GLOBALIZATION AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN KOREA: COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE THROUGH PRIVATE SECTOR EDUCATION

by

Soung ok Su

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY

August 2005

INFORMATION TO USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleed-through, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

ProQuest Information and Learning Company
300 North Zeeb Road
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346

GLOBALIZATION AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN KOREA:

COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL

LANGUAGE THROUGH PRIVATE SECTOR EDUCATION

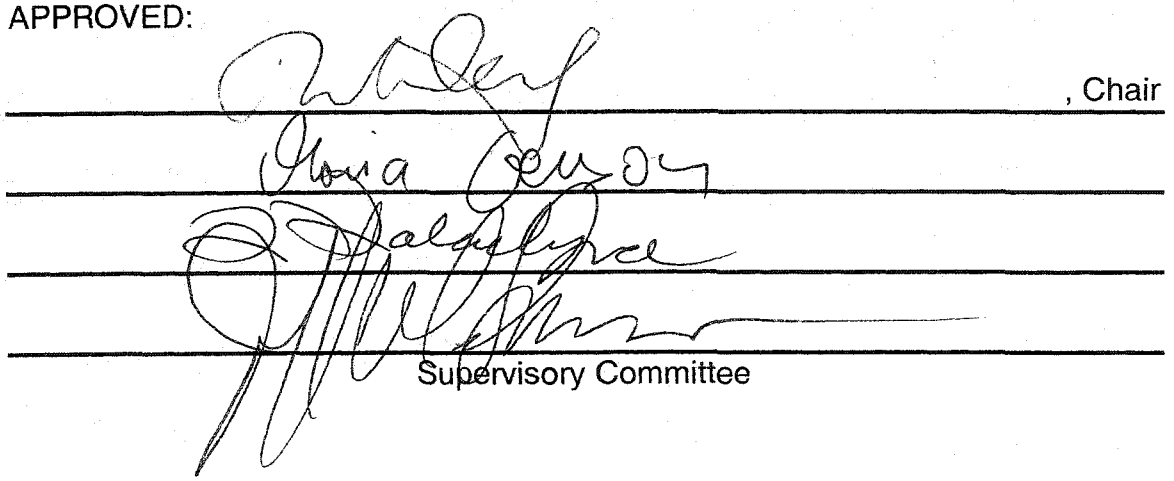
by

Soung ok Su

has been approved

May 2005

APPROVED:



_____, Chair

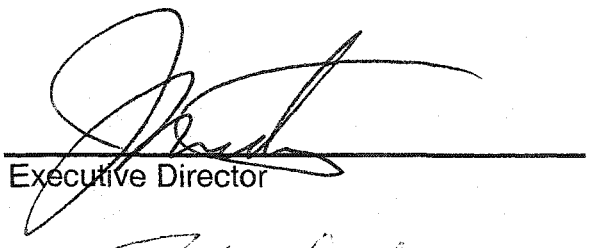
_____

_____

_____

Supervisory Committee

ACCEPTED:



_____

Executive Director

_____

Dean, Division of Graduate Studies

ABSTRACT

English became the priority in Korea's foreign-language teaching since the government's new globalization. It started with the innovation of infrastructures in English teaching, meanwhile, the private sector of English teaching expanded beyond the expenditures of public English education.

The purpose of this research was to address the impact of the new policy of English language education, focusing on examining whether private sector education contributed to improving students' communicative competence.

The Key English Test (KET-composed of a reading-and-writing, listening, and speaking test) and a questionnaire with regard to private English education experiences were administered to 353 students (162 of male students, 191 of female students) and two-way analyses of variances were used to determine statistically significant differences between four types of private English education experiences: private tutoring, group tutoring, *Hagwon*, and a weekly worksheet, gender and the three test scores.

This study found that private English education experience resulted in significant effects on reading-writing scores and listening scores. Students tended to have higher scores once they had experiences on private English education. However, as far as speaking scores are concerned, more than four years of experience in one type of the private education sector, *Hagwon*, demonstrated a significant effect.

As for gender effect, there were significant gender effects in all categories of private education experience on speaking scores. Private tutoring experiences and group tutoring experiences did not yield a gender effect on reading-and-writing scores. This study also found that there was a significant effect on the students' perceptions of public English education's focus on listening-and-speaking. It implied that students who obtained higher scores on reading-and-writing scores, listening scores, and speaking scores perceived public English education's focus on more listening and speaking than that of private English education.

According to the study, private English education contributed to a factor which increases students' reading-and-writing scores and listening scores. Nonetheless, this study also revealed that public English education strived to improve students communicative competence in terms of English as an international language under the government's globalization policy, while the private English education impacted only score-bound instruction.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation would not have completed without the many people who have contributed to my development. First and foremost, I would like to acknowledge my gratitude to Terrence Wiley, my advisor and chair, for his caring, kindness, expertise, and the warm support he has given me. I would also like to express my sincere appreciation to my dissertation committee. I would like to thank Jeff MacSwan and Marysia Johnson, who have helped me shape my dissertation topic throughout the Spenser program and for the time and energy they have dedicated to ensuring that I acquired the necessary knowledge. I am also very much indebted to Thomas Haladyna, whose knowledge and expertise in statistics helped me with my analysis.

In completing this project, I have depended on the support of Linda Weiss-Malik, for her dedication to my project as an editor, as well as the warm personal support she provided on a personal matter. I also would like to acknowledge that the dissertation would not have been realized without the support and expertise of Rico Rivera, who helped me by sharing his knowledge of statistics.

Above and beyond, my deep appreciation goes to my family. First, my mother, who prayed to God for keeping my strength and endurance throughout my study. My son, Jamie (Hansle), who constantly made me laugh and helped me maintain my balance during the study. My husband, Dongki, who gave me the freedom to have my dream.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

Table Page

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure Page

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The Korean government launched a globalization campaign in the 1990s, with a view toward preparing the nation to meet the challenges of an increasingly globalized world and to playing a central role in international affairs (Ministry of Education, 1997). When it comes to globalization, the use of English as an international language achieves a genuinely global status in nearly every major field. To achieve a global status, a language has to be taken up by other countries around the world either as an official language or as a priority in a country's foreign-language teaching (Crystal, 2003). English is now the priority in Korea's foreign-language teaching.

The administration of Kim Young Sam launched globalization policy in 1993. After the declaration of the globalization policy, the Korean government has implemented this new language policy aiming at the improvement of English proficiency. This required English as a compulsory subject from third grade onward since 1997.

This dissertation addresses how the Korean government deals with English as an international language and the impact of the new policy of English language education. It focuses on finding out how private sector education has evolved by means of examining whether private sector education contributes to improving students' communicative competence.

Statement of the Problem

Along with the globalization process, the Korean government agreed with the WTO (World Trade Organization) to open up the Korean education market to international business. Foreign teachers and materials entered the Korean market freely. In as early as 1994, Korea was the eleventh largest market of the ELT (English Language Teaching) materials for the U.K. publishers (Kwon, 1995).

English language education was the most phenomenal reform used in order to achieve the country's globalization. The Korean government not only implemented new English language education planning, legalizing English as a mandatory subject from third grade, but adopted a completely new approach to English teaching. In order to develop oral English ability and to avoid repeating the problems with grammar and reading based English teaching in the previous English program, the new approach emphasized developing communicative competence for both teachers and students.

The new implementation of English in elementary schools and pressure for English proficiency brought tremendous social impact on parents and students, directing them to private sector education[1]. Private sector education experienced a timely boost as teachers felt the lack of language ability to conduct communicative teaching as required under globalization policy. Native speakers of English rushed to Korea in mass with the government initiated EPIK (English Program in Korea) to compensate for the Korean teachers' lack of English proficiency. In addition, students were not satisfied with the public school

[1] Generally, private education is a comparable term for supplemental tutoring in the Korean context.

classrooms, because they had yet to match the demand for globalization policy; therefore, parents desired to place their children in a better environment, primarily private sector education in order to boost their English proficiency.

As English becomes more in demand under globalization, parents tend to rely increasingly on private sector education for their children's sake. Gradually, private education results in educational inequality and divides society. McKay (2002) addresses the problem of those who have more economic resources are often those who are able to attain greater proficiency in the language. In Korea's situation, for instance, wealthy parents send their children to study abroad for them in order to acquire English proficiency in an immersed environment. Eventually they become more formidable force in the workplace. Table 1 shows the increased number of students who study abroad year-by-year (Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development, 2003).

Table 1

Number of Students Who Study Abroad Early per 10,000 Student (Elementary and Secondary School)

(unit: Persons)

YEAR	TOTAL		ELEMENTARY SCHOOL		MIDDLE SCHOOL		HIGH SCHOOL	
	Number of students who study abroad	Number of students who study abroad per 10,000 students	Number of students who study abroad	Number of students who study abroad per 10,000 students	Number of students who study abroad	Number of students who study abroad per 10,000 students	Number of students who study abroad	Number of students who study abroad per 10,000 students
2000	20,145	25.3	10,640	26.5	5,974	32.1	3,531	17.1
2001	26,676	34.1	14,220	34.8	8,002	43.7	4,454	23.3
2002	28,126	36.2	15,661	37.8	7,922	43.0	4,543	25.3

Source: Korean Education Development Institute (KEDI), 2003

Crystal (2003) contends, "Why a language becomes a global language has little to do with the number of people who speak it. It is much more to do with who those speakers are" (p.7). That is, speakers who are politically or economically powerful maintain a global language and employ it. The Bank of Korea revealed that the nation spent the most foreign currency on overseas education during the first half of 2003 compared to past years. The total money remitted abroad for educational expenditures amounted to $820 million during the first six months in 2003, which represents a 29 percent increase over the corresponding period of 2002. As foreigners spent some $6.9 million for education in Korea during the same period, these statistics indicated that the

nation sustained a staggering imbalance of $814 million (Korea Herald, 2003 August).

It is a new trend in the Korean society to send children to English-speaking countries, thus, number of students who study abroad for their English proficiency are increasing every year. This indicates that children from underprivileged families have few chances to be exposed to the English language immersion situation unless their school classrooms provide one.

People tend to think that opportunities for private education yield increased proficiency in English, but in reality they are harming social values and undermining an important foundation of national cohesion and strength; economic prestige overpowers education; teachers are left behind from society's deep distrust as people in the country conceive that private learning institutes outdo public education in terms of English education.

Purpose of the Study

Given the fact that English is now taught from the third grade on in Korea, English should not be considered as an elite *lingua franca*. However, as McKay puts it,

> If English is a required subject in a country, school children will at least have some exposure to it. On the other hand, gaining a high level of proficiency in English typically requires more than the limited hours of instruction that generally occur in state school contexts and hence, those who want to attain a high level of proficiency in the language seek other means of learning, often in private institutes (McKay 2002, p. 14).

In a sense that more economic resources enable people to attain greater proficiency in English, McKay contends that English in some sense produces an elite *lingua franca* (p.14). This is happening in Korea as some parents no longer confident about the quality of public education are taking the matter into their own hands by relying more on private education. Nevertheless, having more economic resources does not necessarily translate into better proficiency in English in Korea's context. With the National College Entrance examination being the ultimate goal for studying, this is highly elitism-driven for the Korean society.

To comply with the globalization policy, the Korean government continuously has been investing in education (Ministry of Education, 2004, see table 2, 3, 4). For example, in accordance with the emphasis on quality, there are fewer number of students per classroom, thereby increasing the number of teachers, and providing more computers per student. The education budget has greatly increased by 4.3 percent in 2000[2] (Kim, Ee Gyeong, 2003).

[2] The central government education budget is supported by the nation's tax. The local government education funds are given to elementary and secondary school education: the financial resources are 85% from the central government and 15% from the parents and local government.

Table 2

The Number of Students per Class during the Past 5 Years

(unit: Persons)

YEAR	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL	MIDDLE SCHOOL	HIGH SCHOOL
1999	35.4	38.9	46.2
2000	35.8	38.0	42.7
2001	35.6	37.3	39.7
2002	34.9	36.7	33.9
2003	33.9	34.8	33.1

Source: Ministry of Education (2003). The publication of the 2003 annual report on education statistics.

Table 3

Comparison of the Number of Teachers during the Past 5 Years

(unit: Persons)

YEAR	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL	MIDDLE SCHOOL	HIGH SCHOOL	UNIVERSITY
1999	137,577	93,244	105,304	40,866
2000	140,000	92,589	104,351	41,943
2001	142,715	93,385	104,314	43,309
2002	147,497	95,283	114,304	44,177
2003	154,075	99,717	115,829	45,272

Source: Ministry of Education (2003). The publication of the 2003 annual report on education statistics. Seoul.

Table 4

Comparison of the Number of Students per Computer during the Past 5 Years

(unit: the number of persons)

YEAR	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL	MIDDLE SCHOOL	HIGH SCHOOL	VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL
1999	14.1	11.3	14.5	4.1
2000	14.4	10.6	11.7	3.6
2001	10.0	7.1	7.5	2.7
2002	8.3	6.2	6.1	2.2
2003	8.0	6.1	5.9	2.2

Source: Ministry of Education (2003). The publication of the 2003 annual report on education statistics. Seoul.

In reality, however, students and parents, especially those who have economic resources, sense that English education in the public sector does not meet their needs. Therefore, parents and students undermine public education, by distrusting teachers and curriculum in schools, whilst they value the material in which private educations bring. Parents are concerned, as Chew (1999) puts it, that a "lack of a command in English would mean the continued marginalization of their children in a world that would continue to use the language to a greater degree. It would also deny them access to the extensive resources available in English—resources which have developed as a consequence of globalization"(p.41).

Pennycook (1995) points out that in many ways "English...acts as a gatekeeper to positions of wealth and prestige both within and between nations, and is the language through which much of the unequal distribution of wealth, resources, and knowledge operates" (p.54). Hence, in some sense language education policy and practices play in promoting strong relationship between economic wealth and proficiency in the language.

Given the situation in which private education is ever present in the society, it is important to consider the link between economic wealth and proficiency in the language in terms of globalization. Therefore, comparing students' communicative competence[3] in relation to those who have more

[3] In general, the term of "communicative competence" in the paper is used as opposed to grammar-translation, even though the term as itself controversial. According to Ministry of Education in Korea, "As we are in the midst of globalization, it is necessary for us to acquire cross-cultural understanding and leadership qualities... Also communicative ability in international language is required for every citizen in order to become a member in the global society. To

opportunities for private education and those who have no experience on private education is a starting point for a researcher interested in tracking the impact of globalization on English language education.

Mostly, students are involved in private education by private tutoring, group tutoring, *Hagwon* (Korean word for cram school), and weekly worksheet. Among them, *Hagwon* is one of the most common places where students receive tutoring. In addition, unlike secondary schools in the western countries, most of secondary schools in Korea are not co-ed schools, thus, considering gender effect as well with regard to private education experience seems appropriate.

It has been seven years since the Korean government implemented new English language education standards, starting formal English education from the third grades. To date, however, there has not been a single comprehensive evaluation study on students' communicative competence that delves into the relationship between the effect of private education and proficiency or performance[4] in English, even though private sector education is ubiquitous in a Korean society. The call for research in this unexplored region is even more urgent within the context of globalization policy of the government, because the salient feature of the new policy of English language education is developing communicative competence. Thus, this dissertation addressed the following questions:

---

achieve this end, all the citizens are expected to be able to communicate in at least one foreign language. Therefore, more emphasis has been placed on foreign language education." (Ministry of Education, 1997).

[4] Chomsky (1965) proposed the concept of grammatical or linguistic competence and highlighted cognitive aspects of human language acquisition and learning. He distinguished between competence (one's underlying knowledge of the language) and performance (the realization of language in specific situations). However, the definition of "competence" and "performance" in the study are used in compliance with the Korean Ministry of Education.

1. Is there an interaction of gender and amount of private education experience for the three dependent variables?
    a. Is there an interaction of gender and private tutoring experience for the three dependent variables?
    b. Is there an interaction of gender and group tutoring experience for the three dependent variables?
    c. Is there an interaction of gender and *Hagwon* experience for the three dependent variables?
    d. Is there an interaction of gender and weekly worksheet experience for the three dependent variables?
2. Is there a main effect difference for amount of private education experience?
    a. Is there private tutoring main effect for the three dependent variables?
    b. Is there group tutoring main effect for the three dependent variables?
    c. Is there *Hagwon* main effect for the three dependent variables?
    d. Is there weekly worksheet main effect for the three dependent variables?
3. Is there a main effect difference for gender?
4. Is there a difference in test scores as a function of the perceptions of students about English education both in private and public sector?

a. Is there a difference in test scores as a function of students' perception of private English education focused on listening-and-speaking?
b. Is there a difference in test scores as a function of students' perception of private English education focused on reading-and-writing?
c. Is there a difference in test scores as a function of students' perception of public English education focused on listening-and-speaking?
d. Is there a difference in test scores as a function of students' perception of public English education focused on reading-and-writing?

Research Limitations

There were several limitations of this study: The geographical region of data collection was limited to one province, *Gangwondo*, for an easy accessible reason and may not be representative the Seoul area, where even more private education is available. The researcher did not utilize a native speaker of English during the speaking interview to cross-validate and it may violate the rater's reliability. Also, there were not enough cases of private education experience to conduct a three-way analysis of variance to draw firm conclusions regarding the question of whether private education contributes to improving communicative competence all over the country, and English language teaching method in terms of globalization policy affects on communicative competence, all in area. More

comprehensive data collection by region is necessary to investigate the arguments put forward in this study. Furthermore, this study did not collect data on parents' income or socio economic status data that would allow for an analysis of the relationship between economic resources and proficiency in English other than students' self-report survey with regard to participation on private sector education, as it is hard to define parents' income status by surveying only students. A more comprehensive collection of data which makes possible generalizability would enrich the study of evaluating communicative competence.

Chapter Organization

This study contains six chapters. Chapter I starts with the introduction, a statement of the problem and the purpose of the study. It also describes research limitations and chapter organization. Chapter II presents the overall background of the study, entitled English Education in Korea. It begins with historical and socio-cultural background, English education in elementary school, along with teacher training for elementary school. It goes on to secondary and high school. It also addresses English teacher training, native speakers of English in English education, and ends up dealing with The College Scholastic Ability Test. Chapter III presents a review of the literature. A review of the literature pertaining to globalization and English, Confucianism and private sector education with Confucius and filial piety is followed by data on the private sector education expenditures, It expands on why Korean society spends so much money on private sector education. Then a discussion of language and culture follows by

focusing on communicative language teaching and English as an international language. Chapter IV discusses methodology. It includes a population sample, instrument for data analysis (Key English Test, English language private sector participation survey), and data collection procedures. Chapter V provides the major findings of the study. Descriptive statistics of private education experience are presented. Findings are shown with research questions and conspicuous tables. Chapter VI contains the summary of findings, addresses the implication of the study, and makes recommend for English language education policy in Korea.

CHAPTER II

ENGLISH EDUCATION IN KOREA

Historical and Socio-cultural Background

The first official English teaching in Korea began in 1883 with the support of King Kojong (1864 -1907). The purpose of the English instruction was to produce the interpreters necessary for the royal court and for diplomatic interaction. In 1886, American missionaries opened several additional schools in Korea and taught English for missionary work (Moon, 1976). English teaching at that time was conducted through the direct method. However, during the 1920s, the trend in language teaching tended to be the memorization of grammatical rules and test-taking techniques, and emphasized written rather than spoken English (Moon, 1991). English language teaching was minimal during the period of Japanese colonial rule (1910-1945).

The Korean War (1950-1953) resulted in the partitioning of Korea and in the adoption of American political values and educational systems. Heavy dependence on America brought a necessity for learning American English and became a standard of English. Support from Western nations and organizations during, and after, the Korean War had a profound effect on promoting a democracy[5].

During and after the Japanese colonial, there were intermittently some resistances to protect Korean language from Japanese and English language. The Japanese colonial period (1910-1945) witnessed a large influx of Japanese

[5] The first democratically elected president (Kim, Young-sam) took office in 1993.

language into Korean. English came into Korea during the Japanese colonial period and after, owing to a strong relationship with the United States. English is currently a much more important source of the loan words that are used in Korean language (Lovmo, 2001). After 1945, loan words from Japanese were a particular target of purification efforts in Korea. Besides, another issue Korean purists faced was that of Western loan words, that were introduced from the Japanese language, and were retaining Japanese elements of pronunciation (Tranter, 1997). The Korean government attempted to get to work after the liberation to replace these words with direct copies from the original source-languages (Transter, 1997, p.139).

Direct English-language loans seem to have been introduced into Korean language in great numbers over the years, evidenced by the fact that one can see English words on various signs all over the country. For the language purists, the remnants of language introduced from Japanese and the direct loans from English were very ripe targets of attack. Thereafter, there were times that the use of English in songs written and sung by Koreans was banned on the air, explaining that "airing songs which are entirely in English do not comply with public sentiment" and that all-English songs might "have an adverse influence on young people" (Byun, 1997). Nowadays, however, people in the society feel privileged when using more English words.

Modern education in Korea and macroeconomic policies, have contributed to the continuous national development since end of the Korean War. Lacking other physical and natural resources, Korea has utilized its abundant well-

educated human resources for continuous economic growth. A country like Korea, as Pakir (2004) explains has a "highly skilled and well educated labor force, one that is additionally expected to be flexible and adaptable for the 21st century." Therefore, the quantitative expansion and the qualitative furtherance of education have created a great demand for teachers, facilities, and various kinds of educational equipment and materials, which has played a direct role in economic growth.

As Korea advanced with its economic growth internationally, the need for interaction with international affairs became important. As a result, large companies in Korea recruited new employees according to their English scores. English language became one of the major subjects, and had the highest weight on the mandatory college entrance examination called the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT). Eventually high scores on English tests became of paramount importance for all levels of students, not only for the college entrance examination, but also for furthering careers.

However, the Ministry of Education realized that high scores on English tests do not guarantee proficiency in speaking and listening. Thus, educational reform in English testing was instituted in 1993. The reform was to introduce a listening test in the nationwide college entrance examination. Because the listening test became an important part in English test, the English curriculum reflected the new teaching methodology, which emphasized spoken language over written language.

In addition, under the globalization policy, the government launched a new English program in elementary schools in 1997, conveying more social change through English. According to Bae (1995), "Korea developed an open international relationship in the 1980s, and new information and technologies were imported, people argued that language skill was crucially important in order to fully understand and utilize the new information technologies" (p.152).

Hoping that their children would achieve better English proficiency, parents with enough financial resources placed their children of all ages, into private sector education. Crystal (2003) contends, " If a global language is taught early enough, from the time that children begin their full-time education, and it is maintained continuously and resourced well, the kind of linguistic competence which emerges in due course is a real and powerful bilingualism, indistinguishable from that found in any speaker who has encountered the language since birth" (p.16). English education in the private sector was boosted by hiring more native English speakers than in the public schools.

Hagwon, the Korean word for cram school, is almost universally popular today in Korea and is a product of family aspirations and notoriously difficult college entrance examinations. It is also one of the only places where the great majority of Koreans can interact with foreign teachers in a sustained-albeit contrived-way. In the midst of ferocious competition for students, even comparatively small institutes may boast of having several teachers from the United States, Canada or Australia, on staff engaged for one-year contracts to provide students with more authentic language environments.

Thus, *hagwons* claim to be on front-line of globalization in Korea, training students both in American English as well as in putative, American culture. However, it is widely known that these private sector institutes employ unqualified teachers who are just native speakers of English without college degrees or any other teaching experiences.

English Education in Elementary School

Characteristics of elementary school English. Focusing on developing communicative competence in language education, Ministry of Education stressed globalization and suggested that the command of any foreign language was an essential way for Koreans to take active roles as members of the global community in the 21st century (Ministry of Education, 1997). Elementary English curriculum reflected these concerns, as Ministry of Education puts it,

> ...public opinion has raised the issue to revise English education policies and to change English teaching methods. Even though people have studied English more than 10 years in school, in reality, they still have difficulties communicating in English (Ministry of Education 1997. p.73)

Ko (1993) reported that English is an optional subject at the elementary level in over 50 countries, 25 of which have made it a mandatory school subject. For example, China starts English education from Grade 4, Thailand from Grade 1, France from Grade 2, Norway from Grade 3, and Israel from Grade 3 (Ministry of Education, 1997). English education as a mandatory subject in Korean elementary school started from 3rd grade since 1997. The new English program

in elementary schools were created with a view toward shifting the existing middle and secondary English programs to a more oral communication-based English program and to encourage the development of students' oral English ability from an earlier age (Ministry of Education, 1997). Prior to its inauguration, the Korean government spent two years developing a national curriculum, providing English teacher training for elementary teachers, organizing multimedia facilities for the schools, and publishing textbooks in preparation for the program's implementation (Ministry of Education, 1997). The new curriculum emphasized equal educational opportunity, highlighting information technology, and helping young students become familiar with globalization.

According to the curriculum, textbooks for the third grade were prepared by individual publishers per government authorizations. 16 books were finally selected as authorized textbooks (Ministry of Education, 1997).

Elementary English excluded written language in the first year of instruction, and then students began identifying letters of the alphabet in the second year, introducing limited reading. The fifth and sixth grade started reading on the word level and short sentence level of writing with strictly controlled 500 words over the four years of instruction. The curriculum required elementary English to be taught primarily through games, activities, songs, chants, and role plays. There was not any written test required by teachers, only verbal descriptions on student progress/ achievement based on classroom observations.

Courses, hours, and required number of words of the 7th English curricula[6] is seen the table 5.

Table 5

Courses, Hours, and Required Number of Words of the 7th English Curricula.

School	Elementary School				Middle School			High School		
Grade	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
Subject (hr/wk) × Semester	(1) ×2	(1) ×2	(2) ×2	(2) ×2	(3) ×2	(3) ×2	(4) ×2	(4) ×2	(4) ×2	(4) ×2
Words	80-120	80-120	90-130	90-130	200	250	350	450	2300	3000

Source: Ministry of Education (1997).

The elementary school English curriculum provided a list of nine broad categories of communicative function and 128 exemplary sentences as follows (Kwon, 2000):

(1) *Personal feelings*: expressing or inquiring about emotional feelings, expressing or inquiring about physical feelings, expressing or inquiring about likes/dislikes

(2) *Personal thoughts*: expressing or inquiring about capability/incapability, expressing or inquiring about want

(3) *Socializing*: greeting, introducing, asking about health, making invitations and accepting or declining them, making appointments for meetings, receiving visitors

[6] The national curricula are revised on a periodic basis (every 5 years) to reflect the emerging needs of the changing society and the new frontiers of disciplines. The 7th curriculum has been made in 1997 and was effective from 2001.

(4) *Formulaic communication*: expressing and acknowledging gratitude, apologizing and accepting apologies, wishing, complimenting/exclaiming, telephone conversation, offering food or drinks, and accepting or declining them

(5) *Requests*: making requests, making suggestions and refusing or accepting them

(6) *Directions and commands*: giving directions, issuing commands, forbidding somebody from doing something

(7) *Information exchanges*: asking about people or facts, describing people or facts, stating facts, stating customary acts, describing experience

(8) *Opinion exchanges*: expressing agreement or disagreement

(9) *Problem solving*: giving or inquiring directions to places, comparing, asking for clarification, reporting other's utterances

There were exemplary sentences on each of the categories. For instance, the category of 'apologizing/responding' listed as follows:

Apologizing/Responding

Sorry (about that)! Excuse me.

That's all right. Oh, I see. It's nothing. No problem!

Sorry, I am late.

Since the implementation of the new English program in elementary school, Jung and Norton (2002) examined how teachers perceive English language programs. The result shows that even though the government's

position, initiating English in elementary school, was to promote English as an international language and to develop communicative competence at an earlier age, about 60 percent of the teachers viewed English as only one of the foreign languages, rather than as a special international language. Thus, teachers' belief was that English should not be unduly emphasized as a major subject at the expense of other subjects.

Teacher training for elementary school. When the new elementary English program was initiated, elementary school teachers were concerned about teaching English because they did not major in English specifically in their university program. Since elementary school teachers are trained to teach all the subjects in practice, they all learn the basics of all subjects at teachers' colleges. Therefore, in-service teachers had not been taught about English teaching methodology. In response to this concern, the Ministry of Education implemented 120-hour in-service training programs since 1996. The training included English conversation classes with native English speakers, teaching methods, materials development, and presentation of teaching (Ministry of Education, 1996). For those who completed the basic program, a subsequent 120-hour advanced program was implemented in all cities and provinces.

There were two different English teacher systems in the new program: the classroom English teacher system and the English special teacher system. In the classroom English system, the regular classroom teacher is responsible for teaching English; in the English special teacher system, a single teacher is responsible for teaching English to a number of different classes each week. This

system was granted to school's principals to choose a better one for their own particular needs and circumstances.

Acknowledging the lack of most teachers' communicative competence to teach English, the government encouraged the use of technology and funded the installation of the system. One of the popular materials in English class is CD-ROMs with English text and teachers heavily rely on the pronunciation from the CD-ROMs.

English Education in Secondary School

Korea's national curriculum is revised every five or six years. The sixth curriculum was put into use in 1995 for middle school and 1996 for high school. The major objectives of the sixth curriculum was "to improve basic abilities, skills and attitudes; to develop language ability and civic morality needed to live in society; to increase the spirit of cooperation; to foster basic arithmetic skills and scientific observation skills; and to promote the understanding of healthy life and the harmonious development of body and mind (The Ministry of Education, 1996). The seventh curriculum initiative, which was implemented in March 2000, kept these basic goals but updated many elements to reflect changes in Korean society.

The sixth English curriculum marked a revolution in the history of English instruction in Korea, for they adopted a completely new approach to English teaching. With the emphasis on communicative competence, the syllabus was changed from the traditional grammatical syllabus to a type of communicative functional syllabus; the shift of focus was moved from accuracy to fluency, the

College Scholastic Ability Test also emphasized communicative competence through reading comprehension. Therefore, emphasis was placed on appropriateness rather than on ability to form grammatically correct sentence and on understanding the communicative intent of the speaker or writer rather than on picking out specific details.

There is only one English course in middle school whilst high school offers a variety of English courses, such as English conversation, reading, comprehension, and composition. This was quite an undertaking for the government to require that English teachers and students see the practical use of the English language by having them to focus on communicative competence.

Following the commencement of English teaching in elementary school as a regular subject, students in secondary school were bombarded by more challenging English contents on the examination. Despite any deep involvement in written English in their elementary school, students are expected to enhance in-depth English both receptive and productive English in their secondary schools, such as, listening tests for their regular mid- term and final exam are provided for four times in a year by the Ministry of Education. Schools are imposing on performance assessment as well as regular written test conducted four times per year.

In a Korean society the importance of English has never been questioned when taking college entrance examination into consideration. The subject of English is one of the main factors determining the success or failure of students taking the entrance examination. Currently, public schools offer 3-4 hours weekly

teaching English lessons as a compulsory lesson and high schools have more extended hours with elective courses. However, there is a big gap between the national school curriculum and the level of entrance examinations. Since the implementation of the seventh curricular initiative, the government has cut English instruction hours from five to three to four hours, aiming at reducing the study workload of students. Nonetheless, there will not be a corresponding change to lower standards in the university entrance examination systems in the near future.

For decades, the entrance examination has been the sole factor in determining secondary students' fate. Although there were some changes in which university entry would be determined by a combination of tests, including the College Scholastic Test, aptitude tests in a specific field, community volunteer hours and teachers' letters of recommendation, but old systems, steeped in the traditions of feudalism, have not disappeared. Despite these efforts by the government, hierarchies of university level still reign, and a university degree is the only ticket to a promising career. As long as a university examination stands paramount, teaching methods in educational reform do not translate into reality. No matter how much the Ministry of Education emphasizes communicative teaching on English education, the authoritarian approach still rules because it is easier to get students higher scores on the test.

English Education in Higher Education

College English teaching had been dominated by proponents of General English, purported to cultivate the college students' understanding of literature,

history, philosophy through English, for the courses had been designed and operated by the professors from the departments of English language and literature, whose specialization were literature or theoretical linguistics. However, with the rapid industrialization of the country and changes in the society where competence in English is required more than ever, there have been growing demands from students and society that college English focus on developing competence in practical English (Kwon, 2000). In response to this demand, more and more universities changed their positions in the 1990s and focused on the teaching of practical English, comprising of (1) intensifying conversational English courses and (2) setting an English proficiency level required for graduation. For example, Seoul National University (SNU), which had been a stronghold of the General Education proponents, announced its plan to require its students to achieve a standard of English competence in 1998 (Kwon, 2000). Almost every student in university experiences taking test of English proficiency, such as TOEIC, TOEFL, and TEPS (Test of English Proficiency developed by Seoul National University) because these tests are references for decision making in recruitment or promotion in the job career.

All these changes are encouraging in that they are intended to produce college graduates who can communicate in English. However, "practical" English tends to overemphasize conversational English at the cost of academic English of written language.

English should be considered as a tool with which people of the language and culture or for country's international sake. However, the spread of English in

the society is considered by the nation as a threat to Korea's national identity. It is true that the role that English played in various social and cultural divisions in Korea has profound implications for English as a language of power in the society. In other words, English is believed to be the powerful medium for access to economic and educational success. Thus, it is not unusual to find some students in the university focusing on more practical English than on their academic major throughout their college life.

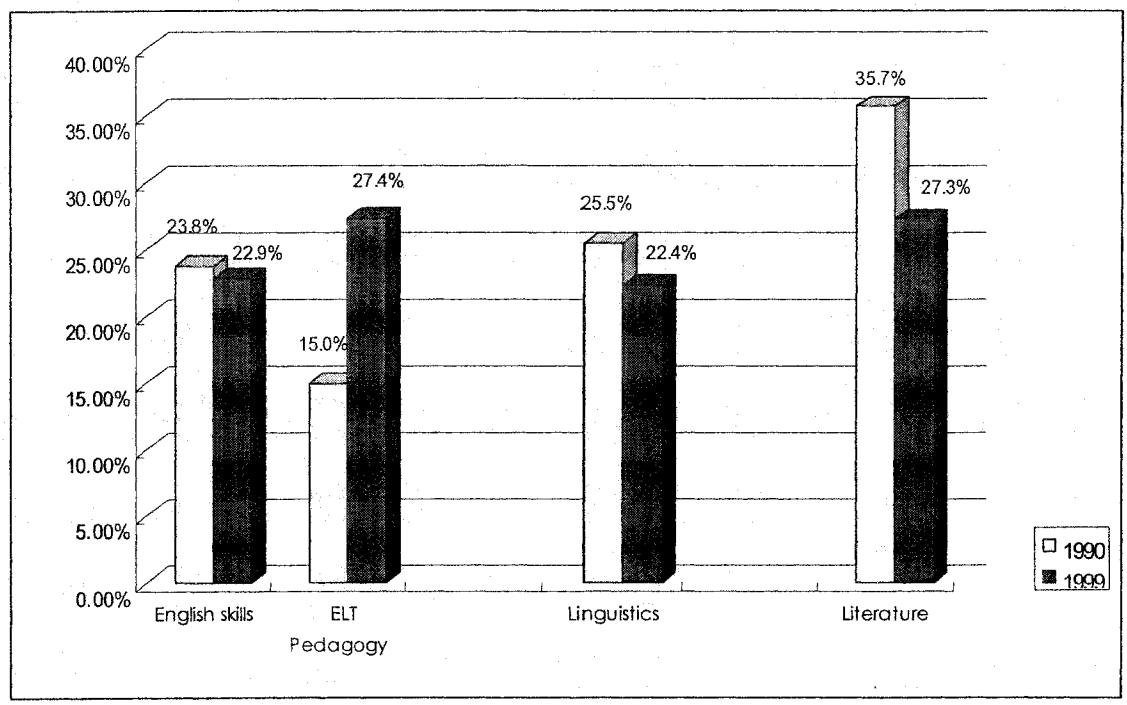
Kwon (2000) points out that if elementary and secondary school English education functions effectively, high school graduates should be able to acquire what Cummins[7] (1979) calls BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) in English proficiently enough for them to focus on academic English (which Cummins calls CALP: Cognitive Academic Linguistic Proficiency) in the university. Nonetheless, as long as university admissions primarily are contingent upon entrance examination performance, as long as Korean employers continue to base hiring decisions on the prestige level of the educational institution an applicant attended, emphasizing on students' communicative competence in the secondary English curriculum fades away.

English Teacher Training

One of the obstacles to the improvement of English teaching in Korea has been the pre-service education colleges' curricular that were criticized for their inadequacy for producing capable teachers (Kwon, 2000). According to Kwon (2000), the faculties of the English education departments are dominated by

[7] Cummins' views are widely accepted by practitioners but have been criticized by many scholars including Edelsky (1996), MacSwan (1999, 2000), Romaine (1995), Wald (1984), Troike (1984), Wiley (1996, 2005), Spolsky (1984), among others.

literature and linguistics professors who believe that a good English teacher needs to know literature and linguistics from their perspectives. Most faculties were hired under the influence of military government in the past, thus, they placed emphasis on learning rules and structures of English through grammar and sentence pattern exercises for pre-service English teachers. In an effort to improve the situation, the Ministry of Education took an initiative to change the curricular of English teacher education schools in 1996 through a nationwide project (the Ministry of Education, 1996), aiming at reducing area of literature. Figure 1 shows the changes in course percentage made over the ten years of the 1990s.



Source: Kwon (2000). Korea's English Education Policy Changes in the 1990s: Innovations to Gear the Nation for the 21st Century.

Figure 1. Changes in Course Percentage in 16 Departments of English Education from 1990 to 1999.

Even though ELT pedagogy outweighed in a decade, the weight of literature is still excessive in the curriculum. In-service training in the past was blamed for offering courses in linguistics and literature that did not bear any direct usefulness for the improvement of teaching English.

However, in the 1990s, these in-service training programs have dramatically increased language skill-building courses and ELT methodology courses, employing more native speakers of English. As Jung and Norton (2002) puts it, in terms of teacher training, they found that the government's extensive English teacher training program was effective in helping teachers understand clearly ELT pedagogy.

Nonetheless, teachers' limited English proficiency regarded as the most obvious challenge to successful classroom teaching. McGrath (2001) surveyed 100 middle and high school teachers attending in-service training at Gyunpook National University and the Teachers Training Institute in Gummi and it showed that teachers felt they did not speak English very well for many classroom purposes. Moreover, with the government announcement of the approach of using only English when teaching English as prescribed by the seventh curriculum, teachers' proficiency has become a major issue in the debate over how to improve Korean students' communicative competence.

To support and encourage communicative competence using English as a medium of instruction, the Ministry of Education (MOE) started EPIK (English Program in Korea) in 1996, a project to import and assign native speakers (NS) of English. Along with this program the private sector also imported a great

number of NS teachers. The MOE has disclosed it plans to hire a total of 4,150 teachers of NS over five years beginning in 2003 and to assign at least one NS teacher for every two schools across the country. As of 2002, Korean public schools employed 141 NS teachers (The Korea Herald, 2002 June), when private sector NS teachers are totaled, the number of NS teachers would be thousands.

Native Speakers (NS) of English in English Education

According to Dusthimer & Gillett (1999), there have been five waves of NS teachers who came to teach English in Korea. The first wave came at the end of the Chosun Dynasty on religious missions. The second wave came after the liberation of the country, when new groups of missionaries arrived in Korea. The third wave was the Peace Corps volunteers from the U.S. The first group of Peace Corps members arrived in Korea in 1966 and were assigned to secondary and tertiary education institutions (Dusthimer & Gillett, 1999. Cited in Kwon, 2000). The Peace Corps Program ended in the early 1980s when Korea grew out of the status of an underdeveloped country. The fourth wave came at the end of the late 1970s, with a need for English teaching professionals to teach in industry and education. These teachers were recruited mostly by universities and large industrial conglomerates (Dusthimer & Gillett, 1999, p.2). Then, in the 1990s, the fifth wave was comprised of the NS teachers who came through the Fullbright ETA (English Teaching Assistant) Program in 1992 and the MOE's EPIK Program, a project to import and assign NS teachers to secondary schools, in

1996. The NS teachers were recruited from all over the English speaking countries, including the U.S., the U.K., Canada, Australia, and New Zealand.

The massive influx of the NS instructors in Korea's secondary school left a great impact on the general perception of the public and the teachers as they were faced with the native-speakers (Kwon, 2000). While communicative competence was in more demand by native English speakers, some native English teachers were questioned about their quality and this engendered some conflicts between Korean English teachers and native English speakers. Native English speakers' only important qualifications are holding bachelor's degree and being a native speaker of English. The lack of qualifications damaged effective team-teaching of the NS teachers and the Korean English teachers. Furthermore, some NS teachers implicitly or explicitly express that their own culture or people are superior to Korean culture or people during the teaching. Though, it was a good start having NS teachers in the classroom, as the more that English is relevant to students' environments, the more they will feel they have the opportunity to use it.

The College Scholastic Ability Test

It is believed that Korea is the "educationally credentialized society." In many cases, the extraordinary emphasis on ranking colleges and universities has led to a brand-name sensitivity that may affect a person for their entire life. Entrance into a university is often equated with passing the test, and in actuality this is often the case. Though admission procedures are becoming more flexible in recent years, such as, including extra-curriculum activities, essays, and

weighing test scores less, still the College Scholastic Ability Test is the most important element.

University entrance is more than a family concern. In fact, it affects the whole nation. On the day of the examination, companies put off the start of business for an hour. Airlines refrain from flying over examination centers during listening test section in English so as not to make it difficult for students to catch the hearing problems because of noise. After taking the test students are strictly ranked by the "abstract notion of a national norm-referenced person-indexed score" (Brown, 1995). Using this score, high school teachers advise their students which university they should apply to.

According to Korea Institute of Curriculum & Evaluation (KICE), under the Ministry of Education, the purpose of the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT) is (1) to provide valid, reliable and objective data for selecting students into colleges and universities, (2) to contribute to the improvement of the high school education (Korea Institute of Curriculum and Evaluation, 1999). In order to comply to this, the CSAT English Section drastically changed from that of the old College Entrance Academic Proficiency Test, which had focused on phonological, lexical, and grammatical knowledge. The characteristics of the new test are (1) emphasis on communicative competence, (2) introduction of a listening comprehension test, (3) fluency over accuracy, (4) emphasis on reading comprehension, and (5) no paper-and-pencil test on pronunciation or spelling (Kwon, 2000).

The characteristics of English Section in the CSAT for 2005 by Korea Institute of Curriculum (2004) as follows:

(1) Listening items assess the ability of listening to a native speaker's dialogue.

(2) Speaking items are given as an indirect measurement of speaking ability, with test items requiring the testees to select the best responses to the unfinished dialogues that they heard.

(3) Reading items assess the ability of reading comprehension, requiring the use of the testee's background knowledge and the indication of an interactive passage.

(4) Writing ability is also measured indirectly, with test items that assessed the testee's understanding of the principles of sentence and paragraph construction or logical flow of paragraphs.

(5) To ensure both fluency of English use and accuracy, the test includes vocabulary and grammar usage.

(6) The test has 50 items, including 17 items of listening and speaking, and they are multiple choice (one answer key, four distracters) questions.

(7) Test items are given different weights: three items for one point, forty four items for two points, three items for three points.

However, there is a huge gap between classroom pedagogy and the characteristics of college entrance examinations. Most teachers in high school use simplified texts, which are provided by the government, and few materials

that are suitable for the characteristics of examinations. College entrance examination requires students to be able to master English more than they accomplish in the school classroom. For example, the text passages in the exam were quite difficult to complete in 50 minutes (Actual English Section lasts 70 minutes including 20 minutes for listening test), almost every item has more than 100 words. The reading item, as an example, (weighed two points) is as follows (excerpted from English Section-odd type 2004):

Select the best answer in the blank

Different groups develop ideas in different ways. In successful groups, individuals are encouraged to produce imaginative and original ideas and share them with others. In unsuccessful groups, individual members are not encouraged to do so. Instead, they are always asked to do groupthink. In the beginning, there are no differences in the abilities and qualities among the members of these two kinds of groups. However, in the end, the groups which encourage individual members to _____ will prosper, whereas those which do not will fail. Therefore, group leaders must learn this lesson and put it into practice in order to achieve productive and positive results.

(1) learn quickly *(2) understand others*

(3) respond properly *(4) think creatively*

(5) possess leadership

The CSAT has had a tremendous "washback" effect on secondary school English education. Secondary school English classes shifted their focus from

analysis of grammatical structures to reading and listening for main ideas and inferences. There were negative effects as well: first, since most students sensed the time limit in the test, some teachers devoted their instruction time to well-developed techniques regarding how to catch main ideas without reading a whole paragraph. Secondly, due to the big gap between curriculum provided and the CSAT items, although Korea Institute of Curriculum claims that the CSAT covers general curriculum, many students are involved in private sector education, mainly "*hagwon*".

Everywhere there are "cram schools" (*hagwon*), where elementary, middle, and high school students study late into the evening and on weekends. There are various types of these schools for the elites who are eager to go onto prestigious universities or those for the incapable students. No matter what kind of cram schools they go to, the teaching methods are mainly memorization oriented and they learn techniques to find correct answers in their tests. Korean families invest heavily in the education of their children, and children and young adults spend a huge portion of their time studying and preparing for examinations in both public schools and private sector.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Globalization and English

Korea's globalization drive was intensified under the Kim Young Sam Administration (1993-1998). *Segyehwa*, the Korean word for globalization, was based on the premise that Koreans perceive themselves as deficient in their degree of globalization after having been a closed country for a long time (Kim, Eun Young, 1996). Globalization in Korea aimed to (1) create a first-rate nation; (2) democratize all aspects of life; (3) maintain national unity by rising above class, regional, and generational differences; (4) strengthen Korea's national identity as the basis for successful globalization; and (5) enhance a sense of community with all humanity (Kim, Eun Mee, 2000). Soon the government reorganized its cabinet in order to suit for globalization especially in six priority areas: (1) education, (2) legal and economic systems, (3) politics and the mass media, (4) national and local administrations, (5) the environment, and (6) culture and consciousness (Kim, Samuel, 2000).

Before implementing globalization policy, no one denies education stands out as the crucial factor behind Korea's political, economic, social, and cultural development. In relation to political development, education has served as a means of political socialization through promoting knowledge, changing behavior patterns and shaping attitudes toward values, the nation and the world. It created public awareness of political participation (Ministry of Education, 2001).

Education has been the major source of trained manpower in the various fields and the levels of skills needed for economic development and is credited with contributing to the total increase of GNP. Furthermore, the hierarchical social structure of Korea has changed as a result of increased educational opportunity, so that the middle class has expanded and upward social mobility has increased. (Ministry of Education, 2001).

Since education plays multiple roles in the society, under the implementation of globalization policy, the education has been recognized as a most important task to be taken care of by the government. Particularly, English language education is an emphasized area among numerous areas where globalization has impacted the national education policy. In this part, I would like to discuss some of the consequences of globalization in particular the consequences for English.

In Korea, acquiring English language skills, which is seen as the key to success in the globalized age, is taken for granted. It is evident that English is the de facto most important language to succeed in Korean society as well as international language of international communication today, but it is also evident that the dominance of English today causes not only educational inequality but also feelings of anxiety and insecurity on the part of the underprivileged people who do not have economic resources nor speak English fluently in a rapidly globalizing world in which English dominates extensively (Pennycook, 1994).

The dominance of English can be seen by Braj Kachru (1988), explaining the spread of English around the world as three concentric circles, representing

different ways in which the language has been acquired and is currently used (see Figure 2).

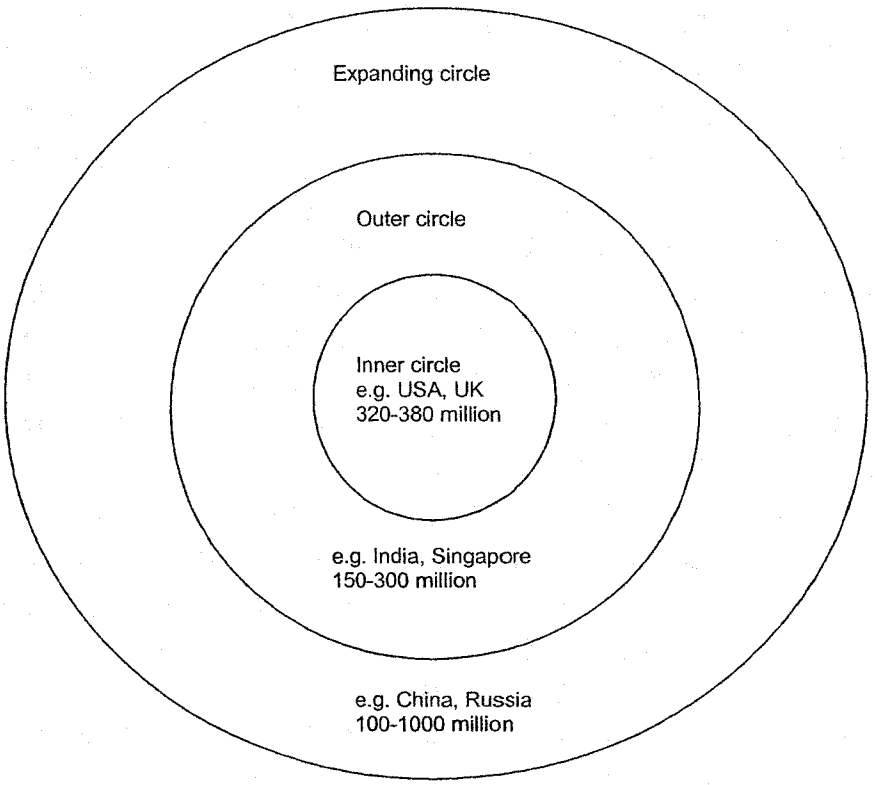


Figure 2. The three circles of English (Kachru 1988).

Later, Ammon (1992) points out the dominance of English by providing statistics. According to him, (1) English has the greatest number of speakers reaching as many as 1.5 billion people; (2) English is designated as official languages of as many as 62 nations; (3) English is the most dominant language in scientific communication with 70-80 percent of academic publications being published in it; (4) English is the de facto official and working language in most international organizations; (5) English is the most taught foreign language across the world (p.78-81).

The dominance of English not only operates as a means of promoting globalization, but also serves to facilitate globalization. Globalization, in other words, assumes and encourages the use and dominance of English. Pennycook (1994) points out the interrelationship between the dominance of English and the structure of global relations as follows:

> Its widespread use threatens other languages; it has become the language of power and prestige in many countries, thus acting as a crucial gatekeeper to social and economic progress; its use in particular domains, especially professional, may exacerbate different power relationships and many render these domains more inaccessible to many people; its position in the world gives it a role also as an international gatekeeper, regulating the international flow of people; it is closely linked to national and increasingly non-national forms of culture and knowledge that are dominant in the world; and it is also bound up with aspects of global

relations, such as spread of capitalism, development aid and the dominance particularly of North American media (p.13).

With English as arguably the only language that can be considered an international lingua franca (Crystal, 1997), it appears to skeptics that it is mainly America who stands to benefit most from globalization, leaving open the question of whether globalization should really be considered as Americanization. According to this position, globalization is identified as the oppressive and relentless flow of people, goods and ideas that result in the creation of larger versions of current socioeconomic rifts and the increased marginalization of minority cultures, languages, religions, and ethnic groups (Castells, 1998; Hoogvelt, 1997). Thus globalization contributes to cultural and language imperialism.

The American monopoly of the global information and entertainment markets inevitably results in the "ideological control" of the world population. To some extent globalization represents how corporate power now dominates our lives. Pennycook (2001), writes, "We live in a patriarchal, homophobic, racist world increasingly governed by the interests of multinational business" (p.127). American ways of feeling and thinking become very visible and therefore influential as American cultural and information products are received and welcomed by the world population. Current Korean society is especially bombarded with the images, ideas, and values that are not traditionally Korean but American. Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas (1996) claim that the spread of English is indicative of the 'McDonaldization' of the world.

Along with American English dominance, English in Korean society is seen as the only hope to arrive at the realm of globalization. English is considered as a mystical device or nearly the fate, the only future and the unique prospect for the student in pursuing a good career and a happy life. Parents are imposing their children on more English language as soon as their children learn to start talking in Korean. The market for early childhood English language materials is much bigger than that of Korean language. Korean language as children's mother tongue gets marginalized under the implementation of globalization. People do not feel "the right to language," which primarily refers to an individual's right and freedom to use a language of his/her choice in any circumstances. English language is imposed upon him/her by globalization at the expense of Korean Language.

"The right to language" is defined by Skutnabb-Kangas & Phillipson (1995) as follows:

> We will provisionally regard linguistic human rights in relation to the mother tongue(s) as consisting of the right to identify with it/them, and to education and public services through the medium of it/them. Mother tongues are here defined as "the language(s) one has learned first and identifies with." In relation to other languages we will regard linguistic human rights as consisting of the right to learn an official language in the country of residence, in its standard form (p.71).

Skutnabb-Kangas and Phillipson emphasize two factors in their definition. One is "identification with an individual's mother tongues." They believe that

emotional attachment to one's mother tongues should be recognized as a part of "the right to language."

Under the implementation of globalization, the dominance of English is not only affirming and reinforcing the structure of inequality between English and Korean language, but it is also creating inequality and discrimination between those who have economical resources and those who do not have them. Thus English becomes associated with the language with economic elite (McKay, 2002, p.20). In relation to economic wealth and proficiency in the language, Tollefson (1991) puts as follows:

> Those people who cannot afford schooling, who do not have time to attend school, who attend substandard programmes, or who otherwise do not have access to effective formal education may be unable to learn English well enough to obtain jobs and to participate in decision-making systems that use English. Because education is a major concern of the state, this fundamental shift in the manner of acquisition means that state policies play a decisive role in determining who has access to the institutions of the modern market and therefore to political power. This shift to school-based language learning is a worldwide phenomenon, and so language policy plays an important role in the structure of power and inequality in countries through the world (p.6).

In the case of the nation's shift to a globalized country, parents and children are pushed into acquiring English proficiency. This leads to the burden and depression for parents, as they see education is essential. When it comes to

education in Korea, higher scores on the test and entering a prestigious university, eventually, play the most important roles. In order to explain why private sector education gets more expanded, Confucianism, which is deeply rooted in the Korean society, is presented.

Confucianism and Private Sector Education

Confucianism. Currently large numbers of people in Korea claim to be Buddhists, Christians, or Shamanists, everyone to one degree or another is Confucian. Education in Korea throughout the history has been influenced by China and Japan (and most recently, America). Continued contact with two cultures brought Confucianism and Buddhism to Korea, the first providing guidelines in social ethics, education and government, and the second satisfying spiritual needs (Finch, 2000). Civil Service examination for applicants to government positions from China had a great influence on Korean educational practice and philosophy, still evident in modern-day entrance examinations. Just as those who passed the original examination became *Yangban*[8]-the civil and military officialdom, students who excel in modern entrance examinations gain positions in prestigious universities and benefit from the lifelong kudos associated with the universities.

Confucius, origin of Confucianism, advocated social harmony, building of ethical virtues and an ideal state. He believed that social harmony is established

[8] Yangban referred to government officials or officeholders who had passed the civil service examinations that tested knowledge of the Confucian classics. They were the Korean counterparts of the scholar-officials, or mandarins, of imperial China. The term *yangban*, first used during the Koryo Dynasty, means literally 'two groups,' that is, civil and military officials. Over the centuries, however, its usage became rather vague, so that the term can be said to have several overlapping meanings (Clark, 1993).

when people play their social roles properly. He put his emphasis on constant learning, as he put it,

> In the love of benevolence, without the love of learning, the defect is foolishness. In the love of wisdom, without the love of learning, the defect is vagueness. In the love of faith, without the love of learning, the defect is loss...In the love of courage without the love of learning, the defect is confusion (Muller 2000).

Lee (2002) points out that the word 'learning' was used by Confucius is equivalent to 'education' and the ideal state can only be achieved by moral education and a social goodness. Confucianism has been most influential on the Korean way of life, and is responsible for many of the "often hidden assumptions" (Cortazzi, 1990) behind learners' expectations about lesson content and teaching methods. For a reference, Scovel (1994) compares cultural learning style preferences in terms of Cunfucian, semi-Confucian and non-Confucian cultures, presented in Table 6. From the influence of Confucianism in Korea, one of the Confucian principles which strongly influencing current day education is the notion of filial piety.

Table 6

Cultural Learning Styles

Confucian Japanese/Chinese/ (Korean)	Semi-Confucian Thai	Non-Confucian American
Be accurate	Be accurate & fluent	Be accurate & fluent
Play it safe	Take risks when safe	Take risks
Deductive	Deductive & inductive	Deductive & inductive
Product	Product & process	Process
Hierarchical	Fairly hierarchical	Non-hierarchical
Co-operative	Co-operative & competitive	Competitive
Group-centered	Fairy group-centered	Individual-centered
Field independent	Fairy field dependent	Fairly field dependent
Introverted	extroverted	Extroverted

Source: Scovel (1994) *The role of culture in second language pedagogy.* Adapted from Finch (2000).

Filial piety. In Confucianism, relationships among human beings are interwoven and their relationships are not equal. The level of relationship may be determined by personal factors, such as friendship or family connection, or by more formal social factors, such as age or socioeconomic status.

Family is the foundation of society with the relationship between father and son at its core (This relationship also represents all parent-child relationships). The father must be responsible for the education and moral formation of the son and the son must be respectful and obedient and must care for the father in his old age. The parent-child relationship is so fundamental and the principles of filial piety function as the model for similar relationships, such as that between employer and employee.

Confucianism emphasizes producing excellent individuals who could be social leaders and its belief is that excellence is achieved through the cultivation of an individual's virtues and intellect. In the past it was the only way for a son to express his devotion to his parents by passing the Civil Service examinations, thereby earning prestige for the whole family. His duty can only be fulfilled once he achieves a good education.

However, Kim, Dae Jung (1999) suggests that the fundamentals of filial piety have been substantially changed since the 14th century, in that now the duty not only goes from son to parents, but in-deed in reverse. This can explain the massive budget spending of Korean parents on their children's private education with the resultant following major educational thinking shift. The reversed filial piety is expressed 'education fever' in a current Korean society.

'Education fever' is a unique concept explaining educational issues underlying Confucianism in Korea. It explains Korean parents' aspiration and supports for education. The Korean mindset has been imbued with the belief that education and examination preparation represent the potential for social access and status selection. The reason for spending enormous money on children's education is that parents believe the central importance of education credentials for social advancement. In general, education fever is understood as the underlying energy behind strong parental involvement in education. One example of Korean parents' education fever is investment in private education by relying more cramming courses in order to get their children to prestigious universities.

Private sector education. The definition of private sector education in this study must be clearly distinguished from private education school as commonly understood in the USA. The Korean Government education system is non-profit, while market forces control '*hagwons,*' alias 'academics or institutes.'

Sowon was known for the first private academies in the history and many young men attended *Sowon* to study Confucius, prior to going to Seoul to take the Civil Service examination. However *Sowon* was only for the elite people, who live in *Sowon*, combining a life of morality and scholarship. Later, private cram schools for common people, according to Lee (2002), the first which is historically dated as of 1883, are the fundamental reason for the strong Korean education spirit, and marked the turning point in Korean educational history, for it is said that till then, education was for the elite; these private schools paved the way for mass education. Thus at that time, the mix of traditional Confucian schools coexisted with the new private schools. The next conflict in education, the colonization by Japan, was only 20 years away. Lee (2002, pp.55-59) notes that traditional Koreans had little enthusiasm for the elitist Confucionist school, and even less enthusiasm for the Japanese system, yet had great spirit for the private schools that were set up by anti-Japanese political activists of the day, this giving rise to an industry that has since grown enormously.

However, expanding private education resulted in great concerns in the society. Therefore, for 20 years Korea's government has been waging against war on any education that occurs outside the public school system. Under the administration of Chun Doo Hwan, who took power in 1980, private tutoring

(known as *Kwawoe*) was banned. Chun's goals were to equalize educational opportunities for the poor and to relieve parents of the burden of paying for education. Nontheless, with the claims from students and parents, private tutoring by college students became permissible and middle and high school students also were permitted to take extracurricular courses at authorized private education institutions (*hagwon*), beginning in 1991. In 1996 Korean graduate students were allowed to do private tutoring and in April 2000, Korea's court ruled that banning the private tutoring is unconstitutional because it "infringes upon the basic rights of the people to educate their children." (Constitutional Court, 2000).

Despite the new court ruling, the government clearly remains uncomfortable with the idea of private education. President Kim Dae Jung, the 15th president from1998 to 2002, depicted his thought: "The lower-income classes will feel unable to cope with this, and parents will bear larger economic burdens."

No matter what it takes, however, private sector education becomes paramount. There are tens of thousands of *hagwons* operating in Korea. *Hagwons* become a de facto supplemental educational system for most students who wish to continue his or her education. Some *hagwons* provide tailored assistance to very specific needs of individual students, aiming to improve the lives of their students. *Hagwons* begin at about five a.m. and run till midnight including weekend. There are two reasons behind the existence and growth of *hagwons*. It seems that most parents enrolled their children in *hagwons* not as an

indictment of the educational system, but out of the fear that other parents would be doing the same, and thus, that their child's education would become bereft of that something extra needed to win. After September 11 even in the United States, it has been reported in the press that *hagwon* enrollments have soared while overseas students' enrollments have fallen (Korea Times, January 2002). One newspaper story tells how serious private education in Korea.

> Park Dae Hyon leaves his home in Seoul at dawn most days and does not return until after midnight. Boning up for college entrance exams, the 18-year-old South Korean spends 10 hours at school. Then comes the cramming: Park's five tutors teach him everything from English to math and science. For Park's parents, it's a pricey regimen. His school tuition is just $ 1,300 a year, but Park's tutors cost an additional $ 36,000. add in his sister's tutors, and education costs Park's parents roughly half their income. "We know we're paying way too much," says Park's mother. "But their lives will be decided by the universities they go to." (Business Week, October 2000).

It is a fact that the cost of private education weighs a lot more than that of public education.

The cost of private education is elaborated on table 7, 8 and 9.

Table 7

Cost for Private Education

	1998	2001	2003
Cost paid	$10,964,304,404.71	$9,633,016,136.06	$11,904,496,293.06
The number of students	8,172,909	7,831,754	7,796,796

* Source: KEDI, 2003
* The number of students consists of elementary, middle school, and high school students.
* Korean currency was converted into US dollars ($1.00 = 1,146 won)
* The cost paid does not display only English education.

Table 8

The Annual Cost of Private Education by Income Levels per Person

Income levels	The annual cost of private education
Less than $ 15,000	$1,317.86
$ 15,000- $30,000	$1,902.61
$ 30,000- $45,000	$2,688.27
More than $45,000	$3,796.74

* Source: KEDI, 2003
* Korean currency was converted into US dollars ($1.00 = 1,146 won)
* The cost paid displays overall private education.

Table 9

The Percentage of Cost of Private Education from Household Income

	0-9%	10-19%	20-29%	30-39%	40-49%	More than 50%
Elementary school	20.4%	35.4%	21.6%	14.6%	5.3%	2.8%
Middle school	16.7%	35.9%	22.4%	15.4%	5.2%	4.5%
High school	19.4%	32.9%	22.9%	13.1%	7.5%	4.2%
Vocational high school	32.4%	28.9%	16.7%	7.1%	6.4%	8.7%
Total	19.7%	34.9%	21.8%	14.3%	5.6%	3.6%

* Source: KEDI, 2003
* The cost paid displays overall private education.

With their self-fulfilling marketing strategy, the private sector educations have become legitimized in Korea's rush to embrace the culture of high-stakes testing. That is, cram schools reinforce Korea's long tradition of rote learning by helping students quickly memorize massive volumes of data and theories.

When it comes to English in private education, parents are willing to spend more money on their children's private education as they realize English is the key to success in the society. Furthermore, the influx of native speakers of English as tutors contributes to placing younger children into the private sector institutes, because parents wish to have their children both high scores on the English test for a future reference and competent speaking ability in English for their carrier.

When the MOE started EPIK with NS teachers, NS teachers were hired with one qualification, coming from Inner Circle countries. Consequently, in accordance with speaking ability in English, English has not been recognized as an international language by many parents and students. Actually, in spite of the spread of English as a language for wider communication (McKay, 2002), many Koreans still believe that English is the property of the Inner Circle countries since they meet NS teachers from mainly five popular countries, such as the US, the UK, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. It results in the increased popularity of English as an Anglo/American language. This gives consequence to no reflection of three-circle distribution of English speakers by Kachru (1988).

Native-like pronunciation is index of proficiency in English. Thus, it puts a lot of pressure on English learners. In order to have native-like pronunciation, there were some extreme cases reported with regard to tongue surgery in a popular press (Los Angeles Times, 2002 May).

It is a prevalent belief that the ability to speak unaccented English seems to be the top goal of English language study. The surgery may be an extreme case but it reflects a social phenomenon. When it comes to language, money and prestige speak louder. From toddlers to students to office workers, acquiring English proficiency has become a national obsession. It is not unusual for six-month-old infants to be put in front of the television for as long as five hours a day to watch instructional videos, or for seven-year-olds to be sent out after dinner for English cram courses.

According to the popular press, parents in Korea will spend the equivalent of a month's salary here on monthly tuition at English-language kindergartens and as much as US $50 an hour for tutors (Los Angeles Times, 2002). Also the press points out, between the after-school courses, flashcards, books and videos, English instruction is estimated to be a US $3-billion-a year industry-and that does not include the thousands of children sent abroad to hone their skills (2002). In relation to overseas education, another press pointed out as follows:

> Korea's overseas education bill soared to $4.6 billion last year on the back of a spiraling number of teenagers, and even pre-teen children, being sent abroad to obtain formal education or to improve their English skills. However, families pay an arm and a leg to enhance their children's English skills, the report card for Korea is hardly encouraging. As indicated in a recent investigation by a Hong Kong government agency, Koreans are found to be least capable in spoken English ability among their counterparts in 12 Asian countries, including Malaysia, Vietnam and Japan (The Korea Herald, 2003 September).

Lack of English proficiency in spite of enormously invested private education cost is because the college entrance examination has different levels of objectives. What this meant is that even when private sector like *hagwon* hired native speakers to teach English, the curriculum was geared towards the exams and not towards teaching actual communicative competence. Many of the native speakers are hired only to stand in the room and play games with the students once a week; while the real test preparation is done by low-paid Korean teachers

who do the "dirty work" of English teaching in Korea. Editorial from the daily newspaper pointed out that the native speakers are just there to justify the high costs of private schooling to the parents, and to attract them away from other *hagwon* in what is a very competitive marketplace (The Korea Herald 2003 September).

The new trend in Korea is that students who can afford to are starting English even younger in the *hagwon* or by private tutoring. By the time they start learning English in school, there is a huge gap between the *hagwon* or private educated students and the ones who have had no previous English education. Thus, as McKay (2002, p. 24) points out, spreading English contributes to social inequalities.

Teaching Methods and English as an International Language

Language and culture.

> Much behavior in language classroom is set within a taken-for-granted framework of expectations, attitudes, values, and beliefs about what constitutes good learning, about how to teach or learn, whether and how to ask questions, what textbooks are for, and how language teaching relates to broader issues of the nature and purpose of education. In many classrooms both teachers and learners are unaware that such a culture of learning may be influencing the process of teaching and learning. A culture of learning is thus part of the hidden curriculum.
> (Cortazzi & Jin 1996, p. 169).

Smith (1976) addresses that the goal of teaching English as an international language (EIL) is developing proficiency thus enabling learners to communicate their ideas and culture to others. With regard to this thought McKay (2002, p. 12) maintains that users of EIL whether in a global or local sense do not

need to internalize the cultural norms of Inner Circle countries (refer to Kachru's model) in order to use the language effectively as a medium of wider communication.

As previously mentioned, globalization is conceived as "Americanization," resulting in homogenization of culture. Even textbooks of English for secondary students represent dominated American culture (Yim, 2003). For example, according to Yim (2003), "even cultural contents that are represented in the English textbooks of Korea are mainly the United States, thereafter, learning English in Korea under the wave of globalizing forces leads not so much to "international understanding" in the true sense of cosmopolitan pluralism or critical multiculturalism, but rather to a certain degree, cultural homogenization." Culturally speaking, globalization fosters homogeneity of values and norms (Sjursen, 2000).

As mentioned earlier, a language becomes an international language for one chief reason: the economic power of its people (Crystal, 1997). When it comes to English teaching in Korea, the model for English in Korea is standard North American varieties and the majority of cultural representations are based on the life of North Americans (Yim, 2003, p. 71). It is implying that teaching English formulates cultural homogenization, which is often associated with the idea of America's imperialism, again represents "ideological control," by America. Higa observes (quoted. In Kachru, 1994) that when two cultures meet, and "if one is more dominant or advanced than the other, the directionality of culture

learning and subsequent word-borrowing is not mutual, but from the dominant to the subordinant"(p.139).

The current spread of English, Phillipson (1992, 2000) notes, is oppressive because it imposes Western "mental structures" on the minds of the learners. This is seen by the vast English teaching materials exported from Inner Circle countries to the Outer and Expanded countries, which often require learners to conform to Anglo-American styles of communication. With regard to this issue, McKay (2002, pp.120-121) criticizes the international spread of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), claiming that the western underpinnings of the approach, which focus on democracy, individuality, creativity and social expression, often marginalize local language teachers, and fail to meet the needs of students, who often prefer a teacher-centered pedagogic approach.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and English as an International Language (EIL). Canale and Swain (1980) defines CLT is, "with respect to teaching methodology, it is crucial that classroom activities reflect, in the most optimally direct manner, those communication activities that the leaner is most likely to engage in... Furthermore, communication activities must be as meaningful as possible and be characterized (at increasing levels of difficulty) by aspects of genuine communication such as its basis in social interaction, the relative creativity and unpredictability of utterances, its purposefulness and goal-orientation, and its authenticity" (p.33). In other words, CLT emphasizes

interpersonal communication, contextualized practices, and learner's personalized needs.

Communicative competence, proposed by Hymes (1972), is the most important concept of CLT, which promotes meaningful, appropriate language use. High premium of CLT, as Holliday (1994) argues, is placed on oral work and maximum student participation in group and pair work. Galloway (1999) states that learning a target language has to look at the use of language in context. The world "context" refers to both the linguistic context (what is uttered before and after a given piece of discourse) and its social context (who is speaking, what their social rules are, why they have come together to speak) (Galloway, 1999). CLT assumes a target culture and a "native" speaker as an ideal context. In addition to emphases on contextual factors in language use and on learning by communicating, according to Nunan (1991), CLT has the following characteristics:

1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language,
2. The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation,
3. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language, but also on the learning process itself,
4. An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning, and
5. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom

McCay (2002), however, claims that CLT used in Inner Circle may not applicable to a wider range of teaching contexts, particularly in Outer and Expanding Circle countries, where there are fewer resources and where students may not have the same instrumental purposes for learning English. Similarly, Kramsch and Sullivan (1996) believe CLT is not a panacea for pedagogical problems and needs to be appropriated for local use. Pennycook and Canagarajah (1989, 1993, cited in Pennycook, 2001, p. 118) illustrate the point well. Pennycook pointed out that ELT methods are center created and imposed on the rest of the world. Canagarajah contended that while this may be true that there is a much higher likelihood of resistance to Western methods than Pennycook believed. Canagarajah (1999) later argues that, 'pedagogies are not received in their own terms, but appropriated to different degrees in terms of the needs and values of the local communities.'

Nonetheless, CLT has been imposed on teachers as a productive way to teach English; the goal of English teaching in the 7th curriculum in Korea is 'to develop the learner's communicative competence in English through meaningful drills and communicative activities, such as games, with the aid of audio-visual equipment' (Development Committee 1992, p. 180). Students are to learn by means of authentic materials, such as newspapers, magazines, English news on the radio and English TV programs. The curricular reflect the belief that 'CLT is characterized by learner-centeredness' (p.181), and teachers are encouraged to organize materials based on students' needs (Li 1998, cited in McKay, 2002, p. 110).

Swain (1985) and Ellis (1996), as McKay (2002, p. 112) notes, challenge the use of CLT on the grounds that it is not a culturally sensitive methodology. Ellis, especially, took into account the difference between Eastern and Western world-view, arguing that there are several aspects of CLT that make it 'unsuitable for Asian learners and teachers' (p.214). McKay addresses that Swain is critical of the fact that CLT does not recognize the resources that students bring to the classroom, particularly their fluency in another language in which they have already learned to use communication skills and strategies (p. 214). As Swain puts it,

> As far as the British version of the Communicative Approach is concerned, students might as well not have mother tongues. Meanings, uses, and communication skills are treated as if they have to be learnt from scratch...Communicative methodology stresses the English-only approach to presentation and practice that is a prominent feature of the British EFL tradition.
>
> (Swain, 1985, cited in McKay, p.112)

CLT caused also another misconception, maintaining the fact that native English speakers were best suited as language teachers, and that while the non-native teachers of English had their place, it was only in a support role to the "real" task of CLT. When teaching English as an International Language emerges, Scholars like McKay (2002), Kramsch and Sullivan (1996) agree that EIL should be taught within the context of the local educational culture, taking advantage of bilingual teachers, and in this matter EIL should avoid using fully Western

teaching materials and approaches. McKay (2002) points out that "since EIL educators are involved in teaching an international language that no longer belongs to any one nation or culture, then it is reasonable that the way in which this language is taught should not be linked to a particular culturally influenced methodology; rather the language should be taught in a manner consistent with local cultural expectations" (p.118). From this point of view, teachers of English are encouraged to think globally but teach locally. As Kramsch and Sullivan put it,

> Appropriate pedagogy must also be a pedagogy of appropriation. The English language will enable students of English to do business with native and non-native speakers of English in the global world market and for that they need to master the grammar and vocabulary of standard English. But they also need to retain control of its use.
>
> (Kramsch and Sullivan, 1996, cited in McKay, p. 118)

McKay (2002) emphasizes why 'global thinking, local teaching' should be promoted in that English, as a global language, is used for a wide variety of cross-cultural communicative purposes and yet in developing an appropriate pedagogy, EIL educators need to consider how English is embedded in the local context. She further contends that by contextualizing English to the local needs and interests of the learners, they can truly claim ownership of the language as their own tool of expression.

To sum, the spread of CLT brought many challenges, although there has been widespread within most Inner Circle countries. As McKay (2002) puts it,

1. The characteristics of CLT reflect western cultures of learning, which are associated with modernization and westernization, namely individualism, creativity, self-expression, and social interaction.
2. Communicative textbooks, often written in Inner Circle countries, but used in countries outside the Inner Circle.
3. The approach of CLT in many cases does not meet their students' needs.
4. CLT demands teachers on their knowledge of western cultures, their fluency in the language, their planning time, and their textbook and material resources.
5. For students, CLT does not provide for the kind of teacher input they believe is valuable. (pp. 121-122).

What is happening in ELT in the Korean society is, as Schiffman (1996) points out, 'imperialistic', and it results in the subjugation of other languages (or their speakers)" (p.277). ELT in a private sector in Korea promotes CLT from a perspective of Inner circle countries setting, by utilizing as much authentic materials as they can without any resistance from teachers and students and further, as many native English speakers as they hire. However, there are some resistances of CLT from local teachers in public sector for various reasons. Some teachers feel that their English was insufficiently strong to use CLT; others feel a lack of understanding of CLT; washback is also a constraint to using CLT. Moreover, teachers experience resistance from the students whose goal is getting higher scores in English.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter describes the research methodology in four major sections, repeating research questions. These four sections include population and sample, instrumentation, procedure, and data analysis. After research questions, the population and sample and demographic information are described. The next section consists of a detailed description of the instrument used in this study and addresses issue of reliability, validity, and internal consistency, followed by the procedures, and the final section provides an overview of the data analysis and research design.

Research Questions

1. Is there an interaction of gender and amount of private education experience for the three dependent variables?
    a. Is there an interaction of gender and private tutoring experience for the three dependent variables?
    b. Is there an interaction of gender and group tutoring experience for the three dependent variables?
    c. Is there an interaction of gender and *Hagwon* experience for the three dependent variables?
    d. Is there an interaction of gender and weekly worksheet experience for the three dependent variables?

2. Is there a main effect difference for amount of private education experience?
    a. Is there private tutoring main effect for the three dependent variables?
    b. Is there group tutoring main effect for the three dependent variables?
    c. Is there *Hagwon* main effect for the three dependent variables?
    d. Is there weekly worksheet main effect for the three dependent variables?
3. Is there a main effect difference for gender?
4. Is there a difference in test scores as a function of the perceptions of students about English education both in private and public sector?
    a. Is there a difference in test scores as a function of students' perception of private English education focused on listening-and-speaking?
    b. Is there a difference in test scores as a function of students' perception of private English education focused on reading-and-writing?
    c. Is there a difference in test scores as a function of students' perception of public English education focused on listening-and-speaking?

d. Is there a difference in test scores as a function of students' perception of public English education focused on reading-and-writing?

Population and Sample

The population participating in the study was defined as 10th grade students, aged 15-16 years old (freshmen in high school), the first cohort students who have studied English as a regular subject from the third grade in the Gangwondo province. The participants included both male and female students. A total of 353 (number of male students were162 and female students were 191) of these students represented the sample and they were randomly selected to participate in this study. The Key English Test (KET) was administered with attached English language private sector participation survey. The KET test is composed of reading-and-writing test, listening test, and speaking test. The author received permission to contact students during their regular class by the teachers and principals.

Currently, the most popular four categories of private education experience in Korea were surveyed: Private tutoring, group tutoring, h*agwon* (cramming school), weekly worksheet experience.

Instrument

Key English test (KET). KET is an examination based on the Council of Europe's Waystage 1990 Specification. It was introduced in 1994. It provides an initial learning objective for adolescents and adults, enabling learners to meet their basic communication needs in English. The assessment aims of KET and

its syllabus are designed to ensure that the test reflects the use of language in real life. KET corresponds closely to an active and communicative approach to learning English, without neglecting the need for clarity and accuracy (Cambridge ESOL Handbook, 2004).

The handbook, in addition, addresses that in the context of work, language users at this level (KET) can handle basic enquiries related to their own familiar job area, dealing, for example, with questions about prices, quantities of goods ordered, or delivery dates. In a meeting, they could provide straightforward facts if asked directly, but cannot follow a discussion. On the telephone, they could take the name of a caller and note down a simple message including a phone number. If one is traveling as a tourist, the user is able to find out what time a tour starts and how much something costs. The tourist can understand the outline of the information given on a guided tour, as long as it is in a predictable context, but can ask only very simple questions to get more information. Language users in this level can express their own likes and dislikes, but only in simple terms. Where reading is concerned, at this level the user can understand the gist of a tourist brochure with the help of a dictionary, to the extent of being able to identify the starting and finishing times of a guided tour and what will be seen on the tour. They can write very simple personal letters, expressing thanks, or a basic message, although there may be elementary mistakes (Cambridge ESOL, 2004).

The KET has three components (see table 10) and scoring scale is one point per item. The following is a summary of the language which is tested in the KET.

Table 10

KET Content

Paper	Name	Timing	Content	Test Focus
1	Reading/ Writing	70 minutes	The paper consists of forty objective items relating to a number of reading-based activities; fifteen one-word written responses relating to reading-based activities; and five points relating to a short writing task. The following task types are used: multiple choice, matching, gap filling and form filling	Assessment of candidates' ability to understand the meaning of written English at word, phrase, sentence, paragraph and whole text level. Assessment of candidates' ability to simple written English, ranging from one-word answers to short pieces of continuous text.
2	Listening	30 minutes (including 8 minutes transfer time)	There are fifteen objective items (multiple choice and matching task types) and ten items requiring short answers (one or two words, a number, etc.).	Assessment of candidates' ability to understand dialogues and monologues in both informal and neutral settings on a range of everyday topics.
3	Speaking	8-10 minutes per pair of candidates	Two parts: In Part 1, candidates interact with an examiner In Part 2 they interact with another candidate.	Assessment of Candidates' ability to answer and ask questions about themselves and about factual non-personal information

Language Purposes

- Carrying out certain transactions:
  - Making arrangements
  - Making purchases
  - Ordering food and drink
- Giving and obtaining factual information:
  - Personal
  - Non-personal (places, times, etc.)
- Establishing and maintaining social and professional contacts:
  - Meeting people
  - Extending and receiving invitations
  - Proposing/arranging a course of action
  - Exchanging information, views, feelings and wishes

Language Functions

There are six broad categories of language functions:

- Imparting and seeking factual information
- Expressing and finding out attitudes
- Getting things done
- Socializing
- Structuring discourse
- Communication repair

English language private sector participation survey. The purpose of the survey was to identify students' experience toward the participation of private

sector in English education. The survey questions have 4 items asking gender, duration of private education experience along with types of private education experience, and perceptions of English teaching method both in public sector and private sector education. As for types of private education section, it has four types of private education: private tutor, group tutor, *hagwon* (cram schools), and weekly worksheet.

The survey was given to students after taking listening section and the researcher translated in Korean and explained detailed questions. It took less than five minutes to complete the survey.

Data Collection

The researcher submitted to four schools a permission letter to assessing students' communicative competence using the instruments. After approval by principals was granted, the researcher met the students and conducted assessment. First, students were assessed Reading/Writing section, then listening section. The researcher attached the survey in the listening section so that students could respond right away. After conducting listening section along with the survey, speaking interview was conducted. Students grouped by pair or three people with attendance of the researcher. They asked bio-questions each other as the researcher was observing them, then the researcher asked questions to each student.

Roughly 431 data from students were gathered for 10 days. However, as the speaking interview was conducted after school during the supplemental study

hour[9], there were some missing students those who could not attend supplemental study but were presented during the regular class. Thereafter, those who missed the speaking interview would not count on the data. The data summed up 353.

[9] Most high schools in Korea conduct supplemental study hour before or after school. Some students study by themselves and some students take lessons from teachers.

CHAPTER V

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

This chapter presents data to answer the research questions. It includes descriptive statistics for each type of the private education experiences and the level of experiences by gender. Then, analyses of the data for each research question are presented.

Descriptive Statistics

Frequency and percentage distributions for each of the four types of the private education years of experience are reported for both male and female respondents in Table 11.

For all of the respondents, the most frequently occurring category for private tutoring, group tutoring, Internet, and telephone is "0 years," while the most frequently occurring category of *Hagwon* is "two years to four years." This shows that *Hagwon* is the most popular means of participating in the private English education experience.

Table 11

Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Each Type of the Private Education Years of Experience for Male and Female Students

		Private Education Experience			
Gender	Years of Experience	Private Tutor	Group Tutor	*Hagwon*	Weekly worksheet
Male	0 years	122 (75.3 %)	118 (72.8%)	36 (22.2%)	113 (69.8%)
	Less than one year	24 (14.8%)	21 (13.0%)	32 (19.8%)	17 (10.5%)
	1 year to 2 years	14 (8.6%)	17 (10.5%)	29 (17.9%)	18 (11.1%)
	2 years to 4 years	2 (1.2%)	4 (2.5%)	42 (25.9%)	11 (6.8%)
	More than 4 years	0	2 (1.2%)	23 (14.2%)	3 (1.9%)
	Total	162 (100%)	162 (100%)	162 (100%)	162 (100%)
Female	0 years	124 (64.9%)	135 (70.7%)	29 (15.2%)	122 (63.9%)
	Less than one year	31 (16.2%)	25 (13.1%)	33 (17.3%)	14 (7.3%)
	1 year to 2 years	30 (15.7%)	22 (11.5%)	50 (26.2%)	25 (13.1%)
	2 years to 4 years	6 (3.1%)	8 (4.2%)	52 (27.2%)	21 (11.0%)
	More than 4 years	0	1 (0.5%)	27 (14.1%)	9 (4.7%)
	Total	191 (100%)	191 (100%)	191 (100%)	191 (100%)

Data Analytic Approach and Findings

1. Is there an interaction of gender and amount of private education experience for the three dependent variables?

e. Is there an interaction of gender and private tutoring experience for the three dependent variables?

f. Is there an interaction of gender and group tutoring experience for the three dependent variables?

g. Is there an interaction of gender and *Hagwon* experience for the three dependent variables?

h. Is there an interaction of gender and weekly worksheet experience for the three dependent variables?

2. Is there a main effect difference for amount of private education experience?

    e. Is there private tutoring main effect for the three dependent variables?

    f. Is there group tutoring main effect for the three dependent variables?

    g. Is there *hagwon* main effect for the three dependent variables?

    h. Is there weekly worksheet main effect for the three dependent variables?

3. Is there a main effect difference for gender?

In the study two-way of analysis of variance were conducted, using reading-and-writing scores, listening scores, and speaking scores as dependent variables, because my three research questions were to investigate the effects of students' performance on different type of private education experiences and gender. The independent variables were gender and each type of the private

education experience: private tutoring, group tutoring, *hagwon* (cram school), and weekly worksheet. Since private education experiences have different levels, such as private tutoring (three levels), group tutoring (four levels), *hagwon* (five levels), and weekly worksheet (four levels), I did not use one-way of analyses of variance.

Private tutoring x gender. Three 3 x 2 analyses of variance were conducted to evaluate the effect of private tutoring and gender on the three test scores. Private tutoring has three levels: no, less than one year, and more than one year. *Post hoc* tests were conducted after finding significant levels in private tutoring. The means and standard deviations for the reading-and-writing scores, listening scores, and speaking scores as a function of the two factors are presented in Table 12.

Table 12

Means and Standard Deviations of Reading and Writing, Listening, and Speaking Scores As a Function of Private Tutoring

	Gender								
	Male			Female			Total		
Private tutoring	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*
				Reading and Writing					
No	122	30.92	10.40	124	34.86	10.44	246	32.91	10.59
Less than One Year	24	38.67	11.22	31	39.23	8.52	55	38.98	9.70
More than One Year	16	39.19	12.08	36	37.50	10.03	52	38.02	10.61
				Listening					
No	122	11.76	4.22	124	13.85	4.09	246	12.81	4.27
Less than One Year	24	13.42	4.37	31	14.68	4.20	55	14.13	4.28
More than One Year	16	16.06	5.63	36	15.14	4.64	52	15.42	4.92
				Speaking					
No	122	7.00	3.09	124	8.60	3.24	246	7.81	3.26
Less than One Year	24	8.04	3.09	31	8.68	2.52	55	8.40	2.77
More than One Year	16	8.13	2.94	36	8.72	2.79	52	8.53	2.82

The *ANOVA* indicated no significant interactions between private tutoring and gender. However, there were significant private tutoring main effects on reading-and-writing scores, $F(2, 347) = 10.99$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.06$, and on listening scores, $F(2, 347) = 8.77$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.05$, but the private tutoring main effect on speaking scores was not significant.

There were no significant gender main effects on reading-and-writing and on listening scores. However, the gender main effect on speaking scores was significant, $F(1, 347) = 4.76$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.01$. That is, female students ($M = 8.64$, $SD = 3.04$) scored higher on speaking test than male students ($M = 7.27$, $SD = 3.09$)

Follow-up analyses to the private tutoring main effect on reading-and-writing scores and listening scores were conducted. The follow-up tests consisted of all pairwise comparisons among the levels of private tutoring. The Tukey HSD procedure was used to control for Type I error across the pairwise comparisons.

The results of the follow-up analysis on reading-and-writing scores indicated that the students who had less-than-one-year and more-than-one-year of private tutoring experiences have greater mean reading-and-writing scores than those who had no private tutoring experience. However, there was no significant mean difference between the students who had less-than-one-year and those who had more-than-one-year of private tutoring experience.

The results of the follow-up analysis on listening scores indicated that the students who had more-than-one-year of private tutoring experiences have greater mean listening scores than those who had no private tutoring experience. The mean listening scores for the students who had less-than-one-year of private tutoring experience was not significantly different from mean listening scores for those who had no private tutoring experience and those who had more-than-one-year of experience.

Group tutoring x gender. Three 4 x 2 analyses of variance were conducted to evaluate the effect of group tutoring and gender on the three test scores. Group tutoring has four levels: no, less than one year, one to two years, and more than two years. *Post hoc* tests were conducted after finding significant levels in group tutoring. The means and standard deviations for the reading-and-writing scores, listening scores, and speaking scores as a function of the two factors are presented in Table 13.

Table 13

Means and Standard Deviations of Reading and Writing, Listening, and Speaking Scores As a Function of Group Tutoring

	Gender								
	Male			Female			Total		
Group tutoring	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*
				Reading and Writing					
No	118	31.08	10.54	135	34.34	10.29	253	32.82	10.51
Less than One Year	21	37.90	10.66	25	41.00	7.52	46	39.59	9.11
1 Year to 2 Years	17	39.94	13.10	22	42.27	9.23	39	41.26	10.98
More than 2 Years	6	30.67	7.31	9	33.11	7.17	15	32.13	7.07
				Listening					
No	118	11.72	4.13	135	13.87	4.15	253	12.87	4.27
Less than One Year	21	14.81	5.31	25	14.92	4.03	46	14.87	4.60
1 Year to 2 Years	17	15.00	4.83	22	16.59	4.06	39	15.90	4.42
More than 2 Years	6	10.83	4.92	9	11.89	4.28	15	11.47	4.41
				Speaking					
No	118	7.01	3.08	135	8.53	3.16	253	7.82	3.21
Less than One Year	21	8.43	2.80	25	8.80	2.52	46	8.63	2.63
1 Year to 2 Years	17	7.71	3.48	22	9.59	3.13	39	8.77	3.38
More than 2 Years	6	7.20	2.61	9	7.56	1.67	15	7.33	2.02

The *ANOVA* indicated no significant interactions between group tutoring and gender. However, there were significant group tutoring main effects on reading-and-writing scores, $F(3, 345) = 11.80$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.09$, and on

listening scores, $F(3, 345) = 8.64$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.07$, but the group tutoring main effect on speaking scores was not significant.

There were no significant gender main effects on reading-and-writing and on listening scores. However, the gender main effect on speaking scores was significant, $F(1, 345) = 4.10$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.01$. That is, female students ($M = 8.64$, $SD = 3.04$) scored higher on speaking test than male students ($M = 7.27$, $SD = 3.09$)

Follow-up analyses to the group tutoring main effect on reading-and-writing scores and listening scores were conducted. The follow-up tests consisted of all pairwise comparisons among the levels of group tutoring. The Dunnett C procedure on reading-and-writing scores was used to control for Type I error across the pairwise comparisons.

The results of the follow-up analysis on reading-and-writing scores indicated that the students who had less than-one-year and one-year-to-two-years of group tutoring experience have greater mean reading-and-writing scores than those who had no group tutoring experience. Also, the mean scores of less-than-one-year and one-to-two-years were significantly different from those of more-than-two-years. However, there was no significant mean difference between the students who had more-than-two years and those who had no group tutoring experience. The variance of mean scores on reading-and-writing scores by the levels of group tutoring experience is presented in Figure 3.

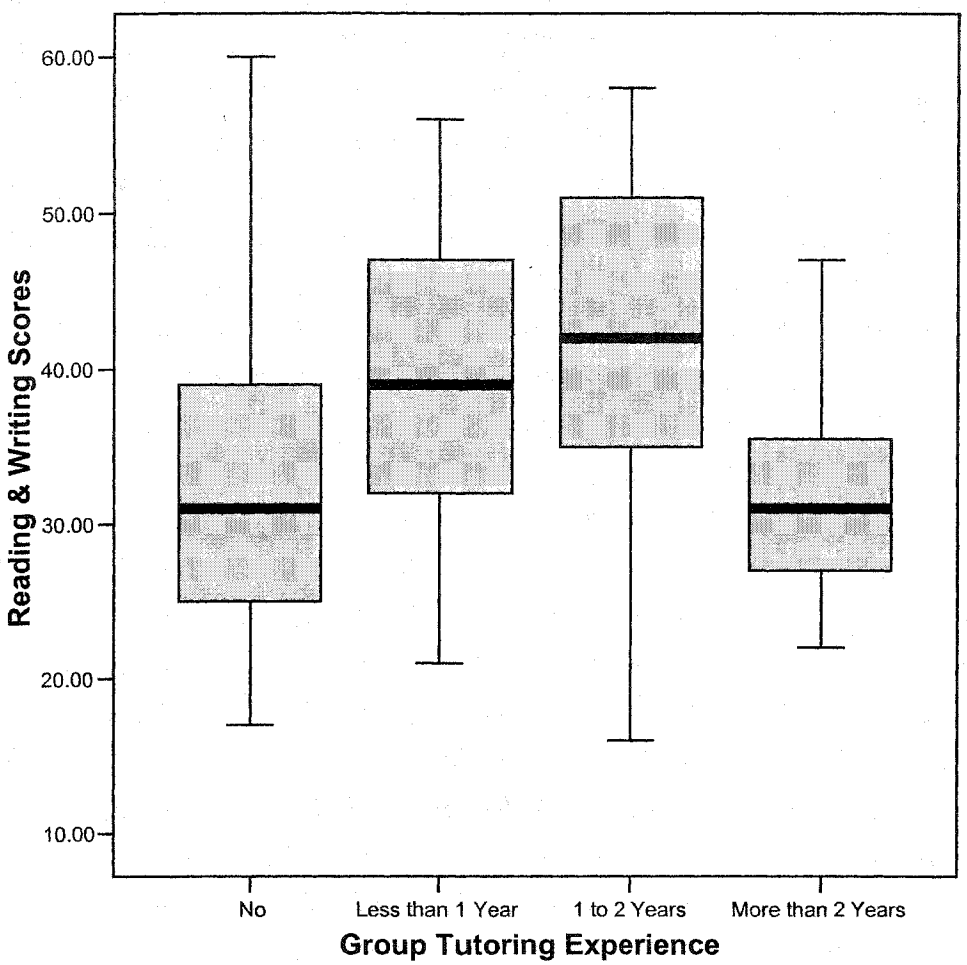


Figure 3. The Variance of Mean Scores on Reading-and-Writing Scores by the Levels of Group Tutoring Experience.

The results of the follow-up analysis on listening scores indicated that the students who had less-than-one-year and one-year-to-two-years of group tutoring experience have greater mean listening scores than those who had no group tutoring experience. Also the mean differences between one-to-two-years of experience and more-than-two-years of experience were significantly different. However, there was no significant mean difference between the students who had more-than-two-years and those who had no group tutoring experience. The variance of mean scores on listening scores by the levels of group tutoring experience is presented in Figure 4.

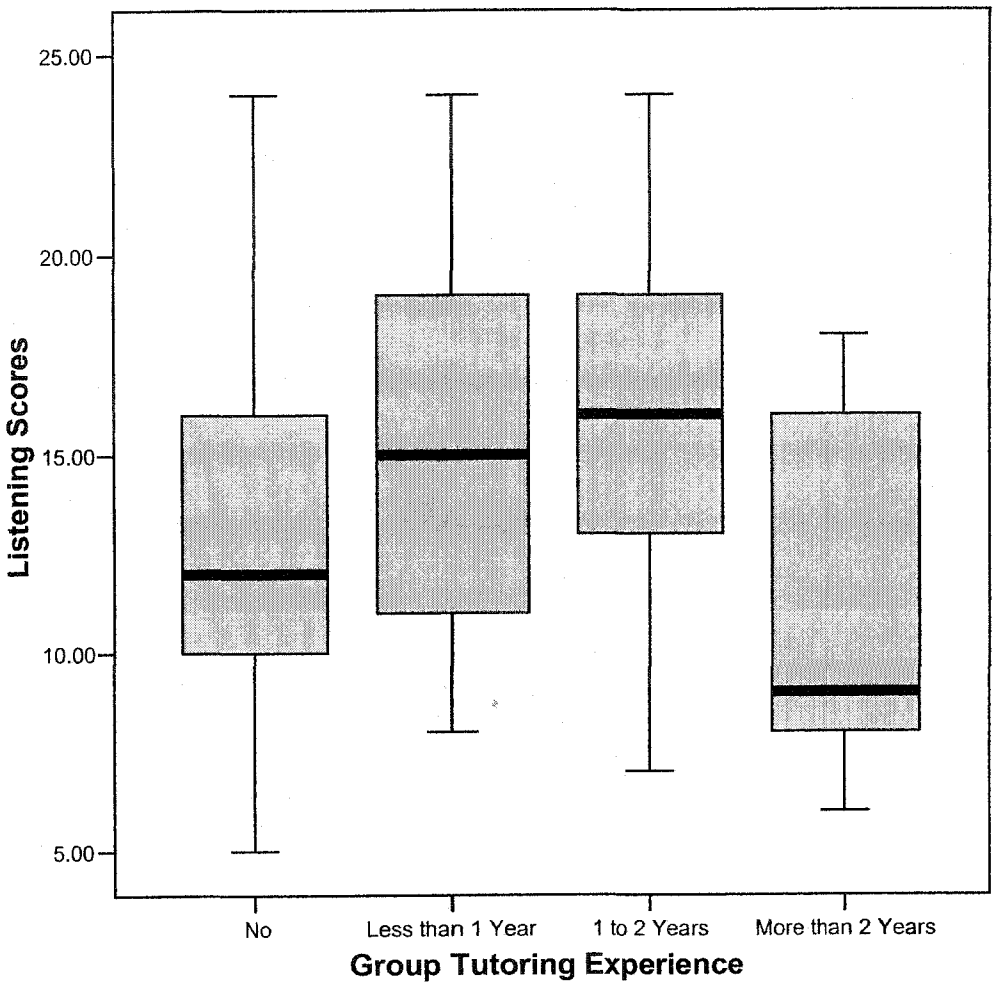


Figure 4. The Variance of Mean Scores on Listening Scores by the Levels of Group Tutoring Experience.

Hagwon x gender. Three 5 x 2 analyses of variance were conducted to evaluate the effect of *hagwon* and gender on the three test scores. *Hagwon* has five levels: no, less than one year, one to two years, two to four years, and more than four years. *Post hoc* tests were conducted after finding significant levels in *hagwon*. The means and standard deviations for the reading-and-writing scores, listening scores, and speaking scores as a function of the two factors are presented in Table 14

Table 14

Means and Standard Deviations of Reading and Writing, Listening, and Speaking Scores as a Function of Hagwon

	Gender								
	Male			Female			Total		
Hagwon	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*
				Reading and Writing					
No	36	27.61	9.65	29	29.97	8.08	65	28.66	8.99
Less than One year	32	31.25	8.03	33	35.27	10.49	65	33.78	9.41
1 year to 2 Years	29	34.90	12.75	50	37.88	11.13	79	36.78	11.76
2 years to 4 Years	42	34.10	11.44	52	38.08	9.18	94	36.30	10.39
More than 4 years	23	37.27	12.19	27	36.37	9.78	50	36.78	10.85
				Listening					
No	36	10.56	3.90	29	12.10	3.60	65	11.25	3.82
Less than One year	32	12.50	3.62	33	14.03	3.67	65	13.28	3.69
1 year to 2 Years	29	13.03	4.87	50	14.80	4.58	79	14.15	4.74
2 years to 4 Years	42	12.57	4.59	52	14.77	4.24	94	13.79	4.51
More than 4 years	23	14.26	5.53	27	14.63	4.33	50	14.46	4.87
				Speaking					
No	36	6.81	3.01	29	7.97	3.09	65	7.32	3.08
Less than One year	32	6.13	2.64	33	8.22	3.11	65	7.18	3.05
1 year to 2 Years	29	6.83	3.27	50	8.82	3.13	79	8.09	3.31
2 years to 4 Years	42	7.93	3.18	52	8.96	3.12	94	8.50	3.18
More than 4 years	23	8.92	2.63	27	8.93	2.56	50	8.92	2.56

The *ANOVA* indicated no significant interactions between *Hagwon* and gender. However, there were significant *Hagwon* main effects on reading-and-writing scores, $F(4, 343) = 6.77$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.07$, on listening scores, $F(4, 343) = 4.79$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.05$, and on speaking scores, $F(4, 343) = 3.59$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.05$.

Also there were significant gender main effects on reading-and-writing, $F(1, 343) = 4.01$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.01$, on listening scores, $F(1, 343) = 9.8$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.03$, and on speaking scores. $F(1, 343) = 14.36$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.05$. That is, female students ($M = 36.07$, $SD = 10.18$ on reading-and-writing scores, $M = 14.23$, $SD = 4.23$ on listening scores, and $M = 8.64$, $SD = 3.04$ on speaking scores) scored higher than male students ($M = 32.88$, $SD = 11.17$ on reading-and-writing scores, $M = 12.43$, $SD = 4.57$ on listening scores, and $M = 7.27$, $SD = 3.09$ on speaking scores).

Follow-up analyses to *hagwon* main effect on reading-and-writing scores, listening scores, and speaking scores were conducted. The follow-up tests consisted of all pairwise comparisons among the levels of *hagwon*. The Tukey HSD procedure was used to control for Type I error across the pairwise comparisons.

The results of the follow-up analysis on reading-and-writing scores indicated that the students who had less-than-one-year, one-year-to-two-years, two-years-to-four-years, and more-than-four-years of *hagwon* experience have greater mean reading-and-writing scores than those who had no *hagwon* experience. The mean reading-and writing scores for students who had *hagwon*

experiences were significantly different from those who had no *hagwon* experience. The variance of mean scores on reading-and-writing scores by the levels of *hagwon* experience is presented in Figure 5.

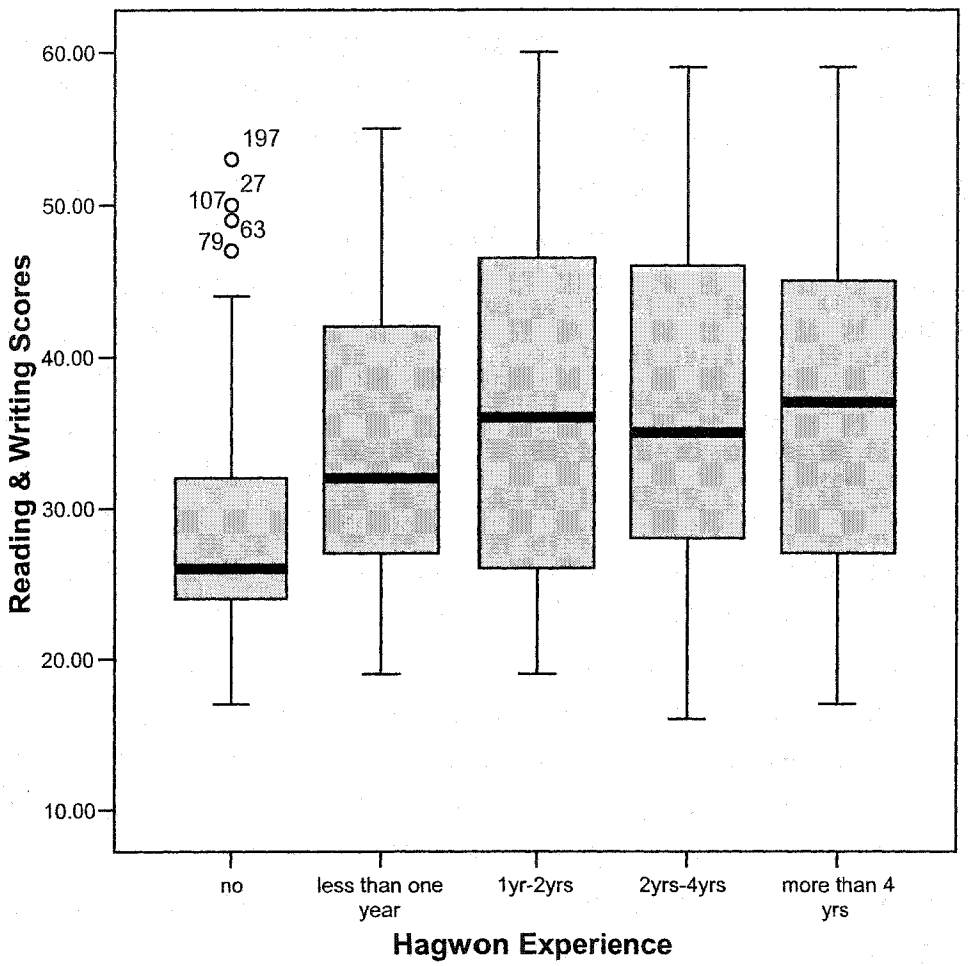


Figure 5. The Variance of Mean Scores on Reading-and-Writing Scores by the Levels of *hagwon* Experience.

The results of the follow-up analysis on listening scores indicated that the students who had one-year-to-two-years, two-years-to-four-years, and more-than-four-years of *hagwon* experience have greater mean listening scores than those who had no group tutoring experience. There were significant differences between the students who had one-year-to-two-years, two-years-to-four-years, and more-than-four-years of *hagwon* experience and those who had no *hagwon* experience. The results imply that listening scores would improve with more than one year of *hagwon* experience.

The results of the follow-up analysis on speaking scores indicated that the students who had more-than-four-years of *hagwon* experience have greater mean speaking scores than those who had no experience and less-than-one-year of *hagwon* experience. The mean speaking scores for students who had less-than-one-year, one-year-to-two years, two-years-to-four years of experience were not significantly different from those who had no *hagwon* experience. In addition, there was no significant difference between those who had less-than-one-year of experience and one-year-to-two-years of experience, between the ones who had one-year-to-two-years of experience and two-years-to-four-years of experience, and between two-years-to-four-years of experience and the ones who had more-than-four-years of *hagwon* experience. The variance of mean scores on speaking scores by the levels of *hagwon* experience is presented in Figure 6.

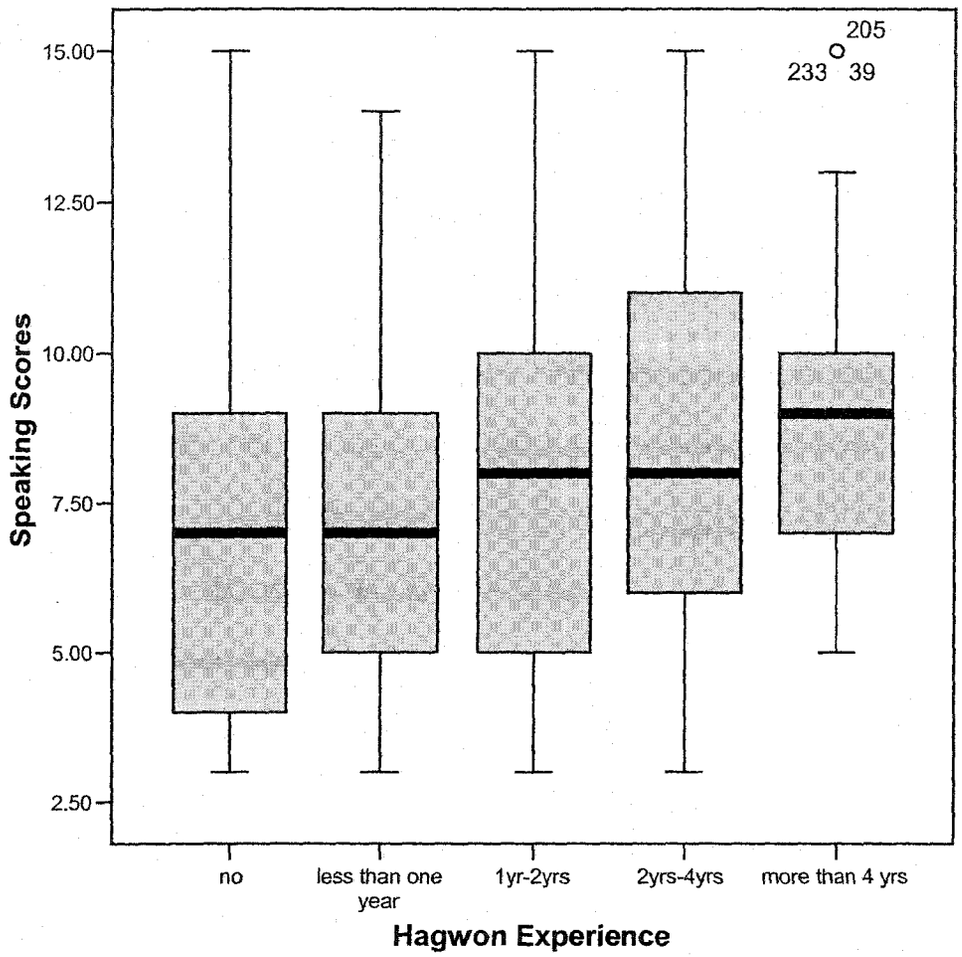


Figure 6. The Variance of Mean Scores on Speaking Scores by the Levels of *hagwon* Experience.

Weekly worksheet x gender. Three 4 x 2 analyses of variance were conducted to evaluate the effect of weekly worksheet and gender on the three test scores. Weekly worksheet has four levels: no, less than one year, one to two years, and more than two years. *Post hoc* tests were conducted after finding significant levels in weekly worksheet. The means and standard deviations for the reading-and-writing scores, listening scores, and speaking scores as a function of the two factors are presented in Table 15.

Table 15

Means and Standard Deviations of Reading and Writing, Listening, and Speaking Scores As a Function of Weekly Worksheet

	Gender								
	Male			Female			Total		
Weekly worksheet	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*
				Reading and Writing					
No	113	30.79	9.82	122	34.11	10.27	235	32.51	10.17
Less than One year	17	34.88	11.67	14	40.57	9.05	31	37.45	10.79
1 year to 2 Years	18	36.22	14.15	25	35.60	10.02	43	35.86	11.77
More than 2 Years	14	43.07	10.63	30	42.33	7.20	44	42.57	8.32
				Listening					
No	113	11.70	4.08	122	13.45	4.07	235	12.61	4.16
Less than One Year	17	13.47	4.84	14	16.64	4.20	31	14.90	4.76
1 Year to 2 Years	18	13.83	5.34	25	13.56	3.98	43	13.67	4.54
More than 2 Years	14	15.29	5.59	30	16.80	3.76	44	16.32	4.42
				Speaking					
No	113	6.87	2.84	122	8.52	3.09	235	7.72	3.08
Less than One Year	17	8.65	3.30	14	9.07	2.64	31	8.84	2.98
1 Year to 2 Years	18	7.94	4.39	25	8.68	3.82	43	8.37	4.03
More than 2 Years	14	7.93	2.30	30	8.90	2.26	44	8.59	2.30

The *ANOVA* indicated no significant interactions between weekly worksheet and gender. However, there were significant weekly worksheet main effects on reading-and-writing scores, $F(3, 345) = 12.80$, $p < .01$,

partial $\eta^2 = 0.10$, and on listening scores, $F(3, 345) = 9.56$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.08$, but the group tutoring main effect on speaking scores was not significant.

There were no significant gender main effects on reading-and-writing. However, the gender main effect on listening scores, $F(1, 345) = 6.13$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.02$, and on speaking scores was significant, $F(1, 345) = 4.41$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.01$. That is, female students ($M = 14.23$, $SD = 4.23$ on listening scores, and $M = 8.64$, $SD = 3.04$ on speaking scores) scored higher than male students ($M = 12.43$, $SD = 4.57$ on listening scores, and $M = 7.27$, $SD = 3.09$ on speaking scores).

Follow-up analyses to the weekly worksheet main effect on reading-and-writing scores and listening scores were conducted. The follow-up tests consisted of all pairwise comparisons among the levels of weekly worksheet. The Tukey HSD procedure was used to control for Type I error across the pairwise comparisons.

The results of the follow-up analysis on reading-and-writing scores indicated that the students who had more-than-two-years of weekly worksheet experience have greater mean reading-and-writing scores than those who had no group tutoring experience. There was significant difference between the students who had one-year-to-two-years of experience and those who had more-than-two-years of weekly worksheet experience as well. However, the mean reading-and-writing scores for the students who had less-than-one-year and one-year-to-two-years of weekly worksheet experience were not significantly different from those who had no weekly worksheet experience.

The results of the follow-up analysis on listening scores indicated that the students who had less-than-one-year and more-than-two-years of weekly worksheet experience have greater mean listening scores than those who had no weekly worksheet experience. There was no significant difference between the students who had one-year-to-two-years of experience and those who had no weekly worksheet experience.

As for research question 4, several independent sample *t*–tests were conducted to evaluate significance of differences in test scores as a function of perceptions of students about English education both in private sector and public sector. Independent variables were students' perception of private English education focused on listening-and-speaking, students' perception of private English education focused on reading-and-writing, students' perception of public English education focused on listening-and-speaking, and students' perception of public English education focused on reading-and-writing.

4. Is there a difference in test scores as a function of the perceptions of students about English education both in private and public sector?
    a. Is there a difference in test scores as a function of students' perception of private English education focused on listening-and-speaking?

An independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to evaluate difference in test scores as a function of students' perception of private English education focused on listening-and-speaking. The test was not significant for reading-and-writing scores, $t(322) = 0.25$, $p = 0.80$, for listening scores, $t(322) = -1.60$, $p = 0.11$,

and for speaking scores, t(322) = -1.10, p =0.27. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means on reading-and-writing scores ranged from -2.11 to 2.73, from -1.80 to 0.18 on listening scores, and from -1.10 to 0.31 on speaking scores. Means and standard deviations for reading and writing scores as a function of perceptions of private or public English education are presented in the Table 16, Table 17, and Table 18.

b. Is there a difference in test scores as a function of students' perception of private English education focused on reading-and-writing?

An independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to evaluate difference in test scores as a function of students' perception of private English education focused on reading-and-writing. The test was not significant for reading-and-writing-scores, t(322) =0.20, p = 0.84, for listening scores, t(322) = 0.60, p =0.55, and for speaking scores, t(322) =- 0.03, p =0.98. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means for reading-and-writing scores ranged from -2.21 to 2.70, from -0.71 to 1.32 for listening scores, and from -7.4 to 0.72 for speaking scores. Means and standard deviations for reading and writing scores as a function of perceptions of private or public English education are presented in the Table 16, Table 17, and Table 18.

c. Is there a difference in test scores as a function of students' perception of public English education focused on listening-and-speaking?

An independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to evaluate difference in test scores as a function of students' perception of public English education focused on listening-and-speaking. The test was significant for reading-and-writing-scores, t(351) = 3.51, p <0.01, for listening scores, t(351) = 2.88, p<0..01, and for speaking scores, t(351) = 2.24, p = 0.03. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means for reading-and-writing scores ranged from 1.74 to 6.15, from 0.43 to 2.28 for listening scores, and from 0.09 to 1.40 for speaking scores. Means and standard deviations for reading and writing scores as a function of perceptions of private or public English education are presented in the Table 16, Table 17, and Table 18.

d. Is there a difference in test scores as a function of students' perception of public English education focused on reading-and-writing?

An independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to evaluate difference in test scores as a function of students' perception of public English education focused on reading-and-writing. The test was not significant for reading-and-writing-scores, t(351) = 1.62, p = 0.11, for listening scores, t(351) = 0.69, p =0.49, and for speaking scores, t(351) = -0.22, p = 0.83. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means for reading-and-writing scores ranged from -0.46 to 4.28, from -0.63 to 1.30 for listening scores, and from -0.75 to 0.61 for speaking scores. Means and standard deviations for reading and writing scores as a function of perceptions of private or public English education are presented in the Table 16, Table 17, and Table 18.

Table 16

Means and Standard Deviations of Reading and Writing Scores as a Function of Perceptions of Private or Public English Education

	Yes			No		
Perceptions of Education Focus	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Private Sector English						
Listening & Speaking	200	35.55	10.41	124	35.24	10.93
Reading & Writing	101	35.60	10.11	223	35.35	10.83
Public Sector English						
Listening & Speaking	180	36.54	11.12	173	32.60	9.98
Reading & Writing	134	35.79	11.33	219	33.88	10.33

Table 17

Means and Standard Deviations of Listening Scores as a Function of Perceptions of Private or Public English Education

	Yes			No		
Perceptions of Education Focus	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Private Sector English						
Listening & Speaking	200	13.46	4.14	124	14.27	4.79
Reading & Writing	101	13.98	4.20	223	13.67	4.50
Public Sector English						
Listening & Speaking	180	14.07	4.64	173	12.71	4.18
Reading & Writing	134	13.61	4.92	219	13.27	4.17

Table 18

Means and Standard Deviations of Speaking Scores as a Function of Perceptions of Private or Public English Education

	Yes			No		
Perceptions of Education Focus	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*
Private English						
Listening & Speaking	200	8.00	2.98	124	8.39	3.33
Reading & Writing	101	8.14	3.04	223	8.15	3.16
Public English						
Listening & Speaking	180	8.37	3.28	173	7.63	2.93
Reading & Writing	134	7.96	3.16	219	8.04	3.12

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

Korea's globalization policy has brought radical changes and reforms in all domains of life due to Korea's goal of meeting international norms and standards. In pursuing a globalized identity, the Korean government embraced English as the lingua franca of a globalized world.

Along with the fairly obvious truism that English is now used as an international language, The Korean government adopted the new national English curriculum, which regulated English as a compulsory subject from the third grade in an elementary school. Since then, obsessive English education boomed: both in public schools and in private sectors. The government endorsed public school teachers to be more competent in terms of teaching English, by providing them with more teacher training, reducing class sizes, and innovating classrooms with technologied equipments. However, what is more remarkable is that the English education has been attained largely at the direct financial expense of the parents, as their determination is indeed high and firm to get better opportunities for their children. In other words, parents' miscellaneous educational expenses, of which private education fees occupy the largest portion, far exceed the costs for operating the nation's entire education system.

Unlike the government's intention, English as the lingua franca, the society keeps English as an elite lingua franca increasing more private education

expenditures. For that reason, this study examined the effects of private English education with regard to how well they perform on reading-and-writing, listening, and speaking test. The effects of private English education were assessed cross-sectionally in comparison with students who had no private English education experiences, using the Key English Test (KET), composed of reading-and-writing, listening, and speaking test, by Cambridge ESOL, as well as the questionnaire which asked whether or not students would have private English education experiences.

In view of the thought that opportunities for private education enable students to attain greater proficiency in English, this study found that students who had more chances for private education experiences tended to score higher on reading-and- writing, and listening test better than those who had no private education experiences as the National College Entrance examination contains mostly a reading and listening section.

From these results the conclusion can be drawn that students who receive private English education score higher in the nationalized English examinations. This goes against the government's globalization policy, conceiving English as an international language. Students' ultimate goal for studying English is to enter one of the prestigious universities, which shows highly elitism-driven desire. Subsequently, the English use in the job market later provides the ladder for the rise of social status. This explains why in Korea there is such a high demand for acquiring English. The demand implies that the ability to use English competently is embedded as a means of wealth and power in the

Korean society. The Korean society, as Pennycook (1997) puts it, looks at "English use not as a coherent global activity, but rather as a series of acts of desire to obtain capital" (p. 112). It is a prevailing belief that English use provides access to economic privileges in conjunction with obtaining a prestigious higher education and credentials.

Summary of Findings and Implications

This study examined gender and private education experience effect, main effects of private education experience, gender effect, and how students' perceptions about English education both in private sector and public sector affect on test scores. As mentioned in a previous chapter, private education is ever present in the Korean society and most of secondary schools are not co-ed schools. These factors can be affected on so-called, "communicative competence." In other words, more economic resources result in better English ability as well as different environment for English education. The following is a summary of the findings from Chapter V.

1. There was no gender and private education experience interaction effect in this study. In other words, test scores in reading-and-writing, listening, and speaking among the private education experiences did not vary as a function of gender.
2. Private education experience showed significant main effects on reading-and-writing scores and listening scores, regardless of the types of private education experience: private tutoring, group tutoring, *hagwon*, and

weekly worksheet. However, as far as speaking scores are concerned, only *hagwon* experience showed the significant difference.

Private tutoring. Students scored significantly higher when they had less-than-one-year and more-than-one-year of private tutoring experience on reading-and-writing test. However, the mean scores on reading-and-writing test were not significantly different from less-than-one-year of experience and more-than-one-year of experience. On listening test students scored significantly higher when they had more-than-one-year of experience.

Group tutoring. Students scored significantly higher when they had less-than-one-year and one-year-to-two-years of group tutoring on reading-and-writing test and listening test. More-than-two-years of group tutoring experience resulted in the lowest scores among the levels of experience.

Hagwon. Students scored significantly higher when they had *hagwon* experiences compared to the ones who had no *hagwon* experience on reading-and-writing test. On listening test students scored significantly higher when they had at least one-year-to-two-years more experiences. That is, the more experience in *hagwon* resulted in the higher scores. On speaking test students needed more-than-four-years of experience to score significantly higher scores than those who had no experience. In other words, less than four years of experience did not affect on speaking scores.

Weekly worksheet. Students scored significantly higher when they had more-than-two-years of weekly worksheet experience than when they had one-year-to-two-year experience or no experience on reading-and-writing test. On listening test, less-than-one-year and more-than-two-years of weekly worksheet experience brought significant higher scores than no experience. Interestingly, one-year-to-two-years of experience did not affect on scores compared to no experience of weekly worksheet.

3. There were significant gender effects on speaking scores in all types of private education experience. Also gender affects main effect of *hagwon* on reading-and-writing scores and *hagwon* and weekly worksheet on listening scores. Private tutoring experience and group tutoring experience did not yield a gender effect on reading-and-writing scores. This result gives the implication that female students tend to focus more on speaking ability than male students.
4. In private English education and public English education, a significant effect was found on students' perception on public English education focused on listening-and-speaking. It implies that students who obtained higher scores on reading-and-writing scores, listening scores, and speaking scores perceive that public English education focus on more listening and speaking than that of private English education. Therefore, it is apparent that public English education strives to improve students' communicative competence in terms of English as an international language under the government's globalization policy.

The findings of this study suggest that private English education contributes to an elite-driven society, misleading students to view English as only one of the subjects that they should master to acquire higher scores on the test. The private English education is imbued with a sense of globalization that fails to embrace English as lingua franca, but for elite lingua franca, and yet falls behind improving students' communicative competence, even though embracing English as lingua franca is the very aim of English education in Korea as originally set forth under the globalization policy.

Suggestions for Future English Language Education in Korea

According to the latest statistics in Korea, expenditures on private education increased 80 percent for the last four years (Hangyore Newspaper, Nov 2004). Therefore, it is believed that there would be a split in English proficiency between those who have access to greater economic resources and those who do not. This study also revealed that there is a growing relationship between English proficiency (only in receptive skills) and economic resources and yet far from reaching the expectations of the government under globalization policy, which advocates communicative competence. Developing English proficiency contributes to, as McCay (2002, p.24) points out, social inequalities. The promotion of social inequalities, according to McCay (2002, p.25), is based on a lack of access to instruction in the language. However, this study disclosed that the instruction in the public sector is promoting more communicative competence towards productive skills (listening and speaking) which supports the government's globalization policy in English education. In other words, public

sector English education envisions English as lingua franca and endeavors to improve students' communicative competence, whilst private English sector maintains test score-bound instructions.

The current "English study fever" shows Korea's desire to gain competitiveness and international leadership in a globalized world. With English taking up such an important position in the Korean society, it provides further evidence that the nation's interest in English goes far beyond the interests of its citizens in employing the language. It proves that English in Korea is seen as "a gatekeeper to positions of prestige in society" (Pennycook, 1994, p112).

Language education in Korea has entailed what Pennycook points out, 'pragmatic awareness.' Pragmatic and critical awareness in language education refer to the cultural politics affecting English as an international language (Pennycook, 1994). As Pennycook (1994) puts it,

> Pragmatic English as an international language (EIL) is defined as language education that equips learners for participation in the establishment structures a regional or global society. Critical English as an international language, on the other hand, is concerned with questioning the status quo of the establishment with the goal of transforming regional and global systems so that they respect the rights of the marginalized.

Pragmatic EIL centers on the successful acquisition of status and power, while Critical EIL is engaged in analytical critique for the protection of diversity. Current English education in Korea mostly falls in pragmatic EIL, which prepares learners for access to power institutions, especially from private sector English

education. Private English education endeavors to get students higher scores on the college entrance exam, thereafter, their teaching methods focused on what constitutes of exam. Since the college entrance exam on English is generally composed of a reading comprehension section and a listening section, it is apparent that students who have private English education experiences would gain higher scores than those who have no private English education experiences on reading-and-writing test and listening test for this study. In addition, it is obvious that private education experiences do not demonstrate a significant effect on the speaking test, because the speaking section is not on the college entrance exam. This is the reason English education in Korea under globalization lags behind the expectations of society. It is nearly impossible to disseminate Korea's own culture and share other countries' cultures under globalization policy without achieving the expected communicative competence, which encompasses reading, writing, listening, and speaking in a general purpose.

Besides, pursuing pragmatic EIL is homogenizing the Korean and western cultures. One of the globalization policies on English education is considering life in foreign countries and foreign people as the most important topics that need to be taught to students. This can be seen as a direct reflection of one of the objectives of English education put forth by the Ministry of Education, i.e. understanding the cultures of other nations, and not only English speaking countries, but the cultures of all nations. The rationale for this objective in English education is that Korea views English as an international language, a language

that is spoken by all people in international situations. Nonetheless, native English speakers from the United States, Canada, Britain, Australia, and New Zealand, which belong to Inner Circle countries, predominate in reality. It results in mainly native speakers from Inner Circle benefiting most from globalization, leaving open the question of whether globalization should really be considered as Americanization.

It is true that more economic resources result in more opportunities with native English speakers in private sector education as they hire more native English speakers from Inner Circle countries. However, when facing native speakers more often, students perceive a homogenizing trend that legitimizes certain linguistic and cultural norms at the expense of others. Eventually, local teachers in public sector education are getting marginalized as the dominance of American English prevails.

The Korean government has been reforming English education under globalization. The rational for promoting global responsibilities among Koreans is to place Korea a major player in international arenas. Viewed in this way, English education should be carried out not only by native English speakers from Inner Circle countries but also local educators.

After examining the effect of private English education on students' communicative competence, this study suggests that there should be changes in perceptions of English and curriculum of English as an international language. English curriculum in Korea needs no longer to look to Inner Circle countries to provide target models of use, with target models in pedagogy. The society needs

to modify hegemonic power of English from Inner Circle countries and empower local educators take ownership of the teaching English as an international language and design pedagogies that are appropriate to the local culture of learning. Granting more credit to local English teachers in public sector can play a significant role as a means of reducing private education expenditure. When the society considers English as an international language, cross-cultural communication can be successfully taken place. This idea is commensurate with English as a lingua franca even among non-native English speakers from a variety of language backgrounds. Thus, communicative competence, so-called experts from Inner Circle developed countries have passed on their expertise regarding language teaching methodology to help modernize English language teaching in 'underdeveloped' countries (McCay, 2002, p.109), does not have to be native English speakers-oriented. McCay (2002) elaborates on this. As she puts it, "The users of English as an international language do not need to internalize the cultural norms of Inner Circle countries in order to use the language effectively as a medium of wider communication" (p.12).

In view of the results of this study, I propose several suggestions for future English language education in Korea in relation with how English as an international language should be taught. There should be stimulation of appropriate pedagogical approaches and curriculum designs by the greater social, economic, and political development of the time.

First of all, in the pursuit of globalization, the Korean government demands greater level proficiency in English, infusing English language education at all

levels of the education system. My suggestion is that stimulating critical thinking should guide decisions in curriculum development. One step toward stimulating so-called a critical approach to EIL is that instead of learning American or British English for acquiring hegemonic status, a form of English that complements the understanding of the world and transmitting cultures by Korean thought and discourse patterns in beginning be advocated. When considering EIL from a Korean perspective, the concerns as to whether the language instruction should emulate the discourse used by native speakers from Inner Circle countries, or if instruction should not rather facilitate greater Korean ownership of English should be taken into consideration. As English continues to grow as the world's lingua franca, it is expected that local educators in Korea may start to claim English for their own.

Second, in developing an appropriate pedagogy, EIL educators need to consider how English is contextualized in Korea. In Korea the learning of English is promoted through national examinations. Especially the College Entrance Examination controls teaching methods of English. When the contents of national examinations on English give primary emphasis on developing communicative competence including speaking section, the immediate need for all the students will be to acquire a level of basic communicative competency that will allow them to obtain higher scores. Both the public and private English sector will strive to develop students' English language skills primarily in reference to their need to use English. Eventually, local teachers in public sector will be empowered by the fact students will be participating more time in English class at school.

In conjunction with espousing the development of a locally appropriate pedagogy, its curriculum design must be in the hands of local educators. The curriculum design should maintain the idea that English as an international language is not limited to any one country, region or culture, and features the discourse of both native and nonnative speakers. When there are remarkable materials designed by local educators, students would feel far more freedom by allowing them to take ownership both of their learning and usage of English. As students recognize their identity and language egos as Korean students, they are welcomed to take ownership of the English language as their vehicle for expression. Along with the ownership of English and accepting English as an international language, not as a means of obtaining power in the society, public English education as itself would be sufficient when the society believes a culture-biased approach in English education pedagogy will meet the globalization of the country. In doing so English as an international language can be more appropriately focused on learning a means of communication not simply mastering an object of academic study.

Given the fact that it is local teachers who mediate intercultural or culture-biased approaches to instruction and materials, the role of the English language teachers is critical. Language teachers would benefit from clearly identifying what they believe about the spread of English and design their lessons accordingly. Instead of considering only what to teach for the next class, they should regularly reflect on what they are actually teaching in their classes, how they teach the language, and why they are teaching English in the first place. Moreover,

learners should be exposed to a various types of teachers: bilingual experts from the Expanding Circle countries as well as well-trained teachers from the Inner and Outer Circle. In doing so, learning a language will be valuable for their community and their nation.

Language teachers' role, beyond teaching students how to speak, comprehend, read, and write English, is to create opportunities for students to engage in meaningful interaction with diverse people and cultures and to reflect critically on these interactions. By doing so, they can begin to fulfill the Korean government's mandate for English language educators to take the lead in preparing students as leaders and contributing participants in today's global society. In addition, doing it this way, the prevalent idea which private English educations outdo public English education in terms of improving communicative competence will be diminished eventually. The public English education should be emphasized as the place where the ownership of English and improvement of communicative competence of English is encouraged.

REFERENCES

Ammon, U. (1992). *Gengo-to Sono Chii*. Trans. By U.Hieda & H. Yamashita. Tokyo: Sangensha.

Bae, D.B. (1995). *Hagkukeui Kukminhakkyo Younguh Kyowyukeui Baldal.* [Development of English language education in elementary schools in Korea]. English Teaching, 50(2), 151-180

Brown, J. D. (1995). Differences between norm-referenced and criterion-referenced test. *Language Testing in Japan*. J. D. Brown & S. o. Yamashita. Tokyo, The Japan Association for Language Teaching: 12-19.

Byun, E. (1997). Ban on songs with English lyrics stirs debate: MBC move for 'national sentiment' elicits protest from young musicians. *The Korea Herald*, June 12 1997.

Cambridge ESOL Handbook (2003), *Key English Test (KET)*. Cambridge: University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations.

Canagarajah, A. S. (1999). *Resisting linguistic imperialism in English teaching*. London: Oxford University Press.

Canale, M., & Swain, M.(1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*. 1(1): 1-47.

Castells, M. (1998). *End of the millennium*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.

Castles, S. (1999). Development, social transformation and globalization. In Kavoos Mohannak (Ed.). *Analysing social transformation.* http://www.captrans.edu.au/pubs/castles.pdf. Accessed October 2, 2004.

Chew, P.G.L. (1999). Linguistic imperialism, globalism, and the English language. *AILA Review*, 13, 37-47.

Clark, D.N. (1993). Korea briefing. Boulder: Westview Press.

Commins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. *Review of Educational Research*, 49, 222-51.

Cortazzi, M. (1990). Cultural and educational expectations in the language classroom. In B. Harrison (Ed.). *Culture and the Language Classroom. ELT Documents 132.* London: Macmillan. Modern English Publications and the British Council. 54-65.

Cortazzi, M., & Jin, L (1996). Cultures of learning: Language classrooms in China. In Coleman, H. (ed.). *Society and the language classroom.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press: 169-206.

Crystal, D. (1997). *English as a global language.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language (2nd ed.).* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. ISBN: 0521530326

Dusthimer, C., & Gillett, R. (1999). The history of ELT in Korea. In G. Crocetti (Ed.), *The KOTESOL handbook: Teaching English in Korea*, 1-12. Seoul: Moonyedang.

Edelsky, C. (1996). With literacy and justice for all: Rethinking the social in language and education. Second Edition. London: The Falmer Press.

Ellis, G. (1996). How culturally appropriate is the communicative approach? *ELT Journal*. 50 (3): 213-24.

Finch, A.E. (2000). *A Formative Evaluation of a Task-based EFL Programme for Korean University Students*. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis. Manchester University, U.K.

Galloway, A. (1999). *Communicative language teaching: An introduction and sample activities*. Available: http://www.ed.gov/databases/ERIC_Digests/ed357642.html. accessed March 20, 2002.

Green, S. B. & Salkind, N. J. (2002). Using SPSS for windows: Analyzing and understanding data. 3rd Edition. Prentice Hall PTR.

Holliday, A. (1994). *Appropriate methodology and social context*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hoogvelt, A. (1997). *Globalization and the postcolonial world*. Basingstoke and London: Macmillan Press.

Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In Pride, J. B. & Homes, J (eds.): *Sociolinguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin: 269-93.

Jung, S. K., & Norton, B (2002). Language planning in Korea: The new elementary English program. InTollefosn, J. W. *Language policies in education*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawerence Erlbaum Associates.

Kachru, B (1988). The sacred cows of English. *English today*. 16, 3-8.

Kachru, B (1994). Englishization and contact linguistics. World Englishes. 13 (2): 135-154.

Kim, E. M. (2000). Globalization of the South Korean Chaebol. In S. Kim (eds.) *Korea's Globalization,* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press. 102-125.

Kim, S. (2000). *Korea's globalization*, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Kim, E. G. (2003). Educational policy and reform in Korea. *Economic development and educational policies in Korea*: KEDI

Kim, E. Y. (1996). *A cross-cultural references of business practices in a new Korea*. Westport, Connecticut: Quorum Books.

Ko, K. S. (1993). Gukmin hakgyo yeong-eo gyoyuk-ui segyejeok donghyang-gwa gey gwaje [The trend of elementary English education in the world and the issues]. *English Teaching*, 46, 165-187.

Korea Institute of Curriculum and Evaluation (1999). *Curriculum, assessment and College Scholastic Ability Test in the Republic of Korea.* Seoul: Author.

Kim, Dae Jung (1999). *Loyalty, Filial Piety in Changing Times.* http://www.tparents.org/UNews/unws9906/Kim_conscience.htm (accessed October 6, 2002).

Kramsch, C., & Sullivan, P. (1996). Appropriate pedagogy. *ELT Journal*, 50: 199-212.

Kwon, O. R. (1995). A history of English teaching methods and methodology research in Korea. *English Teaching*, 50(2), 107-131.

Kwon, O. R. (2000). Korea's English education policy changes in the 1990s: Innovations to gear the nation for the 21st century. *English Education*. 55(1), spring.

Lee, J. K. (2002). *Korean higher education: A Confucian perspective*. Seoul: Jimoondang Publishing Company.

Lovmo, M. S. (2001). Language purism in Korea. http://www.fortunecity.com/victorian/exhibition/605/page31.html, (accessed December 9, 2004).

MacSwan, J. (1999). A minimalist-approach to intrasentential code switching. New York: Garland Publishing.

MacSwan, J. (2000). The threshold hypothesis, semilingualism, and other contributions to a deficit view of linguistic minorities. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 22(1), 3-45.

McGrath, S. (2001). Communicative language teaching in Korean public schools. *KOTESOL*, 5(2), 1-6.

McKay, S. (2002). *Teaching English as an international language*. Oxford. ISBN 0-19-437364-9.

Ministry of Education (1995). *Gugminhaggyo gyoyug gwajeong: Chongron, yeongeo [The curricular of elementary school: General and the English subject].* Seoul: Author.

Ministry of Education (1996). *Chodeung haggyo yeong-eo damdang gyosa chungwon gyehoig [The supply plan of elementary English teachers].* Seoul: Author.

Ministry of Education (1997). *Godeung haggyo gyoyug gwajeong I [High school curricular I].* Seoul: Author.

Ministry of Education (1997). Chodeung hakgyo yeong-eo gyoyuk jeongchaek jaryojip [The English education polices in elementary schools]. Seoul: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education (2001). *Education in Korea*: 2001-2002.

Ministry of Education (2004). *The publication of the 2003 annual report on education statistics.* Seoul: Author.

Moon, Y. (1976). Hanguk yeong-eo gyo yuk ei yeoksa [A historical review of the teaching of English in Korea (1883-1976)] *Eungyoung Eonohak [Applied Lingustics].* 8(2), 203-222.

Moon, Y. (1991). English education in Korea: A retrospective review of last 100 years. In D.B. Jeong., ed., *English Education*, 1-18. Seoul: Hanshin Publishing Company.

Muller, C (2000). *Analects of Confucius: Return to Resources for the Study of East Asian Language and Thought.* http://www.human.toyogakuenu.ac.jp/~acmuller/contao/analects.htm (accessed October 4 2004)

Nunan, D. (1991). Communicative tasks and the language curriculum. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25 (2): 279-295.

Pakir, A. (2004). Medium of instruction policy in Singapore. In Tollefson, J. W. *Medium of instruction policies: Which agenda? Whose agenda?* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Pennycook, A. (1994). *Cultural politics of English as an international language*. London: Longman.

Pennycook, A. (1995). English in the world/The world in English in Tollefson, J. W. (ed.). *Power and inequality in language education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press: 34-58.

Pennycook, A. (2001). Critical applied linguistics. Mahwah, N.J. : Lawrence Erlbaum.

Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Phillipson, R. (Ed.) (2000). *Rights to language: Equity, power, and Education*. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Phillipson, R. & Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1996). English only worldwide or language ecology. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30 (3).

Romaine, S. (1995) Bilingualism. Second Edition. Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

Schiffman, H.E. (1996). *Linguistic culture and language policy*. London: Routledge.

Scovel, T. (1994). The role of culture in second language pedagogy. *System,* 22/2, 205-19.

Sjuresen, K. (2000). *Globalization*, New York: The H. W. Wilson Company.

Skutnabb-Kangas, T. & Phillipson, R. (Eds.) (1995). *Linguistic human rights: Overcoming linguistic discrimination.* Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Smith, L. (1976). English as an international auxiliary language. *RELC Journal.* 7(2), 38-43.

Spolsky.B. (1984). A note on the dangers of terminological innovation. In C. Rivera (Ed.), *Language proficiency and academic achievement* (pp. 41-43). Avon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Swain, M. (1985). A critical look at the communicative approach (2). *ELT Journal.* 39 (2): 76-87.

Tollefson, J.W. (1991). *Planning language, planning inequality.* London: Longman.

Tranter, N. (1997). Hybrid Anglo-Japanese loans in Korean. *Linguistics, 35.* 133-166.

Troike, R. C. (1984). SCALP: Social and cultural aspects of language proficiency. In C. Rivera (Ed.), *Language proficiency and academic achievement* (pp.44-54). Avon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Wiley, T. G. (1996). *Literacy and language diversity in the United States.* Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics and Delta Systems.

Wiley, T. G. (2005). *Literacy and language diversity in the United States.* 2nd Edition. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics and Delta Systems.

Yim, S. (2003). *Globalization and national identity: English language textbooks of Korea.* Unpublished dissertation: New York University.

(Newspapers)

The Korea Herald: June 26, 2002

The Korea Herald: August 1, 2003+

The Korea Herald: September 8, 2003

Los Angeles Times: May 20, 2002

Korea Times, January 7, 2002

Business Week Online, October 23, 2000.

www.businessweek.com/2000/00_43/b3704259.html

APPENDIX A

DATA COLLECTED JULY 2004

ENGLISH LANGUAGE PRIVATE SECTOR PARTICIPATION SURVEY

1. Gender Male Female

2. How long have you involved in any of private sector English education?

	Private Tutoring	Group Tutoring	*Hagwon*	Weekly Worksheet
No				
Less than one year				
One to two years				
Two to four years				
More than four years				

3. What is your perception about private sector English teaching methods?

1) Mostly focused on listening and speaking

2) Mostly focused on reading and writing

3) Evenly focused on listening, speaking, reading, and writing

4. What is your perception about public sector English teaching methods?

1) Mostly focused on listening and speaking

2) Mostly focused on reading and writing

3) Evenly focused on listening, speaking, reading, and writing

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

APPENDIX B

KEY ENGLISH TEST/ READING AND WRITING TEST

Name:

UNIVERSITY OF CAMPRIDGE LOCAL EXAMINATIONS SYNDICATE

Examinations in English as a Foreign Language

KEY ENGLISH TEST

PAPER 1 Reading and Writing Test

TIME 1 hour 10 minutes

INSTRUCTIONS TO STUDENTS

Write your name on your answer sheet.

Write your answers in pencil on the answer sheet. You will have no extra time for this, so you must finish in 1 hour and 10 minutes.

At the end of the examination, hand in both the question paper and the answer sheet.

INFORMATION FOR STUDENTS

There are eight parts to this test

Part 1
Questions 1 - 5

Who are these notices for?
For questions 1 - 5, mark A, B or C on the answer sheet.

EXAMPLE

0

PLEASE DO NOT FEED THE ANIMALS

- A people in a station
- B people in a café
- C people in a zoo

ANSWER: C

1

Showing all next week
THE HEART GAME

- A people in a hospital
- B people in a sports centre
- C people in a cinema

2

PLEASE SHOW YOUR TICKET

- A passengers
- B hotel guests
- C shop assistants

3

Please do not leave bicycles against shop windows

- A people cleaning windows
- B people buying bicycles
- C people riding bicycles

4

OIL AND WATER CHECKED FREE HERE

- A cooks
- B lorry drivers
- C secretaries

5

We take Traveller's Cheques and Credit Cards

- A receptionists
- B bank managers
- C tourists

Questions 6 - 10

Which notice (A - H) says this (6 - 10)?
For questions 6 - 10, mark the correct letter A - H on the answer sheet.

EXAMPLE		ANSWER
0	Go here to learn how to play music.	E

6 Check this is not on when you leave.

7 You cannot eat your lunch here.

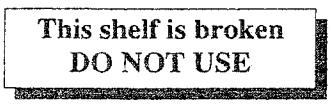
8 If you put anything here, it will fall.

9 Have a drink before you go.

10 Do not drive across this.

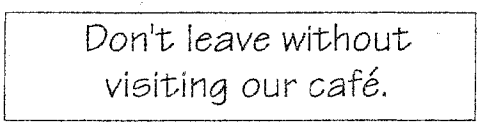
A

B

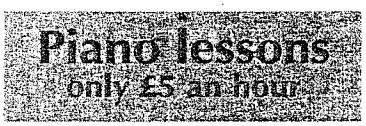


C

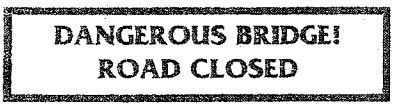
D



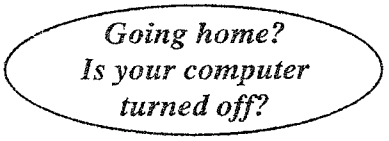
E



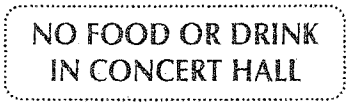
F



G



H



Part 2
Questions 11 - 15

Read the descriptions (11 - 15) of some travel words.
What is the name of each person or thing (A - H)?
For questions 11 - 15, mark the correct letter A - H on the answer sheet.

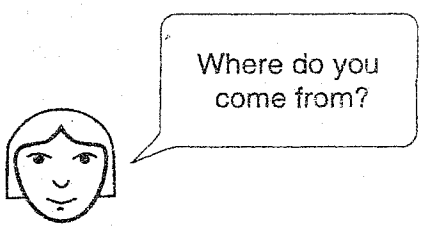
EXAMPLE		ANSWER
0	This has your photo, name and other information about you in it.	E

11	When you go on a journey, you carry your clothes in this.	A	camp-site
12	This person gives you information in a hotel.	B	double room
13	There are often two beds in here.	C	guest
14	This person pays to stay in a hotel.	D	luggage
15	When you are away from home, you can put this outside and sleep in it.	E	passport
		F	receptionist
		G	tent
		H	trip

Part 3
Questions 16 - 20

Complete the five conversations.
For questions 16 - 20, mark A, B or C on the answer sheet.

EXAMPLE



A New York.
B School.
C Home.

ANSWER

A

16 I don't feel very well.

A What's the matter?
B That's all right.
C He's not a doctor.

17 Whose is this jacket?

A Mine.
B You are.
C John.

18 Would you like to go to the cinema tonight?

A Yes, I am.
B I'm afraid I can't.
C It's fine.

19 How much is this letter to Australia?

A I haven't got a stamp.
B About five days.
C By air?

20 The food at the hotel was too expensive.

A Yes, there was.
B Yes, I agree.
C It certainly did.

Questions 21 - 25

Complete the conversation in a sports centre.
What does Brendan say to the receptionist?
For questions 21 - 25, mark the correct letter A - H on the answer sheet.

EXAMPLE		ANSWER
Receptionist:	Good morning. Can I help you?	
Brendan:	**0**	**E**

Receptionist:	Yes, of course. Are you a beginner?
Brendan:	**21** .....
Receptionist:	Yes, there are some that start at 10 a.m.
Brendan:	**22** .....
Receptionist:	Twice a week – on Tuesdays and Thursdays.
Brendan:	**23** .....
Receptionist:	Either half an hour or one hour.
Brendan:	**24** .....
Receptionist:	For a thirty-minute lesson, it's £2.
Brendan:	**25** .....
Receptionist:	Next week, if you want to.

A	I'd prefer the shorter class. What does it cost?
B	Yes, I've never swum before. Are there classes in the morning?
C	Oh, that's quite cheap! When can I begin?
D	I don't think so. Why?
E	I'd like some information about swimming classes.
F	And how long are they?
G	That's good. How often are the classes?
H	I don't want a half-hour class.

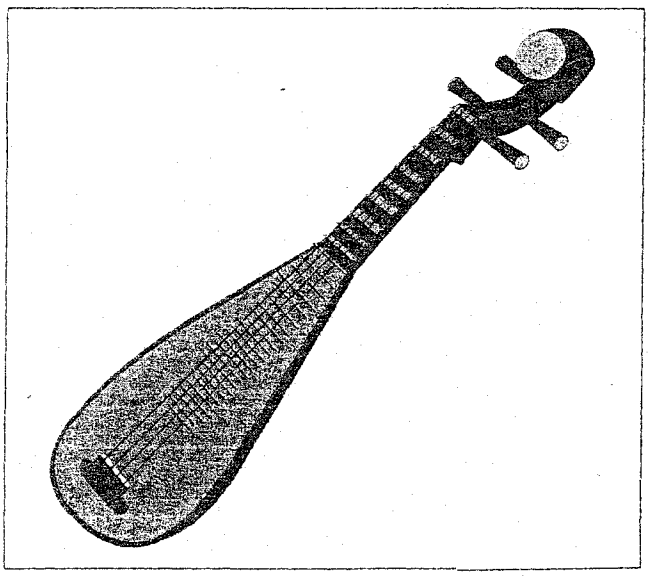
Part 4
Questions 26 - 32

Read this article about a famous Chinese woman who plays music. Are sentences 26 - 32 'Right' (A) or 'Wrong' (B)?

If there is not enough information to answer 'Right' (A) or 'Wrong' (B), choose 'Doesn't say' (C).

For questions 26 - 32, mark A, B or C on the answer sheet.

Chinese Music in an English Village



Yang Jing usually plays her music in big halls in places like New York and Paris. Yang plays an old Chinese musical instrument called the *pipa*. She has been famous in China since 1986. Now she is 34 years old and the best *pipa* player in the world. She usually gets $3000 each time she plays.

A businessman called Peter Bloxham saw Yang playing in China when he was on a business trip. Peter comes from Cheswardine, a village in England. After the show, he talked to Yang. He told her that his village needed to repair their old village hall, so Yang agreed to play there. "You can use all the ticket money for your hall," she said. "You needn't pay me anything."

Last week, Yang arrived in Cheswardine for her show. She said: "I usually stay in big hotels where everything is fast and busy, so it is lovely to stay in a small place where everyone has time to talk to me and is so nice. I don't suppose there are many people in this place who have seen or heard a *pipa* before. I hope they will like my music."

EXAMPLE		ANSWER
0	Yang Jing has played in New York.	A
	A Right **B** Wrong **C** Doesn't say	

26 Yang became famous when she was 34.

A Right **B** Wrong **C** Doesn't say

27 Yang often plays with other people.

A Right **B** Wrong **C** Doesn't say

28 Peter Bloxham went to China to see Yang play.

A Right **B** Wrong **C** Doesn't say

29 Yang will not earn any money in Cheswardine.

A Right **B** Wrong **C** Doesn't say

30 Yang is staying in Cheswardine with Peter and his family.

A Right **B** Wrong **C** Doesn't say

31 Yang thinks Peter's village is a friendly place.

A Right **B** Wrong **C** Doesn't say

32 Everyone in Cheswardine knows Yang's music.

A Right **B** Wrong **C** Doesn't say

Part 5
Questions 33 - 40

Read the article about a writer of children's books.
Choose the best word (A, B or C) for each space (33 - 40).
For questions 33 - 40, mark A, B or C on the answer sheet.

Hans Christian Andersen (1805 – 1875)

Hans Christian Andersen, the famous children's writer, __0__ born in Denmark. His father made shoes __33__ people in the town and his mother washed clothes. They loved Hans very much and he __34__ a happy life. When he was eleven, he finished school. He stayed __35__ home making toy theatres and actors. At 14, he __36__ home because he wanted to be an opera singer. But all the people he went to see told __37__ that he was not a good singer. So he decided to become a writer. He wrote a book called *A Journey on Foot* and was paid a lot of money for __38__. He used this to travel and write __39__ books. Soon __40__ in his country knew Hans Christian Andersen.

EXAMPLE						ANSWER
0	A	were	B	was	C	is	B

33	A	of	B	to	C	for
34	A	had	B	have	C	has
35	A	by	B	at	C	in
36	A	leave	B	left	C	leaves
37	A	his	B	he	C	him
38	A	them	B	it	C	these
39	A	much	B	most	C	more
40	A	everybody	B	anybody	C	nobody

Part 6
Questions 41 - 50

Complete these letters.
Write ONE word for each space (41 - 50).
For questions 41 - 50, write your words on the answer sheet.

The Manager
Seaview Hotel
Bournemouth

Dear Sir,

Last week I stayed (**Example:** in) Room 206 at your hotel **41** three nights from Wednesday **42** Saturday. I think **43** left a book under the bed. **44** is a picture of a horse on the front. I need it because we are **45** it in my English class.

Please **46** you post it to **47** ?

Thank you.

Maria Gomez

Dear Ms Gomez,

We have found **48** book. Please send us **49** large envelope with your name and **50** and some stamps on it.

Yours sincerely,

B Brown

B Brown
Manager, Seaview Hotel

Part 7
Questions 51 - 55

Read the information about a boy who wants a job for the summer.
Fill in the information on the Application Form.
For questions 51 - 55, write the information on the answer sheet.

Nelson Grant was born in Australia and lived there for 14 years. At the moment his home is in Ayr in Scotland. He is now 16 and lives at 23 Princes Road. He would like to work at the weekends because he has to study from Monday to Friday. Last summer he was a cleaner, but this year he wants to work in a shop.

SUMMER JOBS FOR STUDENTS
APPLICATION FORM

Name: *Nelson Grant*

Address: 51

Age: 52

Nationality: 53

Days you can work: 54

Work you have done before: 55

Part 8
Question 56

Read this note from your English teacher.

> Do you want a pen-friend in another country? Which country would you like to write to?
> How often can you write?
> What are your hobbies?

You want a pen-friend.

Write your teacher a note. Answer her questions.
Write 20 - 25 words.
Write your note on the answer sheet.

Name:

School:

KET Reading and Writing Answer Sheet

Part 1				Part 2		Part 3			
1		6		11		16		21	
2		7		12		17		22	
3		8		13		18		23	
4		9		14		19		24	
5		10		15		20		25	

Part 4				Part 5				
26		31		33		38		
27		32		34		39		
28				35		40		
29				36				
30				37				

Part 6		Part 7	
41		51	
42		52	
43		53	
44		54	
45		55	
46			
47			
48			
49			
50			

APPENDIX C

KEY ENGLISH TEST/ LISTEING TEST

Name:

UNIVERSITY OF CAMPRIDGE LOCAL EXAMINATIONS SYNDICATE

Examinations in English as a Foreign Language

KEY ENGLISH TEST

PAPER 2 Listening Test

TIME Approx. 25 minutes (including 8 minutes transfer time)

INSTRUCTIONS TO STUDENTS

Write your name on your answer sheet.

Answer **all** questions.

Write your answers on the question paper.

You will have eight minutes at the end to transfer your answers, in pencil, onto the separate answer sheet.

At the end of the examination, hand in both the question paper and the answer sheet.

INFORMATION FOR STUDENTS

There are five parts to this test and you will hear each part **twice**.

Part 1
Questions 1–5

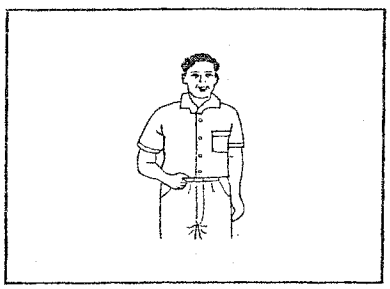
You will hear five short conversations.
You will hear each conversation twice.
There is one question for each conversation.
For questions 1–5, put a tick ☑ under the right answer.

EXAMPLE

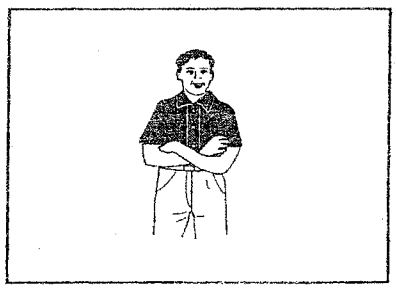
0 How many people were at the meeting?

3	13	30
A ☐	B ☐	C ☑

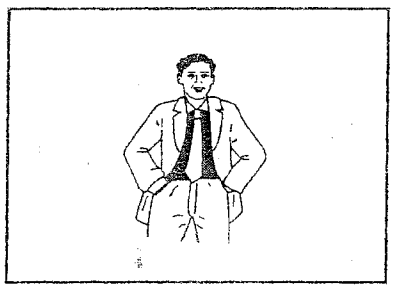
1 What's Andy going to wear?



A ☐

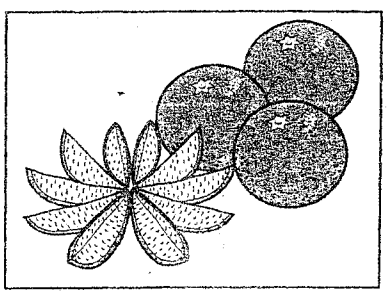


B ☐

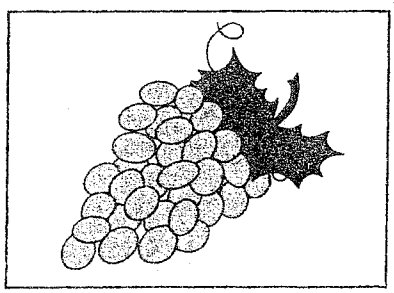


C ☐

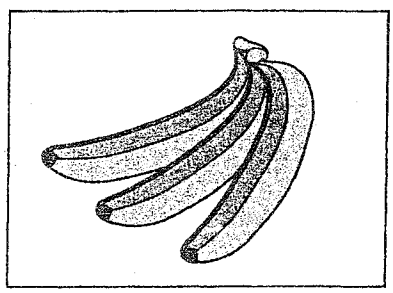
2 Which fruit will the man eat?



A ☐

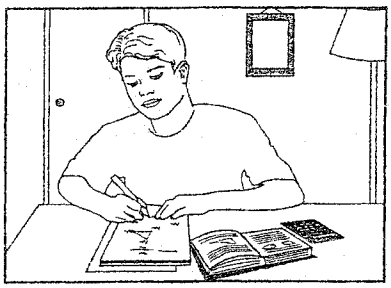


B ☐

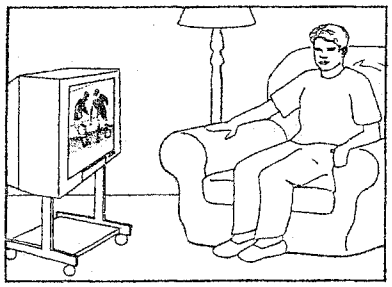


C ☐

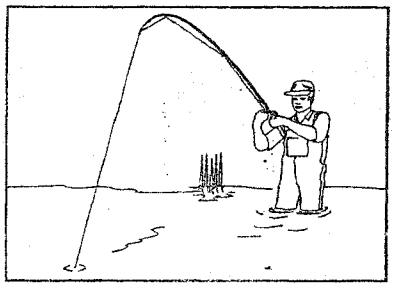
3 What did Steve do at the weekend?



A ☐

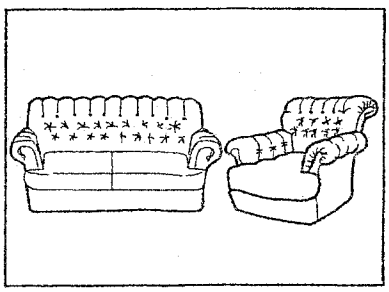


B ☐

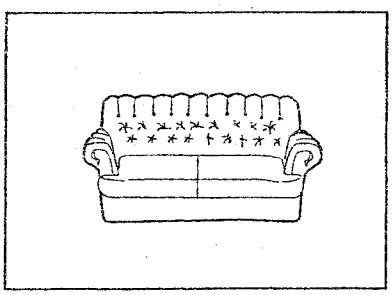


C ☐

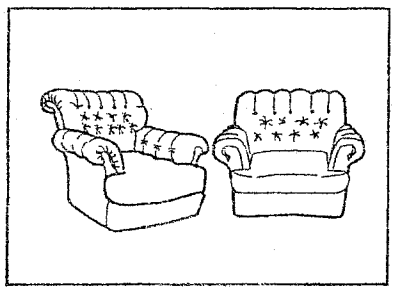
4 What did Diana buy?



A ☐

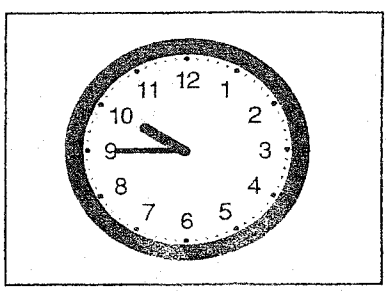


B ☐

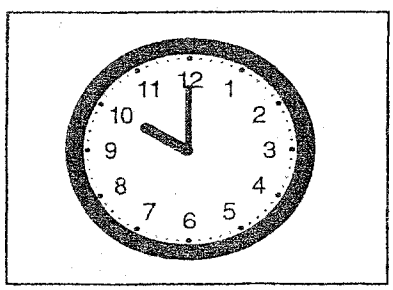


C ☐

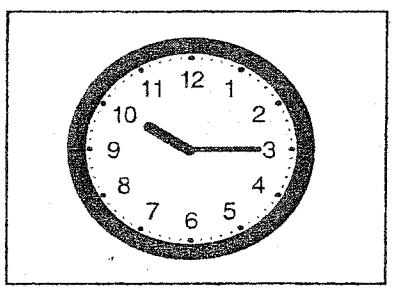
5 What time will Tom and his mother leave home?



A ☐



B ☐



C ☐

Part 2
Questions 6–10

**Listen to Jack talking to his friend, Mary, about his garden.
Who gave him the things in his garden?**

**For questions 6–10, write a letter A–H next to each person.
You will hear the conversation twice.**

EXAMPLE

0 uncle [B]

PEOPLE

6 mother [ ]

7 grandmother [ ]

8 aunt [ ]

9 father [ ]

10 Mary [ ]

THINGS

A bird house

B bridge

C chairs

D flowers

E garden fork

F grass

G tree

H vegetables

Part 3
Questions 11–15

Listen to Hannah talking to her friend about a shopping trip.

For questions 11–15, tick ☑ A, B or C.
You will hear the conversation twice.

EXAMPLE			ANSWER
0 When did Hannah go to the department store?	A	on Thursday	☐
	B	on Friday	☐
	C	on Saturday	☑

11 Where is the department store?	A	in Queen Street	☐
	B	in West Street	☐
	C	in Station Street	☐
12 How did Hannah travel there?	A	by car	☐
	B	by bus	☐
	C	by train	☐
13 What did Hannah buy?	A	a skirt	☐
	B	a sweater	☐
	C	a dress	☐
14 How much was it?	A	£25	☐
	B	£35	☐
	C	£60	☐
15 What colour is it?	A	black	☐
	B	blue	☐
	C	green	☐

Part 4
Questions 16–20

You will hear a woman asking for information about horse-riding lessons.

Listen and complete questions 16–20.
You will hear the conversation twice.

WOODSIDE RIDING SCHOOL

Lessons:	at weekends
and on:	16 ..... evenings
Children's class:	Saturday
Time:	17
Teacher's name:	18 Sally .....
Must take:	19 a riding .....
One lesson costs:	20 £

Part 5
Questions 21–25

You will hear some information about theatre tickets.

Listen and complete questions 21–25.
You will hear the information twice.

THEATRE TICKETS

Name of show: Annie

At: 21 ..... Theatre

In: 22 ..... Street

From: Monday

Until: 23

To ask for a free ticket:

Phone: 24

Before: 25 ..... p.m. tonight

You now have 8 minutes to write your answers on the answer sheet.