Social Acquisition of English in South Korea and its Implications for English Education

by

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation examines the social acquisition of English in the South Korean speech community by examining the use of English in South Korean talk shows. Specifically, drawing upon Brutt-Griffler's (2002) macroacquisition theory as the theoretical framework, this dissertation provides empirical evidence of how the South Korean speech community acquires the English language by looking at the three primary agents of the spread of English: the media, policy makers, and English teachers. For this purpose, this dissertation first explores how Korean speakers use English in their conversations during social interactions in Korean television talk shows. Second, the attitudes of university professors and English teachers toward the spread of English and English language teaching were investigated. Finally, by exploring in-depth voices from university professors and English teachers, this dissertation ascertains the implications of macroacquisition of English for English language policy in South Korea.

This study adopted a mixed methods research design in three stages (Dörnyei, Z., 2007). The first stage involved gathering conversation data excerpted from thirty episodes of three Korean television talk shows. Unlike previous studies that used discourse analysis to explore contextual clues for the use of English and Korean language mixing (Moody, 2009; Lee, 2004, 2014; Pennycook, 2003, 2007), this study used conversation analysis and membership categorization analysis to investigate the use of English for social interactions in talk shows. The second stage included gathering survey data from 78 university professors (policy makers) and 97 English teachers (policy practitioners). To compare these two groups in terms of their attitudes toward the spread of English and English language teaching, a one-way repeated measures ANOVA and an independent samples t-test were used for data analysis. The third stage

included interviews with four university professors and four English teachers to explore their in-depth thoughts about English borrowings and their application to English education in South Korea.

The results show that the media, policy makers, and English teachers are not passive recipients, but are active agents of the spread of English into the Korean speech community by engaging in reshaping "shared subjective knowledge" (Brutt-Griffler, 2002, p. 142) and having an influence on the making of English language policy in South Korea. The talk show data indicated that effective communication and identity construction are the main purposes of using English in a Korean conversation for social interaction. The survey and interview results revealed that professors and teachers agree that a list of English borrowings can be incorporated into a lesson plan, but the application of English borrowings to the English curriculum needs further discussion in the South Korean English teaching context.

The findings of this dissertation provide an insight into the global spread of English based on its social acquisition in the South Korean context. This knowledge contributes to our understanding of the development of a World English in a local speech community.

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Introduction of the Study

Scholars have vigorously discussed the rise of English, and its place as the dominant world language, for quite some time. Some have focused on hegemonic colonization by the British Empires as the basis for the spread of English (Phillipson, 1992), others have emphasized a set of variables that relate to economy, culture, educational policy, and national identity (Crystal, 2003; Quirk, 1988). According to the former perspective, the spread of English has been facilitated by the colonial agencies, such as the British Council, which brought the standard, norm, and legitimacy of English to other countries as its consumers (Phillipson, 1992). In contrast, the latter emphasizes a decrease in the influence of these agencies and an increase in the role of English as a functional tool for socioeconomic advantage in a globalized world (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Crystal, 2003). Therefore, there has been a need for a unified framework regarding the sociolinguistic causes for the spread of English into "un-English" areas, where English is not spoken as a dominant or standard language. (Bhatt, 2001, p. 529).

Brutt-Griffler (2002) posits macroacquisition as a sociohistorical model that accounts for language spread and language change as its sociohistorical outcome. According to this framework, the fundamental foundation for the postcolonial development of English into *World English* has been linked to the linguistic and social process of second language acquisition by a *speech community* that attempts to attain to an active construction of social and cultural identity as well as economic and communicative purpose (Brutt-Griffler, 2002). In this model, s*peech*

community is an important methodological unit of analysis in that it serves as a unit that can be observed to analyze the active participation of its members who use English as an additional language or lingua franca. This particular community includes a group of people who can communicate based on *shared subjective knowledge*, whether they are within a physical or virtual boundary. Shared subjective knowledge refers to knowledge about a culture, its social value, beliefs, expectations, and social "norms of interaction" that has been constructed through the sociohistorical emergence of a speech community and that is shared by its members (p. 142). This knowledge provides the solid knot that ties the members of the community together, which eventually transforms them into "a strong case of community" mainly in terms of communication and culture (p. 143). Thus, a speech community where its members share subjective knowledge is as an ideal unit of analysis to examine the spread of English as a sociohistorical process.

In this study, South Korea is the unit of analysis as the target speech community. Kachru's (1985) idea of a three-circle model refers to South Korea's place within the Expanding Circle, one of the speech communities in Asia where the local language maintains the high prestige as an official language. In this category of speech community, English is spoken as one of the foreign languages. South Korea has been selected as the target speech community since the volume of research on the worldwide spread of English within this circle is relatively limited. More importantly, previous researchers did not view this issue from the perspective of World English (Hatano, 2013). Thus, in order to achieve a more complete appreciation of World English, thorough and sustained research must be conducted to identify how English has infiltrated this particular speech community and what influence it has on the variety of English language spoken locally.

Researchers have observed South Korea's response to the influence of English in both socioeconomic and cultural circles, and this phenomenon has only accelerated in an age of globalization (Lawrence, 2012; Lee, 1996). The members of this speech community share subjective knowledge in both Korean as a national language and English as a primary foreign language. Although the Korean language has retained its dominant position within South Korea, the flood of globalization in the country as well as its long-term relationship with the United States has allowed English to find a vital place within the South Korean landscape. The relative clout of English is witnessed by its acceptance into the population's daily language use, having subsequently gone through a series of subtle changes in the Korean monolingual context (Lawrence, 2012). On the one hand, the strong political and economic relationship between the United States and South Korea has solidified the role of English as the most important foreign language of this Asian country. On the other hand, the recent erosion of barriers between the nations across the globe in an age of globalization and Internet proliferation has facilitated an influx of the English language in South Korea as a primary foreign language (McClintock, 2012). Thus, in an increasingly globalized world, the role of English as an international language has taken a more impact on South Korean in recent years than in previous generations.

Many scholarly accounts have discussed language change in the speech community as an important outcome of the spread of English. Some research suggests that the encroachment of English in other language contexts has facilitated the extinction of a native vernacular, which in turn has led to the loss of a local voice (Ferguson, 2007; Nettle & Romaine, 2000). Others suggest the *glocalization* of English and the *pluralization* of English as the result of English localization (Pennycook, 2003; Rheddings-Jones, 2010). The former explains one of the features of English being spread into local contexts, so that it connects the local identity of the people in

the local speech community to the globalized world. The latter recognizes and acknowledges the diversification and variation of the English language based on an assumption that the ownership of English is no longer limited to its native speakers; instead, its users own it as well. However, it is still necessary to reexamine the spread of English in terms of the language change in the recipient speech community where there is a well-established official language and where English gradually but increasingly creates the condition for the development of societal bilingualism (Brutt-Griffler, 2002). In other words, there is still space for research regarding the spread of English and how it contributes to social interactions among the speakers when accommodated by a local speech community where English is spoken as an additional language. Based on such discussion, this present study examines how the English language is used for communication among people when spreading into the Korean speech community by analyzing television talk shows. Additionally, this study explores how a bilingual identity is constructed when the participants in the talk shows communicate using both English and Korean (Lee, 2004; Moody, 2006; Moody & Matsumoto, 2003).

Finally, it is necessary to explore how this phenomenon of English spread is connected to English as a foreign language teaching and policy in South Korea, as language teaching and the policy are an undeniably crucial factor for the spread of English (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Crystal, 1997, 2003; Hatano, 2013; Phillipson, 1992). In recent years, some scholars in the field of World English have argued that the policy-making process of language is not necessarily imposed by governmental agencies, which is known as the top-down approach (Crystal 1998, 2003; Brutt-Griffler, 2002, 2013; Hatano, 2013). Rather, what is called the bottom-up approach has been observed in the realm of language policy and planning especially in the post-colonial era. Brutt-Griffler (2002) emphasizes an important role of English teachers in the spread of

English and the process of policy-making. In particular, South Korea has employed a uniform language policy as the primary means of educating its people to acquire a foreign language, and this policy concentrates on English (Cho, 2014; Kim, 2000; Nunan, 2003; Yim, 2007). The contributions and attitudes of English teachers and policy makers are inextricably tied to the bidirectional approach to the language policy and English spread in South Korea. Thus, the use of English in Korean English language teaching (ELT) contexts is a vital topic for consideration in this study.

An overarching goal here is to extend our understanding of how social acquisition of English, namely macroacquisition, takes place in the South Korean speech community. To fulfill this purpose, this study looks at how the English language is used for social interactions in a Korean context by analyzing the conversation data from television talk shows. In addition, this study probes how contemporary issues concerning foreign language policy and planning connect with the macroacquisition of English by the South Korean speech community. Specifically, this study seeks to analyze the influence of English on South Korea as witnessed by two major stakeholders, university professors as policy makers and English teachers as policy practitioners.

Significance of the Study

It is commonly accepted that English has become the language of the world. English has spread into local speech communities over the past 100 years since the British Empire sparked it. Now, English is no longer the language of the conventional English-speaking countries'; rather, it is the language of the world. Thus, it is important to understand why English evolved into World English and why not Chinese not into World Chinese. Despite many attempts to explain

the cause of this phenomenon, Brutt-Griffler (2002) emphasizes the active role of people in each local speech community for pragmatic or practical benefits. She calls this phenomenon macroacquisition: the acquisition of English at the level of the speech community. However, we can still seek to determine the process of macroacquisition in a particular speech community. This dissertation attempts to answer this question in relation to the Korean speech community.

This dissertation examines how the South Korean speech community acquires the English language as a social entity by using English language in a daily conversation among based on naturally emerging conversation data. The result of macroacquisition of English by a local speech community, as stated by Brutt-Griffler (2002), is the English language changes in its form and meaning through nativization process. To fulfill this purpose, this study attempts to explore how the use of English in a Korean conversation contributes to social interactions among speakers by using conversation analysis and membership categorization.

In addition, language policy and planning (LPP) needs to be considered to understand the process of English spread within the local context. This is particularly true in the South Korean context, where the national language, Korean, has a dominant position in a language ecology of South Korea. Thus, this dissertation attempts to listen to university professors as policy makers and Korean English teachers as policy practitioners in order to determine the implications of macroacquisition of English for English teaching and policy.

The Chapter Plan

Following Chapter One for introduction, Chapter Two provides a discussion of the philosophical framework for this dissertation and previous research relevant to this current

research. First, macroacquisition of English by Brutt-Griffler (2002) is discussed as a research framework along with the empirical studies associated with the local speech community. Second, a television talk show is addressed as a site for social interactions via verbal and nonverbal actions. Finally, the discussion of conversation analysis and membership categorization analysis is presented as analytic framework for data analysis. Research questions are provided at the end of this chapter.

Chapter Three discusses research design and methodology in this study. Three-staged research method is presented to answer three research questions: conversation analysis and membership categorization, a survey method, and an interview method. Each section provides information about the data, data collection, and data analysis.

Chapters Four through Six provide the major findings in this dissertation. Chapter Four deals with the result of analyzing conversation data collected from 30 Korean television talk shows to answer the first research question. Chapter Five provides the finding of analyzing survey data to answer the second research question about the attitudes of university professors and English teachers to the spread of English and English education. Their attitudes are summarized and compared in the last section of the chapter. Chapter six discusses the findings from the analysis of interview data about the voices of professors and teacher about the spread of English and English education and policy. The similarities and differences in their opinions are provided to discuss implications for English education and curriculum development in South Korea.

Chapter Seven and Eight summarize major findings of this study and situate in the body of literature. In addition, these chapters present important points for further research along with

limitations in this study. Finally, significant implications for English language education and policy in South Korea are discussed.

CHAPTER TWO

Theoretic Framework and Literature Review

Chapter two discusses Brutt-Griffler's (2002) account for the development of World English and macroacquisition theory as a primary research framework for this study. This chapter further deals with empirical research on language change in the local speech community as the outcome of macroacquisition. In addition, English in South Korea is situated in the next section, which is followed by introduction to Korean television entertainment shows.

Macroacquisition of English and Language Change

Although some influential hypothetical frameworks have been suggested to explain the process of language acquisition by an individual language learner, it is still debated how this is achieved on a macro-level within a social context—namely, in a speech community. The traditional model of second language acquisition (SLA) posits that an individual's acquired language results in an *interlanguage*, which is positioned between the speaker's native and the target language (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Selinker, 1969, 1972). The conventional theory of SLA only focuses on an individual speaker as an English learner but does not take into account the entire speech community as a player which does an active participation in language acquisition of a social context. If it is generally accepted that individual learners are involved in language acquisition in a speech community where they are a common social context, it is also true that there may be a strong connection between these individuals and the society to which they belong. However, the previous approach to SLA has overlooked the interplay between the two ends of the language-acquisition continuum. This perspective has also ignored the potential contribution

that each individual speaker can make to the spread of English in society and the role of the speech community as a corporate actor that is composed of such speakers. If it is generally accepted that individual learners are involved in language acquisition in a speech community where they are in a common social context, it is also true that there may a strong connection between these individuals and the society they belong.

Historically, the spread of English beyond the countries that speak English as a native language has been explained by two major theories: historical linguistics and linguistic imperialism. On the one hand, the discipline of historical linguistics asserts that the phenomenon of language spread is primarily based upon the notion of language contact bring about language change (Campbell, 2013; Joseph & Janda, 2005). Although this approach addresses the social and non-linguistic factors of language contact that may lead to language spread and change, its main concentration is cast upon the linguistic outcome that stems from the process of language interaction among two or more language groups. In other words, the social approach to language spread and language change is not a major concern in this area of study. Comparatively, linguistic imperialism attempts to assign a sociopolitical explanation to the spread and resonance of English into new parts of the world (Phillipson, 1992). According to this view, English has been transferred to recipient countries as a language of dominance by the politico-economic policies of Great Britain. It is further argued that the British Council was in charge of the diffusion of the English language into other contexts where English had not been spoken by the majority of population. However, this idea has been criticized by some scholars for ignoring the two-way interaction between English speakers and English learners in a variety of social and cultural contexts (Crystal, 2003; Canagarajah, 1999, 2005; Pennycook, 2001). Those who discredit this theory argue that it unreasonably focuses on the notion that English speaking

countries provide Standard English as a norm to evaluate the legitimacy of the English being used in recipient countries. Brutt-Griffler (2002) maintains that the spread of English in the postcolonial world cannot be merely explained by an individual level of SLA, but a linguistic phenomenon based on massive or partial language contact, or linguistic imperialism, must be considered. In particular, the validity of linguistic imperialism is limited in its scope due to its neglect of empirical evidence and only partially explains the entirety of the linguistic picture. Thus, there is still a dire need to address the spread of English in a more evenhanded and unbiased way.

To fill the gaps left by previous research regarding the spread of English, Brutt-Griffler (2002) presents a new way of understanding SLA via macroacquisition of English. This theoretical framework, she argues, is the one built upon the sociohistorical process of language leaning and the acquisition processes at the level of speech community. This theory provides an account for how English has developed into World English in terms of both sociohistorical and linguistic dimensions—it gives us an understanding of how a language spreads and changes through sociohistorical processes. Unlike the theories that surround SLA and historical linguistics, Brutt-Griffler (2002) attempts to account for a different mode of language acquisition—her research takes the perspective of societal bilingualism and the speech community as a unit to acquire a language in its own sociohistorical situation. Thus, on the one hand, the spread of English is seen as part of the development of World English. On the other hand, it is facilitated by the role of an English leaning and acquisition process within a local speech community, whereby inhabitants create their own variety of the English language. Particularly, the latter is called the "social acquisition" of language (p. 135). Canagarajah (2007) supports this idea with the argument that SLA theory must be reexamined by considering

language acquisition "as transcending the control of the individual and the scope of interpersonal relationships" (p. 930). This theory further explains how a community chooses English as an additional practical language in a postcolonial era and how this affects the sociocultural identity of the community.

What is most salient when deconstructing the macroacquisition of English is that the prevailing influence of multiple agents on the development of World English cannot be underestimated. To be more specific, "the contribution and the agency of non-native English speaking teachers" and language learners to the historical processes of language spread and change are undeniably noteworthy (Brutt-Griffler, 2002, p. 185). Traditional SLA only focuses on an individual, not on the social aspects of language acquisition, spread, and change (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Selinker, 1969, 1972). Moreover, it lacks the perspective of how the language acquisition of individual learners is connected to the social spread of language and language change in the discourse of a speech community. Another approach to the issue of the factors for English spread only addresses the social spread of language as the function of colonial authorities in a top-down process (Cooper, 1989; Haugen, 1959; Phillipson, 1992; Wiley, 1996). This last perspective emphasizes the hegemony of national language planning as well as the spread of language and culture from top to bottom, the salient characteristic of which is a unidirectional process of language spread. Brutt-Griffler (2002), however, notes that institutional authorities and planners are not the only instigators of language spread and, at the same time, speech communities are not simply "passive recipients" of those artificial processes (p. 63).

Traditionally, determining the trajectory and spread of English around the globe has focused disproportionately on the foreign policy held by Great Brittan. A more pragmatic approach considers both the authorities and users of the English language (Brutt-Griffler, 2002;

Canagarajah, 1999; Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 2006; Hatano, 2013). Brutt-Griffler (2002) puts great weight to the sociohistorical research about the factors of language spread, and concludes that the members of a speech community are recognized as active agents of the spread of English, which contributes to the development of World English as well as societal bilingualism. From a sociohistorical perspective, emphasis is given to the considerable role of non-native English speaking teachers in the spread of the English language into a local speech community. These teachers have been teaching English in local communities largely based on their creativity for English language teaching (ELT) methodology in those specific contexts, so that they contribute to the development of English. English language learners are also the major agents of the development of World English and language change in local communities. Brutt-Griffler (2002) points out that the current global context illuminates the fact that the majority of English learners acquire English "in a non-native setting—the macroacquisition context" (p. 187).

The local speech community, a major agent of language spread and change, is divided into two types: Type A and Type B. In Type A speech communities, its members do not share subjective knowledge due to the differences in their first language (L1). The result here is that English has been used as a lingua franca. The countries belonging to this group have become multilingual by developing their own variety of English. The development of World English is in large part indebted to these postcolonial countries as their choice of English as the language of communication and monocultural purposes have cemented the eminence of the language. Examples of Type A speech communities include Nigeria, South Africa, India, and Singapore (Brutt-Griffler, 2002, p. 139). On the other hand, Type B communities are defined as those that are hitherto monolingual speech communities but are in the process of becoming bilingual societies. This type of community appropriates English as an additional language to their mother

tongue with the subjective knowledge shared by its members due to the common cultural background among them. Accordingly, the effect of macroacquisition on language change and identity construction may show a consistent and unique picture in Type B, whose members share common knowledge in terms of culture, beliefs, and values in a monolingual setting. The South Korean speech community, the sample group analyzed in this study, is an example of a Type B community because its members demonstrate a shared subjective knowledge of the Korean language and a common linguistic and cultural identity.

According to macroacquisition, the spread of English inevitably involves language change in a local context. Particularly in Type B contexts, these changes include language transfer, lexical borrowing, nonce borrowings[1], and convergent loanwords—although code mixing sometimes occurs. Since language change accompanies the transfer of culture as well as linguistic properties, English interacts with the vernacular in terms of cultural meaning, negotiation in meaning, and language identity. Such a language change is demonstrated when members of the speech community express their shared subjective knowledge in both English and their native language. Moody and Matsumoto (2003) posit that English becomes mixed with the local language throughout the process of English diffusion into local language ecology. Therefore, the phenomenon of language change is worth studying within the scope of macroacquisition, as the instance of English language spread in a local speech context is prominently displayed. Such a method of research can add empirical evidence to a deeper understanding of the acquisition of English as a second language by a particular speech group.

[1] Nonce borrowing refers to temporary lexical borrowing not integrated into the lexicon of the recipient language.

Research is well underway that studies language usage and changes in Type B speech communities. Backhaus (2005) conducted a historical exploration of the Japanese language landscape by looking into the multilingualism illustrated in the streets of Tokyo. He reported that the phenomenon of multilingual signs has its roots in the Romanization of the Japanese language, and these recent signs replaced the old ones that were only in the Japanese language. Anwar's (2007) research on code-switching between Urdu and English suggests that the global dominance of English has steadily influenced the use of the Urdu language, resulting in an increasing rate of code-switching between the two languages in Pakistan. As a result, the diffusion of English in Pakistan has created a new mode of Urdu-English mixing within Pakistani English.

Based on the research of language change in other languages, the present dissertation adopts an empirical approach to the study of English language change in a Korean speech community. What distinguishes this study from previous studies is its employment of macroacquisition as a research lens through which the acquisition and change of the English language is witnessed in the South Korean speech community. For the fulfillment of empirical output, this study makes use of authentic conversation data extracted from television talk shows. This study utilizes a sociolinguistic approach to language change when analyzing how participants in the shows and the members of the Korean speech community apply an amalgam of English and Korean, as well as a subjective knowledge base, to their communication.

Definition and Classification of Language Change

Brutt-Griffler (2002) argues that language change is an inevitable phenomenon when the English language integrates into a local speech community. Language change is sometimes described as language mixing or language borrowing (Kachru, 1983; Lee, 2006, 2012; Seargeant, 2005). Language mixing as part of language change can be defined as the linguistic phenomenon of using two language forms in a single one. Many scholars recognize language mixing as a general phenomenon whereby two languages are combined in a variety of ways to achieve successful and effective communication (Kachru, 1983; Lee, 2006; Moody, 2006; Sharp, 2007). Moody (2006) suggests a classification model to explain this language-mixing phenomenon, as shown in Figure 1. In this model, the notion of "cline of nativization" (p. 212) is employed as the main variable to categorize the subsets of language mixing.[2]

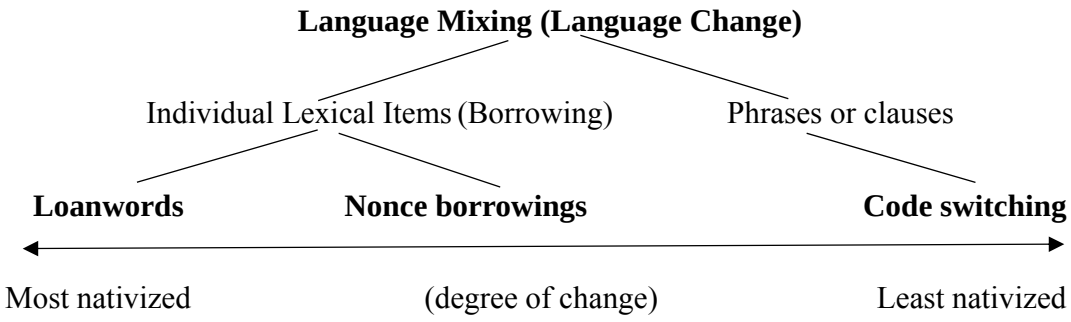

Figure 2.1 Types of language mixing. Modified from Moody (2006, p. 212)

Other scholars suggest language borrowing as an umbrella term that includes the language change phenomena, such as loanwords, borrowing, and code switching, which are differentiated according a scale of integration or convergence into a local language on grammatical, lexical, phrasal, and clausal levels (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Daulton, 2004, 2011;

[2] Cline of nativization refers to the scale in which one language integrates into another.

Kachru, 1983; Romaine, 1995; Seargeant, 2005). In Figure 2.1, the cline of nativization shows the stage in which a donor language is nativized into a recipient language.

In conceptualization of language borrowing, loanwords are distinct from nonce borrowing, which refers to a process whereby foreign words and expressions are temporarily used in a recipient language with the potential to be integrated into that language (Jaggers, 2015; Romaine, 1995; Poplack & Meechan, 1998). Loanwords are lexical items that have been fully integrated or converged into the lexicon of a recipient language. Despite controversies, one of the ways to identify loanwords is to examine whether or not certain borrowed words are contained in a dictionary of the local language (Romaine, 1995). Deuchar (2012) also argues that the most effective criterion to separate two categories is the "listedness" (p. 631) in a dictionary system of the recipient language. In other words, nonce borrowing is a type of lexical borrowing in which borrowed lexical items are not yet fully integrated and established within the lexical stock of a host language. These lexical items will either be listed in a dictionary, as a sign of convergence, or disappear from the local speech community. Thus, the main difference between nonce borrowings and loanwords is the extent to which a borrowed item in a donor language is integrated or localized within a recipient language (Poplack & Meechan, 1998).

Romaine (1995) suggests that the hierarchy of language borrowing is based on the grammatical categorization of borrowed words. The reason for using the term *item* rather than *word* or *lexeme* is that the borrowed items may range from a grammatical particle to a single word. Figure 2 is a modified version of Romaine's (1995) model of language mixing. According to this figure, when a unit of mixing is expanded into a single word, phrase, or clause, it is called lexical borrowing, intra-sentential code switching, and inter-sentential code switching,

respectively. Figure 2 offers a simple explanation of how to categorize language mixing according to a grammatical category.

Hierarchy of Language Change

Morpheme — Lexical items — Words & phrases — Clauses

blending *lexical borrowing* *Intra-sentential CS* *Inter-sentential CS*

Figure 2.2. Hierarchy of language change
Modified from "Hierarchy of borrowing" by Romaine (1995, p. 64)

A close analysis of the different kinds of language change reveals that Type B speech communities normally experience an increase in lexical borrowings rather than code switching or code mixing. This is because the mother tongue enjoys a prestigious position in competition with English. Graedler and Kvaran (2010) report that the frequency of lexical borrowings in newspapers dramatically increased over four times between 1975 and 2000 in seven Nordic European countries whose national language is not English. Their finding suggests that the English language comprised 83–92% of lexical borrowings among all of the major donor languages. Salakhyan's (2012) findings from fifteen video interviews reveal that Eastern European speakers of English primarily used code gliding, lexical transfer, and syntactic language mixing, all of which are relevant to language mixing at a lexical level. This research reports an important phase of the emergence of new forms of English as a way of creating Eastern European expressions of English, though most included in this research were limited to lexical items available in "the multilingual mental lexicon" (p. 339). Finally, Seargeant (2005) made a careful examination of the language landscape of English in Japan and found that the

most prolific language change occurred at the level of lexical and loanwords throughout the process of integration into the Japanese context.

Nonce borrowings, one of the categories defined by the degree of nativization or localization, are inherently associated with language creativity within a local context (Dako, 2002). This explains the phenomenon of language borrowing by which English is adopted within a local speech community and mingled within the local language in a specific discourse. Although it is not necessary that each linguistic item in a donor language goes through language mixing or borrowing (Kasanga, 2004), such a process contributes to the creation of new English forms by accommodating the cultural voice of the local community, which can finally lead to the nativization of English. Thus, the phenomenon of language borrowing—such as code switching, nonce borrowings, and loanwords—cannot be explained with a purely linguistic approach in a vacuum. Rather, it draws upon the framework of macroacquisition, the social acquisition of language in which a specific local speech community engages in a creative work to use a foreign language for social interactions. Macroacquisition framework addresses the connection between the social motivation of language acquisition and language change within a local speech community.

Language Change as Performativity in a Local Context

It is discussed in previous research that language change within a local context is often a reflection of a particular community's social identity. Some sociolinguistic scholars use the term *nativization* to describe the process by which a community asserts its cultural and linguistic

identity through adopting a foreign language.[3] For instance, Kachru (1983) posits that nativization of English is a linguistic process whereby a local community transforms English into local usage based on its internal norms in terms of language and culture. This hypothesis is contrary to the conventional idea that language norm was a result of the influence of an external player such as Great Brittan or the United States. Kachru (1983) goes on to argue that the emergence of a new variety of English can be a community's attempt to avoid the influence of an external language and to engage in the creation of its own local norm. The local community's performance of its cultural and linguistic identity is a main factor for their choice of English: language change is not a reflection of the erroneous use of English but the representation of local identity through intentional use of English (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Kachru, 1983).

Alim and Pennycook (2007) suggest that the moderate tension between globalization and localization of English accounts for a community's willingness to adopt the English language for the manifestation of its social identity. According to this argument, language mixing is the outcome of the global spread of English. Kasanga (2012) examines the global flow of English within a local community by analyzing language change in Congo. This study found that the status of English as a global language created language hybridization. While French remains an official language, the use of English continues to grow within the academic community and also in international communication. He discusses that the driving forces behind this change include language policy, commercials, and the rise of Congo's status as a globalized society. These findings suggest that language hybridity reflects the Congolese identity at the

[3] Nativization is also referred to as localization, indigenization, or globalization by some scholars (Alim & Pennycook, 2007; Kachru, 1983; Martin, 2007; Richard, 1979).

macro-social level: the use of the English language in Congo as a social unit for language use reflects its desire for modernity and its affiliation with globalization across the world.

A concept of *performativity* is important to understand the emergence of a new and local variety of English within a speech community. Butler (1990) suggests a performativity theory that explains how an individual identity is articulated through the performative production of language as a semiotic tool. Butler's performativity is different from Austin's (1975) *speech act* in that Butler situates his theory within postmodernism and feminism. Butler's approach connects an individual performative act with social change based on the performance of speech and the repetition of it, which produce a "reality-effect" (Butler, 1990, p. 147). Thus, individuals' performative statement does not simply reflect their pre-existing identities, but it rather contributes to the formation of a new identity in the making. The individual's current identity is not based on what is established or fixed but rather on the performance of their identity where language is an important semiotic tool for it.

Pennycook (2003) also applies the concept of performativity to a local speech community's use of English to construct its social identity. He observes that Japanese hip-hop rappers' use of English borrowings in rap lyrics reflects Japanese identity under the influence of global English. In Type B speech communities such Japan and South Korea, the use of English is "part of the indexical to signify identification with certain affiliations" (Pennycook, 2003, p. 517). Pennycook (2003) presents three important arguments concerning a community's use of the English language. First, language is not a fixed system but is an accumulation of "semiotic (re)constructions" conducted by all of the speakers of that language (p. 528). Second, people perform their identity by using language as a mediating tool. This is in contrast to an idea that language reflects a prescribed identity. Third, the seemingly erroneous use of language in diverse

types of performance, such as music, popular culture, and writing, is "part of the larger performative aspect of identity refashioning" (p. 529). By integrating diverse aspects of the English language into their native tongue, individuals contribute to the development of English, engaging in creating a new variety of the language. In doing so, they also engage in performativity in order to construct their linguistic and cultural identity.

In the South Korean speech community, the use of English the Korean language is often called *Konglish* or *Korean English*, which applies to the primary components of loanwords, nonce borrowings, and blending. Some scholars view Konglish as an incorrect use of English (Park, 2010; Yoo, 2013) while others label this usage as language mixing between English and Korean or even as a local diversity of English (Hagens, 2005; Lawrence, 2012). Ahn (2014) argues that Korean English is now emerging as one of the varieties of English based on Korean English teachers' perception and attitudes toward Korean English. Since the conversation data in the present study include some Korean English, the present study adopts Ahn's (2014) perspective to explore how Korean English is used by Korean speakers for social interactions.

The Media and Popular Culture: Agents of Language Change

Many scholars address the bidirectional roles of mass media and popular culture in language spread (Crystal, 2003; Halpe, 2007; Lee, 2004, 2014; Pennycook, 2003). The media and popular culture not only facilitate the spread of English within a local context, they also serve as a vehicle for reflection of social identity.

On the one hand, media and popular culture are agents of language spread in an increasingly globalized world. Some scholars argue that the media has played an important role in the global

spread of English (Crystal, 2003; Halpe, 2007). Crystal (2003) points out that English is the dominant language in the worldwide media including radio, newspapers, and television. Popular culture is also an agent for propagating the English language within a local context (Moody, 2009; Pennycook, 2003; Perera & Canagarajah, 2010).

Alternatively, the media and popular culture are also considered to be outlets through which social motivation for English is expressed, a localized language identity is constructed, and resistance against the spread of a foreign language into the vernacular ecology is established. This bottom-up approach to the spread of English provides a good explanation for the localization of English. Pennycook's (2003) analysis of Japanese hip-hop demonstrates that English is embedded in the Japanese language and represents Japanese linguistic and cultural identity. The result is both language and culture mixing between English and Japanese, whereby a new Japanese identity is performed and (re)created.

Hassa (2010) found that the language mixing data of 57 French hip-hop songs showed a strong youth affiliation with the American gangster image. By performing resistance, these hip-hop artists represent their identity and associate it with their socioeconomic situation. Therefore, the hip-hop culture provides a place where globalization meets with localization with a combination of language use and cultural embodiment across geographic boundaries. Lee (2010) also reports that the Korean rappers express not merely a desire for connection to the global hip-hop community but also the integration of their local voice within the social situation in Korea. This practice shows "global-local syncretism" by localizing the global use of the English language into the Korean social and cultural contexts (p. 157). The language performance in Korean hip-hop reflects the rappers' awareness of global values and beliefs as well as their desire to become part of a trend to influence the global community. On the other hand, Korean hip-hop

mixed with English reflects a stereotypical characteristic of social contexts that ordinary Korean males encounter in their life.

In their analysis of group identity in the language mixing of hip-hop, Cramer and Hallett (2010) found that linguistic expressions reflect the norms by which people belong to a particular group and gain access to that group. The way of using language is an in-group reference through which the rappers can specify their affiliation with the local community. Sarkar and Allen (2006) report that Quebec rappers use different languages mixed with French to represent their beliefs and values. Their identity construction reflects not only their individual voice but also their perception of the social context. By drawing upon various immigrant languages, Quebec hip-hop artists represent multiple or hybrid identities. In this way, the songs reflect the rappers' perception of the various social problems of each ethnic or language group (Sarker & Allen, 2006). They actively produce a new social context where each group's diverse identities are performed in a local as well as a global fashion through the use of language mixing. The study of language change with special attention to the hip-hop culture opens the possibility of considering identity construction from a social and macro level. The present study focuses on the formation of the social identity within the South Korean speech community as an overall social unit rather than merely as a collection of individual speakers.

Current research demonstrates that the media plays an important role in the spread of English within a local context. Dogancay-Aktuna and Kiziltepe (2005) argue that the mass media in Turkey advanced the use of English language in that country. They further state that age was an important factor in terms of the effect of the media on the creation of a variety of *Englishes*. Their research shows that the younger generation accepted the influence of the English language more than the older generations. Daulton (2004) also suggests that the media and popular culture

should be studied as agents that facilitate the spread of language and culture. She argues that mass media such as television or radio commercials and print media are integral to the spread of English within the Japanese context (Daulton, 2004).

Other research focuses on the impact of media on the spread of English, and commercial advertisements (i.e., commercials) in particular are considered one of the major agents of language mixing. Petery's (2011) analysis of thirty-two hours of Hungarian television commercials reveals that the use of language mixing between English and Hungarian is not an isolated linguistic phenomenon. Rather, this exchange takes place in a dynamic relationship between the media and the audience. The commercials that employ a mixture of English and Hungarian were aimed at a younger audience who were more open to bilingual language sources. Petery (2011) also states that commercials using mixed language forms appealed to the social status of the target audience. These findings indicate that social interaction in a Hungarian speech community can facilitate a particular kind of language change.

Another study on language mixing in Korean advertisements suggests that the language practices found in English-Korean mixing should be explained as an expression of modernity and identity constructions (Lee, 2006). This includes affiliation with technological advancement, gender roles, and cultural tasks. Lee (2006) further argues that this phenomenon reveals a negotiation between global and local identity in the audience's consciousness of the advertisements. The localized language mixing of Korean and English is a conduit through which Korean youth can participate in a global context. Their desire for globalization and bilingualism in a modern world is exercised primarily by using the English language. Chen (2006) conducted a linguistic analysis of Taiwanese advertisements in sixty-four magazines and found that the use of English became a norm in advertising discourse. Examples of this use of

English include some acronyms, such as SPA and VIP which mean all types of water-related therapy and an important person respectively. The use of English reflects not only sociolinguistic functions and modernity but also the Taiwanese people's desire for being fluent in English. Their perception of English use in advertising includes "internationalization, modernization, and creativity" (Chen, 2006, p. 476).

Although research about the role of the media and pop culture in the spread of English contributes to the understanding of how English is infused into each local community, some scholars argue that English mixing within hip-hop songs and commercials in media does not reflect a real-life discourse (Jung, 2001; Ishikawa & Rubrecht, 2007). According to these authors, the English language used in these two particular genres is different from what people use in conversation, as hip-hop songs and commercials reflect the voice of a particular group with their appeal to a target audience. Due to this, the question of how English mixing is used in everyday life remains unanswered until more authentic language use is explored.

To fill the gap revealed in previous studies, this present dissertation analyzes Korean talk shows as the naturally occurring data. The language-mixing phenomenon in talk shows is not well studied because the frequency of English mixing is relatively low when compared to hip-hop and commercials. However, Ishikawa and Rubrecht (2007) found that the use of English loanwords was quite frequent in a variety of genres of Japanese television including talk shows. They also suggest that those television programs may represent "natural spoken discourse" in Japanese speech community (p. 309). While hip-hop songs reflect the voice of a relatively younger generation and commercials target a specific audience, talk shows are designed to appeal to a wider audience. Lee (2014) also argues that Korean television drama shows the social attitudes toward being fluent in English. Furukawa (2014) shows that Japanese television

entertainment shows reflect the social perception of speaking English in the Japanese society. Based on sociolinguistic understanding of conversations, he discusses how those who make mistakes in articulating English become the target of mocking and laughing in a Japanese context.

Television programs both affect and reflect a community's language use. Talk shows in South Korea are where language creativity, in the form of language hybridity, is challenged against a conservative view of Korean language, also known as language purism. The producers and participants in these talk shows attempt to accommodate the audience's desire for creative and liberal language use in their lives. The Korean Communications Standards Commission, a South Korean media regulation agency, works against these efforts and attempts to filter language use, dress codes, and the way of presenting the programs by means of providing broadcasting stations with specific guidelines.

Two Agents of English Spread: Policy Makers and English Teachers

When examining the factors behind the development of English into a world language on a global scale, Brutt-Griffler (2002) points out the important role of the people in local speech communities who endeavor to learn and acquire English as a means of their expressing of "self-determination" to overcome the colonial rule (p. 170). This is unlike the previous research that primarily focuses on the crucial role of language planning and policy (LPP) carried out by governing authorities, Great Brittan, and its foreign policy. In a unidirectional approach, represented by linguistic imperialism (Phillipson, 1992), the political imposition of the dominant's language (i.e., English) renders language learners outside of the "central role in the

spread of English" (Brutt-Griffler, 2002, p. viii). Based on the political power of the West, linguistic and cultural hegemony imposed linguistic control upon people through the foreign policies in place throughout the colonial times, the result of which was the spread of the English language over the colonial countries. With a critical review on such conventional approach, Brutt-Griffler (2002) suggests that such an argument is not supported by historical data or linguistic evidence based on the authentic data. Instead, this notion only speaks for the ideological control over the passive colonies by the hegemonic power. After an exhaustive examination of the historical documents about British colonial language policy, however, she maintains that the reverse is true—common people in the colonial countries were deprived of access to English as a result of political control by the ruling classes and Great Britain.

Historically and from an empirical standpoint, Brutt-Griffler (2002) argues that non-English countries and their people must be viewed as those who have taken initiative in the acquisition of English for the purpose of economic development as well as political resistance against the colonial empire. On the contrary, the Western dominance over English learning countries does not explain the emergence of World English. According to this view, language policy and planning (LPP), which has been traditionally viewed only as a top-down process, may be understood as both a top-down and a bottom-up action. Although LPP is executed at the level of government and implemented by *planners*, we cannot over emphasize the potential power of the *planned* in the formation and implementation of LPP, especially in modern democratic societies. In a nutshell, a two-sided or bidirectional approach to LPP is suggested as an alternative stance to the prevailing unidirectional approach, which posits LPP as the product of the governing body. Hatano (2013) supports such reconceptualization of LPP, quoting Ricento's (2000) argument that postmodernism and critical perspectives in the process of policy-making

process have had a huge impact on the recent mode of LPP. The planned must be addressed as an active agency who has crucial influence the process of making language policy, which means that they are among important targets for a study on language policy and planning.

Within non-English countries, as argued by Brutt-Griffler (2002), the relationship between the government's language policy and the recipients of that policy should not be dealt with on a dichotomous basis. Even in a single country, the process of creating a language policy is two-sided, between the authorities and "other sectors" inside and others outside of the country. These sectors may include the people of the country, business, the national economy, relationships with other countries, cultural factors in a global society, and others. Hatano (2013) supports this assumption, maintaining that the government does not impose the process of a matured LPP; rather, it is an outcome of the interplay among many different factors, whether they are implemented within the country or outside of it. He concluds that the agencies that affect the language policy-making process include the government, the policy makers, businesses, English teachers, English learners, parents, the global economy, and the relationship with other countries that have a close economic and political connection with the relevant speech community.

Based on the bidirectional perspective to LPP and the formation of World English, Brutt-Griffler (2002) places great emphasis on the important role of non-native English teachers in speech communities outside of those that speak English as a native language. She points out that the vast majority of English teachers are from non-native backgrounds, and so that we cannot stress too much their role in spreading English in the postcolonial era as well as the colonial one. She uses historical data to demonstrate the emergence of World English, showing that English language teaching (ELT) has been the primary factor for the spread of language and

language change in a globe. Along with Ricento and Hornberger (1996), she states that English teachers, as the main players in ELT, do a central role in language spread and its change. Accordingly, non-native as well as native English teachers must have a great influence on building LPP when considering a bottom-up process as an indispensable part of the two-way process. In other words, English teachers are not passive knowledge transmitters of the English language who are ready to follow the governmental voice.

Taking a bidirectional approach to LPP and the spread of English as a philosophical foundation (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; O'Rourke and Castillo, 2016), this dissertation focuses on two primary agents among many in South Korea: policy makers for a top-down process and local English teachers for a bottom-up process. Both academic and business motivations have been discussed as the main factors that lead to the development of a foreign language policy, the focus of which is primarily on English as a foreign language (Cho, 2013; Choi, 2006; Hatano, 2013; Park, 2009). Cho (2013) argues that the South Korean language policy has been shaped in response to the demand for globalization, but the spread of English into South Korea has also affected those who speak English as an international language within South Korean speech community. This is also the case in the Japanese context: Hatano (2013) maintains that the Japanese voice from English teachers, students, parents, businessmen, and policy makers is crucial to determining how English has been acquired by Japanese speech community. Non-native, local English teachers, as argued by Brutt-Griffler (2002), are the primary individuals who contribute to the spread of English and also to the process of policy-making. Wiley and García (2016) also argue that teachers, parents, and students as well as stakeholders in the community may "play significant roles in creating practices that have the force of policy from the bottom up" (p. 48).

Attitudes toward English Borrowing in a Local Context

As Brutt-Griffler (2002) and Hatano (2013) argue, language change as the result of English spread into a Type B speech community revolves around English borrowing at a lexical level. Until recent years, research on people's attitudes toward language borrowing in a recipient speech community has been conducted primarily in reference to social motivation. Many sociolinguists agree that the issue of language attitudes is of great importance to the survival of a specific language, to its relation with other languages, and even to language planning and policy at a national level (Ahn, 2014; Hassall et al., 2008; Thogersen, 2004). In addition, people's attitudes toward borrowing are particularly important because words and phrases borrowed from a foreign language often do not provoke a positive response from those who are involved in language policy. The issue here is concerned with the ongoing tension between a descriptive approach to language use, which accommodates a real-life linguistic phenomenon, and a prescriptive approach, which advocates the ideal use of English. Finally, the attitudes toward borrowing have been discussed in research in terms of the usefulness of lexical borrowings in language education (Banta, 1981; Brown & Williams, 1985; Daulton, 1998; Echandy, 2011).

Japanese attitudes toward English borrowing in the Japanese language are shown to be relatively ambivalent in previous research. In addition to Uchiwa' (2007) argument about the negative association of loanwords, Olach's (2007) survey on the attitudes of Japanese university students toward English loanwords shows a negative response to the influence of English words on the Japanese language. In comparison, Dauton (2011) found that Japanese first- and second-year university students had mixed feelings about English-based loanwords. He argued that

English learners' negative attitudes are the outcome of "one-sided information" about loanwords that teachers provide them with. He concluded that such knowledge constituted a negative bias toward loanwords when combined with social atmosphere in the classroom.

There are only some research studies directly related to people's attitudes toward English borrowing in Korea. English loanwords in Korean language have long been known as *Konglish* among the Korean people. Kent (1999) suggested that loanwords adopted from English are the major portion of Konglish. Lawrence (2012), based on his study of the Korean-English linguistic landscape, argued that Konglish has a negative connotation in Korea. Mcdonald and Mcrae (2010) interviewed both foreign and Korean English teachers in South Korea and looked at their attitudes toward Konglish, which includes English loanwords, in relation to English education in South Korea. The response by the participants was negative in terms of the appropriateness of Konglish being taught in the classroom. Ahn (2014) conducted both a survey and interviews to explore South Korean English teachers' attitudes toward Korean English (KoE), which includes English loanwords within its vocabulary system. She also attempted to answer the question of whether the English teachers use KoE and how they respond to their students' use of KoE. This study found that the majority of participants had a fundamental bias against it, whereas some accepted its use as a phenomenal reality in a Korean speech community.

To date, a limited volume of research has focused on attitudes toward the use of English borrowing in the Korean language. Previous studies of English loanwords have focused on other languages including Chinese, Japanese, German, and Greek (Daulton, 2011; He & Li, 2009; Tatsioka, 2010). There is still considerable room for sociolinguistic consideration of people's attitudes toward English-based borrowing in Korean, as South Korea is one of the countries where English enjoys its own status as a dominant foreign language. In addition, little previous

research deals with such the voice of both policy makers and English teachers in a single discourse even though these two groups play a critical role in the formation of language policy and its practice in the classroom. Academic motivation is one of the most important factors for the acquisition of English in South Korea, which is reflected by the inclusion of an English section in the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT). The motivation for learning English among students begins from the demand for a high score on the CSAT (Cho, 2013; Baek, 2014). The Korea Institute of Curriculum and Evaluation (KICE), university professors, and local English teachers participate in the creation of the English section of CSAT (Jung, 2014; Kim, 2014). In the present study, I conduct a survey and interviews with two groups among them: University professors as policy makers and English teachers as those who practice the policy.

Television Talk Show: Site for Social Interactions

A television talk show is a type of television reality show (Furukawa, 2014). In a modern society, a popular television reality show has a great influence on its audience's language use as well as on social life (Pahad, Karkare, & Bhatt, 2015). Thus, television reality shows not only reflect the social reality of the community, but also have an immense effect on their audiences' conceptualization of the world.

Tolson (2001) suggested three distinguishable features of the "talk" of television talk shows: being similar to "the patterns of verbal interaction" in daily conversations; being produced in "an institutional setting;" and having a wider "overhearing audience" that is not present in the scene (pp. 27-28). In television talk shows, interactions take place based on verbal communication, which imitates everyday conversation. However, since the talk is created in an

institutional context, interviewers and interviewees are bound in a question-answer format. What is unique in these types of verbal interaction is that both of the players are conscious of the presence of an audience. Therefore, this unique setting requires interviewers to show a "general alignment" with the television audience (Tolson, 2001, p. 28). The third feature results in two important aspects of television talk shows: the reflection of social expectation, and showing collaboration among talk shows' speakers and their audience.

Television talk shows have been studied as a site of both verbal and nonverbal interactions. Thornborrow (2007) explored how narrative discourse contributes to the formation of argument in a television talk show based on a conversation analytic method. The function of narration in constructing arguments among speakers becomes the source for building up their own stance. Nabi and Hendriks (2003) investigated interactions among talk show hosts, the studio audience, and talk show guests. They found that the former two groups' reactions had a meaningful effect on the guest's ability to create a persuasive argument. In addition, whether the message recipients are congruent or not affected the talk show host's subsequent judgement on a given topic. These two studies showed that arguments in television talk shows are co-constructed not only by talk show participants, but also by their audiences.

Entertainment shows in Asian television have developed a unique way of textual communication between talk show producers and their television audiences: *telop*. Telop is created and added to the program by program producers and writers in the final stage of production in order to appeal to their target audience. Telop is often used to provide contextual explanations to improve an audience's understanding of the show and to highlight specific parts of speakers' utterances for a special effect in a scene (Furukawa, 2014). In telop, diverse colors and fonts are used in an attempt to attract a larger audience.

Figure 2.3 Telop highlights part of a speaker's utterance

Figure 2.3 shows one of telop's functions in a scene from a Korean television talk show, along with telop's characteristics. This telop is composed of a picture of a talk show guest's mother and text in three different fonts and two different colors. In this telop, *프리스타일* and *연주를 한 번* are colored red and have a larger size, which shows that the producer of this show wanted to highlight this part of his utterance to appeal to the audience. In this way, telop forms a bridge between talk show participants and the television audience.

Park (2009) described *impact captioning* as a special kind of telop that is used for a particular effect. He summarized its multiple functions in a television show: (1) creating humor, (2) representing utterance, (3) featuring nonverbal action, (4) "highlighting / clarification / summary" of speech, (5) "attribution of affect and thought", and (6) "metadiscursive commentary and evaluation" (p. 550). He pointed out that impact captioning creates "authoritative regimentations of languages and discourses" by positioning itself between the speakers' utterances and its "representation" to the audience (p. 550). Based on his empirical research on captions and subtitles in Korean television shows, he concluded that the practice of captioning and subtitling aims for "the projection of institutional authority" (p. 550). Thus,

impact captioning should be understood as "the message" given by a media institution to represent its own stance in the program (p. 567). Furukawa (2014) viewed this institutional strategy of producing telop as a "framing" of a discourse based on Goffman's (1986) *embedded frame* and Bateson's (1972) *framing* (p. 21). His analysis explained telop as being constituted with multiple frames, each one of which shows the institutional stance and footing of the media in conceptualizing each scene into a social meaning.

Analytic Framework: Conversation Analysis and Membership Categorization Analysis

The social meaning created by English in a Korean talk show conversation was analyzed using conversation analysis (CA). CA was developed in a collaborative work by Harvey Sacks, Emnuel Schegloff, and Gail Jefferson as a scientific approach to talk-in-interaction. It is based on social interactions (Goffman, 1963, 1964, 1981) and ethnomethodology (Garfinkel, 1964, 1967). Ethnomethodology provides an understanding of how the members of a society create a shared knowledge about their social actions in interactions with others. Goffman (1963, 1964, 1981) emphasized that human actions, including speaking in everyday life, should be studied as the meaning-making process. Thus, from Goffman's perspective, linguistic performance in a conversation needs to be understood as social actions in a face-to-face interaction.

Based on the work of Carfinkel and Goffman, the target of research in CA is a naturally emerging conversation primarily in a face-to-face interaction. In addition, CA takes an emic approach to social interactions in which research is conducted in a local context, focusing on specific knowledge created by members of the community. Through this approach, CA attempts in a rigorous way to discover and describe "the underlying norms and practices that make

interaction the orderly thing" (Sidnell, 2016, p. 2). This objective of CA is fulfilled by "unmotivated looking," in which a researcher finds human interactions in situ and analyzes the naturally emerging conversational data (Sacks, 1984, p. 27).

To help understand and analyze the sequence of talk-in-interaction, Ten-Have (2007) suggested four types of interactional organization: (1) turn-taking organization, in which *turns* compose a conversation, (2) sequential organization, in which turns are organized into particular patterns of sequence, (3) repair organization, which participants use to deal with problems in communication, and (4) turn design organization, in which a speaker designs his or her utterances to fit an audience. The first type—turn-taking organization—refers to how, in a conversation, turns are taken by each speaker and the conversation is built up based on *turn construction units* (TCUs), such as lexical items, phrases, clauses, and sentences. In the second type, a sequence of actions in a conversation is composed of an *adjacency pair* of only two turns: a *first pair part* (FPP) and a *second pair part* (SPP). This paired part makes the relevance of action sequences in a particular place. For example, a request for confirmation in a FPP can be responded to with a denial or an affiliation in a SPP. The third type—repair formulation—is composed of: a trouble source (a *repairable*) that presents a problem for understanding; a repair initiation, based on a repair initiation marker such as *huh?* or *what?;* and an offer of solution (a *repair*). In the fourth type—turn design organization or recipient design—the speaker always formulates an utterance with consciousness of its recipient(s). For example, turns are sometimes designed to show a preferred response or a dispreferred reaction to the speaker in a preceding turn.

Membership categorization analysis (MCA) is useful for understanding the identity construction of a speaker in a discoursal context. Since MCA is also based on Garfinkel's (1964,

1967) ethnomethodology, MCA is concerned with how the members of a conversation construct shared knowledge of people and the world. In his earlier research based on Garfinkel, Sacks (1967, 1972) argued that knowledge of people and the social world is organized based on two categories of people: the general, fixed category (e.g., man, woman) and the category specific to the speaker (e.g., teacher, student). Sacks (1972) noted that people use sets of categories that he called *membership categorization devices* (MCD). These represent categories such as position, gender, or age that are not fixed, but are situated in certain discourse. In addition, the categories contain different features, which are called *category predicates* or *category-bound activities*, and a person may belong to many different categories. For example, the activity of *cooking* is a category-bound activity of the MCD *chef*. In this way, the social interaction among people reveals the categories a person belongs to in each situation.

The Present Research

This dissertation is based on previous studies on the development of English as a world language and language change as the result, along with the attitudes of the members of a local speech community toward language change. The purpose of this study was to investigate the acquisition of English in the South Korean speech community by examining language change phenomena with respect to English in the Korean context. Specifically, this study examined how the English language is used in the South Korean speech community by analyzing language borrowings, mixings, and code-switching in South Korean television talk shows. Then, based on the discussions of language policy and planning, this study examined the implications of such language change phenomena for language education and policy in South Korea using data

gathered by means of a survey and interviews with university professors and Korean English teachers.

Research Questions

Based on previous empirical and theoretical research on the spread of English within local speech communities, this dissertation aimed to answer three research questions.

1. How does the use of English contribute to social interactions among the Korean speakers on Korean television talk shows?

2. What are the attitudes of university professors and English teachers toward the spread of English and English education in South Korea?

3. What are the voices of university professors and English teachers about the spread of English and English education in South Korea?

CHAPTER THREE

Methodology

This study employed a mixed methods research design to understand the phenomenon of macroacquisition of English in a South Korean speech community and its implications for English education and policy. Dörnyei (2007) suggested three important purposes of using mixed research methods: "expanding the understanding of a complex issue," "corroborating findings through triangulation," and "reading multiple audiences" (pp. 164-166). This study combined three different research methods—conversation analysis (CA) and membership categorization analysis (MCA), a survey, and interviews—using each one to address one of the three research questions. Figure 3.1 shows the three stages of research for this study.

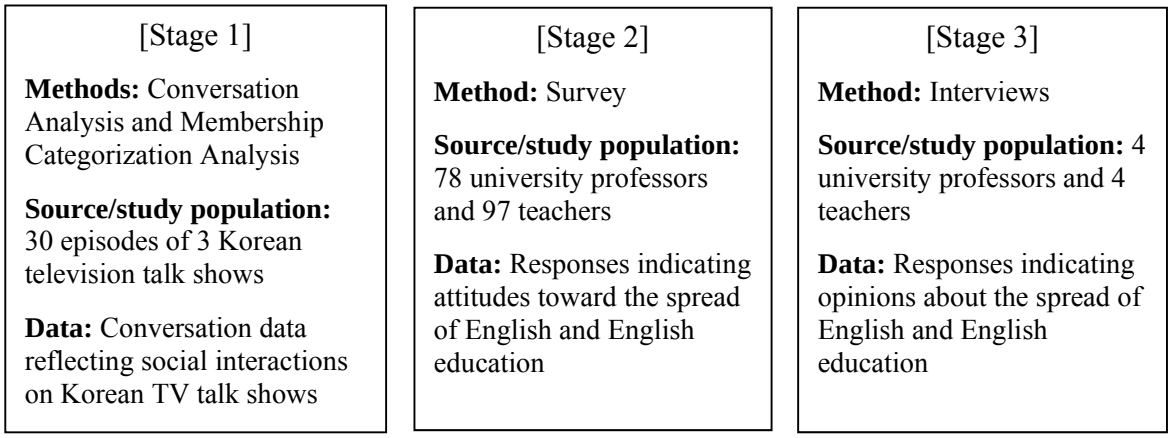

Figure 3.1 Mixed research design of the study

Stage 1: Conversation Analysis and Membership Categorization Analysis

I selected television talk shows as the source for conversational data because television is one of the most influential media affecting the daily use of language and talk shows reflect an authentic everyday conversational style (Ishikawa & Rubrecht, 2007). The three currently top-rated talk show programs in South Korea, based on the television audience measurement figures published by the AGB Nielson Media Research, were selected as data sources. These figures are useful, as they show the maximum effect of the talk shows on the audiences' language use. The analysis of the conversation data used CA and MCA methods to determine what types of social interactions took place when English was used in a Korean talk show.

Data collection. The conversation data was collected from three South Korean talk show programs which were aired between February and June, 2015, on three different networks: *Happy Together* on the Korea Broadcasting System (KBS), *Healing Camp* on the Seoul Broadcasting System (SBS), and *Radio Star* on the Munhwa Broadcasting Corporation (MBC). This study used the most recent broadcasts of these talk shows, which reflected the most current language use. One talk show was selected from each of the three major broadcasting companies–KBS, MBC, and SBS—which secured the best possible representation of broadcast media consumed in South Korea. In fact, until just recently, these three talk shows were among the top-rated entertainment programs according to AGB Nielson Media Research, an organization whose mission is to conduct television audience measurement and media research[4]. Thus, these talk

[4] According to AGB Nielson Media Research, *Happy Together* was ranked first among all the entertainment shows aired on Thursdays, *Healing Camp* was ranked second among those aired on Mondays, and *Radio Star* was ranked first among those aired on Wednesdays.

shows can be considered to have been the most influential on the general population of South Korea at the time of this study.

I purchased three talk show programs airing in 2015 directly from the website of each broadcasting company in the form of video files. I selected ten episodes from each talk show program that were aired during my research period, which resulted in thirty talk show episodes in total. The collected data was composed of 2,131 minutes of video from 30 files. While I watched these thirty episodes, I selected every conversation that included English or English-Korean mixing. These excerpts were documented in an observation log that was transcribed into Microsoft Word 2013 and became the source of raw data. The sets of useful conversation excerpts were further transcribed in detail for the conversation analysis.

The selected excerpts were transcribed drawing upon Jefferson (2004) for verbal interactions, Burch (2014) for embodied action, and Kim (2015) for grammatical information. The transcriptions are composed of four layers of script: (1) embodied actions (optional), (2) the romanized Korean script, (3) morpheme-based grammatical gloss, and (4) an English translation of the Korean script. At the end of the excerpt, the full Korean script is given for Korean readers. Each episode was tagged with a number from 1 to 10, which was followed by an excerpt number, for example, HC0903 refers to the third excerpt from the ninth episode of *Healing Camp*. An example of a complete excerpt is provided below

Excerpt 3.1 HC0903, HB: Hyeonbok, YR: Yuri, JD: Jesong

```
        hb:    +GZ at JD with freeze look
41      HB:    +yangsik-un leysiphi-lul ssu-ciman, cwungsik-un leysiphi-ka eps-e-yo.
               Western.food-TP  recipe-ACC use-but   Chinese.food-TP recipe-TP not.exist-COP-H.END
               "A recipe is used for Western food, but for Chinese food, I don't have
               a recipe."
```

41 HB: 양식은 레시피를 쓰지만, 중식은 레시피가 없어요.

As described by the label, Excerpt 3.1 was taken from Episode 9 of *Healing Camp* (out of ten episodes in total in the data set) and was the third excerpted conversation from this episode. The first line of script shows Hyeonbok's (HB) embodied action, transcribed according to Burch (2014). The second line is composed of Korean words, romanized according to Yale Romanization system. In the third line, the grammatical information about Korean morphemes is provided to help those who do not have linguistic knowledge with their understanding of the structure of a speaker's utterances. The fourth line gives an English translation of the Korean script in a bold and italicized font. Notice that in three of the lines I have highlighted an English lexical item—*leysiphi* (recipe) —for the purpose of linguistic analysis in this dissertation.

The talk show *Happy Together* was composed of five hosts who typically invited three to seven guests from diverse areas including acting, singing, comedy, and sports stars. Three of the hosts were male and two were female, with ages ranging from 31 to 48. *Healing Camp* typically had three hosts whose ages ranged from 33 to 54. The number of guests on this talk show was limited to between one and three. One of the male hosts was a comedian, the other male was a professional show host, and the female host was an actor and singer. The hosts of *Radio Star* were four males aged 26, 44, 45, and 50; two comedians and two singers. There were usually three or four guests on this talk show. The information about the show hosts is given in table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Profile of Hosts in Talk Shows

Program (network)	**Participants**				**Data**	
	Name	**Occupation**	**Age**	**Gender**	**Ranking**	**# of Episdes**
Happy	Jaeseok	Comedian	43	Male	1st (Thursday)	10 x 3 = 30
	Myeongsu	Comedian	45	Male		

Together (KBS)	Miseon	Comedian	48	Female		
	Shinyeong	Comedian	31	Female		
	Seho	Comedian	33	Male		
Healing Camp (SBS)	Yuri	Actress	33	Female	2nd (Monday)	
	Jedong	Show Host	40	Male		
	Gyeonggyu	Comedian	54	Male		
Radio Star (MBC)	Gukjin	Comedian	50	Male	1st (Wednesday)	
	Jongshin	Singer	45	Male		
	Gura	Comedian	44	Male		
	Gyuhyeon	Singer	26	Male		

Data analysis. To answer the first research question, the data was analyzed using CA and MCA. Conversation analysis is useful for discovering and describing social interactions among interlocutors via verbal and nonverbal actions.

Previous research about the social identity constructed by language mixing of English and a local language categorized the types of motivation for the use of English mixing with Korean into five different categories (Baumgardner, 2006; Chen, 2006; Garcia-Yeste, 2013; Jung, 2001; Lee, 2006, 2011, 2014).

1. Modernity (fashionable): a sense of looking modern and fashionable
2. Attention-getting: a desire to attract others' attention
3. Humor: a sense of looking humorous or a desire to make others entertained
4. Euphemizing: a desire to avoid taboo
5. Proficient in English: a desire to appear proficient in English

Although these categories result from the analysis of discoursal information and language users' perceptions of language mixing, how such language mixing is used in social interactions in everyday conversation is underexplored. In addition, since the data sets in

previous research were gathered mostly from purpose-made media, such as newspaper, television commercials, song lyrics, and television drama, data on more naturally created conversation was needed for better understanding of how the use of English emerges in verbal and nonverbal interactions in daily life. Lastly, "unmotivated looking" is required to discover the interactional clues needed to understand how individual Korean speakers engage in the creative use of English in their utterances and how they make social meaning out of the use.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, CA takes a scientific approach to discovering and describing social interaction in a natural conversation. For data analysis, I followed Ten-Have's (2007) recommendation of "a general analytic strategy" for implementing CA with real conversational data (p. 125). Based on the audio and/or visual data of naturally occurring interactions and the most detailed transcriptions of these, three stages of data analysis were used. The first step was to explore the transcript according to the four types of organization (Ten-Have, 2007): turn-taking, sequence, repair, and turn design. Through working with these four organization types, I attempted to find pairs of practice and action to discover a specific theme by involving "a turn-by-turn consideration" (Ten-Have, 2007, p. 165). Discovering a certain *formulation*—the relevance of specific actions to these four types of organization—is one of the aims in this stage. Second, upon discovering any one of the organization types, codes and observations were written down in the form of *remarks.* The final step was to attempt to make a more general observation by finding a rule of formulation in the context of the four organization types. To make the analysis more complete, two more steps were added: (1) using another data set to explore the four types of organization and matching these results with those of the previous analysis to check the validity of "the tentative summary," and (2) repeatedly revising the summary toward a generalization of the data analysis with construction of "a formulation that

covers the general findings, the variation of types, and the deviant cases" (Ten-Have, 2007, p. 165).

For MCA, I looked at each transcript multiple times to discover the category predicates or category-bound activities which constitute MCDs. I attempted to find verbal and/or nonverbal actions that referred to a speaker's orientation of constructing his or her identity based on human categories. Once I found the category predicates, I added remarks in the right column of the transcript and tried to make up a statement about MCDs relevant to those predicates. Then, I cross-checked such discoveries with the entire context of verbal and nonverbal interactions among the speakers in the data. Finally, I tried to find the speaker's identity relevant to the MCD.

I performed the primary analysis of the conversation data based on Ten-Have's (2007) five steps. This analysis was checked by two other scholars with expertise in CA, MCA, and the Korean language: an instructor and researcher who is a doctoral candidate at a comprehensive university in the United States, and a Korean-American assistant professor at a U.S. university who has published many research articles in the field of CA and MCA.

Stage 2: Quantitative Survey with University Professors and English Teachers

The second stage of this research was designed to explore the attitudes of two main conveyers of English within the South Korean speech community: university professors in English and English linguistics as a policy-making group and Korean teachers of English as a group of policy practitioners. I used a survey methodology to fulfill this purpose.

Research sites and participants. I randomly visited 32 universities around the Seoul metropolitan, Gyeonggi-do, Gangwon-do, and Chungcheongman-do areas to find professors of English. I also visited 58 high schools, middle schools, and elementary schools in the same areas to find Korean teachers of English. I approached all the English professors and teachers I met, and asked them to participate in the study. A total of 78 university professors of English and 97 English teachers participated in the survey. Respondents provided written consent for their participation. The reason these regions were selected is that almost 60% of the total population of South Korea lives in these regions, according to the Korean Ministry of Security and Public Administration.[5] I expected these regions to represent the opinions of the total population in South Korea.

Data collection. I first visited the research sites between September and December, 2015, to hand out the questionnaires. Those who received the questionnaires could make a decision on whether to respond the survey or not. Those who decided to participate in the survey were given a consent form and the survey questionnaires. They completed the questionnaires themselves and returned them to me. These were provided in two languages: English and Korean. The questionnaires were composed of twelve questions, each of which was based on a 5-point Likert scale. The questions comprised four sections based on Brutt-Griffler's (2002) and Hatano's (2013) arguments for the significant roles of policy makers and English teachers as the agents of language spread: (1) the spread of English and language change, (2) understanding of English borrowings, (3) English borrowings and English learning, and (4) English borrowings and English education policy. These four sections were useful for investigating participants'

[5] For complete information, visit http://rcps.egov.go.kr:8081/jsp/stat/ppl_stat_jf.jsp

attitudes in terms of connecting their perceptions of the spread of English with those of English education and policy. By so doing, I was able to collect the data to understand the range of their perceptions about language spread, English borrowings, English learning, and English language policy and how these perceptions were related.

Data analysis. The survey data was analyzed in three stages: (1) overall responses to the 12 statements, (2) comparison of three types of English borrowing (i.e., loanwords, nonce borrowings, and code mixing) in terms of the participants' attitudes, and (3) comparison between professors' and teachers' responses. For the first stage, I used descriptive statistics including means, standard deviations (SD), and percentages. To compare the three types of English borrowings in terms of participants' attitudes, a one-way repeated measures ANOVA test was used. In addition, the result was further examined using a paired samples t-test as a post hoc investigation of the differences among them. Finally, the professors' and teachers' responses were compared using an independent t-test.

Stage 3: Qualitative Interviews with University Professors and English Teachers

The third stage of this research explored the opinions of two primary agents of the spread of English into the South Korean speech community: university professors and Korean English teachers. I used interviews to collect qualitative information with which to answer my third research question.

Participants. I asked survey respondents to participate in an interview and four university professors and four teachers participated in the interviews. The interviews took place after the survey was done. I conducted both in-person and phone interviews with the interview

participants individually. The description of the participants focuses on their qualifications as policy-makers and/or educators to provide the background information explaining how their opinions show the sociolinguistic situation in the South Korean speech community. I assign pseudonyms for the participants throughout this study in order to keep their real identities confidential.

Four university professors were interviewed to explore the voices of language policy makers in the South Korean speech community. Dr. Hyeonsu Kang received his doctoral degree in linguistics (syntax) from a comprehensive university in the United Kingdom. Until 2016, he had taught English linguistics and English education as an associate professor at a national university of education in South Korea for twelve years. He had rich experience in publishing English textbooks for elementary school students. He had served for many years as a member of the National Curriculum Council (one of the agencies of the Korean Ministry of Education), which had the mandate to designate the direction and the principle of the curriculum and to investigate and review the school curriculum. He had also been engaged in setting up a job training plan for English teachers and led teacher training courses for the first-class teacher certificates at the national level. Finally, he participated in developing the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT), the state-administered college entrance exam, in affiliation with the Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation (KICE).

At the time of the interview, Dr. Jinho Choi was an assistant professor at one of the comprehensive universities in South Korea. He obtained his doctoral degree in linguistics from a university in the United Kingdom and, in 2016, was the chair of the English department at the university and was developing the English education curriculum for secondary schools. He was an author of multiple English textbooks and for many years had participated in developing the

institutional exams for university admissions and FLEX (Foreign Language EXamination). He had also worked as a board member at one of the nationally-recognized scholarly journals for more than three years.

Dr. Jeongsu Lee obtained his doctoral degree in semantics from a university in Seoul, Korea, and had been working as a professor for ten years at the time of the interview. He had published more than five university textbooks and participated in English test development. In 2016, he was the director of an online education program and was developing curricula for online courses.

Dr. Seonho Jang received his doctoral degree in second language acquisition and teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) from a university in the United States. He taught at one of the national universities of education in South Korea for a few years, then moved to another comprehensive university where he had been working as an associate professor of TESOL for eight years at the time of the interview. He had participated in CSAT development and developing university entrance examinations for more than ten years. In 2016, he was in charge of the development of English textbooks for university students and was also working as the director of a foreign language education program.

Four English teachers participated in interviews to investigate their opinions with regard to English spread into the Korean speech community and its application to English language policy in South Korea. Two of the teachers work at high schools, one at a middle school, and the fourth at an elementary school.

Inhwa Ko holds a bachelor's degree in English education. At the time of the interview, she had taught at a middle school for 5 years. She had engaged in developing English textbook

and teaching materials for middle school students for three years. Jaejin Park holds a bachelor's degree in English education and, in 2016, was working as an English teacher at a high school in Gyeonggi province. For twenty-five years, he had participated in writing English textbooks for high school students and in CSAT development. Eunho Jeon holds a bachelor's degree in English education and received a master's degree in TESOL from a university in the United States. He had taught English at high school for fifteen years at the time of the interview and was working at an international high school in Korea. He had written English textbooks for high school and participated in developing CSAT. He was also the writer of many English books published by the educational broadcasting station (EBS) in Korea. Eunseong Seo holds a bachelor's degree in education from a university in Seoul and received a postgraduate TESOL certificate. In 2016, she had been working as an English teacher at an elementary school in Gangwon province for four years, and had participated in curriculum and text development for elementary school students.

Table 3.2 Profile of Interview Participants

Name	Position	Education	Major	Working	Note
Hyeonsu Kang	Associate Professor	PhD	Linguistics (Syntax)	12 years	Policy-making at NCC; Curriculum developing at KICE
Jinho Choi	Assistant Professor	PhD	Linguistics (Phonology)	4 years	Textbook development Curriculum development
Jeongsu Lee	Professor	PhD	Linguistics (Syntax)	10 years	Director of online education Textbook & test development
Seonho Jang	Associate Professor	PhD	TESOL	10 years	CSAT development, Director of foreign language program
Inhwa Ko	Teacher Middle school	Bachelor	English Education	5 years	Textbook development
Jaejin Park	Teacher High school	Bachelor	English Education	25 years	Textbook development CSAT development
Eunho Jeon	Teacher High school	Bachelor Master	English Edu TESOL	15 years	International high school teacher CSAT, Textbook, English books
Eongseong Seo	Teacher Elementary	Bachelor Certificate	Education TESOL	4 years	Curriculum development Test development

Data collection. After a consent form was obtained from the participants, I administered 40- to 60-minute interview sessions with each participant. The interviews were conducted primarily in Korean in order to maximize a comfort level and to get to the depth of interview questions. The interviews were recorded and transcribed into Korean with the consent of the participant. I later translated a recording of interviews into English for subsequent analysis.

In semi-structured interviews, I used the following questions as a guideline. In those questions, *the use of English in Korean* includes English loanwords, English nonce borrowings, and code-mixing of English and Korean. Since the interview participants already participated in survey, they could know the concept of three different types of English borrowings.

1. Do you think English is the most important foreign language in Korea? Why do you think so?
2. Do you think the entire population of South Korean needs to learn English?
3. What do you think of those who use English in Korean?
4. Why do you think Koreans use English or Korean English in their conversation or writing?
5. What do you think is the advantage and disadvantage of using English in Korean?
6. Do you think the use of English in Korean has been recently increasing? Why do you think so?
7. If you say yes to question 6, does it show that Koreans' English proficiency has improved?
8. Do you use English while speaking in Korean? If so, how do you feel about yourself when using them?
9. Do you think the use of English in Korean is useful to learning and teaching English? If so, which part of learning English benefits from this?
10. What do you think of incorporating English borrowings into an English lesson plan?

11. What do you think of incorporating English borrowings into an English curriculum development?

The first two questions aim at exploring perceptions about the status of English as one of the foreign languages in South Korea. Question 3 through 5 deal with their attitudes toward those who use English borrowings in Korean. Questions 6 to 8 are to explore an association of the spread of English and the use of English borrowings. Questions 9 to 11 attempt to look into the connection of English borrowings with English teaching and curriculum development.

Data analysis. I used a qualitative method to analyze the interview data in transcripts. Specifically, I used Grounded Theory to find marked and emerging themes (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998). I repetitively read the transcribed documents to discover important themes. Such themes were considered again and again in the context of an overall issue in this study.

I started data analysis with open coding to determine emerging themes. Open coding contributes to identifying, depicting, and categorizing the themes that emerge from the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Next, I compared, related, and categorized emerging themes so that I could find the core, general themes that would be embedded within the data. Finally, I compared these themes to the original textual data again to ensure that those themes are authentic and unbiased.

The description of data was first provided with individual interview participant. Each topic they brought up in their interviews was suggested with specific piece of data to support my description. While providing the description of data, I compared each participant's opinion so that the discussion could be developed in an organized way. In the last stage of data analysis, I

attempted to discover the similarities and differences in their opinion between university professors and English teachers.

CHAPTER FOUR

The Use of English Borrowing for Communicative Purpose

Introduction

This chapter discusses how English borrowings, including loanwords, nonce borrowings, and code-mixing, are used in Korean television talk shows for communication among speakers. Drawing upon multiple excerpts of conversations and telop in talk shows, this chapter analyzes the way speakers communicate with one another by using English mixed with Korean, such as English lexical items, phrases, and sentences incorporated in Korean conversations. The purpose of the analysis is to explore how the use of English within a Korean language conversation contributes to interaction and communication among the speakers on Korean television talk shows.

As discussed in chapter two, previous sociolinguistic analysis of language mixing primarily focused on language data to explore how the social identity of a local speech community is constructed and/or projected in mass media including TV commercials, the press, and popular music (Lee, 2006; Pennycook, 2003; Moody, 2006). The results have been categorized into five groups: modernity, attention-getting, humor, euphemizing, and proficiency in English (Baumgardner, 2006; Chen, 2006; Moody, 2006; Garcia-Yeste, 2013; Jung, 2001; Lee, 2006, 2011, 2014). Although these previous studies used texts or lyrics that were created for an audience, the present study used conversation data in which the practice of language use and the construction of social identity are emergent from interactions among the interlocutors.

Another gap in the previous research lies in the methodological approach. Previous studies did not make clear how the language data had been analyzed; they simply relied on

subjective interpretations without rigorous methods. To fill this gap, this study adopts three established analytical methodologies in sociolinguistic research: sequential conversation analysis (CA), membership categorization analysis (MCA), and discourse analysis (DA) (Kasper, 2009; Schegloff, 2012; Furukawa, 2014). The examination of conversation data was used to explore how English borrowings gain social as well as linguistic meaning out of sequential interactions exchanged by participants in talk shows. Finally, in this chapter I present how I employed the speaker-centered approach (SCA) to speech styles as an analytical tool for exploring how the interlocutors built up their footing (Goffman, 1981) and negotiated alignment between them. To be more specific, footing shifts were expected to show the participants' negotiation of their own stance to set up a specific frame where signals are exchanged to attain mutual grounds for a convergent frame (Bateson, 1954; Furukawa, 2014).

Building Up 'Footing' as Membership Categorization Device for Contrast Pair

This section addresses how a speaker may use English words and phrases to construct his or her footing in a conversation. In the analysis of conversations, membership categorization devices (MCD) are looked at to examine how speakers build up their footing in interactions with one another (Jenks, 2013). As addressed in chapter two, membership categorization analysis (MCA) is useful for understanding how speakers in a conversation use a variety of interactional items—including language, gestures, facial expressions, and sounds—to make sense of themselves and the social world around them (Hester & Eglin, 1997).

The first excerpt (Excerpt 4.1) was taken from *Healing Camp*, from the episode that aired on April 27, 2015. Jedong, one of the talk show hosts, met his friend Ajoong, a famous

actress in Korea, at a coffee shop. Jedong opened a conversation about Ajoong's previous visit to his house.

Excerpt 4.1 HC0601, JD: Jedong, AJ: Ajoong

```
   jd: +GZ down
01 JD: +kuntey, ne-n cengmal amwu-sayngkak epsi (.)laymen-ul .hh mek-ko
       By the way, you-SB really any-thought without  raymen-ACC   eat-CONJ

   jd:                                  +GZ up, eye brows up
02      nemwu phyenan↑ha-key(.) cip-ey, +ka-tula.
        Too    comfortable-AD   home-at  go-FH.EV
       "By the way, you really ate raymen (Korean noodle) without any thought
       and then went back home comfortably."

03 AJ: hhh[h
       "Ha ha ha"

04 JD:     [ani:: sewun-hayss-ta-nun ken, ani-kwu [(.)
             No disappointed-PST-DC-RL NOM-TP no-CONJ
            "No, I am not saying I was disappointed."

05 AJ:                                            [.h:

   jd:  +head shakes, eyes open, eye brows up
06 JD: + cokum-uy selleyim-ina(.)  kulen-ke eps-ti?
        a little-RL heart-fluttering-or something like-that not.exist-Q
       "Didn't you feel something like hart-fluttering at all?"

   aj:   +GZ>up
07 AJ:  +(1.7)
```

aj: +*GZ at J, RH on her chin*

08 + selley-ss-eyo↑: (.) oppa.

Heart-fluttering-PST-DEC AT

"My heart fluttered, oppa."

jd: +*slight nods with freeze look*

09 DJ: +(.) mwe-ka?

What-NOM

"About what?"

aj: +*GZ>down*

10 AJ: +(2.5) mhm::↓

aj: +*blinking twice*

11 +(1.8)

aj: +*RH forward, GZ at JD* +*RH towards her R shoulder, GZ up*

12 → + etten ku::↓(.) **seyksyuel** +han (.)

Something that **sexual**-RL

aj: +*GZ at JD* +*RH forward*

13 +ku selleyimi ani-la:↓ (.) +kunyang nachsen ke-eyse £o-nun£ (hh)

That heart-fluttering not-CONJ just unfamiliar something-from come-RL

jd: +*GZ away*

14 JD: +hhh

15 AJ: ha::(.) selleyim kathun ke-ka(.) iss-ul swu iss-ci::↓ hhh

Heart-fluttering like thing-NOM exist-COND exist-DEC

"It might have been hart-fluttering not from something sexual but just from something unfamiliar."

Figure 4.1 Interaction between Jedong and Ajoong (Line 15 and 16)

jd: +GZ away

16 JD: +ala (hh) £ya, swul eps-nya(.) swul?£

Know hey a.drink not.exist-Q a.drink

"I know. Hey, don't you have a drink, a drink?"

01 JD: 근데 넌 정말 아무생각 없이(.) **라면**을h 먹고 너무 편안하게(.) 집에,

02 가드라.

03 AJ: hhh[h

04 JD: [아니:: 서운했다는건 아니구 [(.)

05 AJ: [.h:

06 JD: 조금의 **설레임**이나 그런거 없디?

07 AJ: (1.7)

08 **설렜어요**↑: (.) 오빠.

09 DJ: (.) 뭐가?

10 AJ: (2.5) 음::↓

11 (1.8)

12 어떤 그::↓(.)**섹슈얼**한 (.)

13 그 설레임이 아니라:↓ (.) 그냥 **낯선 거**에서 £오는£ (hh)

14 JD: hhh

15 AJ: 하::(.) 설레임 같은 거가 있을 수 있지::↓ hhh

16 JD: (.)알↑아↓::: 야, £술 없냐?£ .hhh

Many interactional clues in this conversation showed how two speakers may build up their footings in an exchange. As seen in lines 1 and 2, Jedong prefaced his talk by reminding Ajoong of her previous visit to his house: *lamyenul mekko* (eat *ramyeon*). After Ajoong's laughter, that signaled her problem with giving an explicit answer, Jedong expanded his remark (line 4) by expliciatly stating what he guessed Ajoong would say: *sewunhayssta* (was disappointed). In line 5, Jedong provided self-repair by replacing *sewunhayssta* with *selleyim* (heart-fluttering) to express his complaint that nothing special happened between them beyond a simple event of eating ramyeon, as shown in the phrases *sayngkak epsi* (without any thought) and *phyenhakey* (comfortably). Note that Jedong brought up two possible and contrasting reactions to eating ramyeon: *phyenhakey* (comfortably) and *selleyim* (heart-fluttering). By doing so, he criticized Ajoong's act of *phyenhakey cipey katula* (comfortably came back home) as *amwusayngkak epsi* (without any thought) while at the same time he showing his stance on his preferred answer, *selleyim* (heart-fluttering), by using a quantitative adjective: *cokumuy* (at all). In sum, Jedong suggested that the social implications of eating ramyeon may be different (and produce two contrasting emotions) for a man and a woman: *phyenhakey* (comfortably) and *selleyim* (heart-fluttering). He also expressed his expectation that Ajoong would choose *selleyim* instead of *phyenhakey*, which revealed his own stance and footing.

In response to Jedong's expectation, Ajoong gave her second pair part (SPP) after a long pause, which meant that she was thinking. She affiliated with Jedong's question by saying *selleysseyo oppa* (I was heart-fluttered). Note that she used a nominal noun, *oppa*, which refers to 'older brother of woman' within a family or to 'older male of woman,' and is used to address a close man, a boyfriend, or husband. By using a Korean lexical item, *oppa*, she expressed her alignment with Jedong's expectations and attempted to reach a possible

completion. Then, Jedong expanded his FPP and elaborated further on the previous topic, *selleyim* (heart-fluttering), by saying *mweka?* (About what?). Jedong's facial expression in line 9—*freeze look*—displays his persistence on *selleyim*. After the teasing and thinking represented by substantial pauses and sound stretches (*mhm* in lines 10 and 11), Ajoong elaborated on the topic suggested by Jedong while specifying what she meant by *selleyim* in line 8 by invoking a *contrast pair* (Bilmes, 2009, 2011): *seyksyuel* (sexual) in line 12 and *nachsen ke* (something unfamiliar) in line 13. Such further categorization of possible meanings of *selleyim* became the foundation on which she chose one of them in lines 12 through 15: *nachsen ke*. She formulated this in a teasing way with her laughter and smile in lines 13 and 15: her laughter and gazing away suggested her unserious treatment of Jedong's question. Finally, Jedong accepted Ajoong's rejection of his suggestion by saying *ala* (I know) with laughter in line 16 (see Figure 4.1 for a visual representation).

Jedong and Ajoong used different frames to build up their own stances in this conversation. In lines 1, 2, and 4 through 6, Jedong claimed that eating lamyeon produced a contrast pair of emotions: *phyenhakey* (comfortably) and *selleyim* (heart-fluttering). Although *phyenhakey* may refer to emotion between friends, *selleyim* may indicate emotion between a couple in this local context. On the other hand, Ajoong further categorized *selleyim* ('heart-fluttering') into two different categories of emotion: *seyksyuel* (sexual), an emotion occurring between members of a couple, and *nachsen ke* (something unfamiliar), an emotion occurring between friends (lines 12 and 13). By doing so, Ajoong finally rejected Jedong's request for her to feel attracted to him. In this way, Jedong and Ajoong construct their own stances as a potential

boyfriend and a platonic friend, respectively (see Figure 4.2).

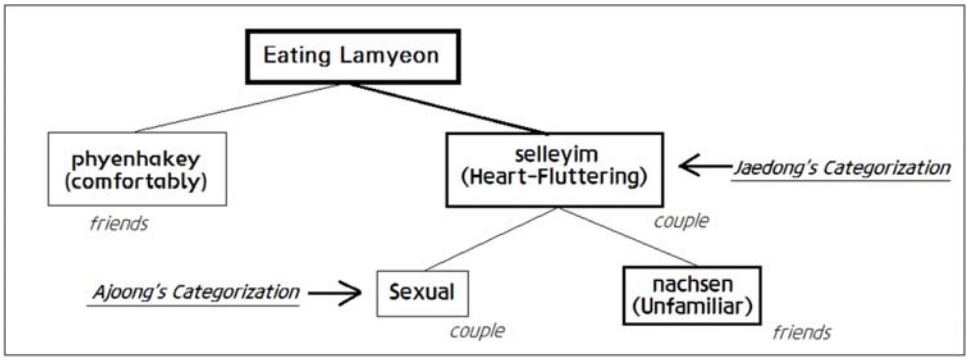

Figure 4.2 Jedong's and Ajoong's Categorization of the terms in conversation

In this dynamic interaction between the two speakers, English nonce borrowing—*seyksyuel* (sexual)—contributed to the creation of the categories of membership for both of them. Here, *selleyim* is an MCD that may operate between two individuals as a potential couple, as claimed by Jedong. Ajoong further divided this category into two contrasting sub-categories in this local context—a couple, friends—by using two words: an English word, *seyksyuel* (sexual), and a Korean word, *nachsen* (unfamiliar). The former refers to emotional intimacy in a couple, whereas the latter indicates emotional distance that may evoke curiosity or interest in that which is unfamiliar. Thus, it can be argued that an English word was used as a category predicate to construct and project Ajoong's gender identity as an MCD in her native language discourse.

In terms of social implications of using the English word *seyksyuel* (sexual) in line 12, it contributed to Ajoong's achievement of 'emotional detachment' in the relationship with Jedong by rejecting his footing as a potential romantic partner and adopting her own footing as a platonic friend. Note that her stylistic choice of English nonce borrowing, *sexual*, played an important role in creating a euphemism for its Korean counterpart, *sengcekin* (sexual). Previous research argued that one of the important roles played by the use of a foreign word in a local

language (namely nonce borrowing) is euphemism, a means by which a native word that may directly offer a negative connotation to the locals can be dodged and substituted with a foreign word which provides "a mask of innocuity to certain sectors" (Rebuck, 2002, p. 61). By adopting an English word for her euphemism, she turned a serious and tense ambience into a hilarious discourse in which Jedong could cancel his initial frame without losing face. Ajoong's use of an English word as a euphemism was formulated in a teasing and humorous way, with her laughter and gazing away in lines 13 to 15. In response to this formulation, Jedong displayed affiliation with her allusion by saying *ala* (I know) with a quiet smile in line 16.

Excerpt 4.2 shows another example of adopting an English word to construct a contrast pair. Big Bang, a South Korean boy band formed by YG Entertainment (one of the leading entertainment companies) talked with two hosts of *Happy Together*, Jaeseok and Myeongsu, about their recording of new songs for an album release. Taeyang, one of the five members of Big Bang, talked about how they had worked on a new album for themselves. Jaeseok started his turn in the conversation with his evaluation of the relationship between Mr. Yang, CEO of YG Entertainment, and Big Bang.

Excerpt 4.2 HT0801, SR: Seungri, JS: Jaeseok, MS: Myeongsu, TY: Taeyang, TL: Telop

```
01      SR:     yosay-n↑ nwunchi-lul manhi(.)po-si-nun ke [katha-yo.
                nowadays-TP sense-ACC  much    see-H-RL thing be.like-H.END
                "Nowadays, it seems that he walks on eggshells around us."

        js:                                                +eyebrows up
02      JS:                                                +[e cincca?
                                                            EXC  really
                                                           "Uh, really?"
```

03 MS: [yang sacang-nim-i?

NAME CEO-H-SB

"Mr. Yang does?"

04 SR: → kuntey, i-pen aylpem-ey-nun(.)**thechi**-lul, an-ha-si-telakwu-yo.

by.the.way this-time **album**-at-TP **touch**-ACC NEG-DO-H-FH.EV-H.END

"By the way, he did not touch our album this time."

05 JS: [way-yo?

ms: +*BH forward*

06 MS: +[kulay-[yo?

be.such-H.END

"Really?"

sr: +*BH forward*

07 SR: [ney: i-pen-ey-n com, +ni-ney:-ka, hay [pwa-la:

yes this-time-at-TP some you-group-SB do try-IM

"Yes. Try doing it for yourselves this time…"

08 JS: [alase hay-la¿=

for.yourself do.IM

"Do it for yourselves."

09 SR: = ala:se hay↑-pwa-la: com, kule-n kes-to iss-ko:

for.oneself do-try-IM some be.such-RL thing-and exist-and

"Do it for yourselves. Well, things like that and…"

ms +*LH forward* +*GZ at other people*

10 MS: + kulem(.) ipen-ey cengmal, +ta alase han ke-yey-yo?

then this.time really all for.oneself do thing-COP-H.END

"Then, did you really do all for yourselves this time?"

ty +*body forward*

11 TY: +(.) umak kath-un kyengwu-nun, ce-huy-ka iltan(.)

music be.like-RL case-TP I-group-SB once

12 ta-kathi moy-ese, cakep-ul ha-nikkan-yo,=

all-together gather-PRE work-ACC do-CAUSAL-H.END

"In terms of music, we did it…because we do the work together."

13 MS: = ke-pwa. son an-tay-nikka, cal nao-canha::

thing-see hand NEG-touch-CAUSL well come-NED

"That's what I was supposed to say. You've got a good result because (he) didn't touch."

ty +*head nods, smiles*

14 TY: +(.) kule-n ke katha-yo

be.such-RL thing be.like-H.END

"It seems to be so."

js: +*claps*

15 JS: +[hhh

16 MS: [hhh

ty: +*body forward*

17 TY: + a, kuntay tto(.) poi-ci anh-key ilehkey(.) ta

EXC but also see-AD NEG-RESUL this.way all

18 → **khonthulol**-ul hay cwu-si-↑cyo.

control-ACC do give-H-H.END

"Ah, but he also controls all (things) this way invisibly."

js: +*eye brows up*

19 JS: + kunkka icey, poi-ci anh-ass-um coh-keyss-ta,

so now see-AD NEG-ANT-COND like-DCT.RE-DEC

20 kule-n↑ iyaki-cyo?

be.such-RL story-H.END

"So, you mean you don't want him to show up now, don't you?"

Figure 4.3 Taeyang's laughter over Myeongsu's teasing (Lines 19-21)

21 TY: e: ku-[key::

that-thing

"Uh…that's…"

22 MS: [kkol-poki silh-ta, i-ke an-i-eyyo↑ cikum.

figure-see dislike-DEC this-thing NEG-COP-H.END now

"Now you mean you don't like to see him…"

ty *+head down and up, smiles*

23 TY: +.hhh

01 SR: 요샌↑ 눈치를 많이(.)보시는 거 [같아요.

02 JS: [어 진짜?

03 MS: [양 사장님이?

04 SR: 근데, 이번 앨범에는(.)**터치**를, 안하시더라구요.

05 JS: [왜요?

06 MS: [그래[요?

07 SR: [네: 이번엔 좀, 니네:가, 해 [봐라:

08 JS: [알아서 해라¿=

09 SR: =알아:서 해↑ 봐라: 좀, 그런 것도 있고:

10 MS: 그럼(.) 이번에 정말, 다 알아서 한거예요?

11 TY: (.) 음악 같은 경우는, 저희가 일단(.)

12 다같이 모여서, 작업을 하니깐요,=

13 MS: =거봐. 손 안대니까, 잘 나오잖아::

14 TY: (.)그런 거 같아요

15 JS: [하하하

16 MS: [하하하

17 TY: 아, 근대 또(.) 보이지 않게 이렇게(.) 다

18 **콘트롤**을 해 주시↑죠.

19 JS: 근까 이제, 보이지 않았음 좋겠다,

20 그런↑ 이야기죠?

21 TY: 어: 그[게::

22 MS: [꼴보기 싫다, 이거 아니에요↑ 지금.

23 TY: .hhh

In line 1, Seungri explained Big Bang's recent relationship with Mr. Yang by saying that Mr. Yang seemed to walk on eggshells around them. Jaeseok (in line 2) and Myeongsu (in line 3) responded with *newsmarks* (Jefferson, 1981): *e cincca?* (Oh, really?) and *yang sacang-nim-i?* (Mr. Yang does?), respectively. In line 4, Seungri persisted with the idea expressed in his utterance in line 1 by equating *nwunchi-lul po-si-nun* (walks on eggshells) with *thechi-lul an-ha* (not touch). Seungri here used English nonce borrowing—*thechi* (touch)—to elaborate on the preceding topic. Note that Seungri limited *touch-lul an* (not touch) to *ipen* (this time) by using a topical marker—*nun*—which made Seungri's remark hearable as being applicable only to that specific album. Following Jaeseok's seeking more information and Myeongsu's continuer in lines 5 and 6, Seungri expanded the topic further through reported speech in line 7. Notice that

Seungri changed to using *ni-ney:-ka, hay pwa-la* (Try doing it by yourselves) instead of *touch-lul an-ha* (not touch) to persist with the topic. In line 8, Jaeseok co-completed Seungri's utterance by using *alase* (for yourself) to seek confirmation, and Seungri then aligned with Jaeseok through reformulation of his statement along with some mitigators (line 9). In line 10, Myeongsu sought further confirmation of this idea, asking: *ipen-ey cengmal, ta alase han ke-yey-yo?* (Did you really do it all for yourselves this time?). In this statement, *cengmal* (really) and *ta* (all) were used for extreme case formulation (Pomerantz, 1986) with emphasis on them. It is also important to note that Myeongsu's gaze direction showed that this question sequence was designed not only for Seungri, but also for all the other members of Big Bang. Taeyang responded to Myeongsu by selecting himself as the next speaker in line 11 to explain what Seungri meant by *alase hay-paw-la* (Try doing it for yourselves).

In the next sequence, Jaeseok and Myeongsu cooperated closely to formulate humor in a teasing way and Taeyang used English nonce borrowing to formulate an excuse. In lines 11 and 12, Taeyang, one of the legitimate recipients of the question by Myeongsu, as well as one of the focal guests of the show, took the question and answered it in a positive way. He elaborated on Seungri's utterance, but limited *alase* (for oneself) to *umak* (music) with lexical choices such as *kyengwu-nun* (in case of) and *iltan* (once). In response to Seungri's elaboration, Myeongsu showed the institutionality of the comedy show by highlighting *thechi-lul an-ha* (not touch) as *son an-tay* (not touch) trying to create humor with his punchline (line 13). Here, an English word—*thechi* (touch) —has a similar connotation to a Korean lexical item—*son*—and an adverbial item, *an*, identified these two words with *alase* (for oneself).

Taeyang accepted Myeongsu's utterance by nodding his head and smiling in line 14, which became the source of laughter to Jaeseok and Myeongsu in lines 15 and 16 because

Myeongsu's punchline had been successful. It is noteworthy how the adjacency pair between Myeongsu's turn and that of Taeyang produced humor in lines 12 to 14. By persisting with the elaboration of the previous topic about *son, an-tay-nikka* (because he did not touch), Myeongsu was ridiculing and teasing Taeyang about of Big Bang's relationship with their boss, Mr. Yang, based on his punchline (Myeongsu).

After affiliating with Myeongsu's joking stance to collaborate with him to create the shared laughter in lines 15 and 16, Taeyang engaged in downscaling Myeongsu's assessment that Taeyang could be held to in lines 17 and 18. His preceding utterance—*kulen ke, katha-yo* (It seems to be so)—in line 14 was downscaled to defend himself against Myeongsu's punchline (Blimes, 2011). Then, Taeyang classified the way to work on a new album into two categories with a contrast pair: *alase* (for oneself) in line 9, and *khonthulol* (control) in line 18. Note that an English nonce borrowing—*khonthulol* (control)—was used for downscaling and can be heard as an excuse. The lexical item *control* has the same connotation as *touch* in line 4. While Myeongsu ascribed Big Bang's success with their new album to *thechi-lul an* (not touch) or *alase* (for oneself), Taeyang explained that it was due to a combination of *alase* in working on the music (line 9) and overall *khonthulol* of the project (line 18) (see Figure 4.4).

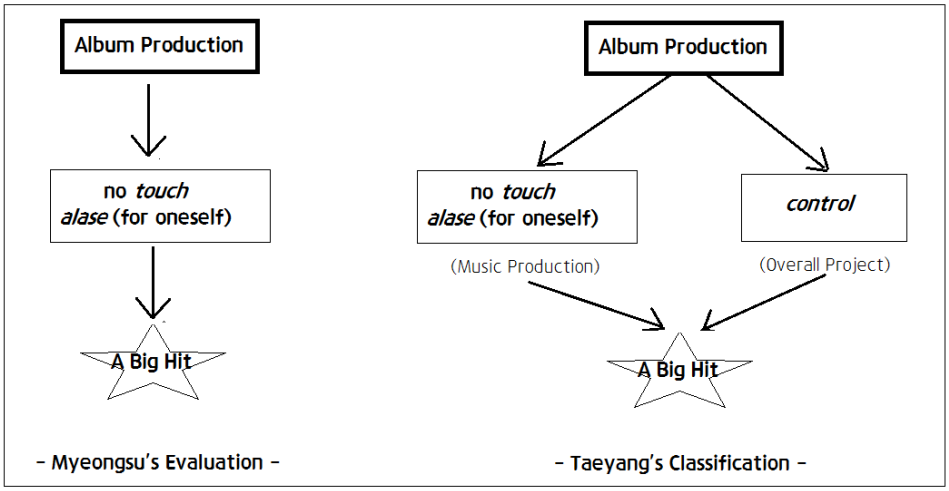

Figure 4.4 Comparison between Myeongsu's evaluation and Taeyang's classification

However, in line 19, Jaeseok initiated another punchline and teasing, formulated as a question sequence to check his confirmation. He highlighted part of Taeyang's utterance—*poici an-hkey* (invisibly)—in line 17 to formulate his punchline—*poi-ci anh-ass-um coh-keyss-ta* (you don't want him to show up). Jaeseok used a particular phrase, *kulen, iyaki-cyo?* (you mean...?) for a confirmation check; in this way Jaeseok formulated his teasing and mocking. When Taeyang displayed trouble with answering Jaeseok's question (line 21), Myeongsu (line 22) then cooperated with Jaeseok as a team member, teasing Taeyang to create humor based on his upgrade (Bilmes, 2011). Then, Taeyang delayed his response by treating it as being laughable, which can also be heard as neutralizing the problematic features of Myeongsu's punchline (See Figure 4.3, see Shaw, Hepburn, and Potter, 2013).

It is important to note that Taeyang adopted an English nonce borrowing—*khonthulol* (control)—to give an excuse based on downscaling in his utterance. By adopting a contrast pair, *alase* (for oneself) and *control*, Taeyang claimed that Mr. Yang invisibly intervened in their overall album production, but that he allowed Big Bang to work on their music by themselves. In

so doing, he displayed his footing as an *artist* who works on his own album *alase* (for oneself) and at the same time, he constructed another stance as a member of Big Bang, which belongs to YG Entertainment and therefore is under the control of his boss, Mr. Yang, whose status is locally constructed as a *controller* of Big Bang. Here the English nonce borrowing, *khonthulol* (control), was a category predicate that identified Big Bang members as artists who had a dual footing—*alase* (for oneself) and *khonthulol* (control) (Jenks, 2013). In this way, an *artist* footing was used by Taeyang to respond to Myeongsu's punchline.

Orientation of Identity with English Lexical Items as Category Predicates

English lexical items are often used as *category predicates* to show speakers' identities during interactions with others. This section will elaborate on this issue by focusing on interactants' lexical choices for orienting their status in a conversation.

In Excerpt 4.3, Hyeonseok and other show hosts were watching a video about Hyeonseok's work as a chef in his kitchen. He explained to the hosts how he was on his duty in the video.

Excerpt 4.3 HC0901

JD: Jedong, HS: Hyeonseok, YR: Yuri, VD: Video, TL: Telop, AD: Audience

```
01 VD: ((HS gives orders to other chefs))
02 YR: yoli-lul, an-ha-siney-yo kuntey?(.) cansoli-man [ha-siko¿
       cook-ACC   NEG-do-H-H.END by.the.way  nag-only   do-H.Q
       "You don't cook, by the way? You are only nagging."

  hs:                                                  +BH forward
```

03 HS: +[a, kule-nikka(.)
ah, be.such-CAUSAL

04 cenun(.) kawuntey-se, cenchey, yoliha-nun chef-tul, cihwi↑hanun ke-cyo.
I-TP center-at overall cook-RL chef-PL direct do thing-H.END
"Ah, I mean, at the center, I give overall orders to other chefs who cook."

05 VD: ((HS gives an order to other chefs))

((Lines 06-09 omitted))

10 YR:→ **teykho** -man ha-se-yyo¿ **teykho**-[man:::
decoration-only do-H-H.END decoration-only
"You are doing only decoration, only decoration."

11 TL: tetkho-man ha-se-yyo, teykho-man.
"You are doing only decoration, only decoration."

Figure 4.5 Yuri and Hyeonseok (Lines 10-13)

hs: +*RH forward*
12 HS: +[kule-nikka,
be.such-CAUSAL,

13 → yoliha-nun ke cenchey, macimak **phulleyithing**(.) kuke-l ha-nun ke-cyo.
cook-RL thing overall last **plating** that-ACC do-RL thing-H.END
"I mean, I do plating as the last part of the whole cooking. That's what I do."

14 TL: **phulleyithing**, umsik-ul massulep-key tamanay-nun kes-to cwungyo.
plating dish-ACC delicious-AD put-RL thing-also important
"Plating, it is also important to put a dish on a plate deliciously."

15 VD: ((HS points out another chef's mistake in cooking))

16 JD: cikum-kkaci nao-n ke-n, (.) ce-to hal swu iss-ul kes [kathun-tey-yo?
now-until come-RL thing-TP I-also do can COP-RL NOM like-CIRC-H.END
"It looks that I can also do the things (you have done) until now?"

17 YR: [ha[haha

18 HS: [hhhh

hs: +*LH forward, GZ at JD and YR* +*LH forward*

19 → + kuntey, ce motun **meynyu**-nun ceyka ta **seysthing**-ha-ko(.) +hay noh-umyen
but, that all **menu**-TP I-H all **setting**-do-and do put-COND

20 i [chinkwu-tu-li:::
this people-PL-SB
"But, I set up all that menu, and then these people…"

Figure 4.6 Jedong and Hyeonseok (Lines 19-21)

jd: +*LH at HS, smiles*

21 JS: +[al-ass-unikka, itta yayki-hay-yo.
know-ANT-CAUSAL later talk-do-H.END
"I see, so let's talk about it later."

22 HS: .hhhh

23 VD: ((Hyeonseok decorates the dish with parsley))

Figure 4.7 Hyeonseok explaining his role as a chief chef

+BH forward

24 HS: + kuntey, cwupang-eyse naka-n ke-n, motwu ta cey-ka ccan-ke-yey-yo.
by.the.way kitchen-at come-IF thing-TP all I-SB make-ting-COP-H.END

25 → (.)cey-ka **leysiphi** cca-se siyen-hamyen, talun yolisa-tul-i cayhyen-ha-ko::
I-SB **recipe** make-PRE demonstration-if other chef-PL-SB reproduce-do-and

26 → (0.6) kungkka, macimak-eyn cey-ka **phulleyithing**-ulo(.)
so last-IF I-SB **plating**-with

27 yoli-lul wanseng-sikhi-nun ke-yey-yo::
cooking-ACC complete-CAUS-RL thing-COP-H.END
"By the way, it is I who make all things coming out of my kitchen.

28 TL: macimak masuy wansenguy choy syeyphuuy soney!!
"Completion of the last taste is on chef Choi's hands"

jd: +*GZ at HS with his mouth wide open*

29 JD: + aha:: yong-uy nwun-ul, kulye neh-nun ke-ney-yo:: [ku↑cyo↓
EXC dragon-RL eyes-ACC draw put-RL thing-COP-H.END right-H.END
"Aha, you draw eyes of a dragon, aren't you?"

30 TL: hwa-lyong-cem-ceng
"The Finishing Touch"

31 HS: [ney, macsupnita.
Yes right

32 kulayya, yong kulim-eyse nawa-se, sungchen-hal swu iss-ketun-yo. hh
that.way dragon drawing-from come-PRE ascension-do can COP-DEC-H.END
"Yes, I do. That way, a dragon comes out of the drawing and can ascend."

33 JD: [hahaha

34 AD: [hahaha

01 VD: ((HS gives orders to other chefs))

02 YR: 요리를 안하시네요 근데?(.) 잔소리만 [하시고¿

03 HS: [아, 그러니까(.)

04 저는(.) 가운데서, 전체, 요리하는 쉐프들, 지휘↑하는 거죠.

05 VD: ((HS gives orders to other chefs))

((Lines 06-09 omitted))

10 YR: **데코**만 하세요¿ **데코**[만:::

11 TL: **데코**만 하세요, **데코**만.

12 HS: [그러니까,

13 HS: 요리하는 거 전체, 마지막 **플레이팅**(.) 그걸 하는 거죠.

14 TL: **플레이팅**, 음식을 맛스럽게 담아내는 것도 중요.

15 VD: ((HS points out another chef's mistake in cooking))

16 JD: 지금까지 나온 건, 저도 할 수 있을 것 [같은데요?

17 YR: [ha[haha

18 HS: [hhhh

19 근데, 저 모든 **메뉴**는 제가 다 **세팅**하고,(.) 해 놓으면

20 이 [친구들이:::
21 JS: [알았으니까, 이따 얘기해요.
22 HS: .hhhh
23 VD: ((Hyeonseok decorates the dish with parsley))
24 HS: 근데, 주방에서 나간 건, 모두 다 제가 짠거예요.
25 (.)제가 **레시피** 짜서 시연하면, 다른 요리사들이 재현하고::
26 (0.6) 그러니까, 마지막엔 제가 **플레이팅**으로(.)
27 요리를 완성시키는 거거든요::
28 JD: 아하:: 용의 눈을, 그려 넣는 거네요:: [그↑죠↓
29 TL: 화룡점정
30 HS: [네, 맞습니다.
31 그래야 용 그림에서 나와서 승천할 수 있거든요. hhh
32 JD: [hahaha
33 AD: [hahaha

In the excerpt, Hyeonseok explained his status in his kitchen to the hosts. In response to Yuri's assessment of Hyeonseok's behavior in a video where he did not cook, but was only nagging his staff (line 2), Hyeonsok claimed that his duty was to give orders to other cooks (lines 3-4). In line 10, Yuri evaluated Hyeonsok's work as *teykho-man ha-se-yyo* (doing decoration only) in a dispreferred way. Notice that Yuri had a freeze look at this point, which meant that she was now serious about her assessment (see Figure 4.5). Here, a clipped English word *teykho*, the original form of which is *decoration* in English, described Hyeonseok's behavior as a chef in his kitchen. Yuri's assessment was followed by Hyeonseok's account of his duties in which he does *phulleyithing* (plating) as the last step of the whole cooking process (lines 12-13). Hyeonseok portrayed himself, by putting the dish on a plate—*phulleyithing* (plating)—not as someone who is engaged in regular cooking, but as the chief chef who is responsible for the entire process of cooking.

In response to Jedong's mocking evaluation of Hyeonseok's behavior as being laughable (lines 16-18), Hyeonseok attempted to give a more detailed explanation. In lines 19 and 20, Hyeonseok solicited a better understanding from both Jedong and Yuri by claiming that he does everything to create the menu, which was followed by Jedong's cut-off in line 21. Figure 4.6 describes how Jedong stopped Hyeonseok with his left hand while Hyeonseok was attempting to describe his duties. After watching the video clip, Hyeonseok kept explaining that he was in charge of everything in his kitchen and that his primary role was to complete the cooking process with *phulleyithing* (plating) (lines 24-27). Figure 4.7 shows that Hyeonseok used his hands to explain his role as head chef and that Jedong responded with his freeze gaze at Hyeonseok. In line 29, Jedong co-completed Hyeonseok's utterance by describing Hyeonseok's behavior as conducting the final task by "drawing the eyes of a dragon" and then Hyeonseok aligned with Jedong using reformulation and expansion in line 32.

Hyeonseok used English words to demonstrate his position as the person responsible for overall procedures as the head chef, such as developing recipes, giving demonstrations, creating the menu, providing decoration on the dishes, and finally, plating the finished meals. In terms of identity construction, the mixing of English and Korean words, such as *chef-tul, cihwi hanun* (direct other chefs)*, teykho* (decoration), *macimak phuleyithing* (last plating), *ta seysthing-ha-ko* (set up all), *cey-ka leysiphi-lul cca-se* (I make recipe), and *phulleyithing-ulo yoli-lul wanseng* (complete cooking with plating), are all category predicates that he used to project his identity as a head chef. Among these category predicates, *phulleyithing*, *teykho*, *meynyu*, *seysthing*, and *leysiphi* are English words that made substantial contributions to constructing this chef identity, which is different from the other cooks or chefs. Note that he chose these lexical items to account for his stance in response to Yuri and Jedong's teasing and mocking evaluation in the FPP. It can

be argued that Hyeonseok, in the SPP, treated the dispreferred and/or mocking evaluation by Yuri and Jedong in a way that enabled him to construct his own identity by elaborating on the topic (see Jenks, 2013).

The following excerpt shows that a different aspect of a speaker's identity is constructed during a conversational interaction. In this excerpt, Gura used his assessment of a chef's cooking ability to check out another chef's skills. In previous talk, Giyong had received a compliment from Gura after he had made three different types of dessert for the show hosts and other guests.

Excerpt 4.4 RS0104
GJ: Gukjin, GR: Gura, GY: Giyong, HS: Hyeonseok, TL: Telop

```
        gj:    +eyebrows up
81      GJ:    + wa::: sey penccay ke, yeyswul-i-ntey↑
                 EXC    third      thing, art-COP-CIRC
               "Wow, the third one is awesome!"

82      TL:    nay style, sey penccay umsik-i yeyswul-i-ntey?
               my  style   third       food-TP  art-COP-CIRC
        →      "My style, the third one is awesome."

        gr:    +taps tummy
83      GR:    + ewu, pay-pwul-le.
                 EXC  stomach-full-DEC
                "Oh, I am full."

84      TL:    DJ-tul-uy kamthan-i kkunhi-ci anh-nun sey penccay dessert
               DJ-PL-RL admiration-TP stop-NEG not-RL  third     dessert
               "DJs' admiration does not stop on the third dessert."

        gy:    +RH at the dessert
```

85 GY: +ku **ticethu**-ka sonnim-tul-eykey inki-ka manh-supni-ta.

that dessert-TP customer-PL-to popularity-NOM much-POL-DEC

"That dessert is so popular among customers."

gr: +*GZ at HS*

hs: +*GZ at the desert*

86 GR: (2.1)+choy chef, cikum po-ko iss-eyo?=

Choi chef, now see-IMPF -H.END

"Chef Choi, now are you looking at it?"

Figure 4.8. Gura's talk with Hyeonseok (Line 86)

hs: +*GZ at GR*

87 HS: += ney-ney

yes-yes

"Yes, Yes."

88 GR: → palo **khaphi** ttu-l swu iss-eyo? ha-l swu iss-cyo?

right.away copy do-RL can-COP-H.END do-RL can-COP-H.END

"Can you copy it (the food) right away? You can do it, can't you?"

Figure 4.9 Gura and Hyeonseok talks about copy (Line 88)

89 TL: → palo **khaphi**(?) ttul swu isseyo?

right.away copy do-RL can-COP-H.END

"Can you copy(?) it right away?

Figure 4.10 Hyeonseok's visual response to copy (Line 90)

90 TL: tanghwang, kha…phi…?

"embarrassed, co…py…?"

Figure 4.11 Hyeonseok's answer to copy (Line 91)

hs: +*freeze look*

91 HS: → (0.8)+ ha-myenun, **mey:: meynyu**-nun(.) mantul↑ swu iss-cyo.
do-if me.. menu-TP make can COP-H.END
"If I want to try……, I can make me…menu instead."

92 TL: ham-yenun...me...menu-nun mantul swu iss-cyo
"If I want to try……, I can make me…menu instead."

81 GJ: 와::: 세 번째 거, 예술인데?
82 TL: 자막: 내 스타일, 세 번째 음식이 예술인데?
83 GR: 어우, 배불러.
84 TL: DJ 들의 감탄이 끊이지 않는 세 번째 디저트
85 GY: 그 디저트가 손님들에게 인기가 많습니다.
86 GR: (2.1)최 셰프, 지금 보고 있어요?=
87 HS: =네네
88 GR: 바로 카피 뜰 수 있어요? 할 수 있죠?
89 TL: 바로 카피(?) 뜰 수 있어요?
90 TL: 당황, 카...피...?
91 HS: (0.8)하면은..메..메뉴는 만들 수 있죠.
92 TL: 하면은...꿋꿋한 허세, 메...메뉴는 만들 수 있죠~

This excerpt shows a question-answer sequence in which an interaction between Gura and Hyeonseok contributed to Hyeonseok's construction of identity as a chef. Following Gukjin's compliment (lines 81, 82, and 84) was Giyong's display of his identity as a chef who specializes in dessert making in line 85. Telop in line 84 also supported their interlocution with a clause: *DJ-tul-uy kamthan-i kkunhi-ci anh-nun* (DJs' admiration does not stop). Lexical items in the telop such as *kamthan* (admiration) and *kkunhi-ci anh* (not stop) highlighted the show hosts'

compliments about Giyong's dessert-making performance. Their interactions in this conversation laid the foundation for the subsequent interaction between Gura, one of the show hosts, and Hyeonseok, another chef, which then prompted Hyeonseok's identity construction as a chef with a specialty of his own.

The following interactions reveal how Hyeonseok's identity was co-constructed in cooperation with Gura. In his next turn, Gura shifted the topic from the hosts' assessment of Giyong's desserts to Hyeonseok's cooking skills (line 86). Gura's utterance here prefaced bringing up a new topic with Hyeonseok in the following turn in line 88. Gura first shifted his gaze from the dessert to Hyeonseok and asked, "Chef Choi, now are you looking at it?" (line 86), which brought Hyeonseok's gaze to the food (see Figure 4.9). In line 87, Hyeonseok aligned with Gura's prefacing statement by saying *ney* (yes) twice. Then, with a question—*palo khaphi ttu-l swu iss-eyo?* (Can you copy it right away?)—in line 88, Gura challenged Hyeonseok by comparing his ability as a chef with that of Giyong, rather than seeking more information. Gura suggested a frame of *skill* by using an English lexical item—*khaphi* (copy). Gura's question prompted Hyeonseok to feel embarrassed, as shown by his abrupt gaze at Gura (Figure 4.10). Telop in line 90 described Hyeonseok's embodied response to Gura's question. Finally, Hyeonseok changed Gura's frame that focused on Hyeonseok's copying ability to a frame that focused on a chef's qualifications by using a different English lexical item—*meynyu* (menu). After a marked pause, which showed his hesitance to respond to Gura, Hyeonseok constructed his identity as a chef who engages in creating menus rather than being skillful in copying others' work (line 91). A topical marker, *nun*, added after *menu* played an important role in designating his qualification to creating menus as a grammatical resource to construct a turn completion unit (TCU).

What is noteworthy is how Hyeonseok's identity was co-constructed during an interaction he had with Gura about a chef's quality. In the FPP in line 88, Gura's question was assessing and evaluative of Hyeonseok in terms of his cooking skill, which became a prompt for him to consider his status as a chef in his SPP (line 91). Gura used an English word—khaphi *(copy)*—to evaluate Hyeonseok's ability, then Hyeonseok used another English word—*meynyu* (menu)—as a category predicate to construct his own chef identity. By so doing, these two interactants engaged in co-construction of Hyeonseok's identity in relation to cooking, with an English lexical item contributing to the formation of the MCD. The sequence of an evaluative question as a prompt in the FPP and the answer that followed in the SPP produced the formulation of identity construction in the SPP.

Display of Bilingual Identity during the Sequence of Interactions

The use of English in Korean television talk shows displays a bilingual identity of the interactants in a conversation. The next excerpt showed Ryeowon's bilingual identity in an interaction with Yuri while they were traveling in Japan. Ryeowon and Yuri opened their conversation with a discussion of how to get a ticket from a ticket vending machine.

Excerpt 4.5 HC0502, YR: Yuri, RW: Ryeowon, TL: Telop

```
((Yuri and Ryeowon are at the subway station to buy tickets))

       rw:    +GZ at the ticket vending machine
38     RW:    +mhm:: yeki iss-ney.
              EXC   here exist-DEC
```

"Hmm, here it is."

yr: +*GZ at the ticket vending machine*

39 YR: +ton, ton nehe-ya-ci::

money, money insert-NECESS-CON

"Money, (you) need to insert money."

Figure 4.12 Ryeowon's use of English (Line 40)

rw: +*touches the touch screen*

40 RW: → English? °If you want ano↑ther ticket.°

41 TL: If you want another ticket?

((Lines 42-48 Omitted))

((They are on a subway))

yr: +*GZ away*

49 YR: +kicha-lul tha-ya tay-nuntey::: kuntey, **thikheys**-un etise pat-ci?

train-ACC take-NECESS NECESS-CIRCUM but,**ticket**-TP where receive-Q

"We need to take a train, but where do we get a ticket?"

rw: +*GZ at YR*

50 RW: → +ticket reservation-, a:: ku, yeyyak hay-ss-e?

EXC that reservation do-PST-Q

"Ticket reservation, ah…well…did you book it?"

rw: +*GZ at a travel brochure*

yr: +*GZ at RW*

51 YR: +ung?(.) ung:: yeyyak-ha-n ke mal-hamyen ticket cwu-keyss-ci?

what yeah booking-do-RL thing say-COND ticket give-DCT.RE-Q

52 nay-ka imeyil-lo, mwe-l ppop↑-ass-ketun.

I-SB email-with something-ACC pull-ANT-END

"Huh? Yeah. If I say I booked a ticket, they will give it to us, right? I printed out something from my email."

rw: +*shakes his phone*

53 RW: +(1.8) kulay::se, eti-lay? na, **intheneys**-i an-toy-nta.

so where-QT I **internet**-TP NEG-PASS-SEN.END

"So…where? I have no internet connection."

((Lines 54-61 omitted))

((Now they arrive at Hakata station))

rw: +*GZ outside*

62 RW: → +°tochak-hayss-ta. **OK. Let's go**.°

arrive-ANT-SEN.END

"We got here. OK. Let's go!"

Figure 4.13 Ryeowon and Yuri mention a U-Turn sign(Lines 63-65)

yr: +*GZ at the overhead sign*

63 YR: +e? e:: kuntey(.)wuli-ka silhe-ha-nun, ce yuthen phyosi iss-e.

Q yeah but we-SB dislike-do-RL that U-Turn sign exist-INDC

"Huh? Yeah. But, there is a U-Turn sign we don't like."

64 TL: wuli-ka silhe-ha-nun ce U-Turn phyosi iss-e..

"There is a U-Turn sign we don't like."

rw: +*GZ at the overhead sign*

65 RW: → +**yuthen**? Oh, no:: na yakkan wullengcung iss-e.

I a.little fear Exist-INDC

"U-Turn? I have a little bit of butterflies in my stomach."

((유리와 려원은 표를 사기 위해 지하철 역에 도착한다))

38 RW: 음:: 여기 있네.

39 YR: 돈, 돈 넣어야지::

40 RW: English? °If you want ano↑ther ticket.°

41 TL: If you want another ticket?

((Lines 42-48 Omitted))

((They are on a subway))

49 YR: 기차를 타야 대는데::: 근데, 티켓은 어디서 받지?

50 RW: 티켓 reservation, 아:: 그 예약 했어?

51 YR: 응?(.) 응:: 예약한 거 말하면 티켓 주겠지?

52 내가 이메일로 뭘 뽑았거든.

53 RW: (1.8)그래::서, 어디래? 나, 인터넷이 안된다.

((Lines 54-61 omitted))

((이제 하카타 역에 도착한다))

62 RW: 도착했다. OK, Let's go.

63 YR: 어? 어:: 근데(.) 우리가 싫어하는 저 U-Turn 표시 있어.

64 TL: 우리가 싫어하는 저 U-Turn 표시 있어…

65 RW: U-Turn? 나 약간 울렁증 있어.

In Excerpt 4.5, Ryeonwon's use of English loanwords, nonce borrowings, and code-mixing in her conversations with Yuri displayed her bilingual identity based on language mixing of English lexical and/or sentential items with those of the Korean language. When they searched for the way to obtain tickets for the subway, Ryeowon first approached a ticket vending machine (lines 38 and 39). She found an English language option on a screen (line 40) and read the instructions on how to get a ticket (see Figure 4.12). It is noticeable that telop was used to highlight her utterance by repeating it in line 41, which is readable as getting attention from the television audience. Here, telop underscored her use of English in a foreign country where Korean was not spoken for communication. Combined with her utterance, an English sentence in telop played a role as a category predicate that showed her bilingual identity.

The next conversation, in the subway, showed Ryeowon's identity as a bilingual speaker, as marked with an arrow in line 50. She cut off her own utterance of the English lexical item, *ticket reservation*, and substituted it with a Korean clause *yeyyak hay-ss-e?* (did you book it?). She noticed English words as a trouble source in her interaction with Yuri and suspended

the ongoing production of the difficulty. After her own interruption, she initiated a repair by uttering *a:: ku,* (ah..well..) as a repair marker. Note that the repair was initiated not due to her own mistake in the production of information, but for better communication with Yuri in Korean. Since Ryeowon realized that English did not work for an effective interaction with Yuri, she shifted her language from English to Korean in order to align with Yuri's status as a monolingual speaker. This was supported by her embodied language in which she cast her gaze at Yuri. In other words, her repair was part of her audience design in which she was conscious of having a better interaction with her audience in terms of language use (Bell, 1999).

In the next part of the excerpt, in line 62, Ryeowon showed another aspect of her bilingual identity. On arrival at Hakata station, Ryeowon used a mixture of English and Korean clauses in a lower voice with her gaze directed away to the outside of the subway train. An English sentence—*OK, Let's go!*—displayed her practice of code-switching as a category predicate by which she constructed her bilingual identity in an interaction with Yuri. Her lower voice in this context was hearable either as speaking to Yuri or as talking to herself. In either case, she projected her status as a fluent bilingual who could switch between Korean and English in an effective way for communication. In her following turn (line 63), Yuri aligned with Ryeowon, and then brought up the topic of a U-Turn sign (see Figure 4.13), which was repeated in telop in line 64. In line 65, Ryeowon gave a newsmark—*U-Turn?*—to Yuri's utterance, which was followed by her dispreferred response: *oh, no::*. She further aligned with Yuri by saying that she had butterflies in her stomach at seeing the U-Turn sign, which confirmed her dispreferred reaction to it.

Ryeowon's utterances in her interactions with Yuri showed that although she was able to perform in her bilingual capacity using both Korean and English, she was conscious of her

audience in her choice of language (Bell, 1999). Her recognition of a trouble source in communication and her repair of it by switching into Korean showed her sensitivity to her audience. By so doing, she fit herself to her monolingual audience in terms of language use. In this sense, I argue that Ryeowon's display of her bilingual identity with category predicates was co-constructed by Yuri in their interactions in English and Korean (Jenks, 2013, 2013).

The next excerpt shows how Korean hosts interact with an English and Korean bilingual speaker for successful communication. In this example, the Korean hosts cooperated with another Korean guest to communicate with a Taiwanese-American singer and share stories about her album production, friendships, and family.

Excerpt 4.6 RS0206

GR: Gura, JS: Jongshin, DY: Doyeon, AM: Amber, GJ: Gukjin, TL: Telop

```
       js:    +GZ at AM
173    JS:    +oykwukin-i-canha-[yo? cecakkwen hyephoy-ey, tunglok hay-ss-nayo?
            foreigner-COP-END-H.End  copy.right association register do-ANT-H.END
              "You are foreigner. Did you register for Copyright Association?

174    AM:                        [ney ney.
                                   yes yes
                                 "Yeah, Yeah."

175      →    tunglok-hay-ss-eyo. sub-publisher-nun(.) talun salam-ulo-hay-se::=
              register-do-ANT-H.End             -TP    other people-with-do-PRE
              "I registered. My sub-publisher is given to another person."

       js:    +smile
176    JS:    + a::: kulehkwuna? hahaha
```

EXC I.see

"Ah, I see, hahaha"

gr: +*GZ down and reads a cue card*

177 GR: ani, ku, ce:: Amber::nun, umak-i ettay-yo? phwung-i Hip-Hop-i-yeyyo?

by.the.way that the TP musi-TP how-H.END type-TP -COP-H.END

"By the way, the..Amber, which type of music…Hip-hop is your phwung?"

am: +*body forward*

178 AM: → +(0.4) *phwung*?

type

"phwung?"

Figure 4.14 Amber's initiation of repair for *poong* (Line 178)

179 TL: → Poong...?

gr: +*eyebrows up*

180 GR: → *phwung*. tha::ip.=

"Phwung, type…"

181 AM: → =Ty:pe, a. ce-nun, solcikhi Rock-ilang Indie-Metal coha-[hanun

ah I-SB frankly Rock-and like-do

"Type, ah, I frankly like Rock and Indie-Metal…"

182 TL: lok(Rock)-ilang meythal(Metal)

and

"Rock(Rock) and Metal(Metal)"

gr: *+eyebrows up*

183 GR: [e?

huh

"Huh?"

Figure 4.15 Amber's explanation of *metal* with sound (Line 183)

am: *+BH forward with mouth wide-open*

184 AM: → **Metal** (0.5) [wu::ee:: ha-nun ke, coha-ha-ko:::

EXC do-RL thing like-do-and

"Metal, I like things like Wow Wow"

gr: *+eyebrows up*

185 GR: +[o, **meythal**.

"Oh, metal"

186 AM: kuntey, hankwuk-wa-se(.) Pop-to, coha-ha-key twayss-e-yo.

But Korea-come-PRE Pop-also like-do-AD become-INDC-H.END

"But, after coming to Korea, I came to like POP, too."

gj: *+GZ at AM*

187 GJ: + kuntey, Audition-eyse-nun nolay↑::lo↓, hapkyek hay-ss-canha-yo?

by.the.way audition-at-TP singing-with pass do-PST-END-H.END

"By the way, you passed your audition with singing?"

am: +*GZ at GJ*

188 AM: ney, [cey-ka::

yes I-SB

"Yes, I.."

189 GJ: [nolay cal ha-tentey::

sing well do-CIRC

"You sing well…"

Figure 4.16 Amber's gesture for *so, so* (Ling 188)

am: +RH forward

190 AM: → +(.) ce, ce:: **so, so**?

I I

"I, I… so, so?"

gr: +*eyebrows up*

191 GR: → +o::: sso sso::

"Oh, so so."

192 TL: → kyemson sso sso **SO SO**

modesty so so

"Modesty, sso sso, so so"

173 JS: 외국인이잖아[요? 저작권 협회에, 등록했나요??

174 AM: [네네.

175 등록했어요. sub-publisher 는(.) 다른 사람으로 해서::=

176 JS: 아::: 그렇구나? 하하하

177 GR: 아니, 그, 저:: 앰버::는, 음악이 어때요? 풍이 힙합이예요?

178 AM: (0.4) 풍?

179 TL: Poong...?

180 GR: 풍. Ty::pe.=

181 AM: =Ty:pe, 아. 저는, 솔직히 Rock 이랑 indie-metal 좋아[하는

182 TL: 록(Rock)이랑 메탈(Metal)

183 GR: [어?

184 AM: metal (0.5) [우어어::: 하는 거, 좋아하고:::

185 GR: [오, metal.

186 AM: 근데, 한국와서(.) pop 도, 좋아하게 됐어요.

187 GJ: 근데, 오디션에서는 노래↑::로↓, 합격을 했잖아요?

188 AM: 네, [제가::

189 GJ: [노래 잘 하던데:::

190 AM: (.) 저, 저:: so, so?

191 GR: 오::: so so::

192 TL: 겸손 쏘쏘 SO SO

Excerpt 4.6 shows an interaction between the Korean hosts and Taiwanese-American singer, Amber, a member of a girl band—*f(x)*—in Korea. The conversation took place in Korean and English, and revealed how Koreans deal with the mixture of English and Korean in an interaction with a foreigner who is fluent in Korean. Note that that the hosts' English was not perfect, and nor was Amber's Korean. In discussing the issue of registration with the Korea Music Copyright Association, Amber aligned with Jongshin and then expanded the topic in line 175 by using an English lexical item, *sub-publisher*, as marked with an arrow. In the next turn,

Jongshin responded to this expansion by saying *a:::* with a smile, which can be heard as his understanding the meaning of *sub-publisher*. Gura then attempted to shift the topic to Amber's favorite music style by reading a cue card, and created a trouble source for their interaction (line 177). Amber gave a repair initiator in line 178 by repeating Gura's lexical item, *phwung*, after a marked pause. Figure 4.14 shows how she leant her body forward to deal with her difficulty in understanding what Gura had said in a previous turn. Telop in line 179 also highlighted this repairable item by romanizing it, which showed that Amber wondered whether *phwung* was English or Korean. In his next turn (line 180), Gura then repaired the trouble source by replacing it with a corresponding English word: *thaip* (type).

In the next pair, starting with line 181, a different type of repair took place between the two interactants. When Amber mentioned *metal* as one of her favorite genres of music, this English lexical item became the source of trouble for Gura's understanding. Gura noticed the trouble in Amber's utterance of the preceding turn and used a repair marker—*e?*—to initiate the repair in line 183. In line 184, Amber provided a solution by repeating the word *metal* with an embodied action and sound as shown in Figure 4.15. Here, her gestures and sounds provided along with her expanded explanation were an action of "repair operation" (Egbert, 2004, p. 1471). In his next turn, Gura accepted Amber's repair as a means of continuing their conversation, and this was followed by Amber's expansion of her utterance in line 186.

It is important to note that in the first conversation Amber did not understand what Gura meant in his saying, *phwung*, and Gura transliterated this Korean word into English, *type*. In this case, *type* is not an English loanword in Korean but an English word that Gura used to help Amber understand the Korean word *phwung*. Thus, it is hearable that Gura and Amber engaged in a conversation based on language mixng of Korean and English. In the second topic, Gura had

difficulty in understanding what Amber meant by *metal* not because he did not know this word but because he did not capture Amber's American accent when she articulated this English word. Since *metal* is an well-known English word in popular culture and Gura had good knowledge of music, I argue that the problem in communication between the two persons was created due to Amber's use of American accent to say *metal*, which was not well-recognized by Gura who was used to Korean way of pronouncing English words.

Another distinct example of code-mixing is shown in the next conversational sequence initiated by Gukjin in his shifting of the topic to Amber's qualifications as a singer. After prefacing the conversation with some information about Amber's debut (line 187), Gukjin moved to compliment Amber's singing ability. In response, Amber hesitated to align with Gukjin's positive assessment and instead presented her partial acceptance of Gukjin's compliment in line 190 by adopting the code-mixing of Korean and English: *ce, ce:: so, so?* (I, I… so so). Gura in the next turn gave a newsmark and savored the previous utterance repeating Amber's partial utterance in English, which was then followed by telop's assessment of her utterance as *kyemson* (modesty) and a repetition of mixing Korean and English. Figure 4.16 shows her identity as American in her use of a gesture to indicate *so so*. Here, the use of English mixing with Korean contributed to the sequence of their overall interactions.

This excerpt showed how Amber's biilngual identity based on her fluency level in English and Korean was co-constructed by herself and Gura through sequential interactions in which they used code-mixing for effective communication. Both of them built up their identity as bilingual speakers, even though the extent of their bilingualism was different. In such interactions, a repair operation is found to be an important formulation that allows speakers from different linguistic backgrounds to reach a shared subjective knowledge. In the sequence of

repair, embodied actions also play an important role. Finally, savoring English lexical terms used in the preceding turn strengthens the interactions in the second turn position (Tannen, 1987).

Creation of Humor through Reformulation and Repetition

Another contribution of English to interactions in the Korean language is known as attention-getting and humor-invoking (Chen, 2006; Lee, 2014). Unlike previous studies that focused on textual analysis, this section will show that the use of English contributes to building up interactions among interlocutors in terms of production of humor and attention-getting.

The following excerpt shows how speakers cooperate in producing humor with English lexical items by repetition and reformulation. In the excerpt, talk show hosts asked Hyeonwoo a question about his wife's cooking skill.

Excerpt 4.7 RS0302

GJ: Gukjin, GR: Gura, HW: Hyeonwoo, GH: Gyouhyeon, CH: Changhoon, TL: Telop

```
        gj:     +GZ at HW
16      GJ:     + ihyenwu-ssi, anay yoli somssi-ka(.) cham↑, cohun-kayo?
                  NAME-AT(Mr.)  wife cooking skills-TP very   good-Q.END
                ***"Hyeonwoo, does your wife cook well?"***
```

Figure 4.17 Hyeonwoo's gaze down (Line 17)

```
        hw:    +GZ down
17      HW:    +e::[:

18      GH:        [way, alay-lul:: chyeta-po-si-[cyo?
                    why  down-ACC    toward-see-H-H.Q
                   "Why do you look down?"

19      GJ:                                      [heh heh
20      CH:                                      [heh heh heh
21      GR:                                      [heh heh heh
```

Figure 4.18 Hyeonwoo's gaze at the front camera (Line 2)

```
        hw:    +GZ at the front camera
22      HW:    +£ masiss↑-e£
                  delicious-IN
                "Delicious"
```

23 TL: nay mam al-ci? masiss↑-e.
my mind know-Q delicious-END
"Don't you know my mind? It's delicious"

+BH forward, shakes palms
24 CH: +£ ke-pwa:↓ mos soki-ntay-ni[kka £
thing-see NEG lie-IN-END
"See, I said you can't tell a lie"

gj: *+RH&body forward, GZ at others*
25 GJ: +[alay-lul chyeta-pwa-ss-e, ku↑-cyo↓=
down-ACC toward-look-PST-END that-H.END
"He looked down, didn't he?"

26 GR: =e:: ha-myen↑ kkuthna-n-ke-ya
do-COND(if) end-INF-thing-END
"if you say 'uh', you are finished."

hw: *+GZ down*
27 HW: +(0.7) e::↓ changco-cek-i[yey-yo↓
creative-RL-COP-H.END
"Uh… She is creative."

+BH clapping
28 GH: +[£changco-cek::£ [heh heh
"Creative.."
29 HW: [heh heh

gr: *+nods head*
30 GR: → +°>**creative** ha-kwuna::¿<°
COP-UNASS

31 (1.2)

32 ike-nun↑ a↓ni-ta, ha-nun ke:(.) hana iss-nayo?
this-TP NEG-DEC COP-RL thing one exist-H.END.Q
"She is creative… Is there any one thing you don't like about her cooking?"

hw: *+BH up and shakes*

33 HW: → +(0.3) e:: anay-uy(.) creative-han mind:¿
wife-GEN creative-RL mind

34 nemwu coha::e:: salang-hako [iss-ko::¿
very like love-IMPF COP-and
"Uh…I like…love my wife's creative mind, and…"

+RH rubs his eyes, smiles

35 GH: → +[£creative-han mind::£
-RL
"Creative mind…"

16 JK: 이현우씨, 아내 요리 솜씨가(.) 참↑, 좋은가요?
17 HW: 어::[:
18 GH: [왜 아래를 쳐다보시[죠?
19 GJ: [heh heh
20 CH: [heh heh heh
21 GR: [heh heh heh
22 HW: £맛있↑어£
23 TL: 내 맘 알지? 맛있어.
24 CH: £거봐:↓ 못 속인대니[까£
25 GJ: [아래를 쳐다봤어, 그↑죠↓=
26 GR: =어:: 하면 끝난거야
27 HW: (0.7)어::↓ **창조적**이[예요↓
28 GH: [£**창조적**£ [heh heh
29 HW: [heh heh

30 GR: °>**creative** 하구나::¿<°

31 (1.2)

32 이거는↑ 아↓니다, 하는 거:(.) 하나 있나요?

33 HW: (0.3) 어:: 아내의(.) **creative-한 mind**:¿

34 너무 좋아::어:: 사랑하고 [있고::¿

35 GH: [£**creative-한 mind**::£

Prior to this conversation, Changhoon had explained to other participants some nonverbal actions related to eye movement, in particular, the relationship between eye direction and the truthfulness of a statement. He had quoted a scholarly report stating that looking down is associated with making up a story. In response to Gukjin's institutional question about Hyeonwoo's wife in terms of her cooking skills, Hyeonwoo gave a hesitation marker *e:::* in line 17, which indicated that he had a problem with giving an explicit answer. In addition to his verbal response, Hyeonwoo cast his gaze down while he was producing this discourse marker, as shown in Figure 4.17. In the next turn (line 18), Gyouhyeon's question—*way, alay-lul:: chyeta-po-si-cyo?* (Why do you look down?)—can be understood as accusing Hyeonwoo's embodied action in a teasing way, detecting it as a discourse marker of making up a story based on the preceding topic about eye direction and the truthfulness of utterances. Gyouhyeon's accusation failed initially to prompt Hyeonwoo's answer, but produced laughter from other interactants who perceived it as humorous.

Instead of giving a direct response to Gyouhyeon's accusing question, Hyeonwoo chose to respond to Gukjin's previous question (line 16) about his wife's cooking skills. Notice that he cast his gaze at the front camera to appeal to the television audience, which can be interpreted as his consciousness of his wife. The telop in line 23 emphasized Hyeonwoo's utterance by

reformulating it to appeal to his wife with the addition of *nay mam al-ci?* (Don't you know my mind?) to his original utterance of *masiss↑-e.* (It's delicious). However, in line 24, Changhoon cooperated with Gyouhyeon's accusation from line 18 by persisting with the topic of Hyeonwoo's gaze-down, which was further upgraded by Gukjin's cooperation in line 25 (Bilmes, 2011). It is important to note that Gukjin's confirmation check in line 25 was designed not for Hyeonwoo, but for other audiences, as shown by his nonverbal action in which he cast his gaze at others. In line 26, this formulation of accusation was further upgraded by Gura's confirmation of Gukjin's utterance with the statement *e:: ha-myen↑ kkuthna-n-ke-ya* (if you say 'uh', you are done).

The next part of the conversation showed how English lexical items helped complete the speakers' interactional sequences, which were based on a formulation of an institutional interview and accusation in preceding utterances. In line 27, Hyeonwoo persisted in speaking on the topic of his wife's cooking and elaborated on his previous response using a Korean lexical item, *changco-cek* (creative). This word was given after a marked pause and a discourse marker *e::* along with his gaze-down. Following the previous exchange among the interactants, Gyouhyeon received this utterance as being humorous by repeating the word *changco-cek* (creative) and clapping in line 28, which was then cooperated with by Hyeonwoo with his laughter in line 29.

In line 30, Gura took the next turn to repeat Hyeonwoo's lexical item again, which can be heard as savoring this lexical choice (Tannen, 1987). It is important to note that he reformulated a Korean word—*changco-cek*—into its English counterpart—*creative*—and that he used a lower voice with his head nodding, a savoring action. After a substantial pause in line 31, Gura persisted with Gukjin's question, elaborating it in a different direction in line 31 and asking

Hyeonwoo to evaluate his wife's cooking skills. In response (lines 33 and 34), Hyeonwoo reformulated Gura's English word to elaborate on his response from line 27 and referred to *creative-han mind* (creative mind), adding another English word, *mind*, to Gura's utterance. In line 34, Hyeonwoo self-repaired by changing *coha* (like) to *salang* (love) in order to upgrade his utterance, but the way that he delivered the words produced laughter from Gyouhyeon in line 35, based on the discourse they had shared about eye direction and telling a lie. Gyouhyeon savored Hyeonwoo's English words and showed his appreciation of the humor by repeating these lexical items: *creative-han mind* (creative mind) (Tannen, 1987). The sequential interactions are summarized in Figure 4.19.

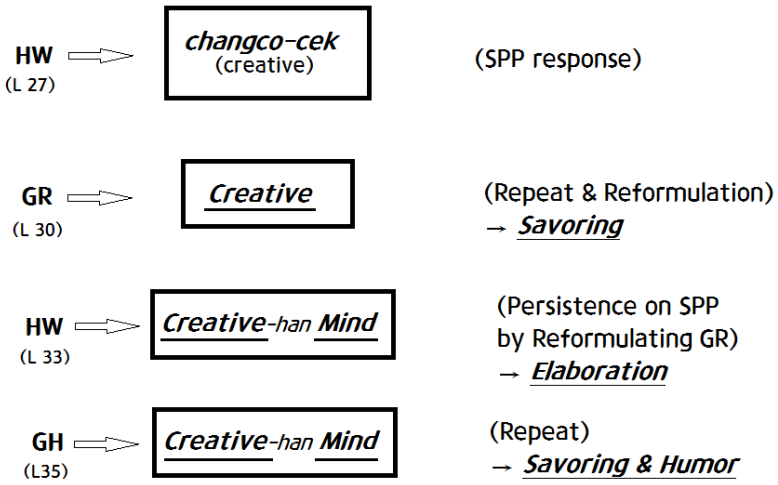

Figure 4.19 Sequential interactions during the use of *creative* and *mind*.

This excerpt has shown how humor was produced by Korean speakers based on language mixing of English and Korean. English lexical items played a pivotal role in creating humor-related interactions among the interactants in their conversation. This sequence was upgraded through a few steps (Bilmes, 2011). It was initiated by Gura in line 30 when he reformulated Hyeonwoo's word choice of *changco-cek* by adopting its English counterpart

creative. Then, Hyeonwoo practiced another reformulation by adding *mind* to the word to elaborate on his original utterance in line 34, which was followed by Gyouhyeon's repetition that served to savor and appreciate the humor (line 35). This whole sequence shows that English lexical items may be used to produce humor through reformulation and repetition.

The following short excerpt focuses further on the savoring and appreciation of humor guided by repetition. Geonmo, a singer, had cooked a Korean dish for the talk show hosts and his assistant had tried the food in advance.

Excerpt 4.8 HC0202

GM: Geonmo, AS: Assistant, YR: Yuri, GG: Gyeonggyou, JD: Jedong

((AS tries the food))

gm: +*whisper to AS*

35 GM: +°ettay?°

how-Q

"How is it?"

as: +*whisper to GM*

36 AS: (0.6)+° um::: com, cca-yo°

a.little salty-H.END

"Hmm…it's a little salty."

yr: +*GZ at AS*

37 YR: +com, cca-cyo? mayp-[ko?

a.little salty-H.END spicy-and

"Is it a little salty and spicy?"

gg: +*GZ at GM*

38 GG: +[cca? cal, an toyn↑ ke↓-ya?

salty well NEG done thing-Q.END

39 (0.6)mwe-lako ha-nun ke-ya? (.)ccata-nun ke-ya?

what-COMP say-INF thing-Q salty-INF thing-Q

"Is it salty? Is it done well? What are you saying? Are you saying it's salty?"

((GM finishes whispering to his assistant and turns to GG))

gm: +*GZ at GG with freeze look*

40 GM: → +ani:: a, hyeng-nim (.)**khonsethu sukheycyul** yayki hay-ss-eyo.

NEG older.brother-H **concert schedule** story do-PST-H.END

41 → (0.4) kkuth-na-ko schedule iss-nuntey, **khaynsul**-hay-la:::=

finish-PAS-and have-CIRCUM **cancel**-do-IMP

"No, ah…GG, I talked about my consert schedule. After I finish this, I have a schedule, but I told him to cancel it."

jd: +*GZ at GM*

42 JD: → =+£**khaynsul**-hay-la::£ .hhh

cancel-do-IMP

"Cancel it…"

((AS 가 음식을 시식한다))

35 GM: °어때?°

36 AS: (0.6)°음::: 좀, 짜요°

37 YR: 좀, 짜요? 맵[고?

38 GG: [짜? 잘, 안 된↑ 거↓야?

39 (0.6)뭐라고 하는 거야? (.)짜다는 거야?

((GM 이 매니저에게 귓속말을 마치고 GG 에게 향한다))

40 GM: 아니:::아, 형님(.)concert schedule 이야기 했어요.

41 (0.4) 끝나고 schedule 있는데, cancel 해라:::=

42 JD: =£cancel 해라::£ .hhh

When Geonmo was confirming with his assistant that the food he had made was a little salty, they whispered to each other in lower voices (lines 35 and 36). In line 37, Yuri tried to identify what they had been saying in the previous turns, which was followed by Gyeonggyou who upgraded Yuri's attempt to determine what Geonmo and his assistant had shared about the food (line 38). Yuri and Gyeonggyou cooperated as a team to find out whether the food was salty or not. Their question was responded to by Geonmo in lines 40 and 41, rejecting their confirmation and making up a story about it. He pretended to have talked about his schedule with his assistant, using two English lexical items—*khonsethu sukheycyul* (concert schedule) and *khaynsul* (cancel)—in his answer. In the third turn position, Jedong repeated part of Geonmo's statement—*cancel* (line 42).

The first important point about Geonmo's and Jedong's turns is how they formulated the creation of humor and it was appreciated by the next turn-taking person (lines 40-42). In lines 40 and 41, Geonmo mentioned the cancellation of his concert schedule using an English word, *cancel*, when other speakers questioned him about his food. However, his utterance can be understood not as providing information, but as a punchline for producing humor because his response distracted his audience away from what they expected to hear: an assessment of his food (Kotthoff, 2006; Tsutsumi, 2011). His freeze look as an embodied action facilitated his use of this punchline (Rappoport, 2005). Geonmo's SPP was appreciated by Jedong, who repeated part of Geonmo's statement: khaynsul-*hay-la* (Cancel it). It is noteworthy that Jaedong took the next turn and savored Geonmo's utterance with laughter, meaning that it was humorous to him.

In a nutshell, an English lexical item—*khaynsul* (cancel)—contributed to the formulation of humor in the interactions among these Korean speakers.

The second point about Geonmo's turn in lines 40 to 41 is how he constructed his identity with English lexical items as category predicates. He adopted the English words *khonsethu sukheycyul* (concert schedule) and *khaynsul* (cancel) to build up his status as a freelance singer who sets up his own concert schedule and is able to cancel it with the help of his assistant. It is worth noticing that he used these words as category predicates to construct his identity as a singer through the story he made up in response to other speakers' questions about his food. Also noteworthy is that his locally constructed identity became the foundation for his creation of humor.

Roles of English in Framing Korean Telop

As discussed in Chapter 2, telop plays a pivotal role in creating multiple frameworks where television program producers and writers connect what happens in television shows with their audiences. According to Park (2009), the primary purpose of telop is to create humor based on diverse functions such as "representation of speech, characterization of nonverbal action, highlighting/clarification/summary of discourse content, attribution of affect and thought, and metadiscursive commentary and evaluation by the program′s producer" (p. 550). In this section, I focus on the interactional functions of English lexical items in framing such telop.

The model in Figure 4.20 includes three frames for describing the production of Korean television talk shows: a filmed scene, information added during editing, and an aired program.

Each frame taken up by one group of contributors to an episode has its operators (speakers) in the process of creating and commodifying the program as a final product for an audience. The first group of contributors, in a first frame, includes the participants who are involved in first-hand interactions in a talk show while it is being filmed. The second group of contributors, in a second frame, is comprised of program staff responsible for editing, such as television producers and writers. Their primary job is editing the recorded video files and adding visual and acoustic effects as information to each scene. The last group of contributors, in a third frame, is the television audience that views the edited videos.

This model is a modified version of Furukawa's (2014, p. 101) five-frame model for Japanese television variety shows. His model has been simplified into a three-frame model to clarify the picture of the actions occurring beyond the interactions among the talk show participants. What is particular to East Asian television programs, such as those in South Korea, Japan, and China, is that various program producers and writers actively intervene between speakers in a talk show and television audiences. Therefore, observations need to include their dynamic voices, both as direct hearers of the talk show and as providers of the program for their audience.

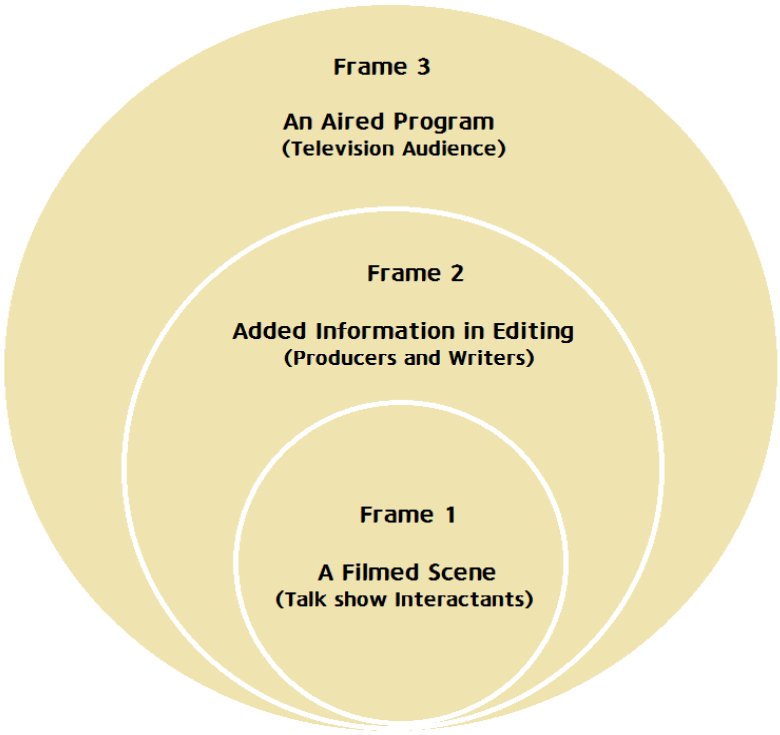

Figure 4.20 Three frames of Korean television talk show

(Modified based on Furukawa, 2014, p. 109)

Although editors' voices are manifested by means of both visual and acoustic tools (Furukawa, 2014), the purpose of their interventions is to appeal to the target audience by commodifying filmed scenes into a final product. Program producers and writers intervene in the talk show speakers' interactions in the second frame of an editing stage to draw their audience's attention to the television program. While they are doing this work, they are always conscious of the television audience and the importance of their understanding, appreciation, and assessment of the program. As a result, what a television audience watches when it is being aired is an episode composed of the interactions between speakers in each scene and information added by editing staff. This section focuses on telop as one of the visual strategies used by editing staff to use their voice to appeal to their audience because verbal communication characterizes telop.

Framing utterances by adding the unsaid. The first role of English words in contributing to telop's function in a television talk show is to support its framing of speakers' utterances (Furukawa, 2016). In the second frame, telop adds to the first frame what was not spoken aloud by the conversation's participants—i.e., "the unsaid"—becoming one of the interactants in the conversation (Bolden, 2010, p. 7). These additional editors' comments provide information to frame the speakers' utterances.

Excerpt 4.9 shows an example of telop responding to one of the speakers in a conversation by evaluating his or her utterance. In this excerpt, Brian shared with the talk show hosts his previous experience of dating a girl who cheated on him. Before this conversation, Brian had explained that the song lyrics he wrote himself for his new solo album referred to this story about his ex-girlfriend.

Excerpt 4.9 RS0109, BR: Brian, GR: Gura, TL: Telop

62 BR: ku kok ssu-l ttay-ka, sumwul tases-sal, ccum↑ i-ess-eyo.
that song write-RL time-TP, 20 5-years.old about COP-PST-DEC.END
"When I wrote that song, I was about 25 years old."

gr: *+GZ at BR, RH up*

63 GR: +ku hwu-ey, tto↑ manna-ss-cyo?(.) ku yeca-pwun.
that after-at again meet-PST-H.Q. that woman-HT
"After that, you met that woman again, right?"

br: *+GZ at GR, then nods head with freeze look*

64 BR: +(0.4)wuyenhi↑ manna-ss-cyo.=

by.chance meet-PST-H.END

"I met her by accident."

gr: +*RH forward, smiles*

65 GR: +=£ ke↑-pwa::£

that-look.at

"That's what I said!"

br: +*RH forward with freeze look*

66 BR: +(.)kuntey, wuskin ke-n↑ sengkyeng-kongpwu:: eyse manna-n-ke-yeyyo.

by.the.way funny thing-TP Bible.Study at meet-INF-thing-H.END

67 kwayn:hi mian-ha-telakwu-[yo.

simply sorry-do-FH.EV-H.END

"By the way, what was funny is that I met her at a bible study."

gr: +*RH points at BR, smiles*

68 GR: [+hoykay-ha-le o-n ke-ya:: hoykay-ha-le.

repent-do-RL come-RL thing-END.

69 (.)£ ne-hanthey hoykay-ha-le was-nuntey, aph-ey iss-nun ke-ya.£

you-to repent-do-RL came-CIRCUM front-at exist-RL thing-END

"She came to repent…repent. When she came to repent because of you, she found you in front of her."

70 TL: ne-hanthey hoykay-ha-le was-nuntey, APH-EY TTAK~

you-to repent-do-RL came-CIRCUM front-at right

71 → **oh my GOD** o mai kas

(oh my God)

"When she came to repent because of you, RIGHT IN FRONT (HER)~ Oh My GOD (English). Oh My God (Korean)"

Figure 4.21 Telop 'Oh my GOD' (Lines70-71)

72 BR: hhh .hhh

62 BR: 그 곡 쓸때가, 스물 다섯살, 쯤↑이었어요.
63 GR: 그 후에, 또↑ 만났죠?(.) 그 여자분.
64 BR: (0.4) 우연히↑ 만났죠.=
65 GR: =£거↑봐::£
66 BR: (.)근데, 웃긴 건↑ 성경공부::에서 만난거예요.
67 괜:히 미안하더라구[요.
68 GR: [회개하러 온 거야:: 회개하러.
69 (.)£너한테 회개하러 왔는데, 앞에 있는 거야.£
70 TL: → 너한테 회개하러 왔는데 앞에 딱~
71 oh my GOD 오 마이 갓

72 BR: hhh .hhh

In line 62, Brian finished explaining how he wrote the song lyrics for his new solo album when he was quite young. In the following turns (lines 63-65), Gura made a confirmation check of Brian's meeting with his ex-girlfriend, and in his response, Brian aligned with Gura. Gura's confirmation check was represented by his employing a sentential ending segment, *-cyo?* (right?), to complete his TCU. Then, in line 66, Brian elaborated on his utterance in a previous turn to explain his unexpected encounter with her at a Bible study and, in lines 68 and 69, Gura

formulated what he guessed Brian was going to say about the reason she had come to the Bible study (Bolden, 2010). It is important to note that Gura selected himself as the next speaker and that his turn overlapped with Brian's utterance, showing that he was attempting to fill Brian's incomplete description of his experience. As in lines 66 and 67, Brian only reported on where and how he met his ex-girlfriend, not on why she was there. Gura's utterance in lines 68 and 69 completed Brian's report with his inference based on Brian's preceding utterance. This formulation sets the basis for analysis of the telop in the next line.

In lines 70 and 71, a telop highlighted Gura's utterance by repeating it and adding *TTAK* (right) and *Oh My GOD* to it. Note that Gura's suggestion of Brian's candidate utterance was an upshot of Brian's statements (lines 68-69). This institutional upshot was formulated as a punchline to create humor, which can be identified in Gura's laughing voice and embodied action of smiling. Given this formulation, Brian responded with a smile, accepting Gura's upshot formulation as being comical. The telop in lines 70 and 71 was based on this adjacent pair between Gura and Brain. First, the telop repeated Gura's utterance to highlight it and thereby frame humor. Second, the telop added an English phrase—*Oh My GOD*—as a display of surprise.

The English phrase *Oh My GOD* played a significant role in the telop's framing of the function of Gura's utterance as an institutional punchline that delivered something that the audience did not expected in this local discourse to produce humor. First, *Oh My GOD* helped the telop to frame Gura's utterance as being surprising, which increased the tension of the story in line 64 when Brian encountered his ex-girlfriend: *wuyenhi manna-ss-cyo* (I met her by accident). Based on previous literature, it can be argued that such English expressions would have drawn the television audience's attention to the features of Gura's talk (Baumgardner,

2006; Jung, 2001). Second, *Oh My GOD* also framed Gura's utterance as a device for creating a punchline when he suggested to Brian something he had not expected to hear. Notice that Gura kept a laughing voice while he was talking and that Brian displayed affiliation with his own laughter. By so doing, Gura took a teasing and ridiculing position although Brian did not provide any confirmation in an explicit way (Hepburn & Potter, 2013).

Clarifying utterances. English lexical items may serve as a device for clarifying speakers' utterances for a television audience. As Park (2009) argues, the subtitles provide the potential response of "an external viewer" represented by a program producer (p. 552). He identified this function of subtitles as part of "impact captioning" by which discourse contents become easier for a television audience to understand (p. 550). In this section, I will show how English words support this telop function of clarification.

Excerpt 4.10 shows that an English word can be used for repair in a telop. In a previous conversation, Yuri and Ryeowon had talked about their youth when they had belonged to different Korean girl bands. They had shared that Yuri's band had been more popular and that they were not close to each other at the time because they were in intense competition.

Excerpt 4.10 HC0504, YR: Yuri, RW: Ryeowon, TL: Telop

81 YR: wuli-ka kuttay-nun, chinhay-ci-l sayngkak-ul mos-hay-ss-nuntey(.)
we-SB then-TP intimate-become-RL thing-ACC NEG-do-PST-CIRCUM

82 encey↑ i-lehkey chinhay-cy-ess-ci?
when this-like intimate-become-PST-Q
"We didn't think of becoming intimate at that time. I wonder when we became intimate like this."

83 RW: kulekey::(.) kuntey(.) wuli group-un(.) neney toykey coha↓hay-ss-e.=

right but we -SB you so like-PST-IN

"Right. But our group liked you (your group) so much"

84 YR: =kulay-ss-na?

be.such-PST-Q

"Did you?"

85 RW: e:(.) insa-hal-lyeko↓(0.3) annyenghaseyyo:: lako hal-lyeko:::=

yes greeting-do-PURP 'Hello' COMP do-PURP

"Yes. We were supposed to give a greeting, say 'Hello'……"

86 YR: → =£kuntey wuli-n(.) **sikhu**-hakey pat-ass-ci£↓ (0.3) e:¿ [ney↓

but we-SB **chic**-AD receive-PST-IN uh yes

"But we received it in an apathetic (chic) way. 'Uh, yes.'"

87 TL: → **sikhu**? sikhuntwung!

chic apathetic

"Chic? Apathetic!"

Figure 4.22 Telop 'sikhu?, sikhuntwung!' (Line 87)

88 RW: an pw-ass-↑e↓(.) wuli ccok-ulo:: an pw-ass↑-tako↓::

NEG see-PST-IN we direction-to NEG see-PST-COMP

"You didn't give your eyes to us, to our direction. You didn't."

89 YR: → (0.7) wuli-n cengmal £**sikhu**-ha-yss-e£

we-SB really **chic**-do-PST-IN

"We were really apathetic (chic)"

90 **TL**: → wuli-n cengmal **sikhu**-ha-yss-e

we-SB really **chic**-do-PST-IN

"We were really apathetic (chic)"

Figure 4.23 Telop 'We were Chic' (Line 90)

91 RW: hhhh

81 YR: 우리가 그때는, 친해질 생각을 못했는데(.)

82 언제↑ 이렇게 친해 졌지?

83 RW: 그러게::(.) 근데(.) 우리 그룹은(.) 너네 되게 좋아 ↓했어.=

84 YR: =그랬나?

85 RW: 어:(.) 인사하려고↓(0.3) 안녕하세요:: 라고 하려고:::=

86 YR: → =£근데 우린(.) 시크하게 받았지£↓ (0.3) 어:¿ 네↓

87 **TL**: → 시크? 시큰둥!

88 RW: 안 봤↑어↓(.) 우리 쪽을:: 안 봤↑다고↓::

89 YR: → (0.7) 우리는 정말 £시크했어£

90 **TL**: → 우리는 정말 **시크**했어

91 RW: 하하하

In lines 81 and 82, Yuri was wondering how they became close friends because they had not been close to each other as members of different bands. In line 83, Ryeowon aligned with Yuri and then extended the topic by revealing that her band had liked Yuri's. Yuri responded with *kulay-ss-na?* (Did you?) as a request for confirmation to Ryeowon (line 84). Ryeowon confirmed Yuri's question and then persisted with her previous topic from line 83 by saying that her band was supposed to have given a greeting to Yuri's band. In the next line, however, Yuri persisted with her own topic, that they had not been close friends when they were young (line 86). Yuri's choice of English lexical item—*sikhu* (chic, apathetic)—displayed the distance in their relationship at that time. In frame 2, telop was added in line 87, intervening between the speakers and the television audience (see Figure 4.20). The telop took the English borrowing, *sikhu* (chic), as a trouble source based on the assumption that the audience might not understand its meaning. Accordingly, the telop self-repaired the repairable and changed it to its Korean counterpart, *sikhuntwung* (apathetic), because the telop cannot participate in the speakers' interactions.

The role of telop in this discourse was to clarify the use of the English word *sikhu* (chic) and its meaning in Korean. The action that telop chose for this purpose was repair. The visual effects also supported such an action of repair, as shown in Figure 4.22: *sikhu* (chic) was colored red, indicating that it might be problematic, while *sikhuntwung* (apathetic) was colored green, meaning that it was a suitable form for understanding. The fact that a potential trouble source for the television audience was repaired by telop was evident in the turns that followed. In line 88, Ryeowon formulated a complaint about Yuri's apathetic reaction to Ryeowon's greeting. After a

short pause, Yuri accepted and aligned with Ryeowon's complaint by using the English word *chic* again in line 89. Notice that the telop in line 90 did not recognize this word as a repairable, but put it in the textual representation, as shown in Figure 4.23. Also notable is that the green color used to visualize *chic-haysse* (was apathetic) meant that there was good understanding of the word in this local discourse. Since the meaning of *chic* had been introduced by telop in the repair in line 87, the telop recognized this word as being understandable to its audience.

The next excerpt shows that the English alphabet may be used to help the talk show audience understand what a speaker means in his or her use of specific words. This example was part of Excerpt 4.6 in which Gura asked Amber a question about her favorite music genre. As explained in Excerpt 4.6, Amber was a Taiwanese-American singer in Korea. Gura's native language was Korean, whereas Amber spoke English as her mother tongue. Thus, they had some difficulties in communicating with each other in Korean and/or in English. This section starts with this issue.

Excerpt 4.11 RS0206, GR: Gura, AM: Amber, TL: Telop

```
        gr:    +GZ down and reads a cue card
177     GR:    ani, ku, ce:: Amber::nun, umak-i ettay-yo? phwung-i Hip-Hop-i-yeyyo?
            by.the.way that the    TP   musi-TP  how-H.END type-TP     -COP-H.END
            "By the way, the..Amber, which type of music…Hip-hop is your phwung?"

        am:    +body forward
178     AM: → +(0.4) phwung?
                    type
                    "phwung?"
```

179 TL: Poong...?

gr: +*eyebrows up*

180 GR: +*phwung*. **tha::ip**.=

"Phwung, ty…pe."

181 AM: → =Ty:pe, a. ce-nun, solcikhi **Rock**-ilang **Indie-Metal** coha-[hanun

ah I-SB frankly Rock-and like-do

"Type, ah, I frankly like Rock and Indie-Metal…"

182 TL: → **lok(Rock)**ilang **meythal(Metal)**

Figure 4.24 Telop 'lok(Rock)ilang meythal (Metal)' (Line 182)

gr: +*eyebrows up*

183 GR: [e?

uh

"Uh?"

am: +*BH forward with mouth wide-open*

184 AM: → **Metal** (0.5) [wu::ee:: ha-nun ke, coha-ha-ko:::

EXC do-RL thing like-do-and

"Metal, I like things like Wow Wow"

gr: +*eyebrows up*

185 GR: +[o, Metal.

"Oh, metal"

177 GR: 아니, 그, 저:: 앰버::는, 음악이 어때요? 풍이 힙합이예요?

178 AM: (0.4) 풍?

179 TL: Poong...?

180 GR: 풍. Ty::pe.=

181 AM: =Ty:pe, 아. 저는, 솔직히 Rock 이랑 indie-metal 좋아[하는

182 TL: 록(Rock)이랑 메탈(Metal)

183 GR: [어?

184 AM: metal (0.5) [우어어::: 하는 거, 좋아하고:::

185 GR: [오, metal.

In response to Gura's institutional question about what genre of music she liked most (line 177), Amber initiated repair on a Korean lexical item—*phwung* (type)—by repeating it (line 178). Gura then changed the word, replacing it with an English lexical item—*thaip* (type)—for Amber's better understanding. In line 181, after Amber reached a proper understanding of *phwung* as *type*, she offered an answer to Gura's question in which she displayed her preference for *rock* and *metal* genres of music. Notice that the telop in line 182 highlighted these two genres of music by juxtaposing the bracketed English alphabet letters with their Korean representations (see Figure 4.24). Then, Gura suggested a problem with his understanding of these two English words with a repair marker, *e?* (uh?), in line 183. In response, Amber attempted to repair the new trouble source by repeating the word and reformulating it with her embodied action in line 184. Amber's repair was successful in helping Gura understand her utterance (line 185).

In addition to highlighting content (Furukawa, 2014), the telop in line 182 aimed to clarify Amber's utterance in line 181, where Amber's use of English in a Korean context might have created some trouble for other Korean speakers. This issue was explicitly brought up in the next turns, in which Gura suggested Amber's utterance was a source of trouble for his

understanding. The repair sequence that followed indicated that two English words, *lok* (rock) and *meythal* (metal), became a barrier in the communication between Gura and Amber. It seems that the trouble probably arose from Amber's native pronunciation of English rather than the English words themselves because the talk show program frequently deals with news about the guests and their favorite songs, and Gura is one of the talk show hosts. Based on this contextual clue, it can be argued that telop was used for clarification because the program editors noticed that the audience might have had trouble recognizing those English words in Amber's native pronunciation, as Gura did. Hence, they attempted to get rid of the source of the problem for understanding between the speakers in frame 1 and the audience in frame 3 by putting English words next to Korean transliteration of English in the telop (see Figure 4.20).

Providing the gist of utterances. While Park (2009) combines clarification and summary as part of the same function of subtitles, this paper addresses the role of sumary in a separate section. Previous research on social interactions in a conversation shows that a *gist formulation* is frequently used by an interviewer to summarize an interviewee's utterance (Antaki, Barner, & Leudar, 2005; Haritage & Watson, 1979). This section addresses how English lexical items contribute to telop's function of summarizing what a speaker has said.

Excerpt 4.12 shows that an English word may be used to adequately summarize part of a Korean speaker's utterance. In this episode, a talk show guest, Seokjeong, explained about her personality as an actress.

Excerpt 4.12 HC1002, SJ: Seokjeong, YR: Yuri, JD: Jedong, TL: Telop

sj: +*GZ at YR, BH forward*

23 SJ: +ce-poko, yokmang-i epsta: kule-nuntey(.)sasilun toykey manha↑-yo.:

I-to desire-ACC not.have such-CIRCUM in.fact so.much much-H.END.

"(People) said to me that I don't have any desire. In fact, I have so much."

yr: +*eyebrows up*

24 YR: +°e, yokmang-i-yo?°

uh desire-COP-H.END

"Uh, desire?"

25 SJ: kuke-y manh:-ase ttaymwuney, kuke-l cacey-ha-lyeko:: nolyek hay-yo.

that-SB much-PRE because that-ACC control-do-PURP effort do-H.END

"Because I have it much, I make an effort to control it."

26 YR: a::

"Ah…"

sj: +*GZ down* +*GZ at JD*

27 SJ: + kulehkey an::-sal-lyeko::(.) +kuntey:(.) ceytong-ssi-lul po-myen¿

like.that NEG-live-PURP by.the.way Name-AT-ACC see-COND

28 ku::le-n ek:cey hal-lye-nun:: nukkim-i tul-e-yo.

be.such-RL control do-PURP-INF feeling-SB come.in-INDC-H.END

"I try not to live like that.. By the way, when I see Jedong, I have such a feeling that you try to control it (desire)."

Figure 4.25 SJ's gaze at JD (Line28)

29 TL: → "tangsin-to yokmang ekcey-uy **aikhon**"

you-also desire control-GEN **icon**

"You are also an icon of controlling your desire."

Figure 4.26 Telop 'aikhon (icon)' (Line 29)

30 SJ: yokmang-i eps-nun-ke-y ani-la, kule-n yokmang-ul tasuli-lyeko,

desire-TP not-exist-RL-thing-COP NEC-CONT be.such-RL desire-ACC control-PURP

31 (.)mwucincang ay-lul ssu-nun key anin-ka::

very.much effort-ACC use-RL thing wonder-Q

"I wonder if you make a great effort to control your desire rather than not having it…"

yr: +*GZ at JD*

32 YR: + i yokmang tengeli:: [hhh

this desire mass

"You are such a mass of desire!"

jd: +*GZ away*

33 JD: +[hhh

34 SJ: [hhh

23 SJ: 저보고, 욕망이 없다:: 그러는데(.)사실은 되게 많아↑요.:

24 YR: °어, 욕망이요?°

25 SJ: 그게 많:아서, 그걸 자제하려고:: 노력 해요.

26 RY: 아::

27 SJ: 그렇게 안:: 살려고::(.) 근데:(.) 제동씨를 보면¿

28 그::런 억:제 할려는:: 느낌이 들어요.

29 TL: → "당신도 욕망 억제의 아이콘"

30 SJ: 욕망이 없는게 아니라(.) 그:런 욕망을 다스리려고,

31 (.)무진장, 애를 쓰시는 게 아닌가::

32 YR: 이 욕망 덩어리:: [hhh

33 JD: [hhh

34 SJ: [hhh

Seokjeong described herself as someone who had a great deal of sexual desire, in contrast to other people's expectations that she did not have any desire (line 23). Upon Yuri's responding with a newsmark in line 24, Seokjeong elaborated on the topic by saying that she made an effort to control her desire because she had so much of it (line 25). After Yuri responded to Seokjeong's statement by displaying affiliation with an empathy marker—*a::* (ah…)—in line 26, Seokjeong shifted the topic by mentioning her own personality to show her impression of Jedong, another of the show's hosts (lines 27-28). This topic shift was also evidenced by her shift of gaze from Yuri to Jedong (see Figure 4.25). It is worth noting that the telop in line 29 used an English lexical item, *icon*, to summarize what Seokjeong said in a previous turn. In lines 30 and 31, Seokjeong then extended her utterance about her understanding of Jedong's personality as making a great effort to control his desire. Yuri used her turn to call Jedong *yokmang tengeli* (a mass of desire) in a teasing and ridiculing way, which then created laughter among the others (lines 32, 33, and 34).

It is important to point out that a telop in line 29 performed the function of suggesting the gist of what a speaker talked about, and that it selected an English word for this purpose. The telop provided a summary of lines 27 to 28 and lines 30 to 31, where Seokjeong described Jedong as someone who had much desire, but made a great effort to control it, as she did herself. The English word *icon* was adopted as a semiotic device by an editor in frame 2 to construct Jedong's identity based on Seokjeong's utterance (Park, 2009). Note that the English word *aikhon* (icon) in line 29 was used in parallel with *tengeli* (mass) in Yuri's utterance in line 32, although these two words were used in different contexts. Thus, the comparison between *aikhon* (icon) in the telop and *tengeli* (mass) in Yuri's utterance shows that the telop packed Seokjeong's utterances into this one English word for the purpose of symbolic construction of Jedong's image. By so doing, the telop was effective at providing the gist of what Seokjeon had said.

The next excerpt shows how useful an English word may be in summarizing what a speaker has talked about. In this example, Seokjeong explained how inheriting an acting gene from her mother had led to her becoming an actor in Korea.

Excerpt 4.13 HC1009, SJ: Seokjeong, JD: Jedong, TL: Telop, All: All speakers

253 SJ: kuntey, wuli emma caynung cwung-ey(.) yenki-to iss-ess-e-yo.
by.the.way my mom talent among-at acting-also exist-PST-INDC-H.END
"By the way, acting was one of the talents my mom had."

254 All: a::

255 SJ: yeysnal emma colep aylpem-ul po-nikka(.) sang-ul than ke-yey-yo.
long.ago mom graduation yearbook-ACC see-CAUSAL award-ACC win thing-COP-H.END

256 (.)cenkwuk haksayng yenkukce-yeyse, yenkisang-ul::

national students theatre.festival-at acting.prize.ACC

257 (.)ku-ke-l, na-hanthey swum-ki-ko iss-ess-ten ke-yey-yo.

that-thing-ACC I-to hide-CAUS-CONJ COP-PST-RL thing-COP-H.END.

"When I looked at my mom's old yearbook, I found that she won an award. It was an acting prize at a national students' theatre festival. I found that she had hidden it from me."

258 All: a::

259 SJ: (0.5) kuntey, ku-ke-y(.) papo yenki-y-ess-e-yo.

by.the.way that-thing-SB fool acting-COP-PST-INDC-H.END

260 (0.8) cey-ka(.)inceng pat-ass-ten ke-y, papo yekhal-i-ke-tunyo.

I.H-SB recognize receive-PST-RL thing-SB fool role-COP-thing-H.END

"By the way, that was her acting of a fool. What I was recognized by is a role as a fool."

261 JD: wa….

EXC

"Wow"

262 SJ: solum-kkichi-tela-kwuyo.

goose.bumps-cause-FH.EV-H.END

"I got goosebumps."

263 TL: → Seokjeong yenkuk-insayng-uy **theningphointhu** yeksi papo yenki!

Name theatre-life-GEN **turning.point** also fool acting

"The turning point in Seokjeong's life was also the acting of a fool."

Figure 4.27 Telop, 'turning piont'

253 SJ: 근데, 우리 엄마 재능 중에(.) 연기도 있었어요.
254 All: 아::
255 SJ: 옛날 엄마 졸업 앨범을 보니까(.) 상을 탄 거예요.
256 (.)전국 학생 연극제에서, 연기상을::
257 (.) 그걸, 나한테 숨기고 있었던 거예요.
258 일동: 아::
259 SJ: (0.5)근데, 그게(.) 바보 연기였어요.
260 (0.8)제가(.) 인정 받았던 게, 바보 역할이거든요.
261 JD: 와….
262 SJ: 소름끼치더라구요.
263 TL: 석정 연극인생의 터닝포인트 역시 바보 연기!

Although there was no salient interaction among the speakers in this excerpt, the role of English lexical items is noteworthy regarding the function of telop: providing the gist of a speaker's utterance in frame 2. In lines 253 to 257, Seokjeong shared information about her mother's career as an actor that had been concealed from her until she had found her mother's old yearbook. Seokjeong extended her comments in lines 259 and 260, saying that she had discovered what she and her mother had in common in terms of their roles: playing a fool. She went on to say that she had been recognized as an actor by the public when she acted the part of

a fool in a drama, just as her mother had performed on the stage as a fool when she was a student (lines 259-260). She stated that, at that very moment she realized she had found her talent as an actor, which was displayed by *solum-kkichi-tela-kwuyo* (I got goosebumps). Note that the telop in line 263 summarized what she shared in her life story about how she realized her aptitude for acting. In this telop, an English phrase, *thening phointhu* (turning point), was selected in frame 2 to capture the very moment of her realization in an efficient way. Thus, this excerpt can be used to show that English words can help provide the gist of a speaker's utterances (see Figure 4.27).

English lexical items contribute to enacting a gist formulation in a telop, which is positioned between the speakers and the television audience. In the two excerpts above, English words achieve a semiotic function for social interactions (Seargeant, 2010). Telop, "a type of intralingual caption," serves as the semiotics of typography to construct a textual resource for the display of interactions for the language users (Furukawa, 2014, p. 26). Thus, English words act as a symbolic device by which a speaker's utterances are condensed and the gist of their meaning can be summarized in telop.

Language play to create humor. Language play is one of the important strategies in which English words also make significant contributions to telop's function of producing humor. Previous research showed that language play is helpful for increasing language awareness in verbal interactions through humor (Ahn, 2016; Cook, 2000; Crystal, 1996). Belz (2002) argued that a speaker's play with language not only shows his or her linguistic awareness, but also the speaker's competence in terms of linguistic creativity. Particularly in television entertainment shows, creative use of language play is often shown to facilitate social interactions among the

speakers (Furukawa, 2016). This section pays attention to this aspect of language play with a particular focus on the role of English words in creating humor.

In Excerpt 4.14, talk show participants engaged in the opening of the show by introducing Seokjeong, who brought with her a painting that she said she drew for Jedong. In this example, the English word *no* played an important role in creating humor based on language play in telop.

Excerpt 4.14 HC1001, SJ: Seokjeong, YR: Yuri, JD: Jedong, TL: Telop

((SJ gives JD her painting as a gift))

06 SJ: ce-y: maum-i-yey-yo.
I-GEN mind-COP-COP-H.END
"This is from my heart."

07 JD: komap-supnita. cey-ka camca-nun pang(.) meli math-ey::
thank-DEC.H.END I-SB sleep-RL room head around-at
"Thank you. I (will hang it) at my bedside…"

08 SJ: kule-si-l cwul al-ass-e-yo hhh
be.such-H-RL way know-PST-INDC-H.END
"That is what I expected. Hahaha"

09 JD: £mwe-l:: kule-si-l cwul al-ass-e-yo::£ hhh
what-ACC be.such-H-RL way know-PST-INDC-H.END

10 hhh £kuleh-ta-ko i-ke-l, hyenkwan-ey kele-noh-ul swu-n, eps-unikka:£
be.such-DEC-COMP this-thing-ACC front.door-at hang-put-RL way-TP not.exist.CAUSAL
"What…did you expect…? Hahaha. But I can't hang this around the front door"

11 SJ: °al-ass-e-yo°

know-ANT-DEC-H.END

"I see."

12 JD: kuntey, mwe(.) ku:le-n i:seng-cek-in nukkim-i ani-ko,

but well be.such-RL opposie.sex-RL feeling-TP NEG-and

13 kunyang, pangsong-ulo::

just broadcasting-INSTR

"But, well, it is not such a feeling of romance, but just for the show."

14 TL: → wuli han-pen manna po-llay-yo? **YES**?? **NO**??

we one-time meet see-try-H.END

"Shall we date? YES?? NO??"

Figure 4.28 Telop, 'Yes, Not" (Line 14)

((It starts raining))

15 TL: hanul-i NO no-ha-m?!!

sky-SB NO angry-do-NOM

"The Sky is 'NO', angry?!!"

Figure 4.29 Telop, 'No' (Line 15)

16 JD: cekcel-hi(.) cekcel-hi::

timely-AD

"Timely, timely (rain)"

17 TL: chwalyeng cwungtan

shooting stop

"Shooting stops"

18 TL: → 'pi an on-ta'teni cengmal hanul-i **NO** no-ha-yss-na?

rain NEG come-DEC.END really sky-SB **NO** angry-do-ANT-Q

"It was told that it would not rain. Does the sky really get 'NO' angry?"

Figure 4.30 Telop, 'NO' (Line 18)

((All stop talking and come inside the building))

((석정이 제동에게 그림을 선물로 준다))

06 SJ: 제: 마음이예요.

07 JD: 고맙습니다. 제가 잠자는 방(.) 머리 맡에::

08 SJ: 그러실 줄 알았어요 hhh

09 JD: £뭘:: 그러실 줄 알았어요::£ 대문자

10 JD: hhh £그렇다고 이걸, 현관에 걸어놓을 순, 없으니까:£

11 SJ: °알았어요°

12 JD: 근데, 뭐(.) 그:런 이:성적인 느낌이 아니고,

13 그냥, 방송으로::

14 TL: 우리 한번 만나 볼래요? YES?? NO??

((비가 오기 시작한다))

15 TL: 하늘이 NO 노함?!!

16 JD: 적절히(.) 적절히::

17 TL: 촬영 중단

18 TL: '비 안 온다'더니 정말 하늘이 NO 노했나?

((일동 중단하고 건물 안으로 들어간다))

By presenting her drawing to Jedong, Seokjeong attempted to create a romantic ambient in her relationship with him. In line 7, Jedong responded with a display of alignment to Seokjeong's expression of her feelings by saying that he would put it at his bedside. In line 8, Seokjeong upgraded her utterance of line 6 by affiliating with Jedong's preceding talk (Bilmes, 2011). However, Jedong rejected Seokjeong's upgrade in the following line, a rejection that was then accepted by Seokjeong in the next line. Jedong further elaborated on his rejection in lines 12 and 13, saying that his affiliation with Seokjeong was not for romance but for the program. It is important to note that the telop in line 14 framed their relationship as a romantic one in which they were checking out their emotion to each other (see Furukawa, 2014, for a discussion of the framing function of telop in television shows). Based on this frame, the telop interpreted the rain in the next scene as the sky's display of anger toward their romance (line 15). This was where language play was employed in the telop, along with another textual intervention in line 18.

It is worth pointing out that the phonetic ambiguity between the English word *no* (rejection or objection) and the Korean word *no* (anger) in line 15 were the source of the language play (Figure 4.29). While the English lexical item *no* was being used to mean the sky's rejection of Seokjeong's romantic offer on behalf of Jedong, the Korean word *no* could have been referring to the sky's anger toward Seokjeong's attitude. These two words were also readable as an answer to the preceding telop in line 14, which posed a yes-no question about a date that they are going on (Figure 4.28). Thus, the two words were used to index the same sequential actions based on the similarity in their phonetic feature, and although they differ in their precise meaning, they conveyed the same overall idea: disapproval of a romantic mood between Seokjeong and Jedong. This framing function of telop was confirmed by Jedong's evaluative utterance regarding rain in line 16, where he used *cekcelhi* to mean "timely rain." Then the scene of an abrupt halt in an outdoor shot was tagged with another telop showing complaint on the sky's *no*, which could also be interpreted either as rejection or as anger, based on code ambiguity (line 18, Figure 4.30).

Ahn (2016) argued that language play using English and Korean words that have similar phonetic features creates humor and then further increases language learners' awareness of the target language. According to Moody (2009), code ambiguation drawing on phonetic similarity between lexical items from different languages is made possible in indexical and "iconic language contact" rather than "communicative language contact" (p. 187). In the excerpt discussed above, the English word *no* was also used to create humor for an indexical purpose: the telop considered the television audience to have bilingual competence in understanding language play between English and Korean. Thus, it can be argued that English words can contribute to creating humor based on subjective knowledge shared by the members of the

Korean speech community, which is emerging as a bilingual (Korean and English) speech community.

Display of bilingual competence. The use of English words in constructing Korean telop often assumes that a television audience has bilingual competence in English and Korean in two aspects: (1) affiliation with a standard variety of English; and (2) language mixing of Korean and English. For this purpose, telop takes the position of a bilingual speaker who bridges between a speaker and his or her audience in terms of the institutional authority. Park (2009) argues:

> "[The telop shows the] semiotics of media texts—how language ideologies and other resources of discourse production that constrain the interpretation of texts are invoked and manipulated on the textual, semiotic level to generate the effect of regimentation, serving as the foundation for the institution's authority" (p. 548).

Thus, English in telop reveals the institutional attitude toward the use of English in the Korean speech community: the institution's orientation of identity toward bilingualism and its assumption that the television audience can understand English texts.

The first type of English use in telop that shows the bilingual competence of the Korean speech community is telop's inclination for the use of a standard variety of English. Aside from the ontologist judgment of Standard English, Excerpt 4.15 shows that telop's representation of English pronunciation aims for Standard English. Prior to Excerpt 4.15, Gura had shared a story in which he had supported Seho, one of the famous comedians in Korea. Then Jongshin

intervened, saying that he had also contributed to Seho's success as a television entertainer. However, Gura argued that he could not accept Jongshin's part in patronizing Seho.

Excerpt 4.15 RS0201, JS: Jongshin, GR: Gura, TL: Telop, All: All speakers

```
        js:     +GZ at GR
10      JS:     + ne-lul(.) ne-lul, nwu-ka coceng-ha-ni?
                    you-ACC   you-ACC  who-SB control-do-Q
                "You, you, who controls (you)?"

        gr:     +GZ at JS
11      GR:     +(.)cham::na:
                    EXC
                  "What the…"

        sj:     +GZ at the front camera
12      JS:     +(.) ce-y oyn-ccok son-ey, limokhon-i iss-sup-ni-ta.
                    I-GEN left-side hand-at romote.controller-TP exist-POL-DET-DEC
                "I have a remote control on my left hand."

13      TL:     kwula apatha, ce-y oyn-ccok son-ey, limokhon-i iss-sup-ni-ta.
                name  avatar I-GEN left-side hand-at romote.controller-TP exist-POL-DET-DEC
                "Gura avatar, I have a remote controller on my left hand."

14      All:    hhh

        gr:     +GZ at JS
15      GR: →   +hhh ppastteyli-na kal-a: ppastteyli-na::
                    battery-rather change-IMP
                "Change the battery, battery"
```

16 TL: → twayss-ko, **paytheli**-na kal-a **paytheli**na!
enough-and **battery**-rather change-IMP
"Stop it. Change its battery, battery"

Figure 4.31 Telop, 'battery' (Line 16)

17 All: hhh

10 JS: 너를(.) 너를, 누가 조정하니?
11 GR: (.)참::나:
12 JS: (.)제 왼쪽 손에, 리모콘이 있습니다.
13 TL: 구라 아바타, 제 왼쪽 손에 리모콘이 있습니다.
14 All: hhh
15 GR: hhh 빳데리나 갈아: 빳떼리나::
16 TL: 됐고, 배터리나 갈아 배터리나!
17 All: hhh

Jongshin's question in line 10 can be understood as confirming that he was the person who controlled Gura, seeking Gura's alignment with him. Gura responded to this request for confirmation with a rejection marker—*cham::na:* (what the…)—in line 11. However, Jongshing elaborated on his utterance of line 10 in a teasing and humorous way by saying that he had a remote controller that he could use to manipulate Gura (line 12). Telop in line 13 collaborates

with Jongshin in teasing and ridiculing Gura by using an English word *apatha* (avatar) to refer to Gura. Jongshin's talk created laughter among all the speakers in the scene, which was followed by another punchline from Gura in line 15, where he rather ridiculed Jongshin by saying *ppasteyli-na kal-a* (change its battery) to mean that Jongshin's remote controller of Gura was not working because its battery was dead. A Korean particle, *-na*, was used to limit Jongshin's work to what Gura told him to do. Telop in line 16 collaborated with Gura's teasing by repeating his utterance (see Figure 4.31).

Worth noticing is that the telop in line 16 did transcribed Gura's utterance, but not his pronunciation. Although Gura pronounces the word *battery* as *ppasteyli* in line 15, telop in line 16 transcribes it as *paytheli*. Gura's pronunciation is close to Korean English whereas telop's transcription reflects a British or American English accent. This showed that the editors' institutional authority favored the Inner Circle English recognized as Standard English over a Koreanized English (Trudgill & Hannah, 2002). Johnstone (2014) argued that a specific speech community has a paradigmatic model for an authentic speaker in terms of positioning different types of dialects. Telop in this discourse can be interpreted as affiliating with an authentic or ideal speaker of English in a Korean English-speaking context. Therefore, the difference between the way a speaker uses English and the way telop uses it shows a salient tension between the Korean English spoken by the ordinary members of a Korean speech community and the standard variety of English targeted by an institutional authority.

The next short excerpt shows a similar phenomenon from a different perspective. In this example, telop reconstructed an original English word from a Koreanized English word in terms of its form. In Excerpt 4.16, Hyeonseong talked about how he dealt with celebrities who visited his restaurant. In a previous conversation, he had said that he did not offer any privilege to them.

Excerpt 4.16 RS0102, GH: Gyuhyeon, HS: Hyeonseong, JS: Jongshin, GR: Gura, TL: Telop

17 GH: keki(.) heynli-ssi-nun way iss-ess-cyo?
there NAME-AT-TP why exist-PST-H.Q
"Why was Henry there?"

((Lines 18-20 omitted))

21 HS: heynli-ssi-nun, cwupang kwukyeng-ha-le wa-ss-e-yo.
NAME-AT-TP kitchen look.around-do-PURP come-PST-DCT-H.END
"Henry came to look around my kitchen."

22 JS: a, cwupang kwukyeng-ha-le?
EXC kitchen look.around-do-PURP
"Ah, to look around your kitchen?"

23 GR: → (.)kuntey, heynli-hako-nun, **khollapo**-lul hay-se::
by.the.way NAME-with-TP **collaborate**-ACC do-PRE

24 (.)sutheyikhu sse-l ttay yeph-eyse i-ke::
steak cut-RL time side-at this-thing
"By the way, you can collaborate with Henry… He can do this thing when you cut steak"

25 TL: → heynli-hako-nun **khellaypeleyisyen** hay-kaci-ko
NAME-with-TP **collaboration** do-with-and
"You can collaborate with Henry."

Figure 4.32 Telop, 'collaboration' (Line 25)

26 All: hhhhh

27 GR: kwaynchanh-ul kes kath-untey?
good-RL thing like-CIRCUM
"It looks like a good idea."

17 GH: 거기(.) 헨리씨는 왜 있었죠?
((Lines 18-20 omitted))
21 HS: 헨리씨는, 주방 구경하러 왔어요.
22 JS: 아, 주방 구경하러?
23 GR: (.) 근데, 헨리하고는, 콜라보를 해서::
24 (.) 스테이크 썰 때 옆에서 이거::
25 TL: 헨리하고는 컬래버레이션 해가지고
26 All: hhhhh
27 GR: 괜찮을 것 같은데?

In line 17, Gyouhyeon asked why Henry, a famous singer in Korea, had been with Hyeonseong in his kitchen even though Hyeonseong usually did not allow celebrities to be there. To this question, Hyeonseong responded that Henry had come to his kitchen to look around (line 21). Then Jongshin gave a newsmark, *a*, and sought confirmation for Hyeonseok's preceding utterance. In line 23, Gura self-selected the next turn and suggested that Hyeonseok collaborated

with Henry in his kitchen. Notice that Gura used *khollapo*, a clipped English version of *collaboration*, articulating it with a Korean English accent. In comparison, the telop in line 25 used *khellaypeleyisyen*, the full English word in a British or American English pronunciation, to highlight Gura's utterance from line 23. Thus, how English words were used in the telop showed the institution's mixed attitude toward Korean English and its preference for an American English form and accent (Ahn, 2014). It can be argued that the intention was to attempt to use an authentic English style for the telop to appeal to a television audience that was in favor of American English in general (see Duncan, 2017, for performing authenticity).

The next excerpt addressed language mixing of English and Korean in telop, where the English alphabet instead of the Korean alphabet was used for English words. In Excerpt 4.17, participants in the episode talked about Daeseong's make-up and hair style. Myeongsu first asked Daeseong about the recent change in his appearance with a focus on his eyes.

Excerpt 4.17 HT0803, MS: Myeongsu, JS: Jaeseok, DS: Daeseong,

```
       ms:    +GZ at DS
43     MS:    + tayseng-ssi-nun nwun, senghyeng-ha-sy-ess-e-yo?
                 NAME-AT-SB      eye  plastic.surgery-do-POL-ANT-DEC-H.END
              "Daeseong! Did you have a plastic surgery on your eyes?"

       js:    +GZ at DS
44     JS:    +£nwun-i te caka-cy-ess-nuntey?£ hhh
              eye(s)-TP more small-PAS-ANT-CIRCUM
              "Your eyes got smaller."

       ds:    +BH forward
```

45 DS: + a:: i-ke-y(.) meyikhep-ul pothong nwun-ey ha-nuntey,

this-thing-TP makeup-ACC usually eyes-at do-CIRCUM

46 ipen-ey-n(.) i meli-khalak ttaymwuney, an ha-yss-e-yo.

this.time-at-TP this head-hair because NEG do-PST-COP-H.END

"Ah… I usually wear makeup on my eyes. (But) I didn't do it this time because of this hair.

js: +*body backward*

47 JS: +a::

ds: +*opends his hair, stares at the front camera*

48 DS: → +(.) i-ke-y, cincca **phyue**-han ce-y nwun-iyey-yo

this-thing-TP really **pure**-RL I-GEN eyes-COP-H.END

"This is really my pure eyes."

49 TL: → **Pure eyes**

Figure 4.33 Telop, 'Pure eyes' (Line 49)

js: +*claps*

50 JS: +hhhhh

43 MS: 대성씨는 눈, 성형하셨어요?

44 JS: £눈이 더 작아졌는데?£ hhh

45 DS: 아:: 이게(.) 메이컵을 보통 눈에 하는데,

46 이번엔(.) 이 머리카락 때문에, 안 했어요.

47 JS: 아::

48 DS: (.)이게, 진짜 퓨어한 제 눈이예요

49 TL: pure eyes

50 JS: hhhhh

In line 43, after noticing some changes in Daeseong's eyes, Myeongsu asked him if he'd had plastic surgery on his eyes. Jaeseok, in line 44, collaborated with Myeongsu by asking why Daeseong's eyes were smaller than before. Jaeseok's laughing voice and laughter after his utterance showed that he was speaking to Daeseong in a teasing way. In lines 45 and 46, Daeseong responded with an excuse that his eyes looked smaller because he did not wear makeup on his eyes. After Jaeseok's offer of a newsmark, Daeseong elaborated on his preceding utterance about his small eyes, saying (line 48) that his eyes without makeup were *phyue-han ce-y nwun* (my pure eyes). Note that the telop in line 49 highlighted the Korean English word *phyue* by transcribing it into the English word *pure* along with another English word, *eyes*, which was translated from the Korean word *nwun* (eye). As shown in Figure 4.33, the telop adopted the English alphabet to transcribe part of Daeseong's utterance. This type of English use in the telop showed that the editors recognized their Korean audience as being able to understand the English language with bilingual competence.

Excerpt 4.18 shows another aspect of English and Korean mixing: an English adverbial word embedded within a Korean sentence. In this excerpt, Yeongnam, a famous cartoonist in Korea, shared how he had developed his drawing skills in his youth, saying that he engaged in his drawing practice while he had social gatherings with his friends.

Excerpt 4.18 HC0708, YM: Yeongman, GG: Gyeonggyu, TL: Telop, All: All speakers

186 YM: salam-tul-hako swul-ul masita-ka(.) tayhwa-ka kkunh-ki-myen,
people-PL-with alchohol-ACC drink-IMPF talk-TP pause-PAS-COND

187 can: patchim-ey han salam-ssik kuly-e,
glass coaster-at one person-each draw-DEC
"When people's talk is at a pause while they are drinking, I draw each person on a beer coaster.

188 GG: a::

189 YM: → na-y: yensup kyem hay-se, pwunwiki-to pakkwul kyem hay-se::
I-GEN practice and do-PRE atmosphere-also change and do-PRE
"I did it not only for my own practice but also for changing the mood."

190 TL: → [ilsekico] kulim-yensup + pwunwiki **UP**!!
killing.two.birds.with.one.stone drawing-practice atmosphere **up**
"[Killing two birds with one stone] Drawing Practice + Atmosphere UP!!"

Figure 4.34 Telop, 'Up' (Line 190)

191 GG: a::

192 YM: kulentey, namca-tul-un cal wus-ko nem-e-ka-yo:
by.the.way man-PL-TP well laugh-and pass-COP-go-H.END
"By the way, men laugh well and pass it over…"

gg: +*body forward*

193 GG: + yeca-tul-un:¿

woman-PL-TP

"Women…?"

194 YM: yeca-tul-un, caki-ka cenpwu paykselkongcwu-i-n cwul al-a.

woman-PL-TP self-SB all snow.white-COP-RL way know-INDC

"All of women think of themselves as White Snow."

195 All: hhhh

186 YM: 사람들하고 술을 마시다가(.) 대화가 끊기면,

187 잔: 받침에 한 사람씩 그려,

188 GG: 아::

189 YM: 내: 연습 겸 해서, 분위기도 바꿀 겸 해서::

190 TL: [일석이조] 그림연습 분위기 UP!!

191 GG: 아::

192 YM: 그런데, 남자들은 잘 웃고 넘어가요:

193 GG: 여자들은:¿

194 YM: 여자들은, 자기가 전부 백설공주인 줄 알아.

195 All: hhhh

Yeongnam explained that he practiced drawing his friends on beer coasters during a pause in their conversation (lines 186-187). After Gyeonggyu, in line 188, gave a newsmark to align with Yeongnam's utterance, Yeongnam persisted with his preceding topic and elaborated on why he drew his friends while drinking with them (line 189). He said that he engaged in such a practice to improve the mood at the gathering. In line 190, the telop used a paraphrasing of his utterance: *kulim-yensup* + *pwunwiki UP!!* (Drawing Practice + Atmosphere UP!!), which showed a skillful mixing of Korean and English, combining *pwunwiki* (atmosphere) and *UP*

(Figure 4.34). Notice that an English word, *up*, written with Roman alphabet letters was used in the telop instead of the Korean English word *ep* (up). The selection of an English word by editors for the telop may be interpreted as aiming to be attention-getting (Jung, 2001). However, this interpretation is not enough to fully explain the choice, because there are also a variety of other methods to draw audience attention to a particular scene, which include the color, size, and font of letters used in telop.

It is worth pointing out that the telop did not repeat what Yeongman had articulated, but reconstructed what he had been talking about by using the English word *up*. While Yeongnam used a Korean noun, *pwunwiki* (atmosphere), and verb, *pakkwu-* (change), to explain why he did figure drawing (line 189), the telop in 190 replaced the verb *pakkwu-* with the English adverb *up* to show clearly what Yeongnam had meant. Thus, *up* was used to creatively reshape Yeongnam's utterance, further indicating that an English lexical item may be useful for conveying an editor's voice in telop. It is also worth noting that *up* was selected for telop instead of *pakkwu-* to appeal to the audience in frame 3 based on the assumption that they can understand the framing strategy of telop (see Figure 4.20). In frame 2, telop is used to bridge between talk show participants in frame 1 and the television audience in frame 3 (Park, 2009), therefore the target audience in Excerpt 4.1 was considered to share the subjective knowledge of *up* in Korean discourse. Thus, this excerpt showed that the Korean speech community, which has been believed to be monolingual, is in the initial stage of becoming a bilingual speech community (Brutt-Griffler, 2000).

Summary of Chapter Four

In this chapter, I analyzed the conversations of Korean speakers on television talk shows for their use of English lexical, phrasal, and sentential items in their interactions for the purpose of communication. CA and MCA of the talk show data revealed that Korean interactants are active agents who use English in their conversations for better communication rather than being passive recipients who are under the influence of a global English. As Moody (2009) argued, the nativization of English into a local language is associated with a communicative situation, and the use of English has been adopted by the speakers on Korean talk shows for multiple communicative purposes. Thus, talk show speakers' various interactions in their conversations revealed the discourse and context where nativization of English takes place in a Korean speech community.

CA and MCA of the data showed that Korean speakers on television talk shows used English in their conversations to build up their footing. The data in this section showed that talk show speakers used a contrast pair to display their footing in a discourse (Francis & Hart, 1997). English nonce borrowings are useful for constructing a contrast pair along with a Korean word. For example, in Excerpt 4.1, Ajoong adopted an English nonce borrowing, *seyksyuel* (sexual), to set up a contrast pair with the Korean word *nachsen* (unfamiliar): by so doing, she suggested her footing as a friend, not as Jedong's potential girlfriend. An English word also may function as a euphemism and contribute to relieving a negative atmosphere caused by using a word with a sensitive connotation for the speakers. In Excerpt 4.2, the English word *khonthulol* (control) contributed to Taeyang displaying his dual footing as an artist. *Khonthulol* was used to construct a contrast pair along with its Korean counterpart *alase* (for oneself) or *thechi-lul an-ha* (not touch). Thus, it can be argued that English words may be useful to a speaker for displaying his or her footing in an interaction with other speakers in a Korean conversation.

English lexical items can also act as category predicates for constructing MCDs to contribute to Korean speakers' forming their identities in conversation. Interactants' lexical choices often show the orientation of their stance and status (Jekins, 2013) in interactions with others. Korean speakers often choose English nonce borrowings to achieve such an aim because nonce borrowings from a foreign language are likely to attract an audience's attention to the local discourse (Baumgardner, 2006; Jung, 2001). In Excerpts 4.3 and 4.4, English lexical items functioned as category predicates for MCDs in speakers' shaping of their identities during interactions with others. In Excerpt 4.3, the constituents of MCDs, such as the English words *phulleyithing*, *teykho*, *meynyu*, *seysthing*, and *leysiphi*, were used by Hyeonseok to show his head chef identity. The English word *meynyu* in Excerpt 4.4 displayed another aspect of Hyeonseok's chef identity in a presented contrast between *khaphi* (copy) as a cooking skill and creating *meynyu* (menu) as his qualification.

In some cases, English borrowings are salient during Korean speakers' speech because they show the speakers' bilingual identity of Korean and English. Although the South Korean speech community still belongs to Type B according to Brutt-Griffler's (2000) macroacquisition theory, the degree of bilingualism differs from person to person: some people have a more bilingual status than others. Such individual differences may have an effect on the way in which speakers interact with each other (Grosjean, 2010; Henry & Tator, 2002; Raymond, 2015; Schmidt, 2014). In comparison with Excerpts 4.3 and 4.4, where all speakers were similar in their bilingual capacity, speakers in Excerpts 4.5 and 4.6 showed different scales of bilingualism in English and Korean. Whereas speakers in Excerpts 4.3 and 4.4 shared enough subjective knowledge about the English words they used, those in Excerpts 4.5 and 4.6 had different degrees of subjective knowledge, which gave them some trouble with their communication. In

Excerpt 4.5, Ryeowon addressed this communicative problem with self-repair, whereas in Excerpt 4.6, Amber dealt with the problem source in communication with a repair operation initiated by the other Korean speaker. In both cases, it is important to point out that their interactions with other speakers displayed their bilingual identity in terms of using language mixing of English and Korean. This finding corroborates previous research and may be used to argue that a speaker's identity is co-constructed in an interaction with others (Jenks, 2013).

Another function of English in Korean conversations is to create humor for better communication. Humor is an important formulation in television talk shows in terms of facilitating interactions among speakers as well as appealing to the audience. English lexical items are frequently adopted to produce humor in talk shows based on their ability to get attention from audiences (Lee, 2014). In Excerpt 4.7, English words were used to appreciate a previous speaker's utterance as something comical. A Korean word—*changco-cek* (creative)—in Hyeonwoo's utterance was repeated by Gura as *creative*, then Hyeonwoo reformulated this English word into *creative-han mind*, which was followed by Gyuhyeon's repetition for savoring. It is important to note that this formulation of creating humor is being produced by all interactants who engage in a cooperative work by reformulating and repeating those English words. In Excerpt 4.8, two English lexical items—*khonsethu sukheycyul* (concert schedule) and *khaynsul* (cancel)—were used by Geonmo as a punchline to produce the formulation of humor, and at the same time, these English words played an important role as MCDs to display his singer identity. It is notable that the function of English borrowings in creating humor is also valid for facilitating interactions among the speakers. This finding supports previous research arguing that humor is a good strategy for effective communication because of its ability to

support the building up of a social relationship among interlocutors (Kurtzberg, Naquin, & Belkin, 2009; Martineau, 1972; Nezlek & Derks, 2001).

CA and DA of telop showed that there are multiple roles for English in constructing the telop of Korean television talk shows. In this section, I paid attention to speakers' interactions in which English words contributed to building up telop for diverse functions in Korean conversations. First, Excerpt 4.9 showed that code-switching of English and Korean words contributed to framing speakers' statements into the formulation of surprise and humor. In this function, telop directed the television audience in the way that it understood and evaluated speakers' utterances by using English. Second, telop picked English words out of speakers' utterances to clarify what was meant and to highlight the words. Third, English lexical items have been used in telop to summarize and provide the gist of a speaker's utterance. In Excerpt 4.12, the English word *aikhon* (icon) is the symbolic device in frame 2 that suggested an evaluation of show host Jedong's personality. *Thening phointhu* (turning point) in Excerpt 4.13 summarized a show guest's long explanation in just two English words for the better understanding of the program audience. Fourth, English words are the foundation for language play that creates humor for the television audience in frame 3. Excerpt 4.14 showed that code ambiguity between English and Korean is used as a source of humor. Finally, English use in telop reflects the bilingual competence of the television audience as well as the speakers on a talk show. Since the interactions among the speakers are based on shared subjective knowledge (Brutt-Griffler, 2000), diverse types of English use in telop indicates the cline of English proficiency shared by the members of the Korean speech community. Also, the English used in the telop shows the attitudes of the institutional authority toward the varieties of English in the Korean speech community. It has been found that telop is sometimes in favor of the standard

variety of English in its orthographic representation although the speakers on talk shows generally have a Korean English accent.

Furukawa (2014) argued that telop functions as a textual resource to project an interaction among the speakers in television entertainment shows. This chapter also found that English words in telop are employed as a semiotic tool to suggest the highlights of a speaker's interactions for multiple purposes in frame 2. It is worth pointing out that telop usually does not repeat a speaker's utterance, but reconstructs it using English words as a semiotic tool to display the institution's voice.

Conversation analysis, along with MCA and Goffman's analysis of footing, has revealed that English lexical borrowing in a local language contributes to building up a speaker's stance in a conversation. The previous research on language mixing of English and a local language had its main interests in the emergence of a social or national identity either at the macro-level or the linguistic level. The present study, on the other hand, showed that the formation of identity construction can be observed in a local context among the interlocutors who use English words. This research further showed, at a conversational level, what motivated those who were previously monolingual to become potentially bilingual by incorporating English words into their native language. Finally, this study revealed that such motivation is articulated not only by a linguistic mechanism, but also by a dynamic social interaction between speakers.

CHAPTER FIVE

Attitudes of University Professors and English Teachers toward the Spread of English and English Language Teaching

Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of university professors' and English teachers' attitudes toward the spread of English into the South Korean speech community, language change, and their implication for English language education and policy in South Korea. By analyzing the data about these two primary agents' voice on the English language spread, this chapter explores how the macroacquisition of English takes place in the South Korean speech community and how the process of language spread and language change are associated with English language education and policy in South Korea.

In the survey questionnaires, the social manifestation of English acquisition in South Korea has been explored in four aspects based on Brutt-Griffler's (2002) and Hatano's (2013) argument for a significant roles of agents in language spread and language policy: *The spread of English and language change, understanding of English borrowings, English borrowings and English learning,* and *English borrowings and English education policy*. Brutt-Griffler (2002) argues that the outcome of English spread into the local context is language change and that this process has an influence on English language policy. Hatano (2013) states that the attitudes and voice of diverse groups which are involved in the use of English, the teaching and learning of English, and the planning of English language policy are significant to the English language spread into a local speech community. Thus, this chapter deals with the attitudes of university professors and English teachers toward the interplay among four interrelated sections: the spread

of English, language change, English language learning and teaching, and English education policy in the South Korean speech community. All of twelve survey statements are divided into these four sections.

The results of data analysis in each section are presented in terms of an overall response to statements, comparison of three types of English borrowing, such as loanwords, nonce borrowings, and code mixing in terms the participants' attitudes, and comparison between professors' and teachers' responses. Three different types of linguistic items are suggested according to the cline of language change, namely nativization, as shown in chapter 2. Unlike previous research, which has primarily focused on either one of these three types (Kay, 1995; Motoda, 1999; Proshina & Ettkin, 2005), the present study compares them in terms of the participants' preferences (see Tatsioka, 2010). Professors and teachers are compared in terms of their attitudes to investigate whether language policy makers and English teachers bear different attitudes toward such issues as English spread, language change, and English education policy. The data analysis of an overall response to statements is presented based on an average mean of the responses and their frequency. The participants' attitudes toward three different types of English borrowings are compared according to a one-way repeated measures ANOVA test. Finally, the comparison between professors' and teachers' responses is conducted with an independent t-test.

The Spread of English and Language Change

The first four statements in a survey questionnaire are associated with the participants' attitude toward the spread of English and language change. Unlike previous research focusing on people's attitudes toward the local variety of English (Ahn, 2014; Benson, 1991; Bernaisch,

2012) this section connects the spread of English with three types of language change: loanwords, nonce borrowings, and code mixing. Brutt-Griffler (2002) suggests the result of language contact between English and a local language of a Type B country as converging more on lexical borrowing and loanwords and less on code mixing. Thus, this section will attempt to identify this issue based on the participants' attitude toward the influence of English on the South Korean speech community.

This section is composed of four statements to delve into how participants look at the use of three types of English borrowings in Korean as the indicator of the influence of English into Korean. The first statement, *The use of English in Korean has recently increased*, attempts to examine the participants' perception of whether English has been increasingly used in the Korean language over time. Table 5.1 shows that a majority of them gave positive responses to this statement. 97% of the participants agreed or strongly agreed to the increasing use of English mixing with Korean in recent years (M: 4.51, SD: 0.68).

Table 5.1

Overall Responses to Statements on 'Spread of English and Language Change'

	Likert-scale	Strongly disagree		%		Strongly agree
Statements	Mean(SD)	1	2	3	4	5

1. The use of English in Korean has recently increased.	4.51(0.68)	1.1	1.1	0.6	39.4	57.7
2. _____ is needed in a Korean speech context.						
2-1. Loanwords	3.12(0.79)	0	24.0	41.7	32.6	1.7
2-2. Nonce Borrowings	2.58(0.76)	6.3	39.4	44.0	10.3	0
2-3. Code Mixing	1.30(0.48)	71.4	27.4	1.1	0	0
3. The use of English in Korean shows people's desire for better English.	3.35(0.84)	0	18.3	34.3	41.7	5.7
4. The use of English in Korean shows the spread of English into Korean society.	3.99(0.75)	0	2.9	20.0	52.0	25.1

Statement 2, _____ *is needed in a Korean speech context*, examines participants' attitudes toward the influence of English into Korean in terms of its necessity. The participants presented lukewarm responses to the necessity of loanwords with the result that 41.7% of the responses were placed in the middle (M: 3.12, SD: 0.79). However, nonce borrowing (M: 2.58, SD: 0.76) and code mixing (M: 1.30, SD: 0.48) received rather negative responses. A one-way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to examine the impact of the type of language mixing on participants' responses. The results indicate that there was a significant difference among the responses, $F(2, 348) = 496.70$, $p = .00$, $\eta^2 = .74$ (see Table 5.2). This result was further tested by a three paired samples t-test as a *post hoc* test to investigate the relative differences among each one of them. Table 5.3 shows that participants' responses to loanwords (M: 3.12, SD: 0.79) were significantly more positive than nonce borrowing (M: 2.58; SD: 0.76), $t(174) = 9.49$, $p = .00$. The difference in responses between loanwords and code mixing (M: 1.30, SD: 0.48) is also statistically significant, $t(174) = 27.10$, $p = .00$. A third paired t-test indicates that there was a significant difference between nonce borrowing and code mixing, $t(174) = 21.82$, $p = .00$. Overall, the participants thought that loanwords are most needed in a Korean speech context while code mixing was least needed.

Table 5.2

Analysis of Variance for Difference in Responses between Types of English Borrowings

Source	Type III S^2	df	χ^2	F	sig.	η^2
Condition	307.01	2	153.55	496.70	.00	.74
Error	107.58	348	0.31			

Table 5.3

Post hoc result: Three Paired Samples t-test for Difference in Responses between Types of English Borrowings

Pair	Paired Differences			t	df	sig.
	Mean	Std deviation	Std Error			
LW-NB	0.54	0.75	0.06	9.49	174	.00
LW-CM	1.82	0.83	0.06	29.10	174	.00
NB-CM	1.29	0.78	0.06	21.82	174	.00

Note. LW: loanword, NB: nonce borrowing, CM: code mixing

Statement 3, *the use of English in Korean shows people's desire for better English*, explores participants' motivation of incorporating English into the Korean language. The result reveals that while 46.4% of the participants gave positive responses, only 18.3 % of the responses were negative (M: 3.35, SD: 0.84, see Table 5.1). Combined with the first statement, this result shows that a recently increased use of English in Korean is partially connected to people's desire for better English. This finding supports Hatano's (2003) statement that Japanese speakers' desire to speak good English is an important factor for English to be accepted as a primary foreign language in a Japanese speech community.

Statement 4, *The use of English in Korean shows the spread of English into Korean society*, connects the mixing of English into Korean to the global spread of English into the Korean speech community. Table 5.1 shows that the majority of participants (77.1%) offered

positive responses to the statements (M: 3.99, SD: 0.75). This result corroborates Brutt-Griffler's (2002) argument that an outcome of English spread is language change and that local language users are active agents for the English language spread over the globe.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to see whether there is a significant difference in professors' responses and those of teachers. According to the result in Table 5.4, there was a significant difference in responses between those two groups across all statements except the second statement about code mixing, $t(174) = -0.06$, $p = .96$. The first paired samples t-test indicated that professors (M: 4.63; SD: 0.49) gave significantly more positive responses to Statement 1 than teachers (M: 4.42, SD: 0.80), $t(174) = 2.00$, $p = .02$. The second paired samples t-test shows that there was a significant difference between professors' responses to the second statement about loanwords (M: 3.31, SD: 0.69) and those of teachers (M: 2.97, SD: 0.83), $t(174) = 2.88$, $p = .00$. The third paired samples t-test shows that there was a significant difference between professors' responses to the second statement about nonce borrowing (M: 2.85, SD: 0.65) and those of teachers (M: 2.37, SD: 0.78), $t(174) = 4.31$, $p = .00$. The fourth paired samples t-test shows that there was a significant effect of position on the participants' responses to Statement 3, $t(174) = 6.61$, $p = .00$. The last paired samples t-test shows that professors' responses were significantly more positive to Statement 4 (M: 4.36, SD: 0.58) and those of teachers (M: 3.43, SD: 0.75), $t(174) = 6.35$, $p = .00$. Overall, professors' responses were greatly more positive than those of teachers in almost all statements.

Table 5.4

Professors' and teachers' responses to statements on 'Spread of English and Language Change'.

	Professor	Teacher	*t*	sig.

Statements	Mean(SD)	Mean(SD)		
1. The use of English in Korean has recently increased.	4.63(0.49)	4.42(0.80)	2.00	0.02
2. _____ is needed in a Korean speech context.				
2-1. Loanwords	3.31(0.69)	2.97(0.83)	2.88	0.00
2-2. Nonce Borrowings	2.85(0.65)	2.37(0.78)	4.31	0.00
2-3. Code Mixing	1.29(0.46)	1.30(0.50)	-0.06	0.96
3. The use of English in Korean shows people's desire for English.	3.77(0.68)	3.01(0.81)	6.60	0.00
4. The use of English in Korean shows the spread of English into Korean society.	4.36(0.58)	3.43(0.75)	6.35	0.00

Understanding of English Borrowings

Statement 5 to 7 are pertinent to how participants understand and define three types of English borrowing in Korean. While previous studies focus either on Korean English as a broad concept or on loanwords as a specific one (Ahn, 2014, Bernisch, 2012; Motoda, 1999; Proshina & Ettkin, 2005), the statements in this section examines the participants' appreciation of all of three sub-types of Korean English as suggested in Brutt-Griffler (2002) and Moody (2006) based on the scale of language change: loanwords, nonce borrowings, and code mixing. Brutt-Griffler (2002) argues that the reason for the abundance of lexical borrowing in Type B speech communities is that speakers of a local language have shared knowledge based on a dominant native language. Moody (2006, p. 212) posits that loanwords are the most nativized type of lexical borrowing while nonce borrowings are among an emerging type of borrowing as accepted by local language speakers temporarily. It is further argued that code-switching including code mixing is the least nativized type of language mixing. Thus, the section attempts to look into how the respondents in this study judge these three types of language change of English respectively while incorporated into Korean.

This section is composed of three statements. Statement 5, *English borrowings are easy to understand to most Koreans*, explores how participants judge whether Korean people have shared knowledge over three types of English borrowings in Korean. The result shows that 52.6% of the respondents showed positive voice over the subjective knowledge of loanwords shared by Korean speakers while only 10.9% of them made negative responses (M: 3.47, SD: 0.76, see Table 5.5). However, responses to nonce borrowing and code mixing were different from those to loanwords. Nonce borrowing gained lukewarm (51.4%) to negative (34.3%) responses while code mixing inclined towards rather negative attitudes (77.1%).

Table 5.5

Overall Responses to Statements on 'Understanding of English Borrowings'

Statements	Likert-scale	Strongly disagree		%		Strongly agree
	Mean(SD)	1	2	3	4	5
5. __ is/are easy to understand to most Koreans.	3.47(0.76)	0	10.9	36.6	46.9	5.7
5-1. Loanwords	2.78(0.71)	2.3	32.0	51.4	14.3	0
5-2. Nonce Borrowings	2.00(0.73)	25.1	52.0	21.1	1.7	0
5-3. Code Mixing						
6. Korean English is emerging as one of the varieties of English.	2.79(0.88)	5.7	32.6	41.1	18.9	1.7
7. _____ is/are part (subsection) of the Korean Language rather than that of English.	3.62(0.60)	0	1.1	41.1	52.6	5.1
7-1. Loanwords	2.36(0.65)	7.4	51.4	38.9	2.3	0
7-2. Nonce Borrowings	1.33(0.50)	68.0	30.9	1.1	0	0
7-3. Code Mixing						

A one-way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to examine the statistical differences in participants' attitudes among these three types of borrowing. Mauchly's test indicated that the assumption of Sphericity had been violated, $\chi^2(2)= 7.22$, $p = .03$. Therefore, the degree of freedom was corrected using Huynh-Feldt estimates of Sphericity ($\varepsilon = .96$). The results

indicate that a significant difference was found among them, $F(1.94, 337.99) = 292.54$, p = .00, η2 = .63 (see Table 5.6). Since this result did not show the relative difference between each type of English borrowings, it was further examined by a three paired samples t-test as a post hoc test. Table 5.7 shows that participants thought that shared knowledge of loanwords (M: 3.47, SD: 0.76) is significantly higher than that of nonce borrowings (M: 2.78, SD: 0.71), $t(174) = 11.35$, $p = .00$, and that loanwords are also better understood by Korean people than code mixing (M: 2.00, SD: 0.73), $t(174) = 14.11$, $p = .00$. Lastly, nonce borrowings are better understood the members of a Korean speech community than code mixing, $t(174) = 22.34$, $p = .00$.

Table 5.6

Analysis of Variance for Effect of Type of English Borrowings on Shared Knowledge

Source	Type III S^2	df	χ^2	F	sig.	η^2
Condition	191.87	1.94	98.78	292.54	.00	.63
Error	114.13	337.99	.34			

Note. This table is based on Huynh-Feldt correction

Table 5.7

Post hoc Result: Three Paired Samples T-Test for Difference in Shared Knowledge among Three Types of English Borrowings

Pair	Paired Differences			t	Df	sig.
	Mean	Std deviation	Std Error			
LW-NB	0.70	0.81	0.06	11.35	174	.00
LW-CM	1.48	0.88	0.07	14.11	174	.00
NB-CM	0.78	0.73	0.06	22.34	174	.00

Note. LW: loanword, NB: nonce borrowing, CM: code mixing

An independent samples *t*-test was conducted to compare professors' responses with those of teachers on Statement 5 (see Table 5.8). For the attitudes toward loanwords, there is no significant difference between professors' responses (M: 3.52, SD: 0.72) and those of teachers (M: 3.43, SD: 0.80), $t(174) = 0.80$, $p = .43$. For nonce borrowing, however, professors (M: 3.00, SD: 0.59) and teacher (M: 2.40, SD: 0.69) expressed significantly different attitudes toward the shared knowledge of it, $t(174) = 3.62$, $p = .00$. Finally, there was a significant discrepancy between professors (M: 2.40, SD: 0.69) and teachers (M: 1.67, SD: 0.59) in terms of their responses to code mixing, $t(174) = 7.51$, $p = .00$. Overall on average, these two groups had the similar degree of attitudes toward loanwords whereas professors made significantly more positive responses to nonce borrowing and code mixing than teachers.

Table 5.8

Professors' and Teachers' Responses to Statements on 'Understanding of English Borrowings'

Statements	Professor	Teacher	*t*	sig.
	Mean(SD)	Mean(SD)		
5. ___ is/are easy to understand to most Koreans.				
5-1. Loanwords	3.52(0.72)	3.43(0.80)	0.80	.43
5-2. Nonce Borrowings	3.00(0.59)	2.61(0.76)	3.62	.00
5-3. Code Mixing	2.40(0.69)	1.67(0.59)	7.51	.00
6. Korean English is emerging as one of the varieties of English.	2.66(0.80)	2.89(0.92)	-1.76	.08
7. _____ is/are part (subsection) of the Korean Language rather than that of English.				
7-1. Loanwords	3.50(0.53)	3.71(0.64)	-2.33	.21
7-2. Nonce Borrowings	2.34(0.60)	2.37(0.70)	-0.25	.80
7-3. Code Mixing	1.28(0.45)	1.27(0.53)	-1.18	.24

Statement 6, *Korean English is emerging as one of the varieties of English*, examines the possible emergence of Korean English as a variety of English based on participants' attitudes

toward English borrowings (M: 2.79, SD: 0.88, see Table 5.5). An independent samples *t*-test shows that they made neutral (41.4%) to negative (32.6%) responses to this statement (see Table 5.8). Professors (M: 2.66, SD: 0.80) and teachers (M: 2.89, SD: 0.92) have help the similar attitudes, $t(174) = -1.76$, $p = .08$.

Statement 7, *either of three types of English borrowings is part (subsection) of the Korean Language rather than that of English*, examines the other aspect of language change, namely nativization. Table 5.5 shows rather different results among them: positive attitudes toward loanwords (57.7%, M: 3.62, SD: 0.60), negative ones toward nonce borrowings (58.8%, M: 2.36, SD: 0.65), and rather negative responses to code mixing (98.9%, M: 1.33, SD: 0.50). A one-way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to examine whether these differences among three types of English borrowings were negative (see Table 5.9). The results show that there was a significant difference among them, $F(2, 348) = 880.24$, $p = .00$, $\eta^2 = .84$. A three paired samples t-test was further conducted as a post hoc test to investigate the differences in responses among them. As shown in Table 5.10, the first and second paired *t*-tests uncover that loanwords (M: 3.62, SD: 0.60) gained significantly more positive responses from the participants than both nonce borrowings (M: 2.36, SD: 0.65), $t(174) = 23.46$, $p = .00$, and code mixing (M: 1.33, SD: 0.50), $t(174) = 40.78$, $p = .00$. According to the third paired *t*-test, the participants' responses to nonce borrowings were significantly more positive than code mixing, $t(174) = 19.04$, $p = .00$. Overall, the participants responded that loanwords are mostly part of the Korean language while nonce borrowings are not likely to be the subsection of Korean. Finally, it was also reported that code-mixing does not belong to the Korean language.

Table 5.9

Analysis of Variance for Differences in Nativization among Three Types of English Borrowings

Source	Type III S^2	df	χ^2	F	sig.	η^2
Condition	458.67	2	229.33	880.24	.00	.84
Error	90.67	348	.26			

Table 5.10

Post hoc Result: Three Paired Samples T-Test for Differences in Nativization among Three Types of English Borrowings

Pair	Paired Differences			t	df	sig.
	Mean	Std deviation	Std Error			
LW-NB	1.26	0.71	0.05	23.46	174	.00
LW-CM	2.29	0.74	0.06	40.78	174	.00
NB-CM	1.03	0.71	0.05	19.04	174	.00

Note. LW: loanword, NB: nonce borrowing, CM: code mixing

An independent paired samples *t*-test was conducted to compare professors and teachers in terms of their attitudes toward nativization of English borrowings in Korean as in Statement 7. Table 5.8 uncovers that there was no significant differences between professors' (M: 3.50, SD: 0.53) and teachers' (M: 3.71, SD: 0.64) responses to loanwords, $t(174) = -2.33$, $p = .21$. It was shown that professors (M: 2.34, SD: 0.60) and teachers (M: 2.37, SD: 0.70) made no different responses to nonce borrowings, $t(174) = -0.25$, $p = .80$. Finally, professors (M: 1.28, SD: 0.45) and teachers (M: 1.27, SD: 0.53) were not different in their responses to code mixing, $t(174) = -1.18$, $p = .24$. Thus, on average both professors and teachers responded that while loanwords had become part of the Korean language, they called this statement into question in terms of nonce borrowings and many of them strongly disagreed with an idea of code mixing being the subsection of Korean.

English Borrowings and English Learning

This section addresses the possible association between three types of English borrowings in Korean and English as a second language learning.

This section is composed of three statements. Statement 8, *The use of* _____ *may reflect the speaker's English ability*, explores how participants perceive those who use English borrowings in Korean and their English ability. According to Table 5.11, 46.3% of the respondents expressed negative attitudes toward the association of loanwords and speakers' English ability while only 29.4% made positive responses (M: 2.66, SD: 0.88). For nonce borrowings, most of them were neutral (37.1%) or positive (40.6%, M: 3.13, SD: 0.91) whereas 54.3% claimed that code-mixing reflected speakers' English ability (M: 3.53, SD: 0.88).

Table 5.11

Overall Responses to Statements on 'English Borrowings and English Learning'

Statements	Likert-scale	Strongly disagree		%		Strongly agree
	Mean(SD)	1	2	3	4	5
8. The use of ____ may reflect the speaker's English ability.						
8-1. Loanwords	2.66(0.88)	7.4	38.9	34.3	29.4	0
8-2. Nonce Borrowings	3.13(0.91)	6.3	16.0	37.1	40.0	0.6
8-3. Code Mixing	3.53(0.88)	1.1	10.9	33.7	42.9	11.4
9. _____ is/are useful to learning English.						
9-1. Loanwords	2.78(0.73)	2.3	34.9	47.4	15.4	0
9-2. Nonce Borrowings	2.90(0.71)	1.7	26.3	53.1	18.9	0
9-3. Code Mixing	2.91(0.85)	4.0	26.9	44.6	22.9	1.7
10. _____ help(s) acquire English words and expressions.						
10-1. Loanwords	3.00(0.85)	1.1	31.4	33.7	33.1	0.6
10-2. Nonce Borrowings	2.58(0.73)	4.0	45.1	40.6	10.3	0
10-3. Code Mixing	1.75(0.62)	34.3	56.0	9.7	0	0

Then, a one-way repeated measures ANOVA was used to examine whether there is a significant difference in the participants' responses to this statement between these three types of English borrowings in Korean. The result indicates that there was a significant difference among the responses, F(2, 348) = 108.74, p = .00, η2 = .39 (see Table 5.12). I further conducted a three paired samples independent *t*-test a post hoc test to see if there are the relative differences among each one of the responses. The first paired samples *t*-test in Table 5.13 shows that participants' responses to nonce borrowings (M: 3.13, SD: 0.91) were significantly more positive than loanwords (M: 2.66, SD: 0.88), $t(174) = 7.67$, $p = .00$. According to the second paired samples *t*-test, code mixing (M: 3.53; SD: 0.88) received a significantly more positive response from the respondents than loanwords, $t(174) = 14.59$, p = .00. The third paired *t*-test reveals that code-mixing also gained greatly more positive response than nonce borrowings, $t(174) = 7.12$, p = .00. Overall, the participants evaluated that code-mixing best shows speakers' English ability while they remained neutral to nonce borrowings. However, they did not support loanwords' projection of speakers' English proficiency.

Table 5.12

Analysis of Variance for Difference in Statement 8 among Three Types of English Borrowings in Korean

Source	Type III S^2	df	χ^2	F	sig.	η^2
Condition	66.15	2	33.07	108.74	.00	.39
Error	105.85	348	.30			

Table 5.13

Post hoc Result: Three Paired Samples T-Test for Difference in Statement 8 among Three Types of English Borrowings in Korean

Pair	Paired Differences			t	df	sig.
	Mean	Std deviation	Std Error			
LW-NB	- 0.47	0.81	0.06	-7.67	174	.00
LW-CM	- 0.87	0.79	0.06	-14.59	174	.00
NB-CM	- 0.40	0.74	0.06	-7.12	174	.00

Note. LW: loanword, NB: nonce borrowing, CM: code mixing

An independent *t*-test was adopted to compare professors' attitudes and those of teachers to the Statement 8 (see Table 5.14). The result shows that there was no significant difference between professors (M: 2.60, SD: 0.76) and teachers (M: 2.70, SD: 0.96) in their responses to loanwords, $t(174) = -0.74$, $p = .46$. Code mixing also does not show the statistically meaningful difference between the two groups, $t(174) = -1.22$, $p = .23$. For nonce borrowings, however, a professor group (M: 3.31, SD: 0.74) presented much positive judgement on this issue than a teacher group (M: 2.98, SD: 0.99), $t(174) = 2.41$, $p = 0.2$. In sum, both groups agreed that while loanwords do not reflect speakers' English ability, the use of code mixing does show the language users' English capacity. For nonce borrowings, the two groups had different thoughts: professors had a little bit positive attitudes whereas English teachers held mixed stance toward the statement.

Table 5.14

Professors' and teachers' responses to statements on 'English Borrowings and English Learning'

Statements	Professor	Teacher	*t*	sig.
	Mean(SD)	Mean(SD)		

8. The use of ____ may reflect the speaker's English ability.				
8-1. Loanwords	2.60(0.76)	2.70(0.96)	-0.74	.46
8-2. Nonce Borrowings	3.31(0.74)	2.98(0.99)	2.41	.02
8-3. Code Mixing	3.44(0.80)	3.60(0.93)	-1.22	.23
9. _____ is/are useful to learning English.				
9-1. Loanwords	2.68(0.73)	2.82(0.74)	-1.30	.19
9-2. Nonce Borrowings	3.03(0.64)	2.78(0.75)	2.25	.03
9-3. Code Mixing	2.66(0.74)	3.12(0.88)	-3.78	.00
10. _____ help(s) acquire English words and expressions.				
10-1. Loanwords	3.12(0.81)	2.86(0.85)	2.66	.00
10-2. Nonce Borrowings	2.85(0.70)	2.35(0.68)	4.73	.00
10-3. Code Mixing	2.01(0.55)	1.55(0.60)	5.34	.00

Statement 9, _____ *is useful to learning English,* investigates participants' reflection on the usefulness of three types of English borrowings for English language learning. It has been found that loanwords received neutral (47.4%) or negative responses (36.9%, M: 2.78, SD: 0.73). Both nonce borrowings (M: 2.90, SD: 0.71) and code mixing (M: 2.91, SD: 0.85) show rather lukewarm reflection from the informants (53.1% and 44.6% respectively). This means that the participants were not sure of the possible application of English borrowings to learning English. A one-way repeated measures samples ANOVA test shows that there was a significant difference among the three types of English borrowings, $F(2, 348) = 3.13$, $p = .04$, $\eta^2 = .02$ (see Table 5.15). Since this test did not show the detailed information on relative differences among them, a three paired samples *t*-test was additionally used as a post hoc test (see Table 5.16). The result shows that loanwords (M: 2.78, SD: 0.73) gained received significantly more negative responses than nonce borrowings (M: 2.90, SD: 0.71), $t(174) = -2.01$, $p = .04$, and code mixing (M: 0.91, SD: 0.85), $t(174) = -2.21$, $p = .03$. However, there was no significant difference between nonce borrowing and code mixing, $t(174) = -0.34$, $p = .73$. Thus, it is made clear that while the participants responded rather negatively to the usefulness of loanwords for learning English, they remained mixed on nonce borrowing and code mixing.

An independent *t*-test was adopted to compare professors' attitudes and those of teachers to the Statement 9 (see Table 5.14). The result shows that professors (M: 2.68, SD: 2.82) and English teachers (M: 2.82, SD: 0.72) did not have significantly different opinion on loanwords, $t(174) = -1.30$, $p = .19$. However, there was a statistically significant difference between professors and teachers in their responses to nonce borrowing (professors, M: 3.03, SD: 0.64; teachers, M: 2.78, SD: 0.75), $t(174) = 2.25$, $p = .03$, and code mixing (professors, M: 2.66, SD: 0.74; teachers, M: 3.12, SD: 0.88), $t(174) = -3.78$, $p = .00$. In a nutshell, for loanwords, two groups shared similar negative thoughts on the association between English borrowings and English learning. However, for nonce borrowing professors had neutral opinion and teachers had negative thoughts on this issue. Finally, while English teachers showed lukewarm attitude toward code mixing, professors made negative responses to it.

Table 5.15

Analysis of Variance for Difference in Reponses to Statement 9 among Three Type of English Borrowings

source	Type III S^2	df	χ^2	F	sig.	η^2
Condition	2.43	2	1.21	3.13	.04	.02
Error	134.91	348	.39			

Table 5.16

Post hoc Result: Three Paired Samples T-Test for Difference in Reponses to Statement 9 among Three Type of English Borrowings

Pair	Paired Differences			t	df	sig.
	Mean	Std deviation	Std Error			

LW-NB	- 0.13	0.83	0.06	-2.01	174	.04
LW-CM	0.15	0.92	0.07	-2.21	174	.03
NB-CM	- 0.02	0.88	0.07	-0.34	174	.73

Note. LW: loanword, NB: nonce borrowing, CM: code mixing

Statement 10, _____ *helps acquire English words and expressions*, deals with an association between the use of English borrowings and its usefulness for vocabulary acquisition. According to the result, respondents produced neutral responses to this statement (M: 3.00, SD: 0.85). For nonce borrowing, most participants were neutral (40.6%) or negative (49.1%) to the statement (M: 2.58, SD: 0.73). Lastly, most of them expressed negative attitudes toward code mixing (90.3%, M: 1.75, SD: 0.62). A one-way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to explore differences between these three types of English borrowings in terms of participants' responses to the statement. Mauchly's test indicated that the assumption of Sphericity had been violated, $\chi^2(2) = 10.55$, $p = .00$, therefore degrees of freedom were corrected using Huynh-Feldt estimates of Sphericity ($\varepsilon = .94$). The results indicate that there was significant differences among their responses, $F(1.91, 332.10) = 197.18$, $p = .00$, $\eta^2 = .53$ (see Table 5.17). The result went on to be tested by a three paired samples t-test as a post hoc test to investigate relative differences among each one of them. Table 5.18 shows that respondents' responses to loanwords (M: 3.12, SD: 0.81) were significantly more positive than nonce borrowing (M: 2.85; SD: 0.70), $t(174) = 2.66$, $p = .00$. The gap in their reflections between loanwords and code mixing (M: 2.01, SD: 0.55) is also statistically significant, $t(174) = 5.34$, $p = .00$. A third paired t-test shows that there was a significant difference between nonce borrowing and code mixing, $t(174) = 17.66$, $p = .00$. Overall, the participants said that loanwords are most helpful to vocabulary learning, while code mixing is least useful.

Table 5.17

Analysis of Variance for Difference in Usefulness to Vocabulary Learning among Three Types of English Borrowings

source	Type III S^2	df	χ^2	F	sig.	η^2
Condition	141.31	1.91	74.05	197.18	.00	.53
Error	124.69	332.05	.38			

Note. This table is based on Huynh-Feldt correction

Table 5.18

Post hoc Result: Three Paired Samples T-Test for Difference in Usefulness to Vocabulary Learning among Three Types of English Borrowings

Pair	Paired Differences			t	df	sig.
	Mean	Std deviation	Std Error			
LW-NB	0.43	0.76	0.06	7.54	174	.00
LW-CM	0.82	0.83	0.06	13.00	174	.00
NB-CM	1.25	0.94	0.07	17.66	174	.00

Note. LW: loanword, NB: nonce borrowing, CM: code mixing

I conducted an independent *t*-test to compare professors' responses and those of teachers to the Statement 10 (see Table 5.14). The result shows that professors (M: 3.12, SD: 0.81) and English teachers (M: 2.86, SD: 0.85) did not show different answers on loanwords, $t(174) = 2.66$, $p = .00$. Also, there was a statistically significant difference between professors (professors, M: 2.85, SD: 0.70) and teachers (M: 2.35, SD: 0.68) in their responses to nonce borrowing, teachers, $t(174) = 4.73$, $p = .00$. Lastly, professors (professors, M: 2.01, SD: 0.0.55) and teachers (M: 1.51, SD: 0.60), $t(174) = 5.34$, $p = .00$. In sum, for all of three types of English borrowings, professors showed significantly more positive responses to the connection between English borrowings in Korean and vocabulary acquisition.

English Borrowings and English Education Policy

This section addresses participants' responses to the usefulness of English borrowings to English education policy.

This section is composed of two statements. Statement 11, *I use* _____ *to teach English or explain something in Korean*, addresses participants' experiences of using English borrowings for teaching English. According to Table 5.19, participants claimed they used loanwords at around the neutral level (48.6%, M: 3.11, SD: 0.80). For nonce borrowing (M: 2.27, SD: 0.73), respondents showed rather negative (66.9%) reflection on the same statement (M: 2.27, SD: 0.73). The result of code mixing is indicative of the most negative responses from the participants (92%, M: 1.52, SD: 0.69). To look into differences among loanwords, nonce borrowing, and code mixing, a one-way repeated measures samples ANOVA was operated. Table 5.20 presents the results obtained from the test: there is a significant difference among them, $F(2, 348) = 268.90$, $p = .00$, $\eta 2 = .61$. Further statistical analysis was operated by a three paired samples t-test as a post hoc test to compare three types of English borrowings in detail. As shown in Table 5.21, a first paired samples *t*-test shows that participants' reflection on loanwords (M: 3.11, SD: 0.80) was significantly more positive than nonce borrowing (M: 2.27; SD: 0.73), $t(174) = 12.41$, $p = .00$. According to a second paired samples *t*-test, The mean score of loanwords is significantly higher than that of code mixing (M: 1.52, SD: 0.69), $t(174) = 22.55$, $p = .00$. A third paired t-test uncovers that there is a significant difference between nonce borrowing and code mixing, $t(174) = 11.11$, $p = .00$. In general, the participants claimed that they

used loanwords the most in teaching English while they were critically negative to adopting code mixing in their teaching of the English language.

An independent samples *t*-test was used to determine the difference between professors and English teachers in terms of their behavioral attitude toward the use of English borrowings for teaching English. Table 5.22 compares their responses: English teachers (M: 3.25, SD: 0.76) used significantly more loanwords in teaching English than professors (M: 2.95, SD: 0.82), $t(174) = 2.49$, $p = .01$. For code mixing, English teachers (M: 1.66, SD: 0.80) were less negative to using it for English language teaching than a professor (M: 1.35, SD: 0.48), $t(174) = 3.04$, $p = .00$ although both of the two groups reported negative attitudes toward this issue. In contrast, no significant difference was found between professors (M: 2.36, SD: 0.72) and teachers (M: 2.21, SD: .74) in terms of nonce borrowing, $t(174) = 1.38$, $p = .17$. Overall, English teachers showed a more favorable attitude toward using loanwords for teaching English and expressed less disapproval to employing code mixing for English teaching.

Table 5.19

Overall responses to statements on 'Language Change and English Education Policy'

Statements	Likert-scale	Strongly disagree		%		Strongly agree
	Mean(SD)	1	2	3	4	5
11-1. I use _____ to teach English.						
11-1. Loanwords	3.11(0.80)	2.3	17.7	48.6	29.1	2.3
11-2. Nonce Borrowings	2.27(0.73)	10.9	56.0	28.6	4.0	0.6
11-3. Code Mixing	1.52(0.69)	57.7	34.3	6.3	1.7	0
12. The use of _____ to teach English needs to be included in English curriculum.						
12-1. Loanwords	2.53(0.85)	12.0	34.3	42.3	11.4	0
12-2. Nonce Borrowings	1.97(0.81)	29.7	48.0	17.7	4.6	0
12-3. Code Mixing	1.83(0.84)	41.7	36.6	18.3	3.4	0

Table 5.20

Analysis of Variance for Difference in Responses to Statement 11 among Three Types of English Borrowings

Source	Type III S^2	df	χ^2	F	sig.	η^2
Condition	222.62	2	111.31	268.90	.00	.61
Error	144.05	348	.41			

Table 5.21

Post hoc Result: Three Paired Samples T-Test for Difference in Responses to Statement 11 among Three Types of English Borrowings

Pair	Paired Differences			t	df	sig.
	Mean	Std deviation	Std Error			
LW-NB	0.84	0.90	0.07	12.41	174	.00
LW-CM	1.59	0.93	0.07	22.55	174	.00
NB-CM	0.75	0.90	0.07	11.11	174	.00

Note. LW: loanword, NB: nonce borrowing, CM: code mixing

Table 5.22

Professors' and teachers' responses to statements on 'Language Change and English Education Policy'

Statements	Professor	Teacher	*t*	sig.
	Mean(SD)	Mean(SD)		
11-1. I use _____ to teach English.				
11-1. Loanwords	2.95(0.82)	3.25(0.76)	-2.49	.01
11-2. Nonce Borrowings	2.36(0.72)	2.21(0.74)	1.38	.17
11-3. Code Mixing	1.35(0.48)	1.66(0.80)	-3.04	.00
12. The use of _____ to teach English needs to be included in English curriculum.				
12-1. Loanwords	2.44(0.88)	2.61(0.82)	-1.34	.18
12-2. Nonce Borrowings	2.10(0.89)	1.87(0.73)	1.93	.06
12-3. Code Mixing	1.59(0.67)	2.03(0.92)	-3.55	.00

Statement 12, *The use of _____ to teach English words needs to be included in English curriculum*, attempts to explore the attitudes of participants toward incorporating three types of English mixing with Korean in English curriculum. According to Table 5.19, the participants reported that they made neutral (42.3%) or negative (46.3%) responses to including loanwords in English curriculum (M: 2.53, SD: 0.85). Nonce borrowing (M: 1.97, SD: 0.81) got a more negative response (77.7%) from the respondents on the same issue. They gave the worst reaction (78.3%) to the possible adoption of code mixing for English curriculum (M: 1.83, SD: 0.84). To delve into whether the differences among loanwords, nonce borrowing, and code mixing were statistically significant, a one-way repeated measures samples ANOVA was used. The results obtained from the data uncover that there is a significant difference among them, $F(2, 348) = 49.96$, $p = .00$, $\eta 2 = .22$ (Table 5.23). A three paired samples *t*-test was used as a post hoc test to compare each one of three types of English borrowings (see Table 5.24). The first paired samples *t*-test shows that loanwords (M: 2.53, SD: 0.85) received significantly less negative responses from those who participated in the survey than nonce borrowing (M: 1.97, SD: 0.81), $t(174) = 8.00$, $p = 00$. According to the second paired samples *t*-test, loanwords gave the participants significantly less negative impression than code mixing (M: 1.83, SD: 0.84) as well, $t(174) = 9.59$, $p = .00$. The results show that English professors and teachers are reluctant to incorporate loanwords in English teaching curriculum while most of them reject to include nonce borrowing and code mixing in the curriculum.

In addition, an independent samples *t*-test was employed to check out if there is any difference between professors and English teachers in terms of their opinion over the inclusion of English borrowings in English curriculum. As shown in the data of comparison in Table 5.22, English professors (M: 2.44, SD: 0.88) and English professors (M: 2.61, SD: 0.82) did not make

statistically different responses to the statement, $t(174) = -1.34$, $p = .18$. For nonce borrowing, professors (M: 2.10, SD: 0.89) and teachers (M: 1.87, SD: 0.73) also shared similar opinion, $t(174) = 1.93$, $p = .06$. However, English teachers (M: 2.03, SD: 0.92) showed significantly less negative attitudes toward code mixing than professors (M: 1.59, SD: 0.67), $t(174) = 3.55$, $p = .00$. In sum, both English professors and teachers presented rather negative attitudes toward the incorporation of loanwords into English curriculum. Both of them showed negative responses to nonce borrowing and code mixing concerning the building up of the English language curriculum in the South Korean context.

Table 5.23

Analysis of Variance for Effect of Difference in Responses to Statement 12 among Three Types of English Borrowings

Source	Type III S^2	df	χ^2	F	sig.	η^2
Condition	47.74	2	23.87	49.96	.00	.22
Error	166.26	348	.48			

Table 5.24

Post hoc Result: Three Paired Samples T-Test for Difference in Responses to Statement 12 among Three Types of English Borrowings

Pair	Paired Differences			t	df	sig.
	Mean	Std deviation	Std Error			
LW-NB	0.56	0.93	0.07	8.00	174	.00
LW-CM	0.70	0.96	0.07	9.59	174	.00
NB-CM	0.14	1.04	0.08	1.74	174	.08

Note. LW: loanword, NB: nonce borrowing, CM: code mixing

Summary of Chapter Five

This chapter has analyzed the attitudes of university English professors and English teachers toward an association of English borrowings with four factors: *The spread of English and language change, understanding of English borrowings, English borrowings and English learning, English borrowings and English education policy*. Sociolinguistic analysis of English borrowings and its potential connection with English language policy have been scrutinized in terms of three different types of English borrowings: loanwords, nonce borrowing, and code mixing. Also, this chapter compares the responses from university professors as policy makers and teacher trainers with English teachers as local English educators.

In the section of *the spread of English and language change*, the findings have shown that a majority of respondents reported that the use of English in Korean has recently increased (M: 4.51, SD: 0.68). It has been found that professors (M: 4.63, SD: 0.49) are more positive about this statement than teachers (M: 4.42, SD: 0.80). When it comes to the need to use English mixing with Korean in a Korean speech context, participants' responses were neutral to loanwords (M: 3.12, SD: 0.79) while they believed nonce borrowing to be less needed (M: 2.58, SD: 0.76) and code mixing to be of no use (M: 1.30, SD: 0.48). Professors made significantly less negative responses to the need for loanwords and nonce borrowing than teachers although these two groups gave the similar opinion on code mixing. Overall, although the participants in this study admitted that it is the case for the number of English borrowings in Korean to be recently increasing, they had a mixed attitude toward the need for them in the Korean language. In addition, university professors had more tolerant attitudes toward these two statements than English teachers.

In the second half of the first section, participants showed lukewarm or positive reflections on the connection between the use of English mixing with Korean and their desire for

better English (M: 3.35, SD: 0.84). However, it is worthy of notice that while university professor made positive responses on this issue (M: 3.77, SD: 0.68), teachers remained ambivalent (M: 3.01, SD: 0.81). For an association between the use of English borrowings and the spread of English, university professors expressed significantly more positive attitudes (M: 4.36, SD: 0.58) than teachers (M: 3.43, SD: 0.75). Thus, professors were more positive in their responses than teachers in these two survey statements as they were in the first two statements.

In the second section, *understanding three types of English borrowings*, many of the participants made positive responses to the understandability of loanwords although they made neutral or negative reactions to nonce borrowing and a pessimistic response to code mixing. It is noted that professors were again more lenient to all types of English borrowings. To the statement about the possible emergence of Korean English as a variety of English, professors and teachers shared a slightly negative attitude (M: 2.79, SD: 0.88). Lastly, to the statement about English borrowings being subsection of the Korean language, both university professor and teachers were inclined to slightly positive attitudes toward the status of loanwords as part of Korean (M: 3.62, SD: 0.60), negative to nonce borrowing (M: 2.36, SD: 0.65), and significantly more negative to code mixing (M: 1.33, SD: 0.50).

In the third section, *English borrowings and English learning*, participants were inclined to slightly negative attitudes to loanwords reflecting speakers' English ability (M: 2.66, SD: 0.88), to neutral attitudes to nonce borrowings (M: 3.13, SD: 0.91), and to positive attitudes to code mixing (M: 3.53, SD: 0.88). While for loanwords and code mixing, professors and teachers shared similar responses, professors (M: 3.31, SD: 0.74) had rather more positive attitudes to nonce borrowing than English teachers (M: 2.98, SD: 0.99). To Statement 9 about the usefulness of English borrowings to English learning, most respondents were neutral or slightly negative to

all of three types of English borrowings. What is noteworthy is that while professors and teachers had a similar opinion on loanwords and nonce borrowings, teachers showed significantly more positive attitudes to code mixing helping learn English than professors. This result is worth being compared with other results where professors were rather more lenient than teachers.

To Statement 10, *English borrowings help acquire English words and expressions*, loanwords received neutral responses (M: 3.0, SD: 0.85) whereas nonce borrowing gained neutral or negative responses (M: 2.58, SD: 0.73) and code mixing received a rather negative response (M: 1.75, SD: 0.62). Thus, a majority of participants were not willing to argue for loanwords' usefulness for vocabulary acquisition and were negative to nonce borrowings and code mixing on the same issue. Concerning the effect of participants' position on their responses, professors were critically more lenient to all types of English borrowings than teachers.

The last section examines participants' attitudes toward the connection of English borrowings with English education policy. A majority of participants were lukewarm or positive negative to using loanwords in their English teaching (M: 3.11, SD: 0.80), negative to nonce borrowings (M: 2.27, SD: 0.73), and rather negative to code mixing (M: 1.52, SD: 0.69). It is notable that English teachers (M: 3.25, SD: 0.76) showed more positive attitudes toward their experience of using loanwords in English teaching than professors (M: 2.95, SD: 0.82). Teachers (M: 1.66, SD: 0.80) were also lenient to code mixing in the same issue than professors (M: 1.35, SD: 0.48). To the last statement about the inclusion of English borrowings in English teaching curriculum, the majority of participants showed negative attitudes to all types of English borrowings although they were the most lenient to loanwords (M: 2.53, SD: 0.85) and the least lenient to code mixing (M: 1.83, SD: 0.84).

The results indicate that the participants admitted the recent increase in English borrowings under the spread of English into the Korean speech community. They further recognized that this phenomenon is related to Korean speakers' desire for better English. In other words, the members of the Korean speech community have been active agents to accept and spread the English language into their local community, the result of which is language change in English integrated into the Korean language.

However, unlike their perception of the present phenomenon, their attitudes toward the necessity of using English borrowings in a Korean speech context are mixed depending on what types of English borrowings they are. The reason why they were not negative to the need of loanwords in the Korean language is that they thought loanwords are part of the Korean language as shown in their answer to Statement 7, *English borrowing is part (subsection) of the Korean Language rather than that of English*. Also noticeable is that their negative responses to the necessity of nonce borrowings and code mixing was in parallel with those to Statement 7. Overall, Korean speakers' attitudes toward English borrowings in Korean are related to their perception of them as part of the Korean language.

This result is further associated with their answers to Statement 6, *Korean English is emerging as one of the varieties of English*. By presenting a negative voice on this issue (M: 2.79, SD: 0.88), they remained supportive of English loanwords being part of the Korean language as is with Statement 7. However, it is interpreted that nonce borrowing and code mixing do not belong either to a variety of English or the Korean language based on their responses to both Statement 6 and 7. This interpretation is echoed by participants' answer to Statement 5, *English borrowings are easy to understand to most Koreans*. While many of the participants said that loanwords are easy to understand (M: 3.47, SD: 0.76), they were lukewarm

to nonce borrowing (M: 2.78, SD: 0.71) and negative to code mixing (M: 2.00, SD: 0.73) in terms of its understandability.

Concerning the issue of whether the use of English borrowings shows speakers' English ability, the participants claimed for code mixing in a positive way while they were mostly reluctant to support loanwords. However, they were lukewarm to nominate using nonce borrowings as an indicator of speakers' English proficiency. This result resonates with the participants' responses in the second section that code mixing is not part of the Korean language. On the other hand, since the participants responded that loanwords are more belonging to the Korean language than nonce borrowing and code mixing are, they also claimed that using loanwords does not reflect the speakers' English ability well.

English professors and teachers made a neutral response to the usefulness of nonce borrowing and code mixing for English learning while loanwords received rather negative responses. This result also corresponds with Statement 7 and 8: since code mixing is not part of the Korean language but using code mixing of English and Korean rather reflects speakers' English ability. For their usefulness for vocabulary acquisition, however, the three types of English borrowings were placed in the opposite direction: loanwords received the most positive response, and code mixing gained the most negative response. I interpret this result to mean that loanwords can contribute to vocabulary acquisition because Korean speakers already know those words in their native language, namely shared subjective knowledge. This interpretation is confirmed in connection to the participants' answer to Statement 5 on the subjective knowledge shared by Korean speakers and to Statement 7 on the degree of integration: Korean speakers have the highest level of subjective knowledge in terms of loanwords and English loanwords are the subset of the Korean language.

Concerning the relation between English borrowings and English education in Statement 11 and 12, the output of data analysis accords with the result of shared subjective knowledge and the degree of integration in previous statements. Since the majority of English teachers and professors still use Korean as a medium language in their classroom, the more shared subjective knowledge and integration particular English borrowings have, the easier it may be for teachers to use those words for teaching English words and concept. Therefore, loanwords gained the highest scores while code mixing received the lowest ones.

It is noticeable that while university professors were lenient in their perception of the spread of English, understanding of English borrowings, and English learning than English teachers, the result was in the opposite direction in the field of English education and curriculum. English teachers were more generous to an incorporation of English borrowings into English teaching and curriculum although there was no significant difference in some cases between the two groups. The in-depth voice about the reason why such a gap exists between the participants' perception and their experiences in practice will be addressed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

Voices of University Professors and English Teachers on the Spread of English and English Language Education

Introduction

This chapter discusses the attitudes and opinions of university professors of English and English teachers toward language mixing of English and Korean and its application to English education in the South Korean speech community. This chapter provides the analysis of the interview data of eight participants: four university professors and four elementary and secondary English teachers. Along with the survey analysis in chapter six, the interview data show participants' in-depth opinions about the spread of English into the South Korean speech community, and their perception of English borrowings in the Korean language and its application to English education in South Korea.

According to Brutt-Griffler (2000), policy makers and English teachers are active agents of the spread of English into a local speech community. These two groups represent the top-down and bottom-up pair in terms of the direction of language planning and change: (1) policy makers who introduce the government's institutional authority to the direction of language policy; and (2) English teachers who practice English language teaching in the field. Hatano (2014) argued that both top-down and bottom-up directions have a critical influence on the formation of language policy and planning in the Japanese context. Thus, both policy makers and English teachers are the important "initiators of the change and the actors in it" in terms of the direction of language planning (Nekvapil & Sherman, 2015).

In this chapter, university professors represent both English language policy makers and English teachers in South Korea. University professors in South Korea not only practice English teaching in the classroom, but also often participate in enacting the English education curriculum at the national level as the primary group of actors. Thus, their voice reflects both the top-down and bottom-up perspectives. In comparison, English teachers are practitioners of the language policy in the field: they provide a voice from the bottom. Their first-hand experiences with language users in the classroom allow them to project their students' voices as well as their own voices based on their teaching. Thus, this chapter attempts to find the usefulness of English borrowings for English education and policy in the South Korean speech community by examining the opinions of university professors and English teachers.

Voices of University Professors

This section reports the opinions of university professors, who are the primary actors in the planning and implementation of English language policy in South Korea. Summaries of the statements made by each participant are presented first, then the common themes are noted and discussed.

Hyeonsu Kang. Dr. Kang was a professor at one of the national universities of education in Korea, which specializes in teacher training and education research for elementary education. He had been working not only as a teacher trainer at the university but also as a policy maker in the development of the curriculum for elementary English education. Dr. Kang stated that the influence of English had been steadily increasing for the last twenty years and this trend had been accelerating in recent years because of the recent development of online and mobile

communication. He mentioned that, although an increase in code-switching, nonce lexical borrowing, and code-switching is admittedly witnessed these days, this does not mean that the overall communicative competence of the Korean speech community has been improved proportionally. According to Dr. Kang, the linguistic and social context in Korea, where English is a foreign language and not an official language, contributes to this gap between prolific language mixing and communicative capability among Koreans. Thus, English language learning in Korea depends on Koreans' instrumental and extrinsic motivation:

> 우선 영어를 공용어로 하는 나라들은 대부분 다민족, 다문화 국가 잖아요. 그런 국가에서는 자연스럽게 여러 언어를 바이링구얼(bilingual)이나 트라이링구얼(trilingual)로 자연스럽게 모국어처럼 습득이 되죠. 그런데 한국은 아직은 다문화 1기에 접어드는 그정도 수준이이라서 95% 이상이 모노링구얼(monolingual)이고, 5%로 안되는 사람들의 언어가 영어만 있는게 아니고 중국어나 일본어도 있어요. 그러니까 모든 사람들이 영어를 다 배울 필요가 없죠. 그 다음에 그런 환경적인 이유 때문에 한국에서는 영어학습의 동기가 내재적인 것이 아니라 외부적인 거잖아요. 대학이나 회사에 들어가기 위해서 토익을 본다든지 그런건데…. 유럽, 스위스 같은 나라에선 내적동기가 강하죠. 그래서 한국은 영어를 공용어로 하기엔 아직 힘들어요.
>
> First, most of the countries that use English as an official language are multiethnic and/or multicultural. People in such countries can naturally acquire more than two languages as native languages to be bilingual or trilingual. But more than 95% of Koreans are monolingual, and the remaining 5% of Koreans speak Chinese or Japanese as well as English because South Korea is still in the first stage of multicultural society. So everyone does not have to learn English. Then, for such environmental reasons, the motivation for learning English in Korea is not intrinsic but external. It's like taking TOEIC in order to enter a university or a company... In countries like Europe and Switzerland, internal motivation is strong. So it is still difficult to adopt English as the official language in Korea.

Dr. Kang ascribed the increase in language mixing of English and Korean to the advances in digital communication around the globe over the last twenty years. He added that, as online and mobile technology has progressed and spread rapidly in Korea, it has provided members of the Korean speech community with a growing opportunity for language contact and use. In terms of language contact, more and more Koreans are involved in global affiliations with English-speaking populations via social media, which in turn allows the Korean language to be

mixed with English. In addition, online and mobile communication have become an environment where Korean speakers make use of more English words and expressions, which may result in the incorporation of words and terms from language mixing into the Korean lexis. He claimed a pivotal role for online communication in the influence of English on Koreans' language use in their daily lives. He went on to mention that this trend is more noticeable in the younger generations:

> SNS 라든지 이런데에서 외국 사람들 하고 말하고 이런 것들이 영어에 노출되는 거죠. 그런데 젊은 세대가 SNS를 더 많이 사용하니까 영어를 사용할 수 있는 환경에 노출이 기성세대 보다는 훨씬 많아 진거죠. 이게 새로운 현상이니까요. 언어란게 의사소통의 도구인데, 외국 사람들 하고 이야기를 할때 영어를 할 거 아니에요. 뭐 콩글리쉬(Konglish)든 글로비쉬(Globish)든 어쨌든 계속 사용하니까 영어 사용의 기회가 훨씬 더 많아지고, 영어 환경에 더 많이 노출이 되는 거겠죠. 그러니까 디지털(digital) 세대일수록 더 자연스럽게 영어나 외래어를 더 많이 사용하게 되겠죠.
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> When people talk with foreigners in space like SNS (social media), they are exposed to English. Since the younger generation uses SNS more, they are much more exposed to the English-speaking environment than the older generation. This is a new phenomenon. Language is a tool of communication, and when they talk to foreign people, they do it in English. Well, whether it's Konglish or Globish, they continue to use it, so they have a much better chance of using English and more exposure to the English-speaking environment. So, the closer they are to the digital generation, the more naturally they will use English or loanwords.

Concerning recognition of language mixing between English and Korean, Dr. Kang interpreted it as part of the natural process during the acquisition of English as a foreign language. For him, as code-switching and nonce borrowing from English reflects Koreans' improved English ability, English loanwords in Korean, commonly referred to as Konglish, are considered to be the variant of English that Korean speakers produce during the acquisition of English. As Koreans learn English as a foreign language, they naturally produce English variants in the Korean context, which then become part of the Korean language. He drew upon bilinguals' language mixing practices to explain this process: in particular, the relative

dominance of their first and second language across the scale of bilingualism. He focused on their lexical capacity in these two languages:

> 제가 자녀를 외국에서 키워 보니까 한국어 하고 영어를 섞어쓰는데요, 그게 언어습득의 과정이에요. 처음에는 퍼스트 랭귀지(first language)가 우선 베이스(base)로 있을 거란 말이에요. 그런데, 영어사회에서 계속 영어에 노출이 되잖아요. 그러다 보면 영어 어휘가 계속 늘어나고 오히려 한국어 어휘를 모르는 것들이 생겨요. 점점 애가 믹싱(mixing)을 하는 거예요. 그러니까 이게 언어습득 과정에서 일어날수있는 자연스러운 현상이죠. 한국 학생들은 우리 애들처럼 그렇게까지 하지 않겠지만, 요즘에는 부모들이 영어를 굉장히 워낙 강조하고 그러다 보니까 영어 학원 다니고, 영어 노출 더 많이 되고 그러면서 자연스럽게 한국어 하면서도 자기네들끼리 영어를 섞어서 쓰기도 하더라구요. 예를 들어서 게임 이야기한다던지, 페이스북(Facebook)이나 트위터(Twitter) 같은 거 할 때 영어표현들을 많이 쓸 거 아니에요. 당연히 영어를 점점 더 많이 쓰면서 그런 것들이 한국어 문화속에서 들어오는 거죠. 그래서 이게 언어습득의 과정이죠. 그런데 어른들 같은 경우는 아이들보다 이런 부분이 좀 늦죠. 이미 모국어가 훨씬 더 풍부하게 되어 있기 때문에요.
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> When I raised my children in foreign countries, they mixed Korean and English, which is the process of language acquisition. At first, the first language was the primary language. Then, they kept exposed to English in the English-speaking country. Then they learned more and more English words, but they did not know some Korean words instead. So this is a natural phenomenon that can happen in the language acquisition process. Students in Korea don't go through the same process as my children did in the U.K., but nowadays they also mix Korean and English while they talk to each other because their parents emphasize English very much and they go to English institute, which makes them much exposed to English. For example, they use many English expressions when they talk about games, or when they are on Facebook or Twitter. It is natural that the more English words they use, the more English comes into Korean culture. So, this is the process of language acquisition. But adults are a little bit slower than children in this acquisition process because their native language already become rich.

Dr. Kang called English loanwords "Konglish" which he regarded as belonging to Korean culture, not merely a subset of Korean language. In other words, he did not see Konglish as the object of criticism, but as the cultural phenomenon itself. He further pointed out that Konglish is not a broken form of English, but an authentic expression of Korean culture in English. He said that he was, therefore, one of the Konglish users:

> 콩글리쉬(Konglish)는 하나의 문화죠. 싱글리시(Singlish)나 쟁글리시(Janglish)같은. 그 영어가 모국어에 일종의 트랜스퍼(transfer)된 거 아니에요? 그래서 콩글리쉬(Konglish)를 쓰는게

네거티브(negative) 한게 아니라 코드믹싱(code-mixing)처럼 한국어 중간에 영어를 섞어 쓰는 걸 안 좋게 생각한다고… 콩글리쉬(Konglish)는 문화이기 때문에 나쁘다고 생각하지 않아요. 예를 들면 핸드폰(hand phone)이라든지 이런 것은 쓰지 모바일폰(mobile phone)이나 셀룰러폰(cellular phone)이라 잘 쓰진 않잖아요. 한국사회에서 나도 그냥 핸드폰(hand phone)이라 하죠. 이게 우리 문화니까… 미국 사람들도 한국 와서는 핸드폰(hand phone)이라고 하죠. 이게 쟁글리쉬(Janglish) 같은 그런 일종의 글로비쉬(Globish)한 영어의 베리언트(variant) 잖아요.

Konglish is a kind of culture like Singlish or Janglish. Isn't it like the native language has been transferred to English? So, what I think is negative is the mixing of English with Korean such as code-mixing rather than Konglish. I do not think Konglish is bad because it is culture. For example, we use words like *hand phone*, not *mobile phone* or *cellular phone*. In Korean society, I also call it *hand phone* because this is our culture. Even Americans call it *hand phone* in Korea. This is a sort of English variant like Janglish or Globish.

What was noticeable in Dr. Kang's remarks was his negative attitude towards English code-mixing and nonce borrowing in the Korean language. He said that he was not willing to use code-mixing or nonce borrowing when giving a lecture at the university because the educational culture at the National University of Education (NUE) did not favor language mixing practices, which were viewed as potentially harmful to the proper use of the Korean language. Part of the reason for this was the conservative atmosphere at the NUE. In addition, the frequent use of English technical terms becomes a hindrance to faculty members' comprehension, especially those in other departments not affiliated with English education. He added that use of English words may particularly impair communication with older professors:

제가 말하면서도 영어를 섞어서 쓰긴 하지만, 교대 특성상 쓰기가 좀 그래요. 교대는 초등학교 선생님을 훈련시키는 곳이라서 순수한국어를 주로 써야 돼요. 그래서 영어 교육 수업 시간에도 코드스위칭(code-switching)이나 그런거를 쓰는게 안 좋아요. 그리고 교대 사람들은 좀 보수적이라서 그런 거를 좋은 언어습관이라고 생각하지 않아요. 사실 일상 대화에서는 문제가 안되는데 수업 시간이나 교수 회의 같은 데서 코드스위칭(code-switching)을 사용하는 걸 안 좋게 생각하는 것 같아요. 마지막으로 의사소통에 문제에 있을 수가 있어요. 여기 교수님들은 대부분 나이들이 있으셔서…노 교수님들…사실 국어교육 쪽 교수님들은 잘 이해 못하시죠.

I am using English language mixing while talking with you, but I hesitate to use it because of the nature of the University of Education. Since the University of Education trains elementary school teachers, I have to use pure Korean mainly. So even in English education classes, it is not good to use code switching or something like that. In addition, those in the University of Education don't think it's a good language habit because they are kind of

conservative. In fact, it would not be a problem in an informal conversation, but it does not seem to be good to use code-switching in lectures or faculty meetings. Lastly, there can be a communication problem. Since many professors at this university belong to the older generation...old professors...in fact professors in Korean language education do not understand it.

Despite the negative aspects of using English mixing with Korean in communication with older generations, Dr. Kang stated that language mixing is useful to English language learning and teaching. He referred to vocabulary acquisition theory to explain how loanwords and nonce-borrowings help second language learners improve their basic vocabulary. He said that similar examples could be found in studies of cognate words among European languages. He pointed out that the usefulness of English lexical borrowings to vocabulary acquisition can be discussed in terms of the building up of a linguistic and cultural network in the language learner's brain that connects the borrowed linguistic items with the context in which these items are used. This network is expected to facilitate the brain's engagement in the transition from short-term memory to long-term memory that allows these words to settle permanently in the learner's lexicon. He argued that both loanwords and nonce borrowings can therefore be employed as supplementary teaching materials in the classroom based on the assumption that most of the students will know the meaning and usage of the words:

왜래어를 활용한 어휘학습은 외국어 교수법에도 있어요. 롱텀 메모리 형성에 도움을 주죠. 예를 들어 프랑스어나 스페인어를 하는 사람들은 영어와 일치하는 단어들을 모국어에서 많이 발견해요. vocabulary acquisition theory 에 많이 나오는 건데……L1 와 L2 의 유니온 셋이 있어요. 언어, 문화적인 면에서 두 단어 간에 네트워크가 생기는 거죠. 우리나라에서 외래어가 얼마나 많은지는 잘 모르겠지만, 그런게 있다면 초급 수준에서 도움이 되겠죠. 그러니까 어휘 학습에는 도움이 될 것 같네요.

The use of loanwords for vocabulary learning can be found in foreign language teaching method. It helps form long-term memory. For example, French or Spanish speakers often find words in their native language that match English. In vocabulary acquisition theory….

there are union-sets between the first language and the second language. A linguistic and cultural network is formed between the two words. I don't know how many loanwords we have in Korean, if any, it is helpful at a beginner level. So I believe it is helpful in vocabulary learning.

Based on his favorable attitude toward English loanwords and nonce borrowings for basic vocabulary learning, Dr. Kang stated that their incorporation into the English language curriculum needed to be considered, although limited to vocabulary teaching. He supported this claim with evidence from the transition of the Korean English language curriculum from being focused on British and American culture to including a greater variety of cultures where English is spoken. Building on the current research on the advent of global English or Globish, he mentioned that English language policy in South Korea had already opened the door to inclusion of multiple varieties of English, such as Singlish (Singaporean English) and Korean English, since the National Curriculum Revision in 2007. He supported his statement with the fact that the recent university admission examination (CSAT) included English questions sourced from cultures other than British and American. He concluded his remarks by stating that English language policies needed to be focused on English as a global language, not simply American or British English, so that Korean students may grow as cosmopolitan citizens who understand diverse customs and cultures through English:

최근에 2007 개정 교육과정부터 우리나라 영어교육이 예전보다 글로벌화 되었어요. 그 이전 버전에서는 "영어를 통해서 영미문화를 이해한다" 였는데, 이젠 영미 문화권 외까지 포함해서 다양화 되었어요. 2007 년 교육과정 총람에 이런 게 있어요. 영어의 세계화 즉 글로비쉬 관련하여 영미 문화권만 다루는 것이 아니라, 다른 다양한 문화권을 모두 다룬다고 되어 있어요. '한국 영어교육의 목표는 영어의 다원적인 가치를 다룸으로써 세계 어느나라와 통하는 지구촌의 언어를 배우게 한다. 영어를 국제어로서 쓰는 언어로 가르친다' 이게 초/중등 교육의 목표인거예요. 세계인으로의 문화적 소양을 기르는 것이죠. 이제 싱글리쉬 쟁글리쉬 다 인정하는 거죠. 그리고, 요즘에는 대학 입학시험 문제에서도 영미 문화권 외에도 다른 문화에서도 칼럼을

사용하기도 하더라구요. 예를 들어 African English를 사용하는 작가의 글이라면 그걸 틀렸다고 하지 않고, 그냥 조금 더 설명해 주겠죠.

English education in South Korea has been more globalized than the previous one since the most recent Curriculum Revision in 2007. While the previous version aims to let the students "understand British and American culture through English," the current one seeks diversity, including other cultures. According to the 2007 Curriculum Revision, globalization of English, namely Globish, covers not only British and American cultures but also other diverse cultures. 'The objective of English education in Korea is to teach the language of the globe by which they are connected to the world by dealing with the pluralistic value of English. To teach English as the language used by the globe.' This is the objective of elementary and secondary education. This is to cultivate cultural literacy as a global citizen. Now we admit all of Singlish and Janglish. In addition, the questions in university admission examination uses a column from other cultures besides British and American culture. For example, a piece of writing of au author using African English is not considered wrong but is given a little bit more explanation.

Jinho Choi. Dr. Choi stated that English was the most important foreign language in Korea because it was one of the official languages in the world and it provided an instrumental opportunity for employment, education, and self-satisfaction. He added that American English was still the most influential and favored of the English dialects in Korean society in terms of economy, education, media, and culture. However, an increasing number of Koreans have recently been attracted to British English, due to its salient linguistic features that differ from American English. He mentioned that the use of English had been increasing recently in South Korea and that British English had gained more and more popularity among Korean speakers. He did not agree with the statement that English needed to be learned by all members of the Korean speech community, although the basic level of English needed to be taught in Korean society and an educational opportunity at a tertiary institution should be given to anyone who wanted it.

Dr. Choi mentioned that nonce borrowing and code-switching had increased significantly in recent years in South Korea. He said that this phenomenon was due to the sudden development of social media in which Korean speakers adopt English words and phrases

whenever they are needed in certain contexts. Although people sometimes do not know the origin or original meaning of those words, they are not reluctant to employ them.

However, he showed mixed opinions about the possibility of English nonce borrowings and/or code-mixing being integrated into the Korean language in the long run. He believed that because Korean speakers use them in their ordinary lives for discoursal purposes, it is likely that in many cases, the use of these words is limited to a particular context or discourse:

> 요즘에 nonce borrowing이 확실히 많이 쓰이긴 하는데요, 그게 최종적으로 살아 남아서 한국어에 대량으로 들어오거나 하진 않을 것 같아요. 그냥 그때 그때 상황에 맞게 필요한 영어를 가져다 쓰는 정도… 그런 경우가 많겠죠. 그러니까 loanwords로 들어오는 단어들이 있긴 하겠지만 그 숫자가 그렇게 많진 않을 것 같고 상당수는 시간이 지나면 사용되지 않을 것 같다…그렇게 생각해요.
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> Nowadays, nonce borrowing is certainly used a lot, and I do not think it will eventually stay alive and come in large quantities into Korean. We just use English we need at certain time. Most situations are in such cases. So there are nonce-borrowed words that come into Korean as loanwords, but the numbers do not seem to be that many, and many will not be used over time ... I think so.

Dr. Choi's comment is significant for the sociolinguistic understanding of why Koreans use English borrowings and what such use means in their social interactions. Dr. Choi's focus in his interview was not on the fleeting features of English nonce borrowing in the Korean language, but on its immense influence over Koreans' language use. However, he believed that English use in Korean should be restricted to technical terms that do not have equivalent Korean words. He preferred to use Korean words and phrases in his everyday life:

> 저는 개인적으로 한국어를 지키는 것이 더 바람직하다는 입장입니다. 한국어에 대체어가 없을 때 그러니까 영어 강의할 때 term이 영어로 되어 있을 때는 쓰지만, 일상 생활에 한국어가 있는데 영어로 쓰는 것은 바람직하진 않은 것 같아요. 예를 들어서 "위험"이라는 단어가 있는데 "risk"를 쓰는 것은 안 좋죠.
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> I personally think that it is better to keep Korean language. When there is no alternate vocabulary in Korean, that is, when describing a term in English in an English lecture, I would use English. However, in my daily life, I do not think it is desirable to use English

borrowings when I can use Korean words. For example, I do not want to use 'risk' when I can use the word '위험(/wihem/ risk)'.

In terms of an association between the use of English borrowing and its users' English proficiency, he provided a positive perspective because he believed that the users know the meaning of the English words and understand the context in which they are used. He connected Korean speakers' shared linguistic knowledge of English borrowings to their inclination to use them by stating "In my opinion, using nonce borrowing and code-switching is somewhat associated with their English ability because they can use them only when they know their meaning."

Concerning the use of English borrowings in English classes, he had a favorable attitude toward loanwords and nonce borrowings, but believed that it was not desirable to use code-mixing in an English lesson. He considered there to be educational benefits from the use of loanwords and nonce borrowings for teaching English, but he judged code-mixing to have a negative effect on students' use of both Korean and English:

> 일반영어 수업을 할 때는 loanword의 경우 제가 인지하지 못하는 상황에서 자주 나오는 것 같구요 nonce borrowing의 경우도 전문용어로 설명을 위해 자주 사용합니다. 하지만 code-mixing의 경우는 의도적으로 피하려고 합니다. 왜냐면 아무 이유 없이 섞어서 쓸 경우에는 안 좋은 인식을 학생들에게 심어줄 수 있기 때문에…안하는 경향이 있는 것 같아요.
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> In the case of loanword, I use it frequently without knowing it in a general English class. Nonce borrowing is also often used for descriptive purposes. However, code-mixing is intentionally avoided. I would not use it as much as possible because if I mix it without any reason, I can give a bad perception to the students.

Dr. Choi suggested two reasons for using nonce borrowing and loanwords for educational purposes in the classroom. First, he believed that English nonce borrowings and loanwords were useful for refreshing students' perceptions of technical terms. By using English,

he could provide his students with a new understanding of some of the English words that they had already learned before taking his class. Second, he would use English loanwords and nonce borrowings for teaching English vocabulary because they could increase students' awareness of newly introduced English words. He also mentioned that he would develop a lesson plan by making up a word list composed of English words in the Korean language:

> 수업시간에 한국어 용어 대신에 영어 단어를 쓰게 되면 학생들의 지루함이나 고정관념을 없앨 수 있는 효과가 있어요. 예를 들어 '문법'이라는 용어 대신에 'grammar'라는 영어를 쓰면서 규칙 보다는 활용이라는 측면을 더 강조해서 설명하곤 해요. 단순한 멋있어 보이게 하려는 게 아니라 기존에 학생들이 배운 학습에 접근법을 다르게 해 줄 때 그러니까 학생들의 이해를 환기시키려고 사용하죠.
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> 영어 설명을 하다가 일상 생활에서 loanword나 nonce borrowing으로 쓰이는 단어가 나오면, 그걸 이용해서 영어 단어나 표현 설명을 하곤 해요. 예를 들어, 요즘 '콜라보'라는 단어를 많이 쓰는데, 이걸 이용해서 'co-work', 'cooperate', 'collaborate' 같은 단어 들을 한번에 설명할 수 있을 것 같아요. 교양영어 수준에서는 한 두시간 정도는 교안을 만들어서 그런 시간을 가지면 되게 좋겠다는 생각은 드네요. 시간이 나면 그 리스트를 정리해서 lesson plan으로 만들면 아주 좋을 것 같아요.
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> When I use English words instead of Korean words in my class, I can eliminate the boredom and stereotypes of students. For example, I use 'grammar' instead of '문법(/mwunpep/ grammar)' to emphasize the usage rather than rules. I use it not to look cool but to refresh students' understanding and to let them have a different approach to what they have already learned.
> When I encounter loanwords or nonce borrowings used in everyday life, I use them to explain English words and expressions. For example, we use the word '콜라보(/khollapo/ collaborate)' nowadays, and I can use this word to explain words like 'co-work', 'cooperate', and 'collaborate' at a time. At the level of general English, I think that it would be good if I could make a lesson plan for an hour or two lesson. I think it would be great if I could organize the list of such words into a lesson plan when I am available.

However, he had a conservative attitude toward the application of English borrowings to developing the English curriculum in English education policy. He believed that it should be incorporated step by step into policy making only after the effectiveness of its use in teaching English vocabulary has been confirmed in the classroom:

> 컬리큘럼으로 활용하는 건 조금 더 시간이 필요한 것 같아요. 실제 강의 안에서 활용을 하다가

효과가 보인다고 한다면 더 논의를 할 수 있지 않을까… 단계를 밟아야 하지 않을까. 현재로서는 아직 강의 안에서 나온 결과가 많이 없다고 느껴져서. 반드시 포함되어야 한다고는 생각이 들지 않지만, 배제할 수는 없다고도 생각합니다. 왜냐하면 한국어 안에 이미 무시할 수 없을 정도로 엄청난 양이 들어오고 있기 때문에 충분히 활용할 가능성이 앞으로는 있겠다는 생각이 듭니다.

It takes a little more time to use it as a curriculum. If you use it in a lecture and make sure that it is effective, you can discuss it more. I think we have to introduce it step by step. At this time, I think that we don't have enough results in the lecture yet. I think it's the first step. I do not think it should be included, but I do not think it can be excluded, either. Since there is a huge amount of English words coming into Korean, I think we can utilize them enough in the future.

Jeongsu Lee. Dr. Lee also stated that English borrowings had been increasing recently in the South Korean speech community, but he had a different perspective on the reason behind it. He believed the increased use of English in Korean to be due to a difference between the two languages in the way word formation occurs. His evaluation was that the Korean language lacks the capacity to form a new word from existing words, whereas the process of word formation occurs more easily in English. In the past, the primary areas where English words were incorporated into Korean were in technology, fashion, and professional fields. In recent years, however, the use of English words to generate new words has expanded into other areas as well. He mentioned:

한국어 특성상 조어를 할 수 있는 어휘가 좀 부족한 것 같아요. 예를 들어 'gold rush'를 '금 rush'라고 안 쓰죠. 한국어는 lexical gap이 크다고 할까…우리말은 한 단어가 여러가지를 의미할 수 있어서 특정한 대상을 지칭하는데 어려움이 있죠. 그리고 신조어를 만들어 낼 때 한국어를 쓰면 사람들이 그 어휘에 대해 가지고 있는 고정관념이 투영되요. 그래서 다양하게 해석될 수 있는데, 영어는 외국어라서 의미가 굉장히 neutral 하죠. 그러다 보니까 그 특정 대상을 지정하고, 의미를 전달하는데 매우 효과적이예요. 이런 트렌드는 요즘 더 많아지고 있는 것 같아요.

Due to the nature of the Korean language, I think there is a lack of vocabulary in Korean to create new words. For example, we do not call 'gold rush' '금(/kum/ gold) rush'. Korean has a big lexical gap... We have difficulty in referring to a specific object because a single word can mean many things. And if you use Korean, the stereotypes that people have about that word are projected into the new word. So it can be interpreted in various ways. But because English is a foreign language and its meaning is very neutral, it is very effective in

specifying a certain object and conveying its meaning. This trend is being accelerated recently.

Dr. Lee also described the recent contact between English and Korean in a globalized world under the influence of social and mass media. To him, the recent development of these media has given more power to English, in terms of creating a neologism, than to Korean because there may be no time for competition between two languages. Unlike the traditional language contact situation where English and Korean competed among Korean speakers for a new word, the new platforms of communication, especially social media, have accelerated the use of English vocabulary for neologisms when a Korean alternative is not available because the Korean language lacks the word-formation capacity to develop a new term. Concerning this issue, he stated:

> 또 새로운 개념이나 글로벌한 이슈들이 사회정치 문화 모든 영역에서 생겨나고 있어요. 그런데 우리 국어는 사회언어학적으로 지속적으로 발생하고 있는 사건들을 다루기가 힘들다 보니 우리 말로 바로바로 전환이 안되고, 영어에서 가져다 쓰는 거죠. 예전에는 두 언어가 경쟁 관계에 있다가 하나가 사라지고 그랬는데..요즘은 너무 빨라져서 그런 중간 단계도 없는 것 같아요. 요즘에는 지방간, 세대간에 차이도 줄어들고, SNS나 대중 매체 덕분에 새로운 개념이나 용어가 빠르게 전파되는 거죠. 언어학적으로 봐도 영어가 국제어가 될 수 있었던 원인이 조어력에 있어요.
>
> In addition, new concepts and global issues arise in all areas of social and political culture. However, our Korean language is not able to handle events that are constantly occurring in the sociolinguistics perspective, so those things cannot be directly represented in Korean but in English. In the past, the two languages were in competition and one was disappearing. Nowadays, there are fewer differences in language use between the localities and the generations, and new concepts and terms spread quickly thanks to social and mass media. The reason why English could become an international language lies in its capacity for coining new words.

Although he did not believe there was a direct connection between the spread of English and Koreans' English proficiency, he stated that an increase in the use of English borrowings did reflect Korean speakers' overall English ability and that their English awareness had

significantly improved in recent years. In particular, he mentioned recent cases in which the Korean transliteration of English had been used for the titles of films screened in Korea. He argued that English titles did not need to be translated into Korean because Korean audiences are fluent enough in English to understand film titles. He said that this had been made possible by the increase in Koreans' exposure to English since his childhood:

> 영화 제목이 영어로 쓰였으면 그걸 그대로 가져다 쓰는 거죠. 이걸 바꿀 필요가 없어요. 초등학교때부터 이젠 영어를 많이 배우기 때문에, 영어에 대한 노출도 많아졌고… 굳이 그것을 우리말로 바꾸지 않더라도 의사소통이나 이해에 문제가 없어요. 오히려 바꾼다면 문제가 될 수 있죠.
>
> If the title of the movie is written in English, it is used as it is. We do not have to change this. Now that we have learned English much since elementary school, we have a lot of exposure to English ... Even if we do not change it to Korean, we do not have any problem with communication or understanding. Rather, it could be a problem if we change it.

In his lectures, Dr. Lee preferred to use English if the terms were originally coined in English. He argued that Korean students can understand English terms that show high frequency of usage. According to Dr. Lee, in this case, translating them into Korean might distort the original meaning of the words:

> 빈도수랄까 인지도가 높은 어휘의 경우에는 그냥 영어로 쓰는 것 같아요. 한국어 맥락 안에서 영어 어휘와 표현들을 사용하면 학생들의 이해에도 도움이 되요. 하지만 우리말로 모두 바꾸면 어색한 경우가 많아요. 그래서 그런 경우는 영어로 그냥 쓰는 거죠.
>
> I think English is simply used in the case of a vocabulary with a high degree of familiarity and frequency. Using English vocabulary and expressions in a Korean context also helps students understand (the term). However, it is often awkward to change everything in Korean. That is why I simply use English in this case.

Like Dr. Kang and Dr. Choi, Dr. Lee also supported the idea of making use of English nonce borrowing and loanwords for teaching English vocabulary and opposed the use of code-mixing in class.

Seonwoo Jang. Although Dr. Jang agreed with the idea that English borrowings were increasingly being used in the Korean speech community, he did not believe that those who used English in their ordinary life looked "nice or educated" when they spoke Korean English. In addition, he did not think that an increasing use of English borrowings necessarily showed an overall improvement of Korean speakers' language proficiency, although their English had got better. He argued that South Korean society had entered the stage of recognizing English as an available language for communication. To support this idea, he suggested that Korean news anchors imitated native speakers of English when they pronounced English words. He stated:

> 재미있는 게 뉴스에서 보면 영어 단어를 발음 할 때 원어민처럼 발음하는 경우가 있거든요. 예를 들면, 요즘 뉴스에선 f 발음을 원어민처럼 제대로 해 주곤 해요. 이건 그들이 원어민에 가까운 발음을 구사함으로써 영어에 대한 자신의 authenticity를 보여주려고 하는 행위라고 볼 수 있죠. 그러니까 이제는 한국 사회가 영어를 실제적으로 사용 가능한 언어로 보기 시작했다고 생각할 수 있어요.
>
> What is interesting is that when anchors pronounce an English word in news, they sometimes pronounce it like a native English speaker. For example, these days they pronounce *f* exactly like a native speaker. This is an attempt to show their authenticity in English by doing so. So I think that Korean society has started to see English as a language that is practically available.

However, he did not agree that a variety of Englishes should be taught in the classroom because Korean students were still not fully competent in the target variety of English: American or British English in the Korean ELT context. He saw Korean English as a natural phenomenon, not as the target variety of English that students should have to learn. Nevertheless, he pointed out the educational benefits of loanword and nonce borrowing in terms of vocabulary learning:

> World Englishes는…아직 target variety 수준이 안되는데 벌써 다른 variety를 가르칠 필요는 없다고 생각해요. 한국에서는 American English가 아무래도 영향이 제일 크니까 target variety라고 할 수 있겠죠. 물론 English borrowings 같은 경우에는 어휘 학습을 위해서는 활용할 수 있는 가치가 있다고 생각해요. 특히 loanword나 nonce borrowings 같은 경우는 기초적인 수준에서는 괜찮죠. 결국에는 영어가 English teaching을 위한 medium language가 되어야 하는데, 교

실 현장에서는 그게 한계가 있기 때문에 그런 도움도 필요하겠죠.

Concerning World Englishes... I don't think we need to teach other varieties of English yet because our students are not fluent yet even in a target variety. American English is believed to be the target variety because it is the most influential in Korea. Of course, in the case of English borrowings, I think it is worth using for vocabulary learning. Especially loanwords and nonce borrowings are okay at a basic level. In the end, English should be a medium language for English teaching but we need that sort of help because English-only-class is limited.

Dr. Jang mentioned that the direction of language education policy and the curriculum were determined by the needs of the society. In Korea, those with power and influence in the educational area were the most influential group in planning and making language policy although they were sometimes sensitive to the voices of schools, the business sector, political circles, and parents:

교육정책과 커리큘럼의 방향은 한국의 상황과 시대의 요구에 따라 달라진다고 볼 수 있어요. 예를 들어, CLT였을 때에는 세계화 즉 globalization이었죠. 그 시대가 요구하는 것에 따라서 정책이 결정되는데 그것이 항상 맞는 것은 아니에요. 한 국가 안에서 정치, 사회, 경제 등 모든 요소들이 정책에 영향을 주죠. 한국도 마찬가지에요. 그래서 영어교육 정책에만 국한해서 생각하면 그 당시의 시대적 소명을 판단하는 정책 입안 및 결정 집단의 관점과 의견이 가장 중요하겠죠.

The direction of educational policy and curriculum depends on the situation in Korea and the demands of the times. For example, when it comes to CLT, it was globalization. Policies are determined by what the age demands but it is not always appropriate. All factors including politics, society, and economy affect the policy in a country. So is Korea. So, if we think about English education policy only, the viewpoint and opinions of the policy making and decision-making group that judge the mission of the times at that time is the most important.

Dr. Jang, however, pointed out that there was a great gap between university professors as a policy-making group and English teachers as policy practitioners. According to Dr. Jang, although both groups participated in policy formulation and curriculum development, the professors' voice was the most influential because they were in a position of authority over

teachers in the decision-making process. The issue is that so long as language policies and curricula do not reflect the voice and experience of English teachers, these teachers will not ultimately apply the policies and curricula in their classrooms. Policy makers do not consider the English teaching context enough and teachers find it difficult to implement all elements of the policies and curricula in the field. He described this situation as a barrier between the two groups:

> 교과서 집필, 영어 커리큘럼 개발, 그리고 정책 개발등에 교수들이 주로 참가하기 때문에 현장에 있는 교사의 목소리는 잘 반영되지 않아요. 반대로 교수들이 개발한 커리큘럼과 교육정책이 현장에서 잘 적용되지 않구요. 이건 개발할 때 현장의 context를 고려하기 힘들어서 그런 것 같아요. 그래서 커리큘럼이나 교과서 개발과 현장에서의 teaching은 괴리가 있을 수 밖에 없어요. 이건 현실적으로 교수집단과 교사집단에 존재하는 보이지 않는 장벽 때문이기도 해요. 예를 들어 2010년 초반에 한국에서는 영어 공용화와 영어몰입 교육을 정책으로 정하고 밀어부쳤는데, 현장에서는 받아들이지 못했어요. 원어민 교사 채용, 교실안에서의 교육적 환경 등 모든 면에서 무리였죠.
>
> Teachers' voices in the field are not well reflected because professors participate mainly in textbook writing, English curriculum development, and policy making. Conversely, the curriculum and education policy developed by professors do not apply well in the field. I think it is because it is difficult to consider the context of the field when it is developed. So, there is a gap between curriculum and textbook development and teaching in the field. This is also due to the invisible barriers that exist in the professor and teacher groups. For example, in early 2010, Korea decided to promote the English-only policy and English immersion education, but we couldn't not accept it in the field. It did not make sense in all aspects, such as hiring native teachers and the educational environment in the classroom.

Thus, he believed that the role of English teachers in teaching students was the most important for English in the South Korean speech community because the teachers were responsible for applying language policies in the classroom. He added that the Korean EFL situation was one of the most influential factors inr the spread of English into Korea. He stated:

> 그러니까 사실 학생들을 가르치고 영어교육에 1차적 책임을 지는 집단은 교사잖아요. 그런 교사들이 모든 정책을 교실 상황에 적용하는 것이 아니니까 그들의 영어 실력이나 관점 자체가 매우 중요하죠. 저는 그래서 영어교사들의 영어수준이 1차적으로 중요하다고 봐요. 그리고, 한국의 EFL 상황이나 context도 한국의 영어 자체에 큰 영향을 준다고 생각해요.

So, in fact, the group that actually teaches students and is primarily responsible for teaching English is a teacher. Because such teachers do not apply all aspects of the policy to the classroom situation, their English ability or perspective is very important. I think their English level is primarily important. And I think the EFL situation and context in Korea also have a great impact on English itself in Korea.

Voices of English Teachers

This section reports the opinions of English teachers, who are responsible for teaching English in the field. Four English teachers participated in interviews: two high school teachers, one middle school teacher, and one elementary school teacher.

Inhwa Ko. Ms. Ko pointed out that the recent increase in English borrowings, particularly nonce borrowings and code-switching, was associated with an increase in the number of Koreans studying in English-speaking countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, and Australia. While these individuals were the primary and actual actors introducing English into Korea, the Internet and mass media were also responsible for spreading English words and culture into Korean society. She described this phenomenon by stating:

외국어랑 외래어는 확실이 증가하고 있는 것 같고, 제 주변에는 요새 해외에서 공부하고 온 사람들이 많고 워낙 많다 보니까 code-mixing도 느는 것 같아요. 하지만, code-mixing은 전체적인 현상은 아니고 외국에 노출이 되어 있거나 접하고 있는 그런 사람들이 주로 가져오는 것 같아요. 그리고 아무래도 보면 인터넷이나 대중매체를 통해서 보급이 빨라지겠죠.

There seems to be a certain increase in nonce borrowings and loanwords. And I think code-mixing is also increasing because there are so many people who study in foreign countries. However, code-mixing is not an overall phenomenon. It seems that it is mainly brought by those who are exposed to foreign countries. And I think it is quick to spread through the Internet or mass media.

Concerning the reason for the recent growth of English borrowings in Korean society, Ms. Ko referred to the practical uses of English words in daily life. She argued that in many

cases, English words were quite useful for expressing what people meant when Korean words could not satisfy the same purpose. Thus, she felt that many English words and phrases were already part of Koreans' daily conversations. On this issue, she praised social media and the Internet more than mass media in terms of the spread of English:

> 한국어로 정확하게 표현할 수 없는 것들이 영어를 사용하면 편하고 실용적으로 이야기할 수 있는 것들이 있어요. 예를 들어서 온라인에서 사람들이 "데일리(daily)로하기 좋아요." 라고 하거든요. 너무 화려하지 않고 심플한 거를 매일 매일 편안하게 착용할 수 있는 것들 말해요. 이런 경우에는 영어가 우리말보다 좀 더 실용적으로 사용되는 것 같아요. 여기서 좀 더 똑똑해 보이려고 영어를 쓰는 게 아니고, 어떤 의미를 편하고 함축적으로 표현할 수 있다는 점에서 매우 실용적이라는 거예요. 그리고 인터넷(internet)은 대중 매체보다 훨씬 더 인터랙티브(interactive)한 측면이 있어서 인터넷(internet)상에서 사람들에 의해 급속도로 퍼져나가요.
>
> There are some things that you cannot express accurately in Korean but that you can say in English easily and practically. For example, people in online shopping say "This is good for 'daily'." This is about things that are not too gorgeous and can be worn comfortably every day. In this case, English seems to be used more practically than Korean. We don't use English to look smarter, but I mean it's very practical because we can express something conveniently and implicitly by using English words. And since the Internet have much more interactive features than the mass media, these words spread so rapidly on the Internet.

However, she was opposed to the indiscriminate use of English words in ordinary life because if people were using them without knowing their exact meaning, these words could be interfering with their communication with others. She also believed that if she were to use too much English in daily life, it would make her look ridiculous or less sociable to others.

She argued that English nonce borrowings and loanwords could be indicators of the recent advances in Korean speakers' English proficiency. She stated that Koreans' English ability had been greatly improved because they has been more exposed to spoken English in recent years than in the past, and thus the intelligibility and understandability of their English had also developed. She further explained that it was acceptable in South Korea to use many English words because it was assumed that Koreans could now understand them in all contexts:

단순히 텍스트(text)를 읽는 실력은 옛날 분들이 더 잘했을지 몰라도 요즘 사람들은 spoken 영어에 노출이 많이 되었기 때문에 그런 매체를 통해서 영어를 흡수할 수 있는 능력이 향상되었겠죠. 그러니까 요즘 세대가 듣기나 말하기에서는 예전 사람보다 훨씬 더 낫다고 생각하거든요. 그런 실력이 있는 상태에서 영어를 더 잘 받아들일 수 있는 것이죠.

Although the ability to read text simply may have been better in the old days, nowadays because people are more exposed to spoken English, their ability to absorb English through such media has improved. So, I think that the recent generation is much better than the older generation in listening or speaking. They are able to accept English better based on such ability.

Ms. Ko's opinion of using English borrowings for teaching English was different from that of the four professors interviewed. She did not support the idea of using English loanwords or nonce borrowings for teaching English or English vocabulary because semantic change takes place when English words are incorporated into the Korean language system. She preferred to teach her students English vocabulary within the English context and independent of English loanwords in the Korean language. However, she would use code-switching in a basic level English class where her students were not fluent enough in English to speak only in English. She added that code-switching was also useful for lowering the affective filter of middle- and high-school students who can experience negative emotions, such as high anxiety, nervousness, and self-doubt, when attempting to speak in English in the classroom:

그러니까 (code-switching이) 초급 수준에서는 좋은 것 같아요. 그리고 어린 학습자들은 빨리 배우니까 영어에 완전히 노출 시킬 수 있으면 좋겠지만, 중고등 학생들은 영어를 말할 때 거부감이 들 수 있거든요. 그러니까 학습자가 사춘기거나 나이가 많으면, 코드 스위칭이 수업에서 말을 하는데 도움을 줄 것 같아요.

So, (code-switching) seems to be good at a basic level. And while young learners can fully expose themselves to English because they learn quickly, middle and high school students may be reluctant to speak English. So if a learner is in puberty or is older, code switching will help his/her talk in the classroom.

She concluded that she would not support the inclusion of English borrowings in English curriculum development. She argued that English loanwords and nonce borrowings could interfere with students' proper understanding of English as a target language. To her, the English language curriculum should support the policy of English-only in the classroom with the only exception being for the situation in which students at a basic level need metacognitive explanation in Korean.

Jaejin Park. Mr. Park agreed with the idea that students needed to be trained to use English in everyday life, and even to use it with Korean, because English is the most important language in the era of globalization. He said that he mixed English words and expressions when talking to other people in Korean at his school. He believed that he had to use English when he engaged in a conversation with his students, as stated in the following:

> 요즘 인터넷 시대이잖아요. 영어를 많이 사용하기 때문에, 사람들이 외래어 뿐 아니라 외국어도 많이 사용하고 있어요. 그래서 우리도 많이 사용하게 되는 것 같아요. 저만해도 영어 선생이라서 그런지 몰라도 은연중에 저도 일상 생활 속에서나 수업시간에도 많이 섞어서 사용하고 있습니다.
>
> We live in the Internet age. Because English is widely used, people use foreign language as well as loanwords. So we also use them a lot. Because I am an English teacher, I also am using it in my daily life and in my class without knowing it.

Mr. Park considered that the use of English in Korean was for communicative purposes among Koreans. He felt comfortable using English words, phrases, and even code-switching because he had trained himself to do so when talking with his students as one of his strategies to encourage them to get used to using English in their daily lives. For example, he adopted English words or code-switching when he wanted to show his emotions to his students. He believed that

this language habit was conducive to improving his students' awareness of English as a functional language. In his opinion, his students and other teachers were more competent in understanding and using English words than they had been previously, which showed that their English proficiency had been upgraded.

Outside the school, Mr. Park believed that Koreans still disapproved of the rampant use of English in their everyday lives; he noted that those who mixed English and Korean in their language use might get a disapproving glance from those who did not. Nevertheless, he expected his students to practice English words and expressions when talking to each other because he believed that even the code-switching level of using English provided students with many chances to practice speaking English. He agreed that use of English borrowings and code-switching could be adopted for English teaching, as long as it was to improve students' communication skills in an appropriate context. Also, he pointed out the high level of motivation that students could obtain when they became accustomed to using English in their daily communication:

> 일상 생활에서 영어를 사용하면 자연스럽게 영어실력도 증가해요. 영어 단어 정도만 사용해도 도움이 되요. 제가 학생들을 가르치면서 발견하는 건… 원어민 교사랑 대화를 할 때 단어만 잘 알아도 의사소통이 된다는 거예요. 그러니까, 학생들이 알고 있는 단어들이나 일상생활에서 우리말 속에서 쓰이는 단어들도 잘 알려주고 적절한 상황에 맞게 사용하도록 도와준다면 영어를 학습하는데 충분히 도움이 되지 않을까 생각해요. 특히, 이게 학생들이 영어를 배우는데 동기부여가 크게 될 수 있어요. 일종의 브리징(bridging) 역할을 하는 거죠.
>
> If you use English in everyday life, your English skills will increase naturally. It is also helpful to use at least English words. What I discover when I teach students is...when they speak to a native speaker, they can communicate well with some English words. So, I think it would be helpful for students' English learning if we teach our students English words used in Korean and help them use them appropriately. In particular, this can highly motivate students to learn English. It acts as a kind of bridging.

In terms of using English nonce borrowing in the classroom, he approved of restricting it to vocabulary education, ruling out the general application of this approach for English classes in high school. According to Mr. Park, because all the English classes in Korean high schools were aimed at preparing for the CSAT, employing English borrowings for language teaching should be well-organized to fit into the vocabulary section of a lesson plan only. He added that the incorporation of this method into the school curriculum at the national level would require further discussion in educational circles.

> 고등학교에서는 모든 수업들이 입시를 위해서 이뤄지기 때문에 외래어를 수업시간에 활용하는 것은 어렵지만, 어휘교육만을 위해서는 유용할 것 같네요.아이들의 일상적인 영어 실력을 향상시키거나 영어 학습에 동기부여를 해 주는 데도 도움이 될 것 같구요. lesson plan에는 넣을 수 있을 것 같아요. 하지만, 고등학교 영어 컬리큘럼에 넣기에는 무리가 있지요.
>
> It is difficult to use foreign words in class because all the classes in high school are done for the entrance examination, but it is useful as far as vocabulary education is concerned. It also helps children to improve their everyday English skills or to motivate them to learn English. I think I can put it in a lesson plan. However, it is inappropriate to put it in the high school English curriculum.

Eunho Jeon. Mr. Jeon offered salient insights into the association between English borrowings and English education at the high school level. Based on his administrative and teaching experiences, he expressed his opinion about the differences between professors and teachers in terms of their status in policy-making work from the perspective of English teachers. He also appraised the value of using loanwords or nonce borrowings for teaching English in the classroom.

He attempted to determine the different characteristics of three types of English borrowings: loanwords, nonce borrowings, and code-mixing. He mentioned that loanwords, already a subset of the Korean language, had not multiplied in recent years whereas the number

of English nonce borrowings was increasing, mainly among the younger generation that is highly influenced by mass and social media. He added that code-mixing was only increasing among those who were subject to prolonged exposure to an English-speaking environment:

> 일단 loanword 같은 경우에는 최근에 들어서 증가하고 있다고 보긴 어렵구요, 그냥 지금 굉장히 광범위하게 사용되고 있는 거 같구요, nonce borrowing 같은 경우에는 세대에 따라 좀 다른 거 같아요. 요건 젊은 세대, 어린 세대일수록 좀더 많이 사용하는 경향이 있고 최근에 들어서 조금 더 많이 사용되고 있는 거 같구요. code-mixing 같은 경우에는 좀 제한적으로 사용이 되는 거 같아요. 아무래도 영어를 오래 공부하거나 영어를 사용해서 일을 하시는 분들이 많이 사용하는 것 같아요.
>
> I do not think loanword has been growing in recent years, but it seems to be simply used extensively now. In the case of nonce borrowing, it seems to be different depending on the generation. The younger generation has a tendency to use more and more of nonce borrowings mostly recently. I think the case of code-mixing is a little bit in its usage. It seems to me that people who study English for a long time or use for work often use it.

He did not agree with the idea that the English used in the South Korean speech community had become a unique variety of English, such as Singlish or Chinglish. Instead, he judged that English borrowings were a change in the Korean language, the outcome of language contact between English and Korean. For Mr. Jeon, Korean English did not have an independent language system, but was part of the Korean language in the form of language borrowing. However, he recognized that some salient features have recently been found that indicate Korean English is a unique variety of English in the making:

> 분명히 한국 사람들이 영어를 많이 사용하기 때문에 한국인들만이 쓰는 영어 표현이나 발음이 분명히 있어요. 저는 그런 특징들을 모아서 보면, 한국식 영어도 다양한 영어의 한 종류가 되어 가고 있다고 생각해요. 다만 이것이 싱가포르 영어, 홍콩 영어, 호주 영어처럼 다른 나라 사람들에게도 그렇게 인식될 수 있는지는 별개의 문제예요. 아직은 이게 언어접촉에 따른 borrowing 현상에서 조금 더 발전해 나가고 있는 현장인 것 같네요.
>
> Obviously, since Koreans use English so much, there is definitely English expression or pronunciation used only by them. I think Korean English is becoming a kind of diverse Englishes based on a collection of such characteristics. But whether this can be recognized in the same way as other countries see Singapore English, Hong Kong English or Australian

English is another matter. It seems to me that we are observing a field where Korean English is developing from the phenomenon of borrowing into another one due to language contact.

Concerning the implications of English borrowings for English education, Mr. Jeon distinguished between utilization and explanation. In the case of loanwords, he preferred to use them to explain the equivalent English words. Because this type of English borrowing usually goes through semantic and phonetic changes during integration into the Korean context, students cannot achieve appropriate learning of English through the direct use of the loanwords in an English context. In contrast, he argued that nonce borrowing, code-mixing, or code-switching could be used in an effective English learning strategy because these retain their original English meanings and pronunciation. When possible, he made use of these three types of borrowings in his English classes, for specific purposes.

Mr. Jeon's preference for English nonce borrowing or code-mixing in his English class was connected to orthography. In his teaching experience, he was reluctant to use English loanwords for teaching English because he felt uncomfortable transcribing them in English on the blackboard; his opinion was that English loanwords belong to the Korean language, not English. In the case of nonce borrowing and code-mixing, however, he was likely to use them for teaching English vocabulary or terms because he recognized them as part of the English language based on the practical notion that they could be directly transcribed into English. Thus, they were appropriate for classes where English was used as the language of instruction:

외래어보다는 nonce borrowing이나 code-mixing이 조금 더 도움이 될 거라 생각해요. 학생들이 외래어는 외국어가 아니라 한국어로 인식하는 경향이 조금 더 많아서요. nonce borrowing이나 code-mixing은 조금 더 외국어로 인식을 하니까 어휘에 도움이 되지 않을까… 예를 들면, 제가 만약에 nonce borrowing을 사용한다라고 했을 때 아이들이 조금 못 알아듣는 거 같으면 제가 칠판에다가 영어 스펠링으로 적거든요. 그러면 아이들이 그걸 가지고 이해를 하는 데 도움이 된다고 하더라구요. 하지만 외래어 같은 경우에는 영어로 적기가 조금 애매한 부분이 있고, 너무나

도 기본적인 거 같으면 영어로 적을 필요가 없어지게 되는 거죠.

I think nonce borrowing or code-mixing is a little more helpful than a foreign word. Students tend to perceive loanwords as Korean rather than as a foreign language. Since they recognize nonce borrowing or code-mixing as a foreign language, it helps learn vocabulary. For example, if I use nonce borrowing and my students do not understand well, I write its spelling in English on the black board. Then, they say that it helps them understand English. But in the case of loanwords, it is difficult to write them in English, and basic loanwords do not have to be written in English.

Like other interview participants, he did not agree that English borrowings should be included in the English curriculum at a national level; he preferred to incorporate them in lesson plans at an individual level. He noted that there was a great distance between the curriculum and the classroom situation, and that nonce borrowing and code-switching reflected a specific context at a certain time, whereas the curriculum stood for at least a few years. He said that the curriculum should be conservative, but a lesson plan could be flexible enough to include English borrowings in it:

커리큘럼에 포함시키는 것은 저는 동의하지 않구요. 이유는 커리큘럼 같은 경우에는 몇 년에 한 번씩 개정이 되니까 보수적으로 접근을 해야 되죠. 사실 이게 시대의 변화를 정확하게 반영하고 있질 못해요. 우리 나라는 또 국가 교육 과정을 채택하고 있기 때문에 이걸 공식적으로 교육 과정에 포함시켜서 모든 선생님들이 가르치도록 해야 된다고 보지는 않구요. 그 대신 선생님들이 가지고 있는 역량에 따라서 레슨 플랜에 포함시킬 수는 있겠죠. 그래서 수업 중간중간에 code-switching이나 nonce borrowing 같은 것들을 에피소드처럼 소개해준다거나 아니면, 학생들이 발화를 보고 correction해 줄때, 그런 nonce borrowing이나 code-switching을 활용할 수 있겠죠.

I do not agree to include it in the curriculum. The reason is that a curriculum is revised every few years, so we have to hold a conservative approach. In fact, this does not accurately reflect the changes of the times. In addition, since we are adopting a national curriculum, I don't think it should be officially included in the curriculum so that all teachers should teach with it. Instead, teachers can include it in their lesson plan, depending on their capacity. Then, they can introduce code-switching or nonce borrowing in an episode during the class, or they can use nonce borrowing or code-switching when correcting the students' speech.

Finally, Mr. Jeon stated that the national English curriculum did not correctly reflect what was happening in the classroom and what teachers and students were experiencing in the

field. He gave a similar opinion to that of Dr. Jang, arguing that university professors had the primary influence over creating English language policy and did not accept teachers' opinions extensively. According to him, the result was a significant discrepancy between the English curriculum and actual language teaching in the classroom. He argued that because of this issue, any application of English borrowings to the classroom situation should be limited to the individual context:

> 저는 오랫동안 교육과정 수립과 평가원 문제 출제에 참가했어요. 물론 교과서 개발에도 꾸준히 참여했구요. 하지만, 그럴때마다 느끼는게 열심히 일은 하지만 아무래도 교실 상황과 교육과정은 좀 차이가 있어요. 그런 한계 때문에 저도 박사까지 공부를 해 볼까 생각했었는데, 지금은 학교에서 학생들을 가르치고 실제적으로 교육 및 행정을 통해 한국의 영어교육 향상에 기여해야겠다고 생각하고 있어요. 그러니까 교수나 정책결정자와 교사가 해야할 일이 확연히 다른 거죠. 목표는 갖지만요.
>
> I have been involved in curriculum development and test development for a long time. Of course, I participated in the textbooks development, too. However, what I feel is that the classroom situation and the curriculum are somewhat different although we work so hard. Due to such limitation, I used to think that I would obtain a doctoral degree, but now I would teach students at school and contribute to the improvement of English education in Korea through teaching and administrative work practically. Therefore, what professors and the policy makers have to do is clearly different from what teachers do.

Eunseong Seo. Ms. Seo, an English teacher in elementary school, expressed her opinion about the spread of English and English education policy in terms of elementary school education. She agreed that English loanwords and nonce borrowings were widespread among elementary school students. As did other professors and teachers, she ascribed this phenomenon to the recent developments in mass media and the Internet, and their increasing influence on the younger generation. She also mentioned the effect of private English language educational institutions. In her opinion, due to these agents, neologisms are likely to be produced based on English words and phrases rather than Korean ones:

> 요즘에 초등학교에서도 대중 매체나 인터넷의 영향을 많이 받고 있고, 그런 것을 접하는 연령도

낮아지고 있어요. 그리고 이제는 영어를 자주 쓰면 한국어로 하기 힘들 것들도 표현할 수 있다 …그런 것도 있는 것 같구요, 또 영어 학원들에서도 선생님들이나 학생들이 그렇게 하는 것들을 많이 보다 보니까 따라가는 경향도 있는 것 같아요.

Nowadays, the young generation is also influenced by the mass media and the Internet. And now, it seems that they express something better in English, which is less possible in Korean. I also think they tend to follow such a phenomenon because they are influenced by what teachers and other students do in private educational institutions.

In terms of the influence of the spread of English on young students' English learning, she pointed out how English was taught at the private institutions. She stated that Korea had relied heavily on private education, particularly for English education, and therefore the educational strategy used in the private sector had greatly affected their English learning style as well as their habits of everyday language use. She noted that English teachers at the private institutions frequently used English nonce borrowings or code-switching on purpose to improve the efficiency of their language instruction for young learners:

학원에서는 일부러 그런 영어 표현들을 많이 쓰는 걸 봤어요. 아무래도 기술적으로 학생들에게 영어를 잘 가르치려고 그런 것 같은데, 저는 이게 의사소통에는 크게 도움이 안될지 몰라도 기초적인 수준에서는 괜찮다고 생각해요.

I observed English teacher at Hakwon (private institutions) used a lot of English expressions on purpose. I think they try to do this technically in an attempt to teach students English well. I don't think this is much helpful for their communication skills but it is fine at a basic level.

It is important to note that Ms. Seo pointed out that the improvement in the younger generation's English proficiency had also made a significant contribution to the spread of English, more so than the influence of Western culture. She referred to English education at elementary school as one of the factors most responsible for recent advances in English proficiency among the Korean people. She acknowledged that English teachers and students in Korea were the primary actors spreading English into the South Korean speech community.

Finally, she judged this phenomenon of using English in a Korean conversation to be part of modern Korean culture:

> 일상 생활에서 영어를 사용하는 것이 이제는 한국에서 하나의 문화가 된 것 같아요. 우선 요즘에는 어려서부터 학교에서 영어를 배우고 학원도 다니고 그러니까 기본적으로 영어 자체의 소양이 증가를 했구요, 쏟아지는 정보들도 주로 영어로 된 것들이 많다 보니까 요즘 세대들은 영어를 사용해서 의사소통을 많이 하는 것 같아요. 그러니까 미국 문화나 외국 문화의 영향도 있겠지만, 한국인들의 영어 실력 자체가 많이 좋아져서 영어라는 언어를 매개로 해서 자체적으로 영어와 관련된 문화를 지속적으로 재 생산해 낸다는 점도 중요한 것 같아요.
>
> Using English in everyday life seems to be a culture in Korea now. First of all, nowadays English proficiency has been improved because we study English and go to hakwon (private institution) at school at an early age. Also, since the information that is flooded is mostly in English, I think the current generation mostly use English to communicate. So, it is also important to point out that Koreans keep reproducing their English-related culture through the English language because Koreans have improved their English skills, though we may be influenced by American culture or foreign culture.

Ms. Seo was of the same opinion as the other interview participants that the language mixing of English and Korean might be used for a basic level of vocabulary acquisition in elementary school. In fact, she had adopted this method of teaching vocabulary in her own classes, although she had not applied it to an English conversation class. She suggested accessibility and self-confidence as being two of the benefits young students gained by using nonce borrowings and code-switching in English classes at elementary school. It is important to note that she mentioned the subjective knowledge about English words shared among the students and their teacher. She thought that teaching vocabulary through English borrowings could be successful because of the shared common knowledge about those words as part of Korean culture:

> 한국어와 영어를 섞어서 쓰는 것이 기초 어휘학습이나 영어에 대한 기본적인 실력향상에는 도움을 주는 것 같은데, 제가 회화를 가르쳐 봤을 때도 의사소통 능력을 늘리는 데는 도움이 안 될 것 같아요. 수업 시간에는 우리가 사용하는 외래어 중에서 영어에서 온 것들이 있다는 것을 말해 주면서 설명하는 데 사용하기도 하거든요. 코드스위칭도 사용하곤 해요. 그렇게 하면 아이들이 영어에 쉽게 접근하게 하고 자신감을 심어줄 수 있게 해 줄 수 있죠. 아무래도 학생들이 이미 알고 있는 어휘들을 바탕으로 수업 하는 거니까요.

> It seems that the mixture of Korean and English helps to improve basic vocabulary learning and basic skills in English, but it does not help to increase communication skills based on my teaching experience of a conversation class. I use it to explain English vocabulary in class by telling them that some of the foreign words we use come from English. I also use code switching. By doing so, this method can make it easier for children to access English and get higher self-confidence. This is because this way of teaching method is based on English words they already know.

Ms. Seo's comments support the argument of Brutt-Griffler (2000) that English teachers and students play a pivotal role in spreading the English language into their speech community. A social foundation for such language spread is the subjective knowledge that the members of a particular speech community have in common in terms of language and culture. They come to consider the outcomes of language change, such as loanwords and nonce borrowings in a Type B speech community, to be part of their own culture, as Ms. Seo mentioned.

Summary: Similarities and Differences between Professors and Teachers

The interview data show that university professors and English teachers had generally similar opinions across diverse topics although some of them offered different opinions. This section explores the similarities and differences between professors and teachers in terms of their opinions about the spread of English into the South Korean speech community and its implications for English language education.

All participants agreed that English borrowings had been growing in the Korean speech community in recent years. They offered diverse factors for such an increase. Dr. Choi, Dr. Kang, and Mr. Jeon referred to recent developments in mass and social media as the primary reason, whereas Ms. Ko argued that those who had studied and worked in foreign countries

introduced English words, and social media and the Internet were the primary vehicles for spreading them in the society.

Note that some professors used a more theory-oriented approach to describe the mechanism of English language use in Korean society whereas English teachers considered the teaching practice on the same issue. Dr. Kang offered a sociolinguistic perspective, stating that because the South Korean speech community is still a monolingual society, language mixing of Korean and English is increasing. Dr. Lee suggested a difference between the word-formation systems of English and Korean: English has a great advantage in creating neologisms, which further facilitates the spread of English into the Korean language. This phenomenon appears to be expanding from specific domains, such as technology, fashion, and professional fields, to a more general occurrence. In comparison, Ms. Ko and Mr. Park argued that those who use English frequently for communication are responsible for introducing new English words and spreading them in South Korea. Ms. Seo gave a detailed explanation of how the younger generations in Korea played an important role in introducing English into their society, arguing that elementary school students had been contributing to the spread of English. She also stated that the private English education sector, namely Hakwon (private institutions), was also an important actor that had a great impact on the younger generations' habits of language use.

In terms of defining Korean English based on the form of its English borrowings or language mixing, Dr. Kang mentioned that these had become part of Korean culture, and were not just a type of bad English. To support his claim, he suggested some ideas from bilingualism and second language acquisition theories which maintain that language mixing takes place as part of a natural process during second language acquisition. Mr. Jeon gave a similar opinion:

Korean English is a part of the Korean language, not a unique variety of English with its own system.

Dr. Choi, Dr. Lee, and Ms. Ko agreed that an increase in the use of English borrowings in the Korean language indicates the recent improvements in Korean speakers' English proficiency. Dr. Choi mentioned Koreans' shared knowledge about those English words as the evidence for this argument. Dr. Lee stated that the recent phenomenon in which titles of foreign movies were written in Korean transliteration of English showed that Korean speakers' English literacy had greatly improved. Dr. Jang had a rather neutral attitude: the South Korean speech community was only in the early stages of recognizing English as an available language for communication based on the fact that some Korean news anchors when they articulated English words still conformed to the pronunciation used by native speakers of English.

On the issue of using English borrowings for teaching English, participants were of different opinions about the three different types of English borrowings, although most of them agreed that the use should be limited to teaching English vocabulary. Dr. Kang preferred not to use English nonce borrowings or code-mixing at the NUE (where students are trained as elementary school teachers) because professors and students were concerned about the potential harm to their use of the Korean language. Dr. Choi was in favor of English loanwords and nonce borrowings for teaching English terms because it helped his students conceptualize them. However, he opposed the use of code-mixing or code-switching due to the negative effect on students' use of both Korean and English. In comparison, Mr. Park and Mr. Jeon shared the opinion that both English nonce borrowings and code-mixing were useful for teaching English words and expressions to high school students, but also excluded their application to English

lessons more generally because all the English classes in Korean high schools were designed to prepare students for the CSAT.

Ms. Ko and Mr. Jeon shared a notable opinion about the use of English borrowings for English education based on the perspective of second language acquisition. Ms. Ko disapproved of adopting English loanwords or nonce borrowings for teaching English because their meaning can be critically different from the original words in English due to semantic change during the integration process. In contrast, she preferred code-switching for basic English courses because it might lower the affective filter of secondary school students who had negative reactions to speaking in English. Mr. Jeon suggested two opposite concepts for discussing the same issue: utilization and explanation. He argued that English nonce borrowings and code-mixing could be adopted for the purpose of explaining other English vocabulary, but they were not suitable for a class using English as the language of instruction.

On the issue of English curriculum development, while university professors agreed that the use of English borrowings might be included in the English curriculum, English teachers generally opposed this idea. Dr. Kang referenced the National Curriculum Revision from 2007, which stated that English as a global language, not simply American or British English, should be the target variant in order to educate students as cosmopolitan citizens equipped with intercultural competence in a globalized society. Dr. Choi also accepted this approach, on condition that its effectiveness was first proven in the classroom. In contrast, Ms. Ko, Mr. Park, and Mr. Jeon had a more conservative attitude toward it because the English curriculum frequently did not reflect the current classroom situation. They argued that using English borrowings in the classroom should be realized in individual classes, not at the national level, because each classroom has its own context.

These different attitudes between professors and teachers toward the incorporation of English borrowings into the English curriculum stemmed from the different positions they held in curriculum development. Dr. Jang argued that there was a great gap between professors' and teachers' opinions on this topic because the former were engaged in policy making while the latter were policy practitioners. Mr. Jeon gave the same opinion, that the national English curriculum did not reflect the classroom situation because university professors held the primary authority in the creation of language policy, which resulted in an enormous gap between the curriculum and the realities of language teaching in the classroom. Both Dr. Jang and Mr. Jeon stated that the role of English teachers was the most important in the field of teaching English in South Korea.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Discussion

This chapter provides a discussion of the findings related to the three research questions in this study. In addition, it positions the major findings of this study within the body of relevant literature in the disciplines of sociolinguistics and second language acquisition. The research questions are revisited to understand how they are answered in this study.

1. How does the use of English contribute to social interactions among the Korean speakers in Korean television talk shows?

2. What are the attitudes of university professors and English teachers toward the spread of English and English education in South Korea?

3. What are the voices of university professors and English teachers about the spread of English and English education in South Korea?

Research Question 1: Use of English Borrowing for Social Interactions

The first research question attempted to determine the moment in which the English language was being integrated into the Korean language by examining how Korean speakers in a television talk show used English words and phrases in their conversations for the purpose of social interaction. Conversation analysis (CA) and membership categorization analysis (MCA) of the conversation data from Korean television talk shows indicated that members of the South Korean speech community used English borrowing for their communication based on a variety of conversational strategies. I will discuss the major findings according to four aspects of use:

English use for communication; an orientation of identity; co-construction of subjective knowledge; and tension between institutional attitudes and users' attitudes toward the use of English.

Use of English for communication. The findings in chapter four show that Korean speakers on television talk shows use English borrowings, such as loanwords, nonce borrowing, and code-switching for effective communication. For the communication to be effective, Korean speakers use English words instead of Korean words based on a variety of conversational strategies in their verbal and nonverbal interactions with others.

The findings reveal that Korean speakers on a talk show use English lexical items to build up their footing in a local discourse. In particular, English words are used to construct a contrast pair to show what type of perspective or stance a speaker holds in a verbal interaction with other speakers (Francis & Hart, 1997). Excerpts 4.1 and 4.2 showed that English lexical items can be used to make a contrast pair in which a social distance between the speakers is set up, and thereby the speaker's categorization may provide a solution to a debate between him or her and the other speaker(s). Housely and Fitzgerland (2009) argue that contrast devices are often used by interactants to show the membership of categories and further provide norms to action in which members of the category are prejudged in the social community. In the talk show data in this study, English words contributed to designating a member of the local community as belonging to one of the categories in a contrast pair by which a speaker built up his or her stance in an interaction with others.

Humor has been found to be one of the most effective strategies for communication in which English lexical items are frequently used for language play. The findings of this study

show that English words can be used to construct a discourse of humor based on code ambiguation, as in excerpt 4.11. Moody and Matsumoto (2002) and Moody (2009) argued that code ambiguation, in which Japanese words sound like English words, was designed for an indexical purpose in an "iconic language contact" situation. According to these studies, this way of using language is far from a communicative strategy; rather, such a creative use of English shows a language user's voice and identity. However, the present study found that code ambiguation was actively adopted to facilitate communication between the speakers. This difference in the results may be due to the contextual differences between the studies.

Orientation of identity. MCA of conversation data from Korean television talk shows reveals that Korean speakers display an orientation of their identity by using English lexical items in their conversation. To be more specific, English words constitute one of the *category predicates* or *category-bound actions* with which membership categorization devices (MCDs) are constructed to show a speaker's orientation of his/her own identity (Sack, 1964, 1967; Lee, 2009).

Excerpt 4.3 showed that the talk show hosts' challenges to the guest speaker's behavioral characteristics in his workplace played a significant role in initiating his display of a head chef identity. To project this identity, he used English lexical items, such as *phulleyithing* (plating), *teykho* (decoration), *meynyu* (menu), *seysthing* (setting), and *leysiphi* (recipe), as category predicates to constitute "directing cooking" as a MCD. Pennycook (2003, 2007) stated that the creative use of English in a local language not only indexes the language user's identity, but also reshapes it in the specific discourse. Lee (2004) argued that linguistic hybridization allows a language user to build up a specific identity and to affiliate with others to build up a social network. The findings of this study corroborate their arguments, in that a speaker on a talk

show may use English to construct his or her identity in order to facilitate a social interaction with other speakers.

English lexical items are also used to show a particular type of identity: bilingual speaker identity. I separate this category from others related to the process of identity construction because the value of bilingualism is unique in a monolingual society (or Type B speech community) such as South Korea, Japan, or China (Brutt-Griffler, 2002). This study shows that talking with a bilingual speaker is different from talking with a monolingual speaker in terms of verbal interactions. Excerpts 4.5 and 4.6 showed that a repair operation was usually involved in communication between a monolingual speaker and a bilingual speaker because English as a foreign language spoken by a bilingual speaker can sound aloof to a monolingual speaker. This may be because the two speakers do not share subjective knowledge of the selected English lexical items. Given that there is a significant range among the members of a certain speech community in terms of the scale of their bilingual capacity, it is important to consider how shared subjective knowledge is created among the speakers of that specific speech community.

Co-construction of subjective knowledge. As discussed by Brutt-Griffler (2002), shared subjective knowledge is an abstract artifact that grants people membership in a specific speech community. This knowledge includes a culture, its social values, beliefs, expectations, and social "norms of interaction" that have been constructed through the sociohistorical emergence of a speech community and that are shared by its members (p. 142). As I discussed in a previous section, the notion of shared subjective knowledge can be applied to a micro-communication context as well as a macro-communication discourse by a speech community. When communication takes place between a monolingual speaker and a bilingual speaker or a

foreigner in a certain interactional context, each speaker's subjective knowledge may be shared in that local discourse so that a new subjective knowledge is created and shared by them. In this sense, I suggest that the subjective knowledge shared by members of a local speech community is not fixed, static, or even prescribed, but dynamic, emergent, flexible, reshaped, and constructible. In other words, shared subjective knowledge is a body of recognition or understanding that is created by the members of a local speech community.

Excerpts 4.5 and 4.6 showed that a repair operation can play a major role in reshaping such a process of subjective knowledge about English words and expression. CA of the data revealed that when a problem was emergent in communication due to a lack of subjective knowledge about an English lexical item, repair was usually initiated by a speaker who had difficulty understanding the word. Excerpt 4.10 showed that telop was added in frame 2 to connect the speakers on the talk show and the audience in terms of shared subjective knowledge. It can be argued that speakers, program producers, and television audiences are all involved in creating shared subjective knowledge about a new English word based on a repair operation. During the interactions, subjective knowledge about that word is reshaped and shared by all these interactants.

What is important to note is that this process of creating shared subjective knowledge is carried out by the co-construction activities of all speakers who participate in a conversation. Goodwin and Duranti (1992) stated that individual speakers participate in producing shared understandings of the world in everyday interactions. According to Karen and Denise (2005), shared subjective knowledge among students is co-constructed while social interactions are accumulated among them and thereby they approach shared understandings. Based on the overlapping points between those studies and this study, I argue that the spread of English into

the South Korean speech community facilitates the process of the subjective knowledge shared by its members being recreated, changed, and developed. Thus, I refer to the *integration of English into a local speech community* as the process of *reshaping shared subjective knowledge* about English as an additional language. This naming emphasizes the role of agents of the spread of English into the local speech community.

Tension between institutions' and users' attitudes toward the use of English. Analysis of telop shows that there is tension between an editing team's institutional attitudes and talk show speakers' attitudes toward the treatment of English pronunciation and orthography. Park (2009) argued that telop shows the

> semiotics of media texts—how language ideologies and other resources of discourse production that constrain the interpretation of texts are invoked and manipulated on the textual, semiotic level to generate the effect of regimentation, serving as the foundation for the institution's authority. (p. 548)

English in telop reveals the institutional attitude toward the use of English in the Korean speech community, whether it reflects the social reality of daily conversation or not. The findings of this study show that telop seeks to use a standard variety of English regardless of the debate over how such a variety should be defined. In excerpt 4.15, telop changed the Korean way of pronouncing *battery* as *ppastteyli* to a standard English way of pronouncing it as *paytheli*. This example also showed that the broadcasting institution judged that South Korean speech should pursue a standard variety of English as the target variety, while the Korean speaker on the talk show was practicing a Koreanized way of articulating the word. This demonstrates that there is a

discrepancy between the target variety of English and the spoken variety of English in the South Korean speech community.

Overall, CA and MCA of talk show data in this study indicated that English borrowings, including loanwords, nonce borrowing, and code-switching/code-mixing, were used by speakers for multiple communicative and interactional purposes. Thus, I argue that speakers in the South Korean speech community are not passive users of English under its global spread, but are the active creators of English in a local context. As Brutt-Griffler (2002) argued, all speakers are the active agents of spreading English within their speech community and this process can be viewed as macroacquisition of English.

Research Question 2: Attitudes of Professors and Teachers

Analysis of survey data provided the answers to the second research question about the attitudes of university professors and English teachers toward the spread of English and English education. The results showed that they had different attitudes toward three different types of language borrowing: loanwords, nonce borrowing, and code-switching. University professors and English teachers held different attitudes toward many of the topics in the survey.

Difference between perception and attitudes. Survey respondents agreed that the use of English borrowings had been increasing recently. They also agreed that there was a connection between such an increase in English borrowing and Korean people's desire for better English. However, they gave a neutral to negative reaction to the need for English borrowing in the Korean language, generally disagreeing that it was necessary. In particular, they gave the lowest scores to the need for code-switching in the Korean context. This result indicates that

there is a gap between the perception of English spread into the Korean speech community and the attitudes toward it. This result is consistent with the findings of Ahn (2014), who stated that Korean English teachers showed negative attitudes toward Korean English or Konglish. She reported that Korean English teachers stated that their job was to help their students to become fluent in the American variety of English.

Integration of English borrowing. Survey respondents believed that integration of English borrowing into the Korean language depended on shared subjective knowledge among the members of the South Korean speech community. Loanwords, which were perceived as being part of the Korean language, were reported to have the highest degree of shared subjective knowledge, whereas nonce borrowing and code-mixing were perceived to lack shared subjective knowledge among Korean speakers. These opinions may be due to the perception of English borrowings being a subset of the Korean language. This result supports Brutt-Griffler's (2002) argument that loanwords or lexical borrowing are mainly developed in Type B speech communities where English is spoken as a foreign or additional language. This is because there is a great imbalance between a local language and English in terms of their status in such a society.

This result is connected to the respondents' attitudes toward an association between the use of English borrowing and a speaker's English proficiency. They showed the most negative attitude toward nonce borrowing being an indicator of a speaker's proficiency, and the most positive attitude toward code-mixing as such an indicator. Because loanwords are the borrowings most fully integrated into the Korean language, we cannot say that using loanwords shows English proficiency. However, code-mixing is considered to show a speaker's English ability because it is the least integrated into Korean. This result shows the connection between the

degree of integration of the type of borrowing and its implications for the user's bilingual capacity.

English education and curriculum. The findings from this section of the survey showed that different types of English borrowing can be used for different types of English learning. For general English learning, such as acquiring communication skills, code-switching is selected as the most useful type, whereas loanwords and nonce borrowing are identified as potential sources for vocabulary acquisition. This finding is also connected to the degree of shared subjective knowledge that different types of English borrowing show. Since Korean speakers hold the most shared subjective knowledge about loanwords, this type of English borrowing is useful for vocabulary acquisition. However, a loanword is not useful for increasing a learner's communication skills in English because it has already become part of the Korean language. In contrast, since code-mixing or code-switching is not integrated into Korean, it can be a helpful source of general English learning.

It is important to note that participants showed negative attitudes toward the incorporation of English borrowings into English curriculum development. Given that the state-level English curriculum is quite different from the actual teaching of English in the classroom, this result showed that both university professors and English teachers were conservative about this issue. They only agreed that English borrowings might be useful for teaching vocabulary in the classroom. This result also indicates that there might be a gap between English language policy (curriculum) and the classroom as the field of English instruction.

Differences between professors and teachers. The results of the survey showed that university professors were more lenient in their judgment of the usefulness of English borrowing

in Korean society and of the usefulness of loanwords for English teaching. In particular, English professors gave a more positive response to the idea of using English borrowings for vocabulary acquisition. This result indicates a gap between the attitudes and perceptions of professors who deal with theories of SLA and English teachers who are engaged in English language teaching in the field.

Research Question 3: Voices of Professors and Teachers

The interview data shows the opinions of university professors and English teachers on the spread of English in the South Korean speech community and its implications for English education and policy. University professors, representing the policy-making group, and English teachers, representing practitioners (or the policy-implementing group) expressed some similar and some different opinions on the topics of interest.

Increase in English borrowings. Both groups shared the opinion that English borrowing had been increasing in Korean society in recent years. They presented a variety of reasons for this phenomenon. First, social media, based on the Internet, and mass media were both mentioned often as the agents most responsible for spreading English borrowing in Korean society. In addition, those who had experience studying abroad or working with foreigners were engaged in introducing new English into Korean society and were considered capable of coining new terms. The younger generation was also mentioned as the agent for the growth in the use of English due to their having learned English at a young age. Private language institutions, as well as public school, were pointed out as the places where this young population has been influenced in their use of English borrowing. These findings indicated that social and mass media, students,

and educational institutions may all be pivotal agents in the spread of English in the South Korean speech community.

As Brutt-Griffler (2002) argued, the use of English borrowing in Korean reflects the natural process of second language acquisition by the South Korean speech community. One of the interview participants mentioned that Korean English should not be considered a broken form of English because it shows features of interlanguage when a language learner engages in second language learning. Regardless of the debate over the definition of interlanguage, his evaluation of Korean English revealed that Korean English was both part of the Korean language and culture (Lawrence, 2012) and also an indicator that the Korean speech community was involved as a social unit in the acquisition of English.

Reflecting English proficiency. Despite interview participants' mixed responses, all of them agreed that the increase in the use of English borrowing in recent years showed that Koreans' overall English proficiency had improved, at least at a basic level. First, they pointed out that use of English borrowing was based on shared subjective knowledge and showed Korean speakers' basic knowledge of English vocabulary. Second, one of the participants mentioned that Korean transliteration of English in movie titles reflected the public's recently upgraded English literacy. These findings indicate that many participants accept that Korean society is emerging as a bilingual community at the level of basic literacy.

It is important to note that one participant stated that some news anchors tended to imitate a native English speaker's pronunciation when they articulated English words in a Korean context. These anchors attempted to affiliate with a native-like accent to gain authenticity in their linguistic performance. Bell (1999) argued that speakers in a speech community tend to

change their speech style to conform to their audience's expectation about an ideal accent-holder. Duncan (2017) reported that an Australian singer of country music engaged in style shift in which he changed his accent to American English in order to gain authenticity in the eyes of his audience. The Korean news anchors' pursuit of native-like pronunciation was consistent with the results of these two studies, and showed their attitude toward the use of English in a Korean speech community; their style shift showed what kind of English they perceived as the targeted variety of English.

Using English borrowings for teaching vocabulary. All participants agreed that English borrowing was useful for teaching vocabulary although they expressed different opinions on three different types of borrowings. Most of them mentioned that loanwords and nonce borrowing are useful, but code-mixing or code-switching is not, however, two participants said that only nonce borrowing and code-switching could help students acquire English vocabulary because loanwords were quite different from the original English words due to semantic change. This supports Echandy's (2011) argument that lexical borrowing from mass media could be a source of vocabulary acquisition in the ESL context (see also Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2000, for further discussion).

Good for lesson plan but mixed for curriculum. Most of the participants shared the opinion that using English borrowing for teaching vocabulary could be included in the development of lesson plans in an individual classroom. However, they had different attitudes toward its application to curriculum development. Although two of the university professors indicated a favorable opinion toward the idea, most of the English teachers opposed including English borrowing in a state-level curriculum. One professor quoted part of the National Curriculum Revision in 2007, which stated that the English curriculum needed to be diversified

to include the varieties of English students should learn to become cosmopolitan citizens. In the English teachers' opinion, on the other hand, this idea did not reflect the context of teaching English in the field. These results showed that university professors and English teachers share similar opinions about incorporating English borrowing in lesson plans, but have different opinions about its application to curriculum development.

Tension between professors and teachers. The differences observed in the interview responses revealed a tension between university professors as the policy-making group and English teachers as the practitioner group in terms of their opinions about curriculum development. The university professors were inclined to reflect on linguistic or SLA theory in dealing with an educational issue whereas English teachers considered their teaching experiences in the classroom. The tension lies in the fact that university professors hold the primary authority for developing the national English curriculum and appear reluctant to accept the voice from the bottom.

Hatano (2013) reported that there are "conflicts of voices" between English teachers in the field and the Japanese government in terms of developing curriculum and its application in the classroom (p. 130). He stated that this phenomenon occurred because the government did not understand the field enough and teachers did not understand the government guidelines. The findings of this study are aligned with Hatano's research results in that there appears to be a great gap between policy makers and policy practitioners. Thus, it remains in question to what extent English language policy is valid and applicable in the classroom.

CHAPTER EIGHT

Conclusion

English Borrowing in the South Korean Speech Community

Based on the findings of this study, I argue that the majority of English professors and English teachers have the higher level of acceptance that South Korean is at the initial stage of becoming a bilingual speech community. The CA and MCA of television talk show conversations revealed that members of the South Korean speech community use English borrowing for social interactions in daily conversations. In this sense, it is not a type of broken or bad English, but an authentic source of language that is used for effective communication. Although Korean English is not yet perceived by Korean speakers as an established, explicit, unique variety of English, as shown by the conflicting perceptions and attitudes of the survey and interview participants, English borrowings can be understood as the tentative constituents of Korean English in the making. And, Korean English reflects the mixed features of English and Korean, Korean speakers' strategies of identity construction, and their ways of communicating, just as other varieties of English—such as Singlish, Chinglish, and Spanglish—do with their counterpart speech communities.

Agents of the Spread of English

This dissertation suggests that every Korean speaker is an active agent of spreading English into a local speech community rather than a passive recipient of the English language

and culture under its global influence. I argue that shared subjective knowledge in a local speech community is created, reshaped, and co-constructed by every member of that community. Findings from the analysis of television talk show data revealed that all participants in conversations contributed to the co-construction of meaning from their verbal interaction relevant to the use of English in Korea. Interviews also showed that Korean speakers had the most shared subjective knowledge in loanwords and the least in code-switching. Thus, the process of integration in which nonce borrowings and/or code-switchings become loanwords can also be described as the process in which shared subjective knowledge is being created or reshaped. Based on this, it can be argued that Korean speakers themselves engage in spreading English into the South Korean speech community as active agents (see Brutt-Griffler, 2002, for further theoretical discussion).

Tension between Authority and Practice

There is tension between a top-down and a bottom-up approach in terms of what variety of English should be spread into the South Korean speech community. Analysis of the telop from talk shows indicates that institutional attitudes toward an ideal variety of English may be different from the English that Korean speakers articulate in their everyday life—so-called Korean English. Interviews with university professors and English teachers also showed that they have different opinions about English curriculum development. I would argue that English borrowing is the point where the authority over language policy—"the top"—meets the practice of articulating English—"the bottom." The difference between the two shows why Korean

speakers have mixed attitudes toward the spread of English and the necessity of English borrowing in their speech community.

Implications for English Education and English Education Policy

The findings of this study have implications for English education in the Type B speech communities where English is spoken as a foreign or additional language. Survey and interview data showed that English loanwords and nonce borrowings could be used as sources for vocabulary acquisition. It was recommended by both teachers and professors that these two types of English borrowings be included by teachers in their lesson plans for English classes. In addition, code-switching and/or code-mixing were seen as useful in the teaching of English conversation at a basic level, based on the assumption that it may alleviate the affective filter for adolescent and adult English learners.

On the other hand, this study showed that there was a tension between the state-administered English curriculum and the practice of English teaching in the field. None of the interviewees believed that English borrowings should be incorporated into the English language curriculum, showing that the curriculum cannot perfectly reflect the ELT context in the classroom. This also shows that both language policy and ELT in the field contribute to the spread of English in the South Korean speech community. This finding explains why university professors are theory-oriented whereas English teachers reflect on what is happening in their classroom.

Limitations

This study has some limitations. First, I did not use conversation data from everyday conversations among Korean speakers. Although television talk show conversations reflect Korean speakers' habits with respect to their use of English, they nonetheless have some institutional features, particularly in terms of turn-taking methods. Therefore, although the conversation data I used more closely approximated everyday conversations among Koreans than that used in previous studies of Korean speech, some imposed structural elements remained. Second, my research was limited to English language educators and policy makers, and did not include the voices of people from the broader Korean speech community, including in areas such as business, government, international relations, and overseas contexts. The empirical data from a study of the broader context would shed further light on the current sociolinguistic reality where transnational language use is implemented in an intercultural communication among Korean bilinguals and other linguistic groups, beyond what I could examine in this study.

Further Research

This study provides several directions for further research into the social acquisition of English or another foreign language by a local speech community. First, it is recommended that there be further exploration of the relationship between social media and the global spread of English into a local community. Almost all interview participants pointed out that social media played a pivotal role in spreading English into the South Korean speech community. In combination with the discipline of digital humanities, this area has great potential in terms of understanding the connections between public culture and language contact. Second, the tension

between authority at the top and practice at the bottom remains a debated research topic in the field of language contact. Although the body of recent literature agreed with the contention that a bi-directional approach is valid in the area of language policy and planning, what is happening in the field is a different story. More empirical research is needed on this topic to clarify the situation from the perspective of language contact and language planning and policy in a local speech community.

Appendix A

Transcription Conventions (adapted from Jefferson, 2004)

,	continuing intonation
.	final intonation
?	rising intonation
¿	slightly rising intonation
↓	word abruptly falling intonation
↑	word abruptly rising intonation
wo:rd	lengthening of the previous sound
=	latching (no space between sound before and after)
[	overlap
0.7	pause timed in tent↑hs of seconds□
(.)	micropause, shorter than 0.2 seconds
°word°	speech which is quieter than the surrounding talk
WORD	speech which is louder than the surrounding talk
Underlining	Signals vocal emphasis
Italics	mispronunciation
(xx)	guessed meaning of the mispronunciation
/IPA/	International Phonetic Alphabet http://lingorado.com/ipi/
(xxx)	Cannot be guessed
hhh	Aspiration (out-breaths)
.hhh	Inspiration (in-breaths)
>he said<	Quicker than surrounding talk
<he said>	Slower than surrounding talk
=	Latching
heh heh	Voiced laughter
sto(h)p	Laughter within speech
£ £	Laughing voice
(( ))	Other details
□	inflected rising intonation contour
□	inflected falling intonation contour

Appendix B

Transcription Conventions for Embodied Action (adapted from Burch, 2014)

H	hand(s)
F	finger
R	right
IF	index finger
L	left
B	both
C	center
GZ	gaze (starting at the point of the time)
GZing	continuously gazing
+	place where action begins, description of action
+	place where action begins in relation to talk □
--	holding gesture or gaze in place
bold	embodiments□
#	mimicking with lips without making sound
↑↓	up and down movement
⇄	right and left movement
	gaze movement
	movement other than gaze

Appendix C

Glossing Conventions of Grammatical Information (Kim, 2015)

ACC	Accusative marker	AD	Adverbial marker; adverbializer
ANT	Anterior (result)	APP	Apperceptive sentence-type suffix
AT	Address term (Vocative)	CAUS	Causative
CAUSAL	Causal Connective	CIRC	Circumstantiation (Provide a context)
COMP	Complimentizer	COMT	Committal (~이지, ~죠: opinion)
COND	Conditional	CONJ	Conjunction
CONT	Contrastive	COP	Copula (linking verb, is)
DCT.RE	Deductive reasoning	DEC	Declarative sentence-type suffix
DET	Determinative	DR	Directional particle
END	Ending particle	EXC	Exclamative
FH.EV	Firsthand Evidential	GEN	Genetive (possessive)
GN	Genitive case marker	H	Honorific word
H.END	Honorific Ending	HT	Honorific title
IMP	Imperative marker	IMPF	Imperfective
IN	Indicative mood marker	INDC	Indicative
INF	Infinitive marker	INSTR	Instrumental
INT	Intimate speech marker	LOC	Locative
NECESS	Necessitative	NEG	Negative
NM	Nominative case marker	NOM	Nominalizer marker
PAS	Passive marker	PL	Plural suffix or particle
PRE	Precedence (cause)	POL	Polite speech level, suffix, or particle
PRS	Prospective modal marker	PST	Past tense and perfect aspect marker
PURP	Purposive	Q	Question marker
QT	Quotative particle	RESUL	Resultative
RL	Relativizer (adnominal modifier)		
RT	Retrospective mood marker	SB	Subject marker
SEN.END	Sentential Ending	TR	Transferentive suffix
TP	Topical Marker	UNASS	Unassimilative

Appendix D

Survey Questionnaire: University Professor

Social Acquisition of English in South Korea and its Implications for English Education

The goal of this survey is to collect the evidence that English spreads into South Korean speech community. There is no right or wrong answer to each question. The findings from this survey will be a source of valuable information to understand the perception of the members of the South Korean speech community about the use of English in a Korean context. This survey is approved by the Social Behavior Sciences Institutional Board of Review and all responses are anonymous and confidential.

SECTION 1

Demographic questions

Gender (Check)	Male _____ Female _____
Age (Check)	26-30___ 31-35___ 36-40___ 41-45___ 46-50___ 51-55___ 56-60___ Over 60___
Position (Check)	Professor___ Associate Professor___ Assistant Professor___ Instructor___
Place to work (Check)	Seoul ____ Gyeonggi ____ Incheon ____ Jeonla ____ Gyeongsang ___ Gangwon ___
Years of working (Check)	5 years or less _____ 6-10 years _____ 11 years or more _____
Disciplinary Background	Applied Linguistics (TESOL/SLA/Socio) ____ Linguistics_____ Literature _____

SECTION 2

Perceptions and Attitudes toward the Incorporation of English in the Korean Language

In this section, you will answer questions about your perception and attitude toward the use of English in the Korean language. 'The use of English in Korean' refers to the general phenomenon when people use English words and expressions in the Korean language as in the following three examples. In a subsequent sections, you are asked to read the questions and answer them by circling your answer as best as you can.

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[1] **Loanword**: English borrowing in Korean - Korean English / Konglish: 영어차용어, 외래어, 한국식 영어

a. Loanword (1): 그 계획엔 **리스크**가 있어.

(외래어) (일상) *I think that plan has a **risk**.*

b. Loanword (2): 이거 **디지털 카메라**로 찍자.

(외래어) (기술) *Let's take this with a **digital camera**.*

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(외국어로서의 영어차용어) 일시적인 목적을 위해 차용된 외국어로 한국어 체계에 아직 들어오지 않은 차용어

a. Nonce-borrowing: 지금 저 **디스**하시는 거예요?

(외국어) (일상) Are you **diss**ing me now?

[3] **Code-mixing** (Code-switching): The interchangeable use of two languages in a sentence or discourse.

한 문장 또는 발화에서 두 언어가 교차로 쓰이는 경우

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(두 언어 바꿔 쓰기) That is **too much**!

Survey Questionnaire

Please read the questions and circle one of the numbers that best describes your opinion of each statement below.

1: strongly disagree, **2**: disagree, **3**: not sure (neutral), **4**: agree, **5**: strongly agree

1. **The use of English in Korean** has recently increased. 1 2 3 4 5
(한국어 속 영어사용은 최근 점점 증가하고 있다)

2-1. **Loanwords** are needed in a South Korean speech context.
(차용어는 한국 발화 맥락에 필요하다) 1 2 3 4 5

2-2. **Nonce borrowing** is needed in a South Korean speech context.
(외국어로서의 영어차용어는 한국 발화 맥락에 필요하다) 1 2 3 4 5

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(두 언어바꿔쓰기는 한국 발화 맥락에 필요하다) 1 2 3 4 5

3. **The use of English** in Korean shows people's desire for better English. 1 2 3 4 5
(한국어 속 영어사용은 영어에 대한 사람들의 바람을 보여준다)

4. **The use of English** in Korean shows the spread of English into Korean society.
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5-1. **Loanwords** are easy to understand to most Koreans. 1 2 3 4 5
(차용어는 대부분의 한국인들이 이해하기 쉽다)

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6. **Korean English** is emerging as one of the varieties of English. 1 2 3 4 5
(한국식 영어는 영어의 다양한 종류 중 하나가 되어가고 있다. 예: 싱가폴영어, 홍콩영어, 호주영어)

7-1. **Loanwords** are part (subsection) of the Korean Language rather than that of English.
(차용어는 영어가 아니라 한국어의 일부(하위영역)이다) 1 2 3 4 5

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8-1. **The use of Loanwords** may reflect speaker's English ability. 1 2 3 4 5
(차용어의 사용은 화자의 영어 능력을 반영하는 것 같다)

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9-1. **Loanwords** are useful to learning English. 1 2 3 4 5

(차용어는 영어학습에 도움이 된다)

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(차용어는 영어 어휘와 표현을 습득하는데 도움이 된다)

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11-1. I use **Loanwords** to teach English. 1 2 3 4 5

(나는 영어를 가르치거나, 무언가를 한국어로 설명할 때 차용어를 활용한다)

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12-1. **The use of Loanwords** to teach English needs to be included in English curriculum.

(차용어를 활용하여 영어를 가르치는 것은 영어 교육과정에 포함될 필요가 있다) 1 2 3 4 5

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Appendix E

Survey Questionnaire: English Teachers

Social Acquisition of English in South Korea and its Implications for English Education

The goal of this survey is to collect the evidence that English spreads into South Korean speech community. There is no right or wrong answer to each question. The findings from this survey will be a source of valuable information to understand the perception of the members of the South Korean speech community about the use of English in a Korean context. This survey is approved by the Social Behavior Sciences Institutional Board of Review and all responses are anonymous and confidential.

SECTION 1

Demographic questions

Gender (Check)	Male _____ Female _____
Age (Check)	26-30___ 31-35___ 36-40___ 41-45___ 46-50___ 51-55___ 56-60___ Over 60___
Teaching Level (Check)	Elementary school _____ Middle School _____ High School _____
Place to work (Check)	Seoul ____ Gyeonggi ____ Incheon ____ Jeonla ____ Gyeongsang ___ Gangwon ___
Years of working (Check)	5 years or less _____ 6-10 years _____ 11 years or more _____
Academic Level (Check all that apply)	Bachelor _____ (Major:) Master _____ (Major:) Doctoral _____(Major:)

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(나는 영어를 가르치거나, 무언가를 한국어로 설명할 때 차용어를 활용한다)

11-2. I use **nonce borrowing** to teach English. 1 2 3 4 5

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Appendix F

Interview Questions

1. Do you think English is the most important foreign language in Korea? Why do you think so?
영어가 한국에서 가장 중요한 외국어라고 생각하십니까? 왜 그렇게 생각하시나요?

2. Do you think the entire population of South Korean needs to learn English?
한국인 전체가 영어를 배워야 한다고 생각하시나요?

3. What do you think of those who use English in Korean?
한국어 속에서 영어를 사용하는 사람들에 대해 어떻게 생각하시나요?

4. Why do you think Koreans use English or Korean English in their conversation or writing?
한국인들이 자신의 대화나 글에서 왜 영어나 한국식 영어를 사용한다고 생각하시나요?

5. What do you think is the advantage and disadvantage of using English in Korean?
한국어 속에서 영어를 사용하는 것의 장점과 단점은 무엇이라고 생각하시나요?

6. Do you think the use of English in Korean has been recently increasing? Why do you think so?
한국어 속에서 영어를 사용하는 것이 최근에 증가하고 있다고 생각하시나요? 그 이유는 무엇인가요?

7. If you say 'yes' to question 6, does it show that Koreans' English proficiency has improved?
6번에 '네'라고 대답했다면, 그것이 한국인들의 영어실력이 향상되었음을 의미하나요?

8. Do you use English while speaking in Korean? If so, how do you feel about yourself when using them?
당신은 한국어로 말할 때 영어를 섞어서 사용하나요? 만약 그렇다면 그 때 자신에 대해 어떻게 느끼나요?

9. Do you think the use of English in Korean is useful to learning and teaching English? If so, which part of learning English benefits from this?
한국어 속에서 영어를 사용하는 것이 영어를 배우고 가르칠 때 유용하다고 생각하나요? 만약 그렇다면 영어 학습의 어떤 부분에 도움을 줄까요?

10. What do you think of incorporating English borrowings into an English lesson plan?
영어 차용어를 영어 수업계획서에 넣는 것에 어떻게 생각하나요?

11. What do you think of incorporating English borrowings into an English curriculum development?
영어차용어를 영어 커리큘럼 개발에 포함시키는 것에 대해 어떻게 생각하시나요?

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