/ 찾아보고. 또 찾아보고. 이런 열@@을 꾸:준히 하도록 하십시오. 그리고/ 되게, content-specific한, 선택 course. 같은 것을 들으면. **당연히** 이 정도의 terminology는 알고/. 있겠지 하고 수업이 진행돼. Graduate level이기 때문에.

The textbook does not use too complicated terminologies. It uses terminologies that were explained in your undergraduate, covered in *Teaching by principles* or *Principles of language learning and teaching*. So if you encounter terminologies that look unfamiliar, then you have to look them up, right? Look them up, remind [yourself] again and again, then you may think "Hmm I think I've heard of it but cannot remember," after the second or third time you heard about it. Then after some time, maybe next semester, a semester after, you can remember them and [they] will settle down [in your mind]. So have a habit of checking references when you see unknown terms. And in these content-specific courses, your familiarity in the field is often assumed. Because these are graduate level courses.

Before one student started her presentation on Day 3, Professor Lee discussed learning attitudes and her expectation in graduate school. Assuming students' lack of background knowledge about English teaching, she encouraged them to check unknown terminology on their

own as needed, before and after class. The suggestion applied to her expectations of students' preparation for both presenting and attitudes while listening to presenters. Professor Lee repeated the admonition from the Excerpt throughout the semester, reading their material closely and multiple times for their presentation, so they would be prepared to inform their classmates and answer any questions as the expert of the day. In Excerpt 29, Professor Lee pointed out two primary references that students could check out to learn about foundational concepts and terminology: *Teaching by principles* (Brown & Lee, 2015) and *Principles of language learning and teaching* (Brown, 2016). These were also included as additional resources in the syllabus, and Professor Lee later in personal communication called them as "required" texts for English teachers in Korea (January 16, 2019). As she could not explain all new terminology from the textbook, she called for "repeating" the process of reading and reminding until they could remember, encouraging the new knowledge took time to settle down. In graduate level training, students needed to be familiarized with terminology as soon as possible, to follow reading in other graduate level courses. She confirmed the introductory function of the class to their graduate teacher training, addressing "To prepare [students] with background knowledge for graduate courses [대학원 모든 수업의 기초 지식 확보 차원]" as one of goals (personal communications, January 16, 2019). These expectations about preparation also resonated with Professor Lee's perspective above, regarding teachers being a reliable resource for students.

As shown in the discussion of developing teachers' pedagogical behaviors, these suggestions represented the differences between Professor Lee as a knowledge provider and the students as knowledge recipients in class. The differences became clear when Professor Lee explained details or suggested teaching and learning strategies, which were evoked by her observations of students' lack of preparation or misunderstanding. However, she also tried not to

discourage students by indicating that they could become knowledgeable over time. She assured the students that they could achieve her level of expertise with repeated exposure to the content, so they should not fault their lack of knowledge too harshly but stay motivated to learn. Last, Professor Lee often reminded them that the course was an introduction to the field, which did not allow time for in-depth discussion of all topics as she could provide in topical seminars. All these reasons supported her expectations concerning students' self-guided learning attitudes toward the class and their training, teaching, and research.

## **Conclusion**

The Excerpts provided in this chapter show Professor Lee's beliefs in the importance of reading literature for pre-service teachers' knowledge development, which resulted in her spending class time on explaining readings multiple ways. Given limited class time, students' lack of familiarity with the field and their passiveness in class, Professor Lee chose to inform them about the chosen concepts and theories that were related to teaching, and research terminology that could inform students' research. Her expectations of pre-service teachers' knowledge development also involved developing their analytic dispositions and learning attitudes during training, drawing attention to the long-term impacts of such habits on their thinking as educators and researchers. These patterns were influenced by the role of the course in the GSE program as an introduction to the field for students who did not have the relevant background knowledge and by lack of time to cover all assigned contents in the textbook. Lastly, these comments reflected Professor Lee's expertise in the field, in addition to her focus on vocabulary acquisition and her current involvement in her own up-to-date research.

## Chapter 6. Discussion and Conclusion

Several significant findings emerged from the analysis of the national curriculum for English education and Professor Lee's practices in the English teaching methods course for pre-service teachers in a Korean Graduate School of Education. As described in Chapter 4, the curriculum defined competence for English education and focused on communicative competence. Chapter 5 reported the teacher educator's beliefs about knowledge-base for the English teaching methods course and the beliefs informed her teaching in class. In particular, the chapter presented data that answered the second research question about the teacher educator's practices about teaching for communication and recommended teaching practices, in relation to the curriculum. Drawn from these findings, this chapter discusses three suggestions for English teacher education in South Korea, as research in teacher education consistently discussed. These call for addressing the curriculum, offering reflective and co-constructive opportunities for pre-service teachers to use the knowledge, and collaborating across courses in training, as elaborated below:

1. Teacher educators in Korea should assist pre-service teachers to understand administrative expectations about the goals of English education.
2. To be prepared for knowledge-based decision-making, pre-service teachers in South Korea need opportunities to reflect on their beliefs about English education and to contextualize their knowledge about teaching, and to develop analytic and critical attitudes.
3. Teacher educators' practices must be understood as part of its program and educational culture, that pursue a shared goal of training teachers' use of knowledge for teaching.

**Teacher educators in South Korea should assist pre-service teachers to understand administrative expectations about the goals of English education.**

The findings showed that the prospective English teachers' agreement with teaching for communication as assumed both in the curriculum and in the methods course. Chapter 4 reported that the curriculum consistently advocated a key objective of English education in Korea as developing learners' CC, as had been the case since the 1990s. Accordingly communicative activities and learner-centered teaching approaches continued to be promoted over traditional grammar-focused and teacher-centered approaches. One of the most evident changes was its shift to teachers' use of English in teaching. The curriculum defined competence for English education broadly, not limited to the acquisition of competence for English communication (Excerpt 1 & Table 4.1). It suggested teaching approaches for English aimed to help students develop ethical and character values such as developing strategies for self-guided learning, learning how to collaborate on problem-solving as a community member, acquiring awareness and appreciation of diversity, and using information ethically. Some of the related terms were not defined or clearly related to English teaching. For example, competence for community service involved the assumption that English was the representative of foreign languages and cultures. Competence in information professing also implied that English as a medium for achieving higher cognitive skills. In sections of the curriculum under Language Teaching Approaches, Evaluation, and Related Concerns, the relevance of these overarching values and their pedagogical implications were not elaborated beyond repeated calls for use of learner-centered activities and tasks related to students' daily lives to encourage students' use of English in class activities.

### ***Handling the Limited Information about Teaching for Communicative Competence (CC)***

The curriculum did not provide practical suggestions for all grade levels, perhaps because it was written for a general audience of teachers in various grade levels. Among the ways in which teaching activities were dealt with in the curriculum were a list of possible topics in the appendix and a few briefly mentioned activities for teaching in middle school (communicative language teaching, information gap, or jigsaw activities) along with reminders for teachers to create a meaningful learning environment to achieve proposed learning objectives. However, no guidance was given on ways to design more communicative and engaging activities using information from the curriculum, or how to implement communicative activities in large classes in which students had various levels of knowledge about English (see Excerpt 5). Common concerns reported in the research, such as teaching students who consider communicative activities as supplementary and are unwilling to participate actively in class (Im & Jeon, 2009; S.-Y. Kim, 2008; Li, 1998; Liu, Ahn, Baek & Han, 2004; Moon & Lee, 2002), were left to teachers to figure out on their own. The absence of advice relevant to practical concerns may imply that the curriculum was written with assumptions about teacher educators' active interventions during training to fill the gap. However, it is unfair to expect teacher educators to focus on all contingencies involved in teaching, as shown in Professor Lee's struggles to discuss practices while teaching for knowledge. Also, as E.-J. Kim (2008a) reported, in Korea, undergraduate and GSE required courses on language teaching methods that tend to be more theoretical than practical with little emphasis on concrete teaching techniques. Thus courses designed for teaching practices with titles like Teaching Reading, Teaching Pronunciation, or Curricular and Material Development [교과 교재 연구] are either not offered or not required, so

graduates from those programs may find they are not properly trained for communicative approaches when they start teaching.

This generally uninformative curriculum suggested the need for supplementary clarification of its requirements by teacher educators, preferably early in teacher training. Many terms in the curriculum were used with the assumptions of prior knowledge and agreement among teachers about primary aspects of English teaching, for example, their consensus on CC as a primary learning aim, as well their competence in the recommended English teaching practices. These assumptions, however, are not supported by the literature, which reports teachers' ongoing skepticism about teaching for communication as a primary instructional goal, at least until recently, as well as their resistance to altering their existing perspectives, even with plenty of empirical input during their training. Thus in teacher training, these aspects better not be assumed but explicitly negotiated with teachers. Changes in teacher training is going to be a first step to make changes in the society, adjusting stakeholders' beliefs aligning with the curriculum, in addition to developing materials (Markee, 1994). Also in training, teacher educators need to address the lack of references that could direct readers to information about or theoretically underpinnings for key terms or concepts (e.g., "information processing and managing," and "intelligibility") that were used without explanation. The curriculum did not inform readers appropriately and, consequently, could not convince teachers to employ the recommended approaches.

However, meaningful changes were also observed in the curriculum. The analysis in Chapter 4 showed how two well-known local challenges to top-down policy implementation were reflected in recent versions, one a call for considering students' different levels of proficiency and comfort with English when teachers speak English (Excerpt 5). The second

important change was for teachers to avoid grammar- and vocabulary-only focused exams but rather evaluate for intelligibility instead of accurate technical use of language (Excerpt 6). With a lack of explanation about the implications of this change, however, it was doubtful whether just reading the words in the curriculum would influence changes in the teachers' practices or cause them to reflect on the principles of CC instruction or their perspectives on English teaching. Likewise, other key aspects that the curriculum called for were missing details, such as how students with low proficiency experienced a learner-centered English classroom to or how to avoid teaching for vocabulary and grammar acquisition in middle or high schools, where students compete with each other for the high exam scores that determine their future educational options. More importantly, the curriculum overlooked challenges of managing impacts of macrostructures that exam-oriented culture created in classroom, such as established educational norms and expected teaching approaches from English teachers. Impacts of regulating school culture and structures on teachers' choices of instruction from the recent report were absent as well. A lack of recognizing these sociocultural elements that could place limits on teaching, suggests a need of proactive interventions during teaching training on negotiating teachers' beliefs about English learning and teaching and addressing ways to implement what they believe, informed by macrostructures that affected classroom English teaching.

### ***Promoting Fluent Communication over Accurate Knowledge through Relevant Evaluation***

The primary suggestion for assessment, not to evaluate for accurate use of advanced vocabulary and complicated sentence structures (Excerpt 6), was meaningful in the sense that it alluded to Korea's most well-known educational concern, the country's examination-oriented culture (I.-C. Choi, 2008; Gorush, 2000; Li, 1998; Nunan, 2003). Nevertheless, it could hardly be



expected that teachers would change their evaluation practices as suggested without larger contextual changes or at least guidance on how to effect such a change in orientation in actual classrooms (Fullan, 2000) and social pressure on English learners. In reality, teachers had to give final evaluations of students who were competing for higher grades, which and a convenient way was to use tests that provided definite scores. When teachers perceive high stake exams as the most controlling component in their teaching, mere repetition of the recommendations in the curriculum, therefore, could not convince teachers to change their persistent beliefs about the goals of and students' needs from English teaching in Korea. Calling readers' attention to negative consequences of accuracy-based approaches to students' evaluations might be hopeful and considerate of social fear of being evaluated as students and English teachers. Also acknowledging how the evaluative educational culture might destroy students' genuine interest in learning English, one of primary goals of English education (Table 4.1 & Excerpt 2), can raise pre-service teachers' awareness about the process of implementing the curriculum. But without an overall reform in the curriculum providing alternatives and fair evaluation criteria for all students, teachers were unlikely to change the beliefs that they had developed from own schooling and former teaching experiences only because they were advised to do so. Thus teachers returned to the traditional teaching methods that they had experienced or were satisfied with using pseudo-communicative activities that they did require them to give up their control. To achieve what the curriculum has been advocating for decades, teachers needed to be actively involved in investigating the implications of the curriculum and finding additional materials, and teacher educators' interventions for teachers' transformative experiences during training were required (Freeman, 2002; Johnson, 2006, 2015). In relation to what teacher educators need to do,

the Assertion 2 supports a need of the dialogic interactions with teachers through co-constructive and reflective conversations in teacher training.

### ***Administrative Expectation on Teachers' Agency in Decision Making***

Negotiated positions toward former MOE policies as Teaching English Through English (TETE) and communicative language teaching (CLT) to all English classrooms not only reflected criticism about unrealistically prescribing policies, but also its awareness of teachers' agency in decision making. Instead of being given labels for the best teaching methods or medium of instruction, my analysis showed that the pre-service teachers needed practical understanding. Given the limited information in the curriculum, teacher training needs to provide guidance in how to use of English and creating student-centered activities for students to practice actual use of English regularly in classrooms and provided opportunities for language use to help students overcome the drawbacks of learning English as a foreign language in a monolingual context. To make up students' limited exposure to the target language, teaching in English or the frequent use of English in class were suggested as major sources of English input (Excerpt 12). In related statements the curriculum advised its readers, especially in-service teachers, to consider learners' various language capabilities while teaching in English, so they would not lose interest. This advice not only acknowledged that one method cannot be an antidote for all learners' difficulties and in all contexts, but also encouraged teachers to make micro teaching decisions based on what is effective for their learners, not for their own convenience.

Such flexibility of teachers was reflected in other important changes made in the recent curriculum documents that acknowledged teachers' agency in making informed decisions for their contexts, which could vary across Korea. Teachers' agency in deciding what could be

effective for their students was implied in recommendations to be judicious in using English while teaching or not to teach only for accurate use of advanced grammar and vocabulary. These statements aligned with the sociocultural perspective that reshaped the knowledge-base for LTE (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2006; Johnson & Golombek, 2011), although references to resources that would support them were not provided. Except for acknowledgment of students' different levels of English proficiency, responses to the issues raised in literature and the challenges they presented were very limited and incomplete in the curriculum. For example, descriptions of possible regional differences across districts, schools, and classrooms were missing, as was discussion of the challenges of engaging students' in classroom activities when they lacked motivation and willingness to participate and to use English. Practical issues of student-centered activities required explanation, as teachers' understanding of and beliefs about teaching for communication and traditional teaching methods were uncertain and left to teacher educators without guidance.

**To be prepared for knowledge-based decision-making, pre-service teachers in South Korea need opportunities to reflect on their beliefs about English education, to contextualize knowledge of teaching, and to develop analytic and critical attitudes.**

The findings showed Professor Lee attempted to achieve knowledge about English teaching from the methods course and how she assisted students' learning with explanatory instruction. Observed lack of relations made to the curriculum and one-sided instruction for knowledge in the methods course suggest ways to improve the relevance of English teacher training: invite pre-service teachers to reflect on their beliefs and co-construct the knowledge. The analysis of Professor Lee's teaching suggests themes that teacher educators consider,

drawing attention to curricular expectations and macrostructures, discussing flexible teaching practices. One suggestion for training includes referring to their English learning and teaching experiences. Last, developing pre-service teachers' analytic and critical perspectives will have long-term impact on their agency, prepare them for teaching in various instructional contexts that teacher educators are unable to address during training.

### ***Helping Pre-service Teachers to Reflect on their Beliefs about English Teaching***

In this methods course, Professor Lee could have explicitly addressed the goal of English education and the primary characteristics of an ideal English classroom as presented in the curriculum. Those corresponded to what Professor Lee emphasized were moments that she could hear about students' beliefs and start discussion about practical aspects. In Chapter 5, I reported the only occasion on which CLT was mentioned in class (Excerpt 10), as an approach that the MOE advised teachers to use. The Excerpt showed the discrepancy between Professor Lee's expectation and the pre-service teachers' actual familiarity with this method what had been promoted in Korean English education rhetoric for decades. Likewise, she presented her understanding of the goal of English education as teaching for CC as an accepted principle without discussion, perhaps assuming their familiarity from their former schooling under the CC and CLT-based curriculum. Students' lack of understanding was observed again, however, in their silence to her question about CLT and also in their conversations about their students' needs for learning English in the present time (Excerpt 14), testifying to the long-standing ineffectiveness of what amounted to the curriculum's lip-service to CLT. Regarding students' needs, pre-service teachers in this study showed very limited understanding of any purpose beyond studying for exams to get into a university or to find a job.

These presuppositions about mutual understanding of the primary features of English education resulted in an absence of discussions about them in class. In the interactions I observed, students' actual perspectives on the purpose of English education, their responsibilities as English teachers, teaching methods, common educational norms and values that affected teaching, as well as students' needs and motivation remained unknown. The pre-service teachers' disbeliefs in the value of communicative activities deeply rooted resistance or toward employing them were unresolved in this methods class. This finding supported the proposition that Korean English teacher education's lack of impact on changing teachers' existing beliefs is among the critical challenges reported in language teacher education. Not having sufficient time to reflect on and negotiate their beliefs explicitly in class (e.g., Excerpts 10, 12 & 17), these pre-service teachers were unlikely to change their beliefs or practices. And even if they personally agreed with the concept of teaching for communication, in addition to not knowing how to do it, they might still view their primary teaching responsibility as meeting students' immediate need to prepare for exams. Therefore they resorted to traditional teaching methods as suitable for this purpose and convenient in terms of what they knew. This finding indicates that what the curriculum expected to be primary remained secondary to exam-based learning, with little emphasis on preparing teachers for practical challenges. This lack of discussion about teaching methods and teaching materials as well as the overall educational culture of Korea could explain why in-service teachers have criticized their training, maintained teacher-centered classrooms, and relied on textbooks for their teaching (E.-J. Kim, 2008b), probably being uncertain about how to design appropriate activities or materials. This limited conversation about teaching was different from what some students had expected from the course. During interviews, students revealed that the phrase "teaching methods" in the course title had led them to expect a more

practice-oriented course, particularly those who were scheduled for a practicum for the following semester.

This dominant one-way interaction pattern did not mean that students engaged in no reflection at all. Professor Lee occasionally asked reflective questions about crucial issues of English education in Korea. For example, she asked about the English teachers' responsibility to provide equal learning opportunities to all students as English was part of the mandatory education, or about ways to maximize effects of classroom English teaching. One day, she asked students to think about the kinds of English teachers that they would have wanted for themselves in school and wanted now for their children in the future. Although she did not follow up such questions with discussion, these questions nudged some students to think about their teaching approaches, as they expressed during informal interactions outside the class, showing that at least asking these thought-provoking questions elicited some students' genuine reflection on issues related to their beliefs about teaching.

### ***Preparing for Contextualization: Flexible Teaching within Contexts***

Developing teachers' ability to attune their teaching according to instructional contexts corresponds to what the literature has claimed (e.g., Borg, 2006; Freeman, 2002). It is a lifelong learning process through continuous participation in learning and teaching practices, before and after teacher training. Informed about administrative expectations and the literature, Professor Lee also expressed support of teaching for communication by offering adequate input in English and encouraging students to learn (Excerpt 12). The way she taught the teaching methods class was more for the long-term effects of developing her students' analytic and critical perspectives than for discussing practical aspects of teaching that her students may not need immediately

(Excerpts 25, 26 & 27). As critical thinkers, students were expected to draw implications from reading academic sources and relating them to their contexts, and also to conduct inquiries to answer their own questions about teaching. Unlike the curriculum's consistently negative position on traditional teaching methods in previous curricula, Professor Lee took the flexible and realistic perspective that while it is important to keep communication in mind as a primary learning goal (Excerpts 9 & 10), yet teachers should be able to meet their students' immediate needs. Such perspective was reflected in her encouragement of including more participatory communicative activities for younger students in elementary and middle school and acknowledgement that teaching decontextualized drills for exams, particularly those for university admissions (Excerpt 14), could demoralize students' learning. She acknowledged, however, the same communicative approach would not work in high school or in particular settings where students needed to take high-stakes exams soon. What Professor Lee intended to achieve in the methods course was to prepare pre-service teachers to be able to actively make pedagogical decisions appropriate to their future classrooms. This intention was evident in her efforts to demonstrate ways to relate readings that reported findings from very different educational settings to teaching in Korea. Professor Lee's suggestions were general, perhaps tangentially related to various contexts that pre-service teachers might encounter after training. This intention to develop her students' critical faculties conflicted with her understanding that the function of teacher training was to help students prepare for implementing secondary level English education. Or, she may have refrained from talking much about issues and challenges due to limited time available in class, as she mentioned (Excerpt 17).

Informed by the shared characteristics between curricular expectations and Professor Lee's beliefs about English teaching in Korea, the discussion addresses how Professor Lee taught

her teaching methods course to develop students' knowledge about the field and their attitudes toward employing the knowledge appropriately in their teaching as well as why practical suggestions were not emphasized in this course.

### ***What Teachers Need to Learn for Knowledge-Informed Practices***

Professor Lee's guiding principles in teaching the methods course were trifold: a) effective teaching required first developing knowledge about English and English teaching; b) teachers must be mindful about impacts of their micro pedagogical behaviors on students' learning; and c) it was important to instill in students attitudes of being lifelong learners of the language, the discipline, and research, and of their status as novice researchers. Thus Professor Lee's priority on favoring knowledge about English teaching theory and research, resonated with the traditional framework of teachers' way of knowing (Tarone & Allwright, 2005; Yates & Muchisky, 2003). The scope of knowledge included pedagogy, reported in Chapter 5, and students were occasionally reminded of the importance of knowledge about educational psychology during presentations, when they spoke or behaved in ways Professor Lee considered counterproductive to learning. Furthermore, what Professor Lee expected her students to learn from the course included what research reported such micro aspects of teaching and the need for teachers to practice those evidence-based suggestions. Her intention to prepare teachers for continuous learning was in agreement with the reconceptualized knowledge-base for LTE. It was observed from Professor Lee's expectation for teachers to be users of the knowledge in practice, which included being able to adjust to various teaching contexts (Excerpt 13). The investigation of the teaching methods class reports how this conceptualization of teacher learning was instantiated in Professor Lee's practices, contributing to explaining how the new framework



shaped teacher education (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). Professor Lee's priority on knowledge development explains why conversations about implications were made generally for English teaching, not specifically for any grade level or learning objectives. Her emphasis on knowledge also explained decisions she made in the course, such as choosing a research-informed textbook, asking confirmation questions to assure students' understanding of the readings, drawing attention to emerging issues in the field, and sharing her learning and teaching experiences in class to make up a lack of discussion about practices.

### ***Training Pre-Service Teachers to Relate Knowledge to Teaching on Their Own***

Although when and how to provide knowledge in teacher training and its effects on teachers are still controversial, this research suggested a potential of using the methods course for multiple purposes within packed curricular, incorporating experiential and reflective activities (Bartels, 2005; Pennington, 1996) along with knowledge development. A lack of conversations about practices suggested using relevant research more, to help novice teachers relate to their experiences. Reading numerous evidence was not strong enough to change a pre-service teacher's resistance (Lo, 2005), and observations of teaching practicums showed pre-service teachers went back to methods that they learned the language, not ones that were taught in training (Johnson, 1994; Bailey et al., 1996; Numrich, 1996; Woods, 1996). Teacher educators' instructional interventions were needed, to create opportunities for "a dialogic process of co-constructing knowledge" with teachers (Johnson, 2015, p. 516).

The major assignments in this course, reflecting readings and presentations, suggest how teacher educators can use reflective and experiential class activities to draw students' attention to pedagogical aspects within their limited curricular designed for knowledge development.

Teacher educators can observe students' teaching habits during their presentations about readings, like micro teaching. During presentations, Professor Lee actively responded to students' behaviors that they disclosed unconsciously, second to her comments about contents. As she immediately explained what students said, some students tried to adopt how they asked questions (Excerpt 18), how they spoke in class (Excerpt 19), or whether they waited enough for students' answers (Excerpt 27) after Professor Lee commented. These suggestions were spontaneously made in response to what students showed in class, not planned, which represented Professor Lee's knowledge and flexibility. If possible, these moments could be followed by short conversations about students' related experiences, reflecting on how their teaching habits influenced students' learning. As Professor Lee demonstrated, these could assist students to think about practical questions they can ask from their teaching, discussing related concepts from readings for practice (Excerpt 16). Those evidence-based comments convinced students that Professor Lee was not nit-picking what she did not like, but telling practices that had influenced students' learning empirically. This research-informed comments also represented how knowledge and research could benefit teachers in long-term, although they might not see its immediate values on improving their teaching. This belief about pedagogical knowledge is reflected in the structure of teacher training in Korea, including general pedagogy as major component of it, along with English, content pedagogy, and practicum (E.-J. Kim, 2008a).

To understand students' learning and retention of this instruction, students' narratives after class provided some thoughts for teacher educators. A single comment from the teacher educator might raise some students' awareness in class (Excerpts 18 & 19), less likely to be followed by actual changes in their ways of speaking or behaviors. Students showed both

acceptance and rejection (or ignorance) to given suggestions. Some students repeated the same mistakes, while some tried to correct themselves for the rest of presentation. Students' ignorance was observed from their attitudes during presentation, not paying attention to what Professor Lee said, flipping their handouts. Also after their presentation, some students were asking for my thoughts or feedback about their presentations or even for reminders about what Professor Lee said to them, confessing that their minds were so occupied with completing their presentations without mistakes. It was interesting to see that students who said that they received good comments were also unable to explain what those were and how the comments assisted them to improve their learning and teaching. These interactions around general pedagogical attitudes also supported a need of adopting reflective activities in teacher training, preceded by analyzing students' existing misconceptions about English teaching (Busch, 2010) and research about local teachers' challenges. Long-term investigation of changes in students' beliefs and practices is in need to discuss impacts of instruction.

### ***Rethinking the Focus on Knowledge in Relation to Teachers' Analytic and Critical Perspectives***

The focus on knowledge informed Professor Lee's research-oriented and theory-based approaches to teachers' knowledge development, as shown in her explanations of key constructs of classroom English teaching and their theoretical justifications. This priority on delivering knowledge, answering students' questions about course content, and relating the assigned readings to teaching explains why most of her class instruction was unidirectional. This approach was consistent with her belief that her students needed theoretical knowledge in order to make

informed instructional decisions later, and with her emphasis on their development of analytic and self-guided learning attitudes.

Importantly, Professor Lee asserted her position to theoretical knowledge with a firm voice, telling students that they had to build knowledge about linguistics and how ISLA was informed by SLA. She explicitly expressed this non-negotiable perspective on the importance of knowledge development in teacher training was explicitly said during discussions of pronunciation and pragmatics (Days 8 & 9), knowing from the literature that these were areas in which many English teachers in Korea were struggling (Butler, 2004; Im & Jeon, 2009; Kang, 2008; S.-Y. Kim, 2008) and her interactions with in-service teachers. The issue that the knowledge-based approach was that students were not able to translate the knowledge to teaching practices as reported (Freeman, 1991, 2002; Freeman & Johnson, 1998, 2004). On Day 8, for example, some students expressed their frustration with the phonology class that they were also taking. They found learning about the English sound system not only overwhelming, but also irrelevant to effective teaching. Listening to such complaints, Professor Lee immediately responded saying that knowledge about phonology was necessary for teachers even though they did not focus on articulating the individual sounds that they learned.

As shown in Excerpt 16.3, however, Professor Lee did not follow this pronouncement of the importance of phonological knowledge with interactive conversations with students due to the amount of knowledge she wanted to introduce within limited time. She briefly mentioned some related pedagogical concepts mentioned in supplementary material from another text (Celce-Murcia et al., 2014), for example English as a stress-timed language (stress on content words), meaningful units, functional loads, and components of intelligibility. Students were expected to learn how to relate pedagogical knowledge to their teaching as homework. Professor

Lee also insisted on learning about teaching pragmatics, knowing that teachers' acquisition of cultural aspects of English use could be limited because English is a foreign language in Korea, so teachers would have to continue to invest in learning about these aspects throughout their careers. To support her position on explicitly teaching knowledge, Professor Lee strategically referred to concepts that students read from the textbook, for example "focus on form," teacher "noticing," the long-term effects of "explicit instruction" on "retention," and "declarative knowledge" (see Explaining concepts and theories in the Table 3.1 for codes in Chapter 3). These explicit connections supported students' learning about language pedagogy concepts. During interviews, students reported that these efforts helped them to understand the contents about ISLA better, speaking highly about Professor Lee's timely explanations and contextualization with examples.

Professor Lee's belief in the importance of knowledge acquisition partially explained why talk in class significantly concerned making foundational concepts clear. Such emphasis on knowledge to inform practices left little class time to discuss other related aspects, such as relating readings to practice within the local educational system, discussing sociocultural challenges, and exploring administrative expectations. Although Professor Lee occasionally addressed some elements that encouraged students to reflect on their beliefs about English education and their roles as English teachers (Excerpts 9 & 12), one semester seemed too short to accommodate reflective and co-constructive conversations about teaching. Professor Lee was aware of being unable to address all related aspects or discussing implications in this introductory course. Telling students why she could not elaborate on practices in detail in Excerpt 17, Professor Lee revealed her expectation that students would be able on their own to interpret readings in relation to their contexts. Her goals in introducing students to the field in

this methods course were to instill attitudes for lifelong learning and support students' development of analytic reading strategies to prepare them to continue learning based on their practical needs or personal interests. This perspective was evident in Professor Lee's consistent emphasis on extensive reading of both introductory and advanced material as needed (Excerpt 28), as each topic introduced in the textbook, for example teaching vocabulary, grammar, or pragmatics, represented a whole field of research. Being unable to discuss all topics in-depth as she could do in topical graduate seminars in this introductory course, Professor Lee expected her students to learn how to direct their own learning as needed throughout their careers.

### ***Training Teachers as Lifelong Learners and Novice Researchers***

To develop teachers' experiential knowledge, analytic perspectives, and problem-solving skills for learning, teaching, and researching, Professor Lee subscribed to the following propositions: First, teacher training should prepare pre-service teachers to interpret and relate academic readings to their teaching. Second, conducting research in their own classrooms would contribute to their own teaching and also scholarly discussion about English teaching in Korea. By training students in analytic reading, conducting, and reporting research, she hoped to make up for the drawbacks of not having time to discuss pedagogical implications in depth. The last component of Professor Lee's beliefs, therefore, was to help students acquire the skills to use the declarative knowledge from the methods course to develop their own experiential knowledge (Angelova, 2005; Bartels, 2005; Freeman, 1991; Johnson, 2003).

This focus informs why Professor Lee invested significant time explaining research to develop students' analytic perspective. She began with talking about what research meant to students, followed by the need for empirical research in education and the importance of

theoretical knowledge (Excerpt 22), and then focused on conducting and reporting research in legitimate ways. She related her discussions of common research methods, methodological concerns (Excerpt 24), and concepts from the readings. These instruction prepared students for their theses, raising their awareness of the importance of choosing appropriate constructs, theories, and methods to ask and answer questions from their own settings. With the knowledge about research, students had to explain these choices in reporting research as they observed from readings. To build the knowledge, therefore, teacher educators can advise students to analyze and evaluate researchers' choices of constructs and theories, the contexts of their studies, and their findings carefully in relation to their contexts. These processes of learning about research can be one way to empower teachers "to bring a new sense of meaning and significance to their work" (Johnson, 2006, p. 241) and also to become producers of knowledge.

While developing students' analytic perspectives, however, Professor Lee's instruction about research loaded more work on students as they struggled with reading the research-focused textbook in English. Students expressed their frustrations during informal interactions with me before and after class meetings, often complaining that they had to look up every single research term to understand the empirical findings. One student said that she even started looking up words she already knew, thinking they might mean something different in research. Such comments showed how students had to focus on literal understanding of the readings the text, leaving less room to think about implications of research findings for their teaching. Similarly, another student reflected on a statistics course that she took in her first semester, saying it was challenging not only because it was about statistics, but also because she could hardly find its relevance to her research. When I asked students about their master's theses in the interviews, most expressed uncertainty about their topics. Worrying about what to do and with whom to

work, none mentioned possible theoretical approaches or research methods. This observation suggests the importance of cautious planning throughout teacher training. While developing teachers' research knowledge and skills and knowledge is unquestionably beneficial, it is unlikely to be achieved in one class and may be premature if students are not yet familiar with the field or thought about their own questions. As it was, Professor Lee's focus on research in more explanation than participation and was overwhelming for students who were struggling with learning about the field.

**Teacher educators' practices in pursuing the goal of developing pre-service teachers' competency in using knowledge for teaching must be understood in the context of their programs and educational culture in South Korea.**

Professor Lee struggled to achieve multiple objectives in one methods course in which the curriculum and local practices were not fully integrated. The analysis of her struggles highlighted contextual factors that influenced her teaching, including the characteristics of the students and the program. Therefore, understanding factors that affected this knowledge- and research-oriented class is important. Those observed in this case included the impact of graduate school teacher training, which prompted the focus on research unlike four-year undergraduate or MA TESOL programs. In addition, there were influences of the diverse characteristics of the GSE student population, who from various academic backgrounds, not necessarily related to English or education. Also many students had years of teaching experience already or were currently teaching full- or part-time. In terms of students' experiences in the GSE program, they had little experience with participatory classrooms, which affected interactions in the methods course. The courses that students took in the program were compartmentalized, focusing on



specific areas such as content, English phonology or English literature with less connections to pedagogical implications. Last, the notorious macrostructure in Korea, the competitive exam-oriented educational culture played a significant role in teacher training, a primary function of which was to prepare students for the teacher employment exam. Given these contextual features, Assertion 3 calls for relating teachers' development and use of knowledge to develop shared goals in the program.

### ***Consider Influences of Pre-Service Teachers' Characteristics to Initiate Co-constructive Teacher Training***

**Know Students' Backgrounds to Address Impacts of Macrostructures.** Data that included interactions between Professor Lee and students in Chapter 5 showed how students did not answer her questions (see Excerpts 10 & 26), or gave short phrases as answers. This lack of students' participation resulted in a teacher educator-centered classroom, not a setting in which knowledge was co-constructed. When students did not answer the confirmation questions she asked, Professor Lee was confused about their understanding. Then she answered the questions herself or decided to explain specific concepts (e.g., contrastive analysis, error analysis, reasons for making errors, and types of L2 classrooms starting on Day 2). Some were foundational concepts, which students might already have known. Another typical interaction pattern that occurred many times was that Professor Lee picked up students' short answers and provided explanations. These practices limited students' participation and affected the disposition of the class, which might have been more engaging and practical if Professor Lee's had exercised her flexibility in deciding how to allocate time depending on students' answers or silences.

Having students from various undergraduate backgrounds in one class prohibited discussion of more contextualized suggestions, as all of them needed to learn about the field. Indeed students' former and current backgrounds varied from teaching English in pre-K and kindergarten, to teaching in elementary, middle and high schools, while their target settings were unknown. This may explain why Professor Lee's suggestions were made generally and related to constructs (e.g., input-processing in Excerpt 16), not specifically for any particular grade or teaching objectives. However, student diversity does not explain why Professor Lee did not address other significant contextual elements, for example expectations from school administrators, working with other English teachers in the same school, or dealing with students or their parents who wanted to focus on exams. One suggestion for increasing attention to practical matters might be to encourage students to share their teaching experiences and issues with macrostructures that concern them all. Unlike undergraduates, students in this course came with rich teaching experiences in either public or private sectors, where they had already encountered challenges of managing incompatible expectations from school administrators, students, and parents. Teacher educators can provide a space for their students to reflect on their perceptions of and beliefs about the purposes of English teaching, the culture's exam-oriented macrostructure, and their teaching approaches from previous experiences. Above I mentioned that within the limited time in the course Professor Lee could evaluate students' pedagogical behaviors only when they were presenting (Excerpt 19). Teacher educators might allocate some time for discussion of external contingencies in teaching along with activities like presentations and micro-teaching.

In particular, a critical perspective on the exam-oriented educational culture is needed, as its impact is prevalent throughout the system, including teacher training. The focus on

standardized exams is a primary justification that English teachers give for returning to traditional practices like reading-after teachers or grammar explanations. Although the curriculum has advocated intelligible communication as an alternative to accuracy-based evaluation, to bring such a change about, teachers' and stakeholders' beliefs need to be renegotiated. Discussion about exams could be related to concerns about students' English learning needs and their indifferent attitudes towards communicative activities, thinking these are unrelated to their grades. Younger pre-service teachers in this study showed similarly limited understanding about students' needs, often citing instrumental purposes for English education (Excerpt 17), views that they might have established in their former schooling and teaching experiences with the CC-based curriculum. Without providing opportunities for pre-service teachers to rethink their beliefs, therefore, current teacher training are likely to reproduce teachers who have the same beliefs about exam-oriented teaching methods.

**Benefits of Rapport with Pre-Service Teachers to Create Participatory Culture.** The tight schedule in the GSE program also affected the classroom culture and interactions between Professor Lee and the students. As mentioned in Chapter 3, all students were taking two courses simultaneously while managing other obligations that restricted their time on campus. While this schedule facilitated the development of close relationships among students who were together for hours every day, it allowed little time for them to interact with their instructors outside of class. If students could not wait after class to talk to Professor Lee, the short break was the only time when they casually interacted. Without enough interaction, students did not feel comfortable enough to speak honestly about what they thought when Professor Lee asked questions. Second, students were not as used to discussion-based classes as Professor Lee had anticipated. The

students described the educational culture in the program as professor-centered in general, not participatory, and did not feel the need to speak except during their presentations. Normally in the program students listened to professors who talked as authoritative informants. Students considered Professor Lee's class as their only interactive class, which they had to get used to. It was interesting to listen to students' positive evaluations of their contributions to class discussions during interviews, although what I observed in class were short phrases or personal anecdotes, not discussion. Later during my analysis I found that the lack of interaction also affected Professor Lee, encouraging her assumption that students' primary motivations in the program were to pass the licensing exam and obtain teaching credentials, a misunderstanding resulting from not knowing the students. When I asked students about what brought them to the GSE program, two of five students expressed their genuine academic interests in English education, which I was unable to know from classroom interactions.

The misperception was no one's fault, however, and had to be understood within the larger context. I observed that Professor Lee presented her accessibility to students on the first day but said, "Students never came to my office even if I said [I'm always available during weekdays]." What she said on the last day before the final exam also reflected her limited interaction with GSE students. She was thinking about proposing lunch together at the end of the semester, yet she did not because she did not want students to feel obligated to do what their professor suggested. She wrapped up the class, simply reminding students that she always welcomed students. No matter how Professor Lee presented herself as available, students seemed to feel differently due to the hierarchical relations that they experienced with professors in Korean educational system. Students' experiences in the educational culture supported the importance of fostering pre-service teachers' continuous learning throughout their training, not

just in a single course about teaching which was designed to develop their repertoire of knowledge.

### ***The Need for a Coherent Focus on Teaching and Analytic Attitudes in Teacher Training***

While talking to students, I found that they perceived disconnection among courses in the program and a lack of pedagogical focus in other topical courses, for example English Phonology, Statistics, or Linguistics. Students often compared the two classes that they were taking simultaneously, the methods course and the phonology course, saying that the former provided more possibilities for “personalization” to their teaching. What students reported helpful about Professor Lee’s teaching included her reflective questions about English education and English teachers’ responsibilities (Excerpts 12 & 13), and the stories and examples that she used to contextualize knowledge, in addition to her clear explanations of the readings. As Professor Lee emphasized, asking reflective questions consistently drew some students’ attention to issues. Following up with these opportunities for students to express their thoughts in written or verbal forms could be one way to start co-constructive learning in class.

Professor Lee rarely asked students about what they were learning in the program except the day they discussed pronunciation teaching. Knowing that most of the students were taking English Phonology, she mentioned her expectations about students’ familiarity with pronunciation teaching from the course. However, she found that the course focused on developing students’ knowledge about phonology with little focus on pedagogical implications. Along with students’ frustration with the course, this emphasis indicates a need to examine teacher education as a whole, to determine whether and how knowledge was coherently related to practice in the program. Evidence of the knowledge-focused teacher training curriculum also

supports the need to emphasize explicit applications to teaching in teacher training. Changes in teacher educators' practices are needed, as teachers will not learn how to teach on their own by acquiring knowledge about English and English teaching (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, 2004; MacDonald, Badger, & White, 2002) or in one or two classes about teaching methods, even with successful completion of teacher training.

This disconnection between the courses and the absence of practical aspects in content knowledge courses explain the dissatisfaction with teacher training found in the literature because of its irrelevance to preparation for teaching. It is suggested that teacher training can better support pre-service teachers by providing opportunities for reflection and co-constructive interactions between teacher educators and prospective teachers (Johnson, 2015). It requires teacher educators' collaboration at the teacher training level to offer such interactive opportunities consistently, not assigning the task to only one teaching methods course that was already crammed with teaching disciplinary knowledge. Instead of adding another class for practice or methods to the tight curriculum, which is neither adequate nor realistic in many cases, pedagogical implications can be discussed in other courses such as linguistics, phonology and grammar, as well as in courses on culture and literature that are often provided in teacher training (E.-J. Kim, 2008a). Although the teacher training curriculum in Korea has improved and offers more courses on pedagogy and integrated teaching competence, the lack of connection among courses indicates that traditional training is still common, and pre-service teachers are learning knowledge in compartmentalized courses.

## Limitations of the Research

While this study suggests some important implications for future research and practice, some limitations of this exploratory single qualitative case study need to be addressed. First, the setting in the graduate school presented a different context than undergraduate-level training in the same university or trainings in other universities. Thus the findings of this study should be interpreted with caution when applied to settings other than graduate school. Furthermore, some differences I observed in two cases during the pilot study, in terms of teacher educators' learning objectives and teaching approaches, and also students' population, suggest a need to conduct empirical research in various teacher training programs in South Korea (as reported in E.-J. Kim, 2008a), because cases will vary substantially according to the characteristics of the instructor, the students and their setting. And finally, while collaborations with teacher educators might enable such type of research, it is unrealistic for one researcher to observe multiple cases simultaneously in higher education settings, due to constraints on budget and time. The move to online instruction in response to the COVID-19 pandemic may offer some new opportunities to observe instruction without having to travel between widely dispersed campuses. Also, working with teacher educators could provide valuable data that represent teacher educators, such as their reflections, which is related to the following concern about data types.

Other limitations to data collection included issues of accessing information without affiliation at the university where the data collection took place. In Professor Lee's class, everyone prepared hard copies of materials that I could collect, but I was unable to gather students' written assignments and final exams, because I was not there long enough to gain their trust. So I not feel that it was appropriate to ask to share. In the future projects where I include students' perspectives, collecting and analyzing their written assignments could be another

important unit of analysis. Therefore, staying longer to build rapport with participants, or collaborating with someone who has access to such internal information, or working with teacher educators as researchers, could resolve issues of access to the data. Thirdly, collecting data from a specific context, from the summer intensive class was methodologically beneficial as I could have more interactions with participants, but collecting over a condensed period of time meant that I was not able to observe how the teacher would have presented the curriculum in a regular semester or how the extra time with the students would have prompted her to make different decisions. Future research about teacher educators and their teaching could be conducted in ways that overcome limitations. Also, more data could be collected from talking to teacher educators about how students' knowledge is demonstrated through their performance in class, to further understand teacher educators' complex decision-making processes.

### **Implications for Future Research**

The findings, discussion, and limitations provide implications for future research about English teacher education practices in Korea. Above all, there is a need for research about practice in teacher training to find ways to make it more relevant to English teaching in Korea, particularly regarding approaches to achieve pre-service teachers' competency with reflective and co-constructive opportunities, as researchers in the field of language teaching have suggested (e.g., Johnson, 2006, 2009; Johnson & Golombek, 2011). To fill the gap between the curriculum and teaching, teacher training could be a place where pre-service teachers could be guided in ways to think about various issues of English education in Korea, including CC as a goal and teaching English for communication, and to discuss reported challenges that have affected communicative teaching in classroom (e.g., focus on exams, students' lack of interests, or



incompatible school culture) and more. A continued investigation of these themes could contribute to resolving unanswered concerns of English teachers. In addition, conducting research in settings where teacher educators could know their pre-service teachers (e.g., their needs and backgrounds) and collaborate with other teacher educators in the program can help with addressing contextual aspects related to effective teaching in training. Informed by the general suggestions, examining micro aspects of teacher educators' teaching practices is also needed. For example, one follow-up that I could conduct from this dissertation data is analyzing interactional patterns in methods courses, especially focusing on when students vocally answered questions, expressed their reflections, or asked questions.

Furthermore, collecting evidence of pre-service teachers' learning or their narratives about experiences in teacher training can help to develop better understanding of what and how they learn from other perspectives. During semi-structured interviews at the end of the semester, I found that often some students were unable to fully recall moments that they had reported as beneficial, although in general they described Professor Lee's course was very practical compared to others. Instead, in interviews that occurred soon after class meetings, I was able to hear students' genuine responses to the class, about what they learned on that day or about specific comments from Professor Lee during informal interactions with them before and after class. Therefore, collecting data from pre-service teachers using established protocols (e.g., stimulated recall) could help with evaluating their learning in training. This difficulty with long-term recall also suggests a need to conduct teacher education research longitudinally, tracking students' knowledge development, changes in their beliefs about English teaching and in their practices. In the same sense, examining students' teaching behaviors during presentations or

micro teaching throughout their training could offer important data to determine the effectiveness of teacher training on improving pre-service teachers' practices.

As mentioned above, this dissertation research draws attention to the need to examine pre-service teachers' learning as a whole, throughout their program of studies, outside the methods course that I observed. Students' reported frustration with the English phonology class provided some insight into their experiences in other classes in the program, for instance. The class appeared to focus on developing knowledge about phonology, expecting students to contextualize the knowledge on their own. This observation needs a further examination, of course, to assess current practices in content-based courses in teacher training, whether they prepare pre-service teachers to draw pedagogical implications of the knowledge or leaving the task on the one or two required courses assigned for teaching methods. Given the heavy emphasis on offering courses about content areas in undergraduate and graduate English teacher training programs in Korea, more research is needed to examine practices in the content-based courses across different teacher training programs, to discuss ways to draw students' attention to pedagogical implications.

## **Conclusion**

This dissertation research provided suggestions for English teacher educators in Korea, informed by the analysis of the curriculum and Professor Lee's teaching practices in the course on English teaching methods in the GSE program. First, an emphasis on communicative competence and adapting communicative activities has continued in the recent versions of the teacher training curriculum as in previous ones. At the time of this writing, the curriculum no longer prescribed particular methods nor using English as a medium of instruction, yet it

promoted the same student-centered and communicative oriented approaches while disparaging traditional approaches. However information about how teachers can achieve such approaches in their classrooms, while satisfying immediate needs of students, parents, and other stakeholders from the macrostructure was absent. Second, analysis of Professor Lee's teaching addressed the three major components of her beliefs about English teaching and English teacher education. The primary goal of the class was to develop teachers' knowledge about language and language pedagogy and help them develop analytic perspectives that would enable them to apply readings to their contexts. Professor Lee considered teaching for communication as important, but she taught teachers to be able to choose approaches for various contexts informed by theories and research. To achieve such knowledge-based practice, teachers would need to commit to continuous learning after the methods course and training. Having discussed these beliefs and Professor Lee's teaching in the context of the GSE program, I suggest three important purposes for English teacher training in South Korea: to draw pre-service teachers' attention to curricular expectations in their local context and related research, to provide opportunities for teachers to reflect on their beliefs and co-constructively develop critical attitudes, and to pursue these goals consistently throughout the program, including in content-focused courses.

The impacts of teacher training on changing teachers' pre-existing beliefs were debatable, yet the findings suggested that opportunities to reflect on their existing beliefs about English teaching during training could be beneficial, in light of the discrepancy between the national curriculum's emphasis on communicative practices and the challenges that teachers reported regarding implementing the approach in classrooms. In the methods courses, teacher educators can explicitly respond to teachers' doubts about communicative teaching in relation to macrostructures in South Korea. For example Professor Lee commented on attitudes that

teachers needed to avoid, such as teacher-centered and exam-oriented approaches, which could be followed by reflections about practical issues such as the tight schedule and students' lack of participation. Not assuming pre-service teachers' beliefs, the need for co-constructive interactions was apparent in the absence of reflections on teaching in their presentations. Last, Professor Lee's often one-directional teaching, exacerbated by students' lack of background knowledge and their limited participation in class, suggest that teacher training should coherently provide opportunities to make explicit and coherent application to actual teaching practices. Expecting one class on teaching methods within its limited time to prepare teachers for practice, as observed in this study, is unrealistic.

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## Appendix A. Suggested Topics (Appendix 1 of the curriculum, p. 171)

### 【별표 1】 소 재

일상생활과 친숙한 일반적인 화제를 중심으로, 학생들이 관심을 가지고 흥미를 느낄 수 있는 소재를 선택하되, 학생들의 의사소통 능력, 탐구 능력, 문제 해결 능력 및 창의력을 기르는데 도움이 되는 내용으로 한다.

1. 개인생활에 관한 내용
2. 가정생활과 의식주에 관한 내용
3. 학교생활과 교우 관계에 관한 내용
4. 사회생활과 대인 관계에 관한 내용
5. 취미, 오락, 여행, 건강, 운동 등 여가 선행에 관한 내용
6. 동·식물 또는 계절, 날씨 등 자연 현상에 관한 내용
7. 영어 문화권에서 사용되는 다양한 의사소통 방식에 관한 내용
8. 다양한 문화권에 속한 사람들의 일상생활에 관한 내용
9. 우리 문화와 다른 문화의 언어적, 문화적 차이에 관한 내용
10. 우리의 문화와 생활양식을 소개하는 데 도움이 되는 내용
11. 공중도덕, 예절, 협력, 배려, 봉사, 책임감 등에 관한 내용
12. 환경 문제, 자원과 에너지 문제, 기후 변화 등 환경 보전에 관한 내용
13. 문학, 예술 등 심미적 심성을 기르고 창의력, 상상력을 확장할 수 있는 내용
14. 인구 문제, 청소년 문제, 고령화, 다문화 사회, 정보 통신 윤리 등 변화하는 사회에 관한 내용
15. 진로 문제, 직업, 노동 등 개인 복지 증진에 관한 내용
16. 민주 시민 생활, 인권, 양성 평등, 글로벌 에티켓 등 민주 의식 및 세계 시민 의식을 고취하는 내용
17. 애국심, 평화, 안보 및 통일에 관한 내용
18. 정치, 경제, 역사, 지리, 수학, 과학, 교통, 정보 통신, 우주, 해양, 탐험 등 일반교양을 넓히는 데 도움이 되는 내용
19. 인문학, 사회 과학, 자연 과학, 예술 분야의 학문적 소양을 기를 수 있는 내용

## Appendix B. Full Lists for Excerpt 5.

### Excerpt 5. Teaching and learning approaches for middle school

#### 5.1. (1) 중학교 교수·학습 방향 [Teaching and learning approaches]

- (가) 교육과정에 제시된 교육목표와 성취기준을 검토하고, 수업시간에 학습할 구체적인 학습 목표를 설정한다.
- (나) 교육과정을 기반으로 학습 목표와 내용에 맞도록 교수·학습 계획을 수립한다.
- (다) 영어 학습에 대한 학생들의 동기를 유발하고, 흥미와 자신감을 유지할 수 있도록 교수·학습 계획을 수립한다.
- (라) 학생들의 영어 사용 능력 및 인지적, 정의적 특성에 있어서의 개인차를 함께 고려한 교수·학습 계획을 수립한다.
- (마) 학생 중심의 과업 및 체험 학습을 통해 자기 주도적 학습이 이루어지도록 교수·학습 계획을 수립한다.
- (바) 의사소통역량, 자기관리역량, 공동체역량, 지식정보처리역량이 구현되도록 교수·학습 계획을 수립한다.
- (a) Review teaching objectives and learning criteria, to set specific learning objectives for class.
- (b) Plan teaching and learning according to learning objectives, addressed in the curriculum.
- (c) Motivate students for English learning and plan the class to help them maintain their interests and confidence.
- (d) Plan teaching and learning appropriate to students' individual English abilities, and cognitive and affective development.
- (e) Plan teaching and learning to encourage self-directed learning, through student-centered tasks or field-trips and other activities.
- (f) Plan teaching and learning to promote [students'] competences in communication, self-management, community, and information-processing.

#### 5.2. 교수·학습 방법 [Methods for teaching and learning]

- (가) 학습 목표와 내용에 적절한 교수·학습 방법을 선정한다.
- (나) 학생들의 실제 언어 사용능력을 배양할 수 있는 교수·학습 방법을 고려한다.
- (다) 학생의 영어사용능력, 인지적·정의적 특성, 학습유형 및 전략 등을 고려하여 다양한 학생 중심의 교수·학습 방법을 선정한다.
- (라) 단일 언어 기능에 대한 교수·학습 방법뿐만 아니라 두 가지 이상의 언어기능을 연계하는 교수·학습 방법을 선정함으로써 실제적이고 통합적인 영어사용능력을 신장하도록 한다.
- (마) 학생 간 활발한 상호작용을 유도할 수 있는 모둠별 협동·협력 학습을 적절히 활용한다.
- (바) 학생들이 협력하여 과제를 해결하는 경험을 많이 가지도록 유도하고, 타인에 대한 배려와 나눔의 실천 등 인성교육을 강화할 수 있는 방법도 고려하여 선정한다.
- (사) 영어권 및 비영어권의 다양한 문화를 이해할 수 있는 교수·학습 활동을 구안한다.
- (아) 교수·학습 내용 등의 성격에 따라 교수·학습 방법의 선정 과정에 학생들을 참여시켜 창의적인 활동을 도출하고, 학습 흥미와 학습 동기 유발을 도모한다.
- (a) Select teaching and learning methods according to learning objectives and contents.
- (b) Consider approaches that could develop students' actual language use abilities.



- (c) Choose various student-centered approaches, taking students' language abilities, cognitive and affective features, and learning strategies into consideration.
- (d) Develop practical and integrative English learning abilities by employing approaches involving more than two language skills as well as those for single skill.
- (e) Use collaborative group work to encourage active interactions among students.
- (f) Foster students' experiences in collaborative task-solving as much as possible, and include methods for character education, such as developing generous and sharing attitudes to others.
- (g) Plan teaching and learning activities that promote understanding various cultures of English-speaking and non-English speaking contexts.
- (h) Invite students to help planning for teaching and learning methods, considering features of contents, to enhance (students') creative activities and maintain interests and motivation in learning.

### 5.3. 유의 사항 [Concerns]

- (가) 학생들이 학습목표에 도달하도록 학생들의 능력이나 수준 등을 고려하여 다양한 학습의 기회와 방법을 제공한다.
- (나) 교사 중심의 활동보다는 교사와 학생, 학생과 학생 간 상호작용이 활발히 일어나도록 한다.
- (다) 게임 및 역할놀이 등의 활동 중심 수업에서는 흥미 유발과 함께 언어 학습이 활발히 이루어질 수 있도록 한다.
- (라) 다양한 모둠별 협동·협력학습을 통하여 학생들이 과업을 수행해 나가면서 영어 의사소통 활동에 많이 참여할 수 있도록 한다.
- (마) 개별 학습 및 모둠 학습을 적절히 활용하여 자기 주도적 학습 태도와 나눔과 배려의 공동체 의식도 기를 수 있도록 지도한다.
- (바) 수업을 영어로 진행할 때는 학생의 수준, 학습 내용의 특성 등을 고려하여 영어 사용량과 수준, 속도 등을 적절히 조절한다.
- (사) 학생의 개인차 등을 고려하여, 수준별 지도를 실시한다.
- (아) 수준별 수업 담당 교사는 교과 협의를 통하여 해당 학년군 또는 학년의 단원별 학습 내용을 분석한 후 기본학습, 심화학습, 보충학습 요소 등을 추출하여 지도할 수 있다.
- (a) Offer various learning opportunities and methods for students to accomplish learning objectives, taking into account their abilities and levels.
- (b) Encourage active interaction between teacher and students, and among students, instead of teacher-centered activities.
- (c) Provide activity-based classes using games or role-plays to motivate students and engage them in active language learning.
- (d) Help students to participate in group collaborative communicative activities in English
- (e) Develop positive attitudes toward self-directed learning, sharing, and respectful community membership using individual and group learning activities appropriately.
- (g) Teach in accordance with students' individual differences.
- (h) When classes are divided based on students' levels, all English teachers for the grade have to discuss necessary elements for beginning, advanced, and supplementary learning.

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### EDUCATION

Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 2013 - 2020

Ph.D. in Literacy, Culture and Language Education, Minor in Inquiry Methodology

Dissertation, "Analysis of Classroom Dynamics in a Teaching Methods Course: An EFL Teacher Educator's Beliefs and Instructional Decisions about Teaching English in South Korea"

Extension College, Seoul National University, 2013

Training for Korean Language Teachers

Certificate of Teaching Korean to Nonnative Speakers

The University of Texas at Austin, Texas, 2013

Master of Arts, Foreign Language Education

Master's Report, "Pronunciation Instruction in English as a Foreign Language Context: A Review of Goals and Best Practices"

Chonnam National University, Gwangju, South Korea, 2010

Bachelor of Arts, Major in English Education, Minor in English Language and Literature

Teacher's License in English Education, Ministry of Education

### AWARDS

- Grant-in-Aid of Doctoral Research, University Graduate School, Indiana University, 2018
- Doctoral Dissertation Research on Language Teacher Education, The International Research Foundation for English Language Education (TIRF), 2018
- Anna Ochoa Becker International Travel Fellowship, Center for International Education, Development and Research (CIEDR), Indiana University, 2017
- LJ Fay Fellowship, Indiana University, 2015, 2016, 2017
- Travel Grant, Indiana University, 2014, 2016
- Ruth G. Strickland Memorial Fellowship, Indiana University, 2014
- Superior Academic Performance Scholarship, Chonnam National University, 2007, 2009
- Study Abroad Scholarship, Chonnam National University, 2007

### RELATED EXPERIENCE

*Staff*, The Make, Innovative, Learn Lab (MILL), School of Education, Indiana University 2019

*Graduate Assistant*, Department of History, Indiana University, 2019 – 2020

- Organize *Social Justice in America Series* (April 2020) for campus and community, focusing on voter suppression, voter rights, and rise of hate groups

*Graduate Assistant*, The Graduate Mentoring Center, University Graduate School, Indiana University, 2015 – 2019

- Organized workshops and events (Mentoring Cohort, *Let's Talk about Mentoring* series, annual retreats, campus-wide orientation for graduate students, etc.)

- Invited a minority scholar-in-residence to IU campus every year for *Trailblazers and Innovators*
- Attended conferences for professional development (2016 The Association for Contemplative Mind in Higher Education, 2017, 2018 Midwestern Association of Graduate Schools, 2018 Association for the Study of Higher Education)

*Research Assistant*, “The short-term effects of individualized writing strategy instruction” Foreign Language Education Department, The University of Texas at Austin, 2012

*Textbook Development Assistant*, “Chunjae High School Textbook 2” Gwangju, South Korea, 2012

## PUBLICATIONS

Ahn, Y.-Y. (2020). A new researcher’s journey of researching multilingually: Reflecting on its significance and methodological concerns. *Learning to research multilingually: Rethinking practices, challenging policies*. B. L. Samuelson & S. Silvhiany (Eds.) Multilingual Matters.

Ahn, Y.-Y. (Under revision). Critical discourse analysis of communicative language teaching in language pedagogy textbooks published in the US or UK and implications for EFL teacher education.

Ahn, Y.-Y. (Under revision). Translingual practices for pronunciation instruction and raising learners’ translingual awareness.

Ahn, Y.-Y. & Chen, X. (Submitted for review). Doctoral students’ academic integration in a seminar as a community of practice: Implications for departments.

## SELECTED PRESENTATIONS

*Implications for pronunciation instruction from translingual practices in a Korean mobile application*, 1<sup>st</sup> International Conference on Literacy, Culture and Language Education, Bloomington, IN, October 2018

*What we mean when we talk about mentoring: Minority faculty and graduate students roundtable*, Midwestern Association of Graduate Schools, Indianapolis, IN, April 2017

*The discursive construction of CLT and NNESTs in introductory language teaching textbooks and Korean secondary English educational policy*, AAAL, Portland, OR, March 2017

*CLT in four language teaching textbooks and implications for language pedagogy courses*, The 10<sup>th</sup> International Conference on Language Teacher Education, Los Angeles, CA, February 2017

*How do international PhD students negotiate expectations on their writing assignments?* The 15<sup>th</sup> Symposium on Second Language Writing, Tempe, AZ, October 2016

*Discursive construction of communicative language teaching and EFL teacher roles in second language acquisition textbooks* Working Conference on Discourse Analysis in Education Research, Columbus, OH, May 2016

*A sociocultural analysis of Korean middle school NNESTs' and teacher educators' perceptions of oral proficiency and related contextual challenges*, 9<sup>th</sup> International Conference on Language Teacher Education, Minneapolis, MN, May 2015

*A sociocultural analysis of Korean middle school NNESTs' and teacher educators' perceptions of oral proficiency and related contextual challenges*, In-Progress Research Session, American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL, April 2015

*Departmental academic support for international doctoral students*, The 13<sup>th</sup> Symposium on Second Language Writing, Tempe, AZ, November 2014

*Teaching pronunciation: Lessons learned from tutoring ESL learners*, Symposium, Texas Foreign Language Education Conference, Austin, TX, February 2012

### **PANEL PRESENTATIONS**

*Doing research multilingually: A pressing need for understanding the process, collaboration, and reflection*, 15<sup>th</sup> International Congress of Qualitative Inquiry, Champaign, IL, May 2019

*Perspectives on learning to speak English from IU faculty and students*, Invited panel in Language and Learning, Dr. Beth Lewis Samuelson and Dr. Tessa Bent, Convenors, Intensive Freshman Seminars, Indiana University, August 10, 2017

*Cultural and linguistic diversity in the workplace*, Invited panel in Cummins Incorporation, Seymour, Indiana, November 16, 2016

*International students' experiences in cross-cultural adaptations*, Invited panel in Cultural/Community Forces and the School Course, Global Gateway Program, Indiana University, March 24, 2016

### **TEACHING EXPERIENCE**

*Teaching Assistant*, Department of Literacy, Culture and Language Education, Indiana University

Online "Seminar in Language Education" 2018

Online "Issues in Language Education" 2017

"Critical Writing for Academic Purposes" 2014

"Issues in Language Education" 2014 – 2015

*Instructor*, "Korean Beginners"

Asian Language Learning Program, Asian Culture Center, Indiana University, 2015 – 2017

*Korean Instructor*, Austin Language Learning School, Austin, Texas, 2012 – 2013

*Co-Instructor*, "Adult Korean Class" Austin Korean School, Austin, Texas, 2012 – 2013

*English Teacher*, Chosun University Girls' High School, Gwangju, South Korea, 2010 – 2011  
Il-Gok Public Middle School, 2010

Language Education Center at Chonnam National University, 2010

### **ACADEMIC SERVICE**

*Reviewer*, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages International Convention, 2016 - 2017

*Reviewer* for Faculty Mentor Award and Travel Award, Graduate and Professional Student Government (GPSG) Awards Committee, Indiana University, 2016  
*Organizer*, Department Brown bag series, Literacy, Culture and Language Education Department, Indiana University, 2015 – 2016  
*Organizing committee*, Asian American and Pacific Islander Experiences in Higher Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, November 2, 2015  
*Chair*, 29<sup>th</sup> Symposium in Language Education Department (SLED) Organization Committee, Literacy, Culture, and Language Education Department, Indiana University, October 23, 2015  
*Reviewer*, Working Papers in Literacy, Culture and Language Education (WPLCLE), Indiana University, 2014 - 2016  
*English Tutor*, Volunteers In Tutoring Adult Learners (VITAL), Monroe County Public Library, Bloomington, Indiana, 2013 – 2015  
*Volunteer*, American Association for Applied Linguistics Conference, Dallas, Texas, March 2013  
*Volunteer*, Texas Foreign Language Education Conference (TexFLEC), Annual Meetings, Austin, Texas, February 2013