

REFLEXIVE ENGLISH TEACHER IDENTITY DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH KOREA

by

SOOJIN AHN

(Under the Direction of Ruth Harman)

ABSTRACT

This research was designed and conducted regarding particularities of beliefs about English teachers, English education fever, English educational policy, and English teacher education curriculum in South Korea (Korea). The study aimed to understand the particular Korean sociocultural context regarding English classrooms and Korean English teachers (KETs)' identities based on their own opinions and lived experiences. Furthermore, I suggest critical performative pedagogy (CPP) as a powerful tool to analyze the issues in English classrooms and find possible resolutions which can serve as an alternative professional development model for KETs.

The research findings are described in three independent yet inter-related articles. In the first article, we found several critical issues for the co-teaching of native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and KETs in Korea based on their narratives on previous teaching experiences. The findings suggested that more practical teacher training sessions and discussions related to co-teaching English classes be provided to both NESTs and KETs to resolve these issues.

In the second article, I explored the Korean English classroom discourse and KETs' non-native English-speaking teacher (NNEST) identities found in the critical discourse analysis of enacted role-playing through CPP. The analysis illuminated the problems the KETs face

pertaining to classroom interactions that produce marginalized English learners and deficit English teacher identities. However, this action research study also supported focal KETs to find ways to reframe the existing discourse by approaching the problematic situation from a different cultural framework.

In the third article, I focused more on the pedagogical design of CPP, which can potentially be used as means for alternative professional development for KETs. From the CPP practice with a group of four pre-service KETs, I found that reflexive, supportive, and transformative aspects were essential elements in the CPP practice for KETs.

All three articles together showed the relation of English classrooms and particularly the Korean sociopolitical context. As a conceptual framework, reflexivity enabled the researchers and teachers to reflect critically on their own experiences in relation to others, especially social discourses. I found the potential of this tool to be used for promoting the reflexivity of many English teachers and teacher educators.

INDEX WORDS: Reflexivity, Teacher identity, Teacher development, Non-native English-speaking teacher, Korean English teacher, Critical performative pedagogy

REFLEXIVE ENGLISH TEACHER IDENTITY DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH KOREA

by

SOOJIN AHN

B.A., Seoul National University, South Korea, 2009

M.A., Seoul National University, South Korea, 2013

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2018

© 2018

Soojin Ahn

All Rights Reserved

REFLEXIVE ENGLISH TEACHER IDENTITY DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH KOREA

by

SOOJIN AHN

Major Professor:
Committee:

Ruth Harman
Linda Harklau
Victoria Hasko

Electronic Version Approved:

Suzanne Barbour
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
May 2018

DEDICATION

To Hoyoung, my husband, best friend, and love

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation cannot be completed without so many people I have met on my long academic journey. I am truly grateful to those for their continuous guidance, insights, and encouragement.

I would like to show my deepest gratitude to my dissertation committee members: Drs. Ruth Harman, Linda Harklau, and Victoria Hasko. As my major advisor and intellectual mentor, Dr. Ruth Harman guided me to become a participatory qualitative researcher. It was my best of luck to be in your Classroom Discourse Analysis class in fall 2013, during my first year of the doctoral program, which initially inspired this dissertation project. Dr. Linda Harklau broadened my understanding of second language acquisition and multicultural education and always advised me with her detailed feedback and suggestions. I additionally would like to thank her for the generous encouragement and support she provided for me whenever I had concerns. Dr. Victoria Hasko also broadened my understanding of second language acquisition from cognitive perspectives. Her insights helped me to develop my research questions, research design, and analysis of the data from different points of view.

This research would not have been possible without my participants in two research projects: Ryan, Nancy, Kate, Alice, Lime, Arnold, and Oscar. They were willing to share their lived experiences with me. Especially, in the critical performative pedagogy, because of the essential part of using painful or critical moments of their educational experiences, I feel grateful to my participants who showed courage when speaking out and performing during these moments. I would like to thank each of them for their time and effort towards my research

projects. I sincerely hope that these experiences in the research projects will be helpful resources for their future classrooms.

During my doctoral study in LLED at UGA, many professors also helped me grow as an independent researcher. I would like to thank Drs. Michelle Commeyras, Peter Smagorinsky, Jennifer Graff, Donna Alvermann, JoBeth Allen, Don McCreary, Bob Fecho, Jiyeon Lee, Tisha Ellison, Kevin Burke, and Lou Tolosa-Casadont for their helpful advice and encouragement for me. I would also like to thank Ms. Liz Phillips, who always answered my questions so kindly.

I would like to express my special thanks to Dr. Hyangsoon Yi, who was my director and mentor at Korean Language Program at UGA. Dr. Hyangsoon Yi gave me a chance to enjoy teaching my heritage language and a chance to extend my research interests beyond TESOL.

I also received a lot of support from my graduate fellows in LLED: Meghan Barnes, Brittany Bogue, Ying Cui, Khanh Bui, James Coda, Adam Crawley, Nicole Siffrinn, Shim Lew, Heesun Chang, Albina Khabibulina, Margaret Robbins, Sonia Sharmin, Xiaodi Zhou, Xiaoshi Zeng, Viviane Klen-Alves, Lourdes Cardozo-Gaibisso, Jason Mizell, Rhia Moreno-Kilpatrick, Lei Jiang, Kathleen McGovern, and AJ Jackson. I would like to thank all of LLEGO and JoLLE friends.

I also have a lot of good friends at UGA: Hyojung Han, Changhwan Kim, Jisung Yoo, Hyounjin Park, Tomoe Nishio, Xiangyu Jiang, Ceren Ocak, and Tong Wu. I also thank a lot Pastor Panjong Park, Heejung Kim, Sungdae Park, Bongjoon Kim, Yun Reun Kwag, In-Sun Kim, and many other members at Athens Korean Church.

I feel also so lucky to meet a lot of good students at UGA and FSLA at UNG. Thank you my students and friends, Jordan Boggs, Jared Boggs, Allison Avery Johnston, Michelle

Larson, Moonkyung Kim, Hyeseon Kim, Sophie Chung, Nida Patimavirujh, Lucy Robertson, John Palmer Moise, and James Arnold.

I always feel grateful to my professors in English Language Education at Seoul National University, who shaped my foundation of language learning and teaching: Professors Jin-Wan Kim, Kil-Joong Kim, Oryang Kwon, Moonsu Shin, Hyun-Kwon Yang, Hyunkee Ahn, Byungmin Lee, Sun-Young Oh, and Byoung Chun Min. I also thank Professors Pamela You, Nick Shaw, Janet Shin, and Kristin Helland, who also encouraged me a lot at Seoul National University. I also would like to thank Professors Yeon Hee Choi at Ewha Womans University, Yong-Won Lee at Seoul National University, Kwanghyun Park at Myongji University, Kyungja Ahn at Seoul National University of Education, Tae-Young Kim at Chung-Ang University, Jin-Hwa Lee at Chung-Ang University, and Dong-hwan Lee at Gyeongin National University of Education for their continuous mentoring and encouragement.

I also would like to thank MinJeong Jung and Yerahm Choung for their kind-hearted support for the research project over a semester. Also, special thanks to Jong-Woo Choi and English teachers from the Snowball team who gave me many insights on the research.

My study was also motivated and supported by many friends and teachers in Korea: Ju Young Min, Ji-Hyun Park, Min-Chang Sung, Kiteak Kim, Hyunwoo Kim, Sunghyun Jang, Ogyoung Lee, You-Me Park, Hyunduk Suh, Soohye Yeom, Min Jong Jeon, Jayoung Song, Seon Young Han, Hyojin Bae, Harim Kim, Juhae Kim, Yoojin Han, Jun Young Park, and Hyunjin Min, Hana Jang, Hwi Park, Siuk Chung, Jaeki Kim, and Man Heo. Thank you all so much, and thank you my lovely student and friend, Hyeon Ha Heo.

I feel so lucky and grateful to my families who support me whenever and wherever I am. My parents, Young Chan Ahn and Chunsan Park, my parents-in-law, Sung Il Choi and Jung

Sook Jang, my sister's family, and my sister-in-law's family. Without their love and support, this cannot be done. Also, my aunt and uncle, Sun Nam Lee and Chang Gi Lee, and their family here in Suwanee, GA, supported me a lot during the years of my doctoral study. Thank you all very much. I especially thank my husband, Hoyoung Choi, for his endless love and care for me.

All of this work cannot be done without the guidance of God. Thanks be to God.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW	1
Background	1
Statement of the Problem.....	3
Purpose of the Study and Research Questions.....	6
Conceptual Framework.....	7
Literature Review.....	13
References	23
2 NATIVE ENGLISH-SPEAKING TEACHERS (NESTS) IN KOREA: VOICES FROM TWO NESTS AND ONE KOREAN ENGLISH TEACHER.....	31
Abstract	32
Introduction.....	33
Literature Review.....	34
Methods.....	44
Findings and Discussion	46
Conclusion and Implications.....	57

References	61
Appendix 2A	67
 3 “WHY DO I ALWAYS FEEL LACKING ALTHOUGH I HAVE BEEN WORKING HARD?”: CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF KOREAN ENGLISH CLASSROOM AND NON-NATIVE ENGLISH-SPEAKING TEACHER (NNEST) IDENTITIES	70
Abstract	71
Introduction	72
Conceptual Framework	76
Literature Review	78
Methodology	81
Findings	86
Conclusion	100
References	103
Appendix 3A	110
 4 CRITICAL PERFORMATIVE PEDAGOGY FOR KOREAN ENGLISH TEACHERS	111
Abstract	112
Introduction	113
Conceptual Framework	116
Pedagogical Design of CPP for Korean English Teachers	121
Implication for Teacher Educators	139

Conclusion	143
References	146
Appendix 4A.....	153
Appendix 4B	155
Appendix 4C	165
5 CONCLUSION.....	170
Overview	170
Revisiting Research Questions	171
Summary of Findings.....	172
Implications for Teachers and Teacher Educators.....	174
Final Thoughts	175
References	177

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 2.1: Basic information about participants	45

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 3.1: Data collection cycle	84
Figure 3.2: The scene from group activity in performance 1	88
Figure 3.3: The scene prior to the group activity in performance 1	91
Figure 3.4: The scene of a conversation after class in performance 1	94
Figure 3.5: The scene of a teacher's introduction in performance 2	96
Figure 3.6: The scene of an after-class conversation in performance 2.....	99
Figure 4.1: Pedagogical design of CPP for Korean English teachers.....	125
Figure 4.2: Lime's chronicle of English learning	126
Figure 4.3: Theatre game 1	127
Figure 4.4: Theatre game 2	128
Figure 4.5: The first performance	130
Figure 4.6: The second performance	130
Figure 4.7: CPP for KETs diagram.....	139

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Background

South Korea (hereafter, Korea) is a country where English is spoken and taught as a foreign language (EFL). Compared to other foreign languages, English is considered the most important foreign language. With the economic and political flow of globalization, it is not surprising that English is a powerful language in any country around the world. The English fever in Korea is unique, however, because it is combined with the general fever that distinguishes education from elite education. In addition, the importance of tests and their gate-keeping functions is also easily connected to the English fever in Korea. In Korea, many parents and students also believe that becoming a good English speaker requires achieving the fluency of a native-like English speaker.

As a pre-service teacher of English, I expected to understand first why we should learn and teach English to Korean students. Yet the curriculum of the English education major mainly includes an introduction to teaching methodologies and skills, such as communicative language teaching (CLT), for further practice teaching. During my teaching practicum, my mentor guided me to adopt some English as a second language (ESL) textbooks published in the United States or the United Kingdom for use as a bible when teaching English to my students. At the same time, the government recommended that all English teachers teach English lessons in English (TEE) in order to increase students' English input in classrooms. I wondered if TEE was the best policy for teaching English to Korean students, so for my undergraduate thesis I investigated

how public opinions about the government's English education policy, including TEE, were presented and developed in newspaper articles (S. Ahn, 2009). As I wanted to explore the unique context of English learning in Korean society more deeply, I decided to continue my studies in graduate school.

During my master's program, I took a course about the history of foreign language education in Korea. For the final project of this course, I wrote a literature review paper that explored the role of native English-speaking teachers (NESTs); during my doctoral studies, I developed this work into a project about NESTs' role, using authentic voices from both NESTs and non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) in the field (see Chapter 2 of this dissertation; and Ahn & Lew, 2017). This project continued my long-time inquiry about the history of English education in Korea, and it provided a good review of the literature and background for understanding the educational context in Korea.

As part of my long journey to discover the social discourses around why and how English should be taught in Korea, I learned about critical discourse analysis (CDA) and critical performative pedagogy (CPP) from my advisor. The CDA combined with CPP approach became an innovative and practical analytic tool for exploring my long-term interest in language ideology and identity in sociocultural and sociopolitical contexts. While I worked on a reflective CPP project with my advisor and colleague in the United States (Harman, Ahn, & Bogue, 2016), I came to think about applying this CPP process to the Korean context in which I was born and educated. I also wondered if this could open up a space for current pre-service or in-service teachers to talk about their issues, especially given the current shift in the national curriculum and the call for more creativity in Korean school. Having a good understanding of the particular sociocultural context, I was able to design a CPP curriculum that would support the pre-service

English teachers. Over one semester in fall and winter 2016, I worked with a group of four pre-service teachers, especially those who wanted to become English teachers in the near future. The findings from this action research will be described in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 of this dissertation.

Statement of the Problem

In my journey of inquiry about English teaching education in Korea I identified several sociocultural factors that have become foundations of the English educational context in Korea: particularities of beliefs about teachers, English education fever, educational policy, and teacher education curriculum. First, traditional beliefs about teachers in Korea are the basis of the particularity of Korean English teachers. In Korea, teachers are generally considered masters of knowledge and knowledge deliverers with high authority. This perception has been influenced by the long-term Asian cultural belief that teachers have the authority to deliver knowledge to students via a top-down method (Han & Scull, 2010). Due to this cultural belief, teachers are required to be equipped with as much knowledge as they can so that they can deliver the relevant knowledge to students in the classroom. If teachers believe that they do not have enough knowledge, they will lose their authority with their students and the students' parents. In order not to lose their authority, English teachers focus their efforts on maintaining their high English proficiency and teaching skills (Choi, 2008; Jee, 2016).

Second, English education fever has been fierce in Korean society, especially since it has been combined with native-speakerism (NS). NS is the belief that “‘native-speaker’ teachers represent a ‘Western culture’ from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of English language teaching methodology” (Holliday, 2006, p. 385). NS can lead to the marginalization of non-native speaking teachers and students in classrooms. For example, under

the NS in a classroom setting, many English teachers could lose their authority with their students, especially as Korean NNESTs can be viewed as imperfect masters of knowledge. Korean English teachers can face a deficit teacher identity (Harman & Zhang, 2015; Song, 2016).

Third, educational policy led by the Korean government has had a strong influence on the English classroom. The government developed the National Curriculum of Korea (National Curriculum Information Center, 2017) for all subjects and has controlled both the content and structures of curriculum for all primary and secondary schools since 1945. The teaching English in English (TEE) policy was one of the critical educational policies that has largely influenced English classrooms since 2009. TEE has become a requirement for the national teacher's exam for English teachers, and TEE certificates have been also issued to those teachers who passed certain processes of training and certificate tests. Although some research has found the bright sides of TEE in Korean classrooms, a recent study that interviewed non-certified TEE teachers pointed out that TEE could be like a one-time event that considers English speaking skills as the only important part of teaching skills (Lee, 2017). On the other hand, the national curriculum has been constantly changing according to global and local changes in educational environments. One of the most recent national curriculum changes includes "free semester programs" (Ministry of Education, 2013), which require teachers to help students explore their interests and future careers by engaging in various activities inside and outside the classroom setting. This is another challenge that is also a chance for English teachers to design their lessons in a more creative way.

Fourth, teacher education curriculum in Korea is also largely connected to governmental guidelines. Clear governmental guidelines exist for all pre-service teachers to get teacher

certificates in college and take the teacher's exam to become public school teachers. Most importantly, the teacher education curriculum has been designed to prepare pre-service teachers for the national curriculum (Sung, 2009). In addition, the teacher education curriculum has been designed for pre-service teachers to be prepared for the national teacher's exam,¹ which necessitated some type of standard teacher education curricula across all colleges in the country (Kwon, 2000). The national teacher's exam tests teacher candidates' knowledge on the contents gleaned from certain courses in college. The Ministry of Education specifies the courses that pre-service teachers must take, including theories or methodologies in teaching English, knowledge on English literature, and linguistics (Ministry of Education, 2017). Teacher candidates are also required to complete a two-semester volunteer teaching along with one-month teaching practicum.

The English classroom is a place where those sociocultural factors all come into play together, and Korean English teachers have faced strong governmental and social pressure. However, a research gap still exists in terms of understanding this particular social context and listening to the individual teachers' voices as well as making alternative efforts as part of teacher development. Teacher education programs currently do not have enough room to promote pre-service teachers' reflexivity and creativity. Ahn (2014) pointed out that the English teacher education curriculum needs to be revised to promote pre-service teachers' creativity, innovation, and interpersonal skills.

To fill this gap, the current doctoral research aimed to listen to teachers' voices by understanding Korea's particular sociocultural context. Teachers' reflections on their learning

¹ In Korea, once a college graduate holds a national teacher certificate, he or she is eligible to work at private or public schools. However, a teacher candidate who passes the teacher's exam is eligible to work as a tenured full-time public school teacher.

and teaching experiences in Korean society and the enactment of those experiences through performance and other activities were explored based on the conceptual framework of reflexivity, pedagogy of multiliteracies, and reflection literacy. As an alternative professional development model, critical performative pedagogy (CPP) was designed for Korean English teachers. Using the specific illustration of my CPP practice with a group of pre-service teachers, essential elements and practical suggestions about CPP design for teachers and teacher educators will be discussed.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

In this dissertation, I deal with the English classrooms and English teachers in a specific Korean educational context in relation with the governmental policies for English education. I discuss the policy about NESTs' English teaching, TEE for English classrooms, and the free-semester programs for middle school classrooms. Moreover, I examine and make suggestions about the use of CPP as an alternative professional development model for preparing Korean English teachers for the new call for English education.

Based on this purpose of the study, three research questions were developed for this research. First, what are the issues of English teaching of NESTs and KETs in Korea based on the in-service teachers' co-teaching experiences? Second, what are the Korean English classroom discourses and NNEST identities found in the critical discourse analysis of enacted role-playing by pre-service teachers? Third, how can CPP be used as an alternative professional development for Korean English teachers?

More specifically, this dissertation includes three articles. Each article responds to each research question above, in relation to educational policies that have had an impact on English classrooms in Korea—namely, the co-teaching of NESTs and KETs, the TEE classroom, and the

free semester programs. The first article reviews the history of the role of NESTs and the collaborative teaching of NESTs and KETs in Korean English classrooms. This article focuses on narratives from classroom teachers (two NESTs and one KET) and discusses the critical issues facing teacher training, teaching in class, and life in and outside of school. The second article examined the enacted TEE classroom performed by four pre-service teachers. Using a critical discourse analysis of the performed classroom interaction, this article focuses on understanding language ideology problems in classroom discourse that tend to produce marginalized learners and deficit teacher identities. Through the forum theatre, the pre-service teachers also learned how to reframe the problematic situations. The third article showcases a critical performative pedagogy for Korean English teachers in response to a new call for English teachers—namely, the free-semester programs. The article explores the whole process of pedagogically designing CPP and discusses its essential elements, particularly for the Korean English education context. This article also provides practical suggestions for designing CPP for English teachers and teacher educators.

Conceptual Framework

Reflexivity

All three articles in this dissertation look at English classrooms through the participants' reflections on their authentic experiences. The participants have learning and teaching experiences in the given social context—namely, the Korean educational context. The hidden meanings of their experiences in terms of social context are only found when they critically look back at their own experiences. In the 1980s and 1990s, some researchers, such as Schön (1983, 1987) and Wallace (1991), emphasized the importance of reflection in professional development. Schön (1987) described a reflective practice as “a dialogue of thinking and doing through which

I become more skillful” (p. 31). Such reflective practice gives professionals chances to recognize the different contexts of meanings in which their expertise is embedded (Schön, 1983). Wallace (1991) also developed a reflective model of professional education that teachers’ reflection on teaching experiences can be used as input for their future planning and action. In this model, the teacher was understood as a teacher-as-researcher (Wallace, 1991).

Recently, in the extension of the critical aspect of reflection, the concept of reflexivity has been applied to understanding and supporting teachers’ reflective practices and development in the field of language education. Reflexivity is generally defined as “a turning back on oneself, a process of self-reference” (Aull Davies, 2008, p. 4). Aull Davies (2008) applied reflexivity to the broad context of social research as “reflexivity expresses researchers’ awareness of their necessary connection to the research situation and hence their effects upon it, what is sometimes called reactivity” (p. 7). More specifically, Byrd Clark and Dervin (2014) discussed three components of reflexivity: critical reflection, awareness, and hyper-reflexivity. *Critical reflection* means that “a process and a construct requires us to be aware at every stage of the research” (p. 15), and *awareness* means “a need to become aware of the illusions of the social world as well as our own representations and engagements with them” (p. 23). In this sense, critical reflection is associated with the process of self-reference, while awareness is associated with social discourses that lead to a certain way of our becoming self-critical. Furthermore, Byrd Clark and Dervin (2014) discussed *hyper-reflexivity* as follows:

Hyper-reflexivity, as a third component of reflexivity, demands resourcefulness and openness on the part of the person involved, a willingness to go and sit with the uncomfortableness and messiness of one’s own ideological attachments, ways of

representing and investing, and a willingness to flexibly engage and negotiate meanings with one another. (p. 25)

Here, hyper-reflexivity emphasizes that one needs to be aware that the situation can be changing in different contexts, which requires our flexible engagement and negotiation of meanings with others in diverse situations. Based on these three notions, reflexivity gives the researchers a chance to reflect on their interpretations and processes of research, including their positioning, relations with others, and engagements with learners in the classroom so that they can see beyond the pre-existing social construction (Byrd Clark & Dervin, 2014, p. 34). As we have a common sense of teacher-as-researcher, teachers need to develop reflexivity for their teaching and research contexts. Reflexivity could provide teachers with the opportunity to engage with the vulnerabilities and blind spots of their own and others' power and representational systems (Dervin & Byrd Clark, 2014, p. 238). In the current study, reflexivity is understood as a conceptual process for English teachers to critically look at and find hidden meaning of their own learning and teaching experiences in the Korean sociocultural contexts.

Pedagogy of Multiliteracies

In the recent social context of cultural and linguistic diversity with the increased use of technology, the New London Group (1996) proposed the multiliteracies approach in literacy education. The term *multiliteracies* refers to “the range of literacies and literate practices used in all sectors of life and how their literate practices are similar and different” (Anstèy & Bull, 2006, p. 20). Multiliteracies include the different modes (oral or written), the specialized vocabulary, the formality or informality of address between participants, and acceptable grammars in the situation (Anstèy & Bull, 2006, p. 20). With the growing use of technology, one must be literate in multiple modes and different contexts in which literacy is practiced. In other words, a learner

needs to learn how to recognize and modify their literate practices in different ways (Anstèy & Bull, 2006, p. 21). In such a call for students' multiliteracies development, teachers are responsible for recognizing the students' needs and prepare lessons accordingly. A body of research confirmed the importance of multimodality for pedagogic resources as well as learning in classroom (Bezemer & Kress, 2008; Cope & Kalantzis, 2000; Kress et al., 2004). In this sense, the New London Group (1996) defined teachers as “designers of learning processes and environments, not as bosses dictating what those in their charge should think and do” (p. 73). In fact, the New London Group emphasized the role of pedagogy in fostering multiliteracies. They said the focus of educational endeavors should be to prepare learners for the social futures in which they will actively participate and influence (Anstèy & Bull, 2006, p. 20).

In terms of pedagogy, the New London Group (1996) proposed four components of pedagogy: situated practice, overt instruction, critical framing, and transformed practice. First, *situated practice* means pedagogy is constituted by “immersion in experience and the utilization of available discourse, including those from the students' life worlds and simulations of the relationships to be found in workplaces and public spaces” (p. 88). In other words, the curriculum should be related to the learners' lived experiences in their social community. Second, *overt instruction* refers to the “systematic, analytic, and conscious understanding of meaning” (p. 88). It includes “the introduction of explicit metalanguages, which describe and interpret the design elements of different modes of meaning” (p. 88). As multiliteracies include multiple and new forms of literacy with which some learners might not be familiar, a teacher's facilitator role is important. Third, *critical framing* is “interpreting the social and cultural context of particular designs of meaning” (p. 88). It essentially involves the critical view on the social and cultural context around the meaning. Finally, *transformed practice* means “transfer in

meaning-making practice” (p. 88). In transformed practice, meaning-making by students and teachers in the classroom can be transformed to other social contexts outside the classroom.

In fact, the pedagogy of multiliteracies can be related to the concept of reflexivity that teachers need to have in the process of designing and practicing their lessons. To teachers, “‘reflexive’ refers to the constant vigilance teachers must have, in order to gauge which pedagogical move is appropriate at different moments of the learning process, for different students, and for different subject matters” (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015, p. 16). In this sense, reflexivity gives teachers an opportunity to become more flexible in applying their prior knowledge and experiences to different teaching contexts. In turn, Byrd Clark and Dervin (2014) argued that multimodality plays an instrumental role in teachers’ reflexivity:

Reflexivity through intersecting and multimodal processes can help to move researchers and teachers away from dogmatic, essentialized truths about themselves and others, and possibly get at the deeper, underlying ideological conditions and attachments, which may have led to such ‘truths’ in the first place. (p. 3)

Therefore, multimodal or multiliterate activities can also be used as instrumental tools for teachers to develop reflexivity in their teaching and research contexts. In other words, multiliteracies are not only the learning objectives that learners and teachers need to learn about and be equipped with, but also the instrumental tools through which the learners and teachers can develop their reflexivity.

Reflection Literacy

Hasan (1996) argued that the goals of literacy should be seen in the context of the wider social environment. This is actually not “an invocation of individual originality or personal voice, but a claim to the right of all citizens to participate in the continuing evolution of the

larger social order” (Potts, 2018, p. 207). Hasan (1996) also stated that literacy is not a fixed state, but an ongoing developmental process. In this sense, Hasan (1996) proposed that literacy has three levels of development that can be nurtured in school: *recognition literacy* is about language as expression; *action literacy* is about language as expression and content in relation to social processes; and *reflection literacy* is about the reflexive capacities of language as it functions as meta-discourse. Pedagogy of reflection literacy means learners can analyze the existing discourses of knowledge from the point of view of what they present as the norms of discourse and knowledge (Hasan, 1996). In terms of knowledge production, learners can contribute to knowledge evolution in their society by developing critical awareness about their received knowledge (Schleppegrell & Moore, 2018, p. 25).

Hasan’s (1996) concept of reflection literacy is related to the concept of reflexivity and the critical framing in the pedagogy of multiliteracies. All concepts relate to learners’ use of language for analysis, inquiry, and research; in other words, the language is used as a means of meta-analysis. Learners need to develop critical awareness about themselves and the society in which they live. Moreover, Hasan (1996) emphasized that the goal of literacy pedagogy should include the production of knowledge. This can be related to the transformed practice in the pedagogy of multiliteracies, which extends the meaning-making in the classroom to other social contexts outside the classroom. Regarding such an extension of the concept of literacy, teachers’ facilitating role in literacy education becomes more important. Hasan (1996) illustrated the teacher’s role for learners as follows:

The inability of teachers to understand the nature of language as a powerful social instrument does not, indeed cannot, help them in any way to recognize, much less to respect, the many voices in their classroom or reflect on the genesis of those voices;

teachers that are so ill-equipped to reflect on language cannot be expected to scrutinize the ‘rationality’ of the choice of norms and standards which they inculcate. (p. 414)

In order to help their students, teachers must first understand the relationship between literacy and society. Of course, this cannot be done easily or in a short time. Therefore, this new understanding of literacy pedagogy for teachers should be included as a part of teacher development or teacher education curriculum.

Literature Review

English Education in Korea

Korea has a short but intense history of English education. Historically, Korea is one of the most linguistically, ethnically, and culturally homogeneous countries in the world, with monolingualism in the Korean language often playing a major symbolic role in the expression of national identity and pride (Park, 2013, p. 287). However, after World War II, as a result of its independence from Japanese colonization and the formation of a new government in the 1940s, Korea established a close dependent relationship with the United States in trade, security, culture, and politics during and after the presence of U.S. troops from 1945 to 1949 (Yoo, 2011, p. 66). During this era, English was taught actively for its pragmatic purposes.

Korea also has a long history of education fever in society. Since the Koryŏ (918–1392) and Chosŏn (1392–1910) Dynasties to the current state of Korea, national competition fostered by an emphasis on education has been considered the most popular way to turn people into successful members of society (Park, 2013). In the 1970s, a big controversy emerged among people and policymakers concerning standards of education and whether to strive for excellence or equalization. The policy of equalization (*pyeongjunhwa*), which was meant to be an egalitarian strategy for ensuring equality among students from varying backgrounds and for

curbing overheated competition for college admission, has been part of Korea's formal educational system for more than 20 years (Park, 2013). However, the most recent neoliberal reforms (2008–2012) related to education in Korea targeted this policy of equalization by allowing for the marketization of schools, intensification and valorization of constant competition, emphasis on accountability based on performance objectives, and greater liberalization accompanied by the state's simultaneous encouragement to be responsive to demands of education “consumers” (Apple, 2001, as cited in Park, 2013, pp. 292-293).

Under this reform, English has been even more emphasized as an important form of symbolic capital in the Korean educational system and in society. Specifically, English is now taught starting from the third grade of elementary school. This reform has significantly reduced the age at which students begin to learn English, as prior to its implementation students began their English-language studies in their first year of middle school (Kwon, 2000). In addition, Korean universities switched the language of instruction for many lectures to English and now also require a certain score on the standardized English proficiency tests for graduation. This emphasis on English in employment and education led individuals to make greater investments in English in order to survive. The extreme case of this investment is early study abroad (*jogi yuhak*) at the pre-university age for securing good English or “native-English” ability. However, it is often criticized as a way for the more affluent middle-class members to secure their own privilege because the associated costs burden families in general. Overall, these projects of neoliberalism work to reproduce inequalities rooted in class structure (Park, 2013, pp. 293-297).

English has been unofficially adopted as an official language in myriad ways, but because of political and historical reasons, it has not been officially adopted as one. Park (2013) explained that “the complex ways in which English accumulates social meaning in Korea may be

seen as an important key for understanding how the language holds a crucial place in the current political context of the nation's neoliberal reforms" (p. 300). Strong opponents of neoliberal reforms in the country have criticized proponents' opinions about making English an official language for better English education. Yim (2007) suggested that the strong objection to making English one of the official languages is not surprising given Korea's history of colonization. During the Japanese occupation (1910–1945), a number of measures were taken by the Japanese to undermine the national identity of Koreans, including making Japanese the sole official language. From this historical experience, Koreans have a strong sense that language is not merely a tool of communication (Yim, 2007). Therefore, while some scholars have insisted on adopting English as an official language or a medium of classroom instruction, it has brought awareness to the controversial issue of a national identity crisis.

Kwon (2000) reviewed Korea's English education policy changes in the 1990s, analyzing important reforms, such as the communicative approach and the implementation of English education beginning in elementary school. In terms of teacher training programs, until the late 1990s, the programs were criticized for providing mostly theoretical courses in linguistics and literature, with only a few courses available in English language teaching (ELT) methodology and language skills. In the late 1990s, they began to offer more courses that focused on language skills and ELT methodology, highlighting the importance of developing teachers' practical and pedagogical capability. Since the 2000s, the Ministry of Education assigned a larger portion of the national budget to providing in-service teacher training programs, such as various local and overseas programs designed to enhance teachers' English abilities as well as their teaching skills. This plan was expected to support 3000 in-service English teachers in Korea every year, with the various programs lasting for six months to one year (K. Ahn,

2009). The government also created the TEE-Ace (TEE-A) and TEE-Master (TEE-M) certificates in 2009. A teacher who has either certificate is considered to have an ability to teach English through English. However, those TEE certificates cannot be used in real classrooms. Although teachers acquire these certificates, they do not teach English through English in their real classrooms due to many practical reasons. Consequently, English teachers who did not pursue the TEE certificates pointed out that TEE could be more like a one-time event that considers English speaking skills as only an important part of teaching skills (Lee, 2017). In other words, the certificates were not based on a long-term well-established plan.

Teacher Identities

In the field of language education, Norton (2013) is a leading scholar who has examined language and identity from the poststructuralist view. Norton defined identity as “how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is structured across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future” (p. 45). Many other researchers have also explored the relationship between language learning and learner identities, which resulted in a new understanding of identity. Two important characteristics of identity in this new understanding are its plural and discursive characteristics. Cummins (2001) found that identity is plural: A person has multiple identities or identity facets. Beauchamp and Thomas (2009) found identity to be dynamic, meaning that it is constantly evolving. Moreover, Miller (2009) said that identity should be understood “in relation to discursive, social, cultural, and institutional matters” (p. 175). A person’s identity should be associated with a particular culture and society, thereby implying that it can be changed over time as well.

Among many empirical studies on language learner identity and teacher identity, the research on NNEST identity has become one of the commonly discussed topics in recent days.

Pavlenko (2003) explored the ESL/EFL teachers' imagined professional and linguistic communities in a graduate teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) course. This research suggested that contemporary theories of bilingualism, such as multicompetence, opened up an alternative imagined community for multilingual speakers, thereby allowing the participating ESL/EFL teachers to conceptualize themselves and their future students as legitimate L2 users. Zacharias (2010) also explored the construction of teacher identities among 12 EFL teachers in an American TESOL program. The narratives from participants through interviews, curriculum vita, and classroom assignments indicated that the NS and NNS dichotomy was still found in their NNES identity construction. However, their teacher identities can also shift by responding to readings and discussions on critical pedagogy. Aneja (2016) was another researcher who explored pre-service teachers' identity construction in an American TESOL program. Using a focal group of two NNEST teachers and two NEST teachers, this research showed how these pre-service teachers negotiate, recreate, and resist the produced native and non-native speaker subjectivities. The research demonstrated that the NNEST identity was formed in a complex and fluid way.

Tsui (2007) traced teachers' identity formation through a narrative inquiry of the professional identity of one Chinese EFL teacher over seven years. The teacher's narratives highlighted the complex relationships among membership, competence, and legitimacy of access to practice as well as among the appropriation and ownership of meanings, the centrality of participation, and the mediating role of power relationships in the processes of identity formation. Kanno and Stuart (2011) traced how novice ESL teachers learned to teach and how this learning-in-practice experience shaped their identities as teachers. They found that the central project in which novice L2 teachers were involved in their teacher learning was the

development of a teacher identity, rather than the acquisition of knowledge about language teaching.

Regarding teachers' identities of Korean English teachers—the focus of this dissertation—several research studies have been conducted recently. Kim (2011) explored the NNETs' self-conceptualization of their teacher identities in an American TESOL program. The research found that NNETs were influenced by the ideology of native-speakerism, which resulted in their low professional self-esteem. In another study (Kim, 2017), the same researcher focused on a Korean NNET's identity transformation through participation in critical practices. This research found that critical practices helped the NNETs demystify the ideology of native-speakerism and promote their critical awareness of the relationship between language and ideology in society.

Song (2016) researched five Korean English teachers' emotional responses and their identity changes in the shifting teaching context via globalization. This research conceptualized their conflicted experiences as “cover stories” and “secret stories” following Clandinin and Connelly's (1995) terms. Among study abroad returnee students in their classrooms, their stories showed that teachers went through the emotional experiences of vulnerability, which affected teachers' orientations to their ongoing professional development. The research also found that their emotional experiences were a dynamic process so that the teachers could also search for possible alternatives by confronting and transforming their emotions.

Jee's (2016) autoethnographic research reviewed the effect of world Englishes on EFL teachers' identity from the critical perspective. Her research showed that an ideal NEST image played a key role in one's success in Korean society, which could be reshaped by taking learners' goals and global society's recent demands for English learning. Yang and Bautista's

(2008) research showed an alternative way of exploring the identity formation of Korean English teachers. Through an arts-based reflective study, such as letter writing, which includes the responses to other visual artists' quests for identity, they presented how a Korean English teacher had struggled to establish her own identity by complying with values and norms from the individual, school, and society.

Critical Performative Pedagogy

Among the arts-based educational research, performance has been considered to provide educators and researchers an interpretive frame where the constitution of identities can be seen and analyzed (Briggs & Bauman, 1992). Previous researchers have used performance to explore the educational issues, including making artifacts and sharing them with others to facilitate activism and create continuing dialogue (Finley, 2008) and engaging in drama in the classroom to provide students with an open space where students move and express themselves (Gallagher, 2007).

In particular, this study draws critical performative pedagogy (CPP) as a conceptual and methodological framework. CPP is an experimental educational praxis that is “a kinesthetic, dialogic, and multidimensional process for teacher educators and students to explore social justice issues” (Harman & French, 2004, p. 98). It includes performance adapted from forum theatre (Boal, 1974, 1979, 1998, 2002) and the Lincoln Center Institute for the Arts in Education (Greene, 2001) as a major activity. Through the CPP process, participants critically reflect on their educational experiences, enact particular problematic situations and roles collaboratively, analyze the problems, and find possible resolutions that can lead to changes in their lives.

Importantly, CPP includes the critical discourse analysis (CDA) as part of the analysis of the problems in relation to social equity issues. CDA is “a type of discourse analytical

research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context” (van Dijk, 2003, p. 352). For CPP practice in this research, the interactional sociolinguistics (IS) approach is adopted for CDA. The IS approach looks at how people use language and other systems of communication for meaning making, with attention to social, cultural, and political processes (Bloome, Carter, Christian, Otto, & Stuart-Faris, 2005, p. xv). Other systems of communication here include different patterns of interactional behaviors, such as intonation, pitch, stress, pause, hesitation, speed, and volume, which are usually presented by the speakers with little or no conscious awareness (Cameron, 2001). Gumperz (1982) called these nonverbal communicative behaviors contextualization cues, concluding that they convey complex information about the speaker’s intended message. If we do not understand the speaker’s contextualization cues, we would miss part of the meaning the speaker is trying to convey (Cameron, 2001, p. 109). To understand the full meaning of interactions in the enacted classroom in CPP performance, participants transcribe their performance and try to interpret both verbal language and contextualization cues through the IS approach of CDA.

To practice CPP in and outside the classroom setting, Harman and French (2004) identified six key elements, concluding that it should (a) be a collaborative work by participants in a particular socio-political and historical context; (b) promote participants’ self-questioning about positioning, power relations, and privileges; (c) be based on its local socio-political and historical contexts; (d) be action-oriented on the social justice issues raised through the process; (e) include play and imagination; (f) be participatory and dialogic by a facilitator who can also participate in the activity with the participants (Harman & French, 2004). However, Harman and French (2004) also showed some concerns that there could be potential challenges of CPP in

practice—namely, being critically aware about all the utterances and performance in CPP can be very difficult for both the participants and facilitators; being collaborative among all participants in CPP can be very difficult; participating in CPP can lead participants to become emotionally vulnerable; participating in CPP can make it hard for participants to return to their everyday lives; and CPP can be challenged by both students and teachers who resist the issues of systemic oppression (Harman & French, 2004). Due to these possible challenges, CPP needs to be carefully designed and conducted on a long-term basis with good understanding of the particular sociopolitical context.

Previous examples of CPP practices in the multicultural context of the United States were shown in Harman et al. (2016), Harman and Varga-Dobai (2012), and Harman and Zhang (2015). In fact, Harman et al. (2016) partly included my own CPP process experience while working with colleagues to understand student teachers' practicum experiences in the multi-layered sociocultural context. Other researchers have also developed and practiced similar models of CPP in language teacher education programs in the United States. Cahnmann-Taylor and Souto-Manning (2010) provided a background on the Theater of the Oppressed and the detailed techniques of interactive games, activities, and scenarios, including examples of their projects with teachers who enacted the power relations in ESL classrooms. Rymes, Cahnmann-Taylor, and Souto-Manning (2008), Cahnmann-Taylor, Souto-Manning, Wooten, and Dice (2009), and Souto-Manning (2011) also showcased the similar processes of CPP that enabled teachers to see the systemic problems in school and society and to practice possible solutions that are generally not easily found.

All three articles in the next three chapters will show how Korean English teachers' reflexivity has been promoted through both individual and collaborative processes of reflecting

on their lived experiences in the Korean educational context. In their reflexive process, the social discourses around English education, NNEST identities, and potential application of CPP in teacher development will be described in detail with various illustrations and analysis.

References

- Ahn, K. (2009). *Learning to teach within the curricular reform context: A sociocultural perspective on English student teachers' practicum experience in South Korea* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). The Pennsylvania State University, University Park: PA.
- Ahn, S. (2009). *Lee Myung-bak Jeong-bu-ui yeong-eo-gong-gyo-yug-jeong-chaeg-e dae-han yeo-ron bun-seog [The analysis of public opinions on Lee government's English education policies]* (Unpublished undergraduate thesis). Seoul National University, Seoul, Korea.
- Ahn, S., & Lew, S. (2017). Native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) in Korea: Voices from two NESTs and one Korean English teacher. *Korean Journal of Teacher Education*, 33(2), 89-119.
- Ahn, S.-H. G. (2014). English teacher qualifications and environmental conditions for *Yungbokhap* Education: Focus group interviews of primary and secondary school teachers. *Teacher Education Research*, 53(2), 362-379.
- Aneja, G. A. (2016). (Non)native speakerhood: Rethinking (Non)nativeness and teacher identity in TESOL teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 50(3), 572-596.
- Anstèy, M., & Bull, G. (2006). *Teaching and learning multiliteracies: Changing times, changing literacies*. Kensington Gardens, Australia: International Reading Association and Australian Literacy Educators' Association.
- Apple, M. W. (2001). Comparing neo-liberal projects and inequality in education. *Comparative Education*, 37(4), 409-423.

- Aull Davies, C. (2008). *Reflexive ethnography: A guide to researching selves and others*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Beauchamp, C., & Thomas, L. (2009). Understanding teacher identity: An overview of issues in the literature and implications for teacher education. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 39(2), 175-189.
- Bezemer, J., & Kress, G. (2008). Writing in multimodal texts: A social semiotic account of designs for learning. *Written Communication*, 25(2), 166-195.
- Bloome, D., Carter, S. P., Christian, B. M., Otto, S., & Stuart-Faris, N. (2005). *Discourse analysis and the study of classroom language and literacy events: A microethnographic perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Boal, A. (1974). *Theatre of the oppressed*. (C. McBride & M. O. Leal McBride, Trans.) London, England: Pluto.
- Boal, A. (1979). *Theatre of the oppressed*. New York, NY: Theatre Communication Group.
- Boal, A. (1998). *Legislative theatre: Using performance to make politics*. (A. Jackson, Trans.). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Boal, A. (2002). *Games for actors and non-actors* (2nd ed.). (A. Jackson, Trans.). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Briggs, C., & Bauman, R. (1992). Genre, intertextuality, and social power. *Journal of Linguistic Anthropology*, 2(2), 131-172.
- Byrd Clark, J. S., & Dervin, F. (2014). Introduction. In J. S. Byrd Clark & F. Dervin (Eds.), *Reflexivity in language and intercultural education: Rethinking multilingualism and interculturality* (pp. 1-42). New York, NY: Routledge.

- Cahnmann-Taylor, M., & Souto-Manning, M. (2010). *Teachers act up! Creating multicultural learning communities through theatre*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Cahnmann-Taylor, M., Souto-Manning, M., Wooten, J., & Dice, J. (2009). The art & science of educational inquiry: Analysis of performance-based focus groups with novice bilingual teachers. *Teachers College Record*, 111(11), 2535-2559.
- Cameron, D. (2001). *Working with spoken discourse*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Choi, K.-H. (2008). Can a non-native speaking teacher become a good English teacher in an EFL setting? *Secondary English Education*, 1(2), 131-141.
- Clandinin, D. J., & Connelly, F. M. (1995). Teachers' professional knowledge landscapes: Secret, sacred, and cover stories. In D. J. Clandinin & F. M. Connelly (Eds.), *Teachers' professional knowledge landscape* (pp. 3-15). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Cope, B., & Kalantzis, M. (Eds.). (2000). *Multiliteracies: Literacy learning and the design of social futures*. London, England: Routledge.
- Cope, B., & Kalantzis, M. (2015). The things you do to know: An introduction to the pedagogy of multiliteracies. In B. Cope & M. Kalantzis (Eds.), *A pedagogy of multiliteracies: Learning by design* (pp. 1-36). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Cummins, J. (2001). *Negotiating identities: Education for empowerment in a diverse society* (2nd ed.). Ontario, CA: California Association of Bilingual Education.
- Dervin, F., & Byrd Clark, J. S. (2014). Conclusion. In J. S. Byrd Clark & F. Dervin (Eds.), *Reflexivity in language and intercultural education: Rethinking multilingualism and interculturality* (pp. 234-239). New York, NY: Routledge.

- Finley, S. (2008). Arts-based research. In A. Cole & J. G. Knowles (Eds.), *Handbook of the arts in qualitative research: Perspectives, methodologies, examples, and issues* (pp. 71-81). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Gallagher, K. (2007). *The theatre of urban: Youth and schooling in dangerous times*. Toronto, Canada: University of Toronto Press.
- Greene, M. (2001). *Variations on a blue guitar: The Lincoln Center Institute lectures on aesthetic education*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Gumperz, J. (1982). *Discourse strategies*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Han, K., & Scull, W. (2010). Confucius culture in the mainstream classroom: A case study of an Asian American student. *The International Journal of Learning*, 17(1), 601-616.
- Harman, R., Ahn, S., & Bogue, B. (2016). Reflective language teacher education: Fostering discourse awareness through critical performance process. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 59, 228-238.
- Harman, R., & French, K. (2004). Critical performative pedagogy: A feasible praxis in teacher education? In J. O'Donnell, M. Pruyn, & R. Chávez Chávez (Eds.), *Social justice in these times* (pp. 97-115). Greenwich, CT: New Information Press.
- Harman, R., & Varga-Dobai, K. (2012). Critical performative pedagogy: Emergent bilingual learners challenge local immigration issues. *International Journal of Multicultural Education*, 14(2), 1-17.
- Harman, R. M., & Zhang, X. (2015). Performance, performativity and second language identities: How can we know the actor from the act? *Linguistics and Education*, 32, 68-81.

- Hasan, R. (1996). Literacy, everyday talk and society. In R. Hasan & G. Williams (Eds.), *Literacy in society* (pp. 377-424). New York, NY: Longman.
- Holliday, A. R. (2006). Native-speakerism. *ELT Journal*, 60(4), 385-387.
- Jee, Y. (2016). Critical perspectives of world Englishes on EFL teachers' identity and employment in Korea: An autoethnography. *Multicultural Education Review*, 8(4), 240-252.
- Kanno, Y., & Stuart, C. (2011). Learning to become a second language teacher: Identities-in-practice. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(2), 236-252.
- Kim, H.-K. (2011). Native speakerism affecting nonnative English teachers' identity formation: A critical perspective. *English Teaching*, 66(4), 53-70.
- Kim, H.-K. (2017). Demystifying native speaker ideology: The critical Role of critical practice in language teacher education. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 14(1), 81-97.
- Kress, G., Jewitt, C., Bourne, J., Franks, A., Hardcastle, J., Jones, K., & Reid, E. (2004). *English in urban classrooms: A multimodal perspective on teaching and learning*. London, England: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Kwon, O. (2000). Korea's English education policy changes in the 1990s: Innovations to gear the nation for the 21st century. *English Teaching*, 55(1), 47-91.
- Lee, M. W. (2017). TEE uncertified teachers' perceptions regarding the TEE certificate program. *Studies in British and American Language and Literature*, 126, 195-214.
- Miller, J. (2009). Teacher identity. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 172-181). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

- Ministry of Education. (2017). *Teacher certification manual 2017* [2017 nyeon gyo-won-ja-gyeog-geom-jeong sil-mu-pyeon-lam]. Retrieved from <http://moe.go.kr/boardCnts/view.do?boardID=342&boardSeq=70356&lev=0&searchType=null&statusYN=W&page=1&s=moe&m=030503&opType=N>
- Ministry of Education. (2013). *The Planning of Free Semester Programs in Middle School* [Jung-hak-gyo Ja-yu-hak-gi-je Si-beom Un-yeong-gye-hoek]. Seoul, Korea: Ministry of Education.
- National Curriculum Information Center. (2017). National curriculum of Korea. Retrieved from <http://ncic.re.kr/english.index.do>
- New London Group. (1996). A pedagogy of multiliteracies: Designing social features. *Harvard Educational Review*, 66(1), 60-92.
- Norton, B. (2013). *Identity and language learning: Extending the conversation* (2nd ed.). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Park, J. S.-Y. (2013). English, class and neoliberalism in South Korea. In L. Wee, R. B. H. Goh, & L. Lim (Eds.), *The Politics of English: South Asia, Southeast Asia and the Asia Pacific* (pp. 287-302). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Pavlenko, A. (2003). "I never knew I was a bilingual": Reimagining teacher identities in TESOL. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, 2(4), 251-268.
- Potts, D. (2018). Critical praxis, design and reflection literacy: A lesson in multimodality. In R. Harman (Ed.), *Bilingual learners and social equity: Critical approaches to systemic functional linguistics* (pp. 201-223). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.
- Rymes, B., Cahnmann-Taylor, M., & Souto-Manning, M. (2008). Bilingual teachers' performances of power and conflict. *Teaching Education*, 19(2), 93-107.

- Schleppegrell, M., & Moore, J. (2018). Linguistic tools for supporting emergent critical language awareness in the elementary school. In R. Harman (Ed.), *Bilingual learners and social equity: Critical approaches to systemic functional linguistics* (pp. 23-43). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.
- Schön, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Schön, D. A. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Song, J. (2016). Emotions and language teacher identity: Conflicts, vulnerability, and transformation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 50(3), 631-654.
- Souto-Manning, M. (2011). Playing with power and privilege: Theatre games in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27, 997-1007.
- Sung, K. (2009). A study on the development and application of a critical English teacher and learning model. *Foreign Languages Education*, 16(1), 199-231.
- Tsui, A. B. M. (2007). Complexities of identity formation: A narrative inquiry of an EFL teacher. *TESOL Quarterly*, 41(4), 657-680.
- van Dijk, T. A. (2003). Critical discourse analysis. In D. Schiffrin, D. Tannen, & H. Hamilton (Eds.), *The handbook of discourse analysis* (pp. 352-371). Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Wallace, M. J. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers: A reflective approach*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Yang, S., & Bautista, D. D. (2008). Reflection, arts, and self-inquiry: A letter to other for negotiating Korean English teacher identity. *Reflective Practice*, 9(3), 293-305.

- Yim, S. (2007). Globalization and language policy in South Korea. In A. Tsui & J. W. Tollefson (Eds.), *Language policy, culture, and identity in Asian contexts* (pp. 37-53). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Yoo, O.-K. (2011). Discourses of English as an official language in a monolingual society: The case of South Korea. In Davis, K. A. (Ed.). *Critical qualitative research in second language studies: Agency and advocacy* (pp. 61-97). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Zacharias, N. T. (2010). The teacher identity construction of 12 Asian NNES teachers in TESOL graduate programs. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 7(2), 177-197.

CHAPTER 2

NATIVE ENGLISH-SPEAKING TEACHERS (NESTS) IN KOREA: VOICES FROM TWO
NESTS AND ONE KOREAN ENGLISH TEACHER²

² Ahn, S. and S. Lew. 2017. *Korean Journal of Teacher Education*. 33(2):89-119.

Reprinted here with permission of the publisher.

Abstract

Given the important role of the native English-speaking teacher (NEST) in English education in Korea, this study aims to explore the critical issues of NESTs' teaching and their life in school within the larger Korean society, both of which have not been addressed for a long time. To explore the issues from teachers' voices in a more direct and in-depth way, we used the narrative inquiry research method. As we analyzed the lived experiences from two NESTs and one Korean English Teacher (KET), we found that insufficient teacher training, different educational environments, challenges from unclear co-teaching systems, a lack of sufficient communication or community, and a lack of support for social activities outside of school were major issues. To resolve these issues, more practical teacher training sessions and discussions related to co-teaching English classes should be provided to teachers. Future teachers should be approached as teacher learners or peer coaches for collaborative teaching. NESTs should also be recognized as a member of the larger Korean community.

Key words: Native English-speaking teacher (NEST), Korean English teacher (KET), narrative inquiry

Introduction

An important aspect of English education in South Korea (henceforth, Korea) is native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) who teach English to students at all levels. A native speaker generally means a person who uses the target language as her or his first language or mother tongue. A native speaker is also defined as “a monolingual person who still speaks the language learnt in childhood” (Cook, 1999, p. 187). In this sense, NESTs are teachers who speak English as their first language, suggesting that they can teach English effectively to speakers of other languages. The foundation of English education in Korea, dating back to the 1880s, heavily relied on NESTs, who introduced English as a foreign language to Korea for the very first time. Dustheimer and Gillett (1999) identified five waves from the 1880s to the 1990s. Despite initial contact between Koreans and native speakers of English in the 1600s, English education was officially delivered by NESTs in 1883 in the form of *Dongmunhak*, the first institute for teaching foreign languages. Dustheimer and Gillett (1999) called this period the first wave. According to the researchers, the second wave denotes the missionaries’ provision of English education after 1945, the year of Korea’s liberation. The third wave included the NESTs from the Peace Corps from 1966 to 1981, and the fourth wave was the period after 1970, when there was an increase of NESTs employed at colleges and in business sectors. Finally, the fifth wave occurred after the 1990s, when a more organized employment system of NESTs, which included the Fulbright English Teaching Assistant (ETA) program and the Korean government’s English Program in Korea (EPIK) and Teach and Learn in Korea (TaLK) programs, was adopted. In other words, NESTs have been working as teachers, living resources, co-teachers of Korean teachers, and teacher trainers at various educational levels in Korea.

Given the vital roles of NESTs in English education in Korea, this paper aims to explore the critical issues in their teaching and their life in school and in the larger Korean society. These issues have been discussed but not ever fully addressed. To explore such issues from the teachers' perspectives in a more direct and in-depth way, we used the narrative inquiry research method. In the field of research on NESTs, such qualitative research focusing on a small number of teachers is still rare. Many studies have used large-scale surveys or quantitative research methods to explore the overall perceptions on the effects of NESTs' co-teaching English classes. As we focus on lived experiences from teachers, we would like to find alternative ways to resolve issues with their teaching and with their lives in school and the larger Korean society. We would also like to find possible or expected roles of NESTs in the future.

Literature Review

Roles of NESTs in English Education History in Korea

NESTs in first contact

In Korea, English and other foreign languages were considered as tools for diplomatic or commercial businesses from the 1600s to the 1880s, when foreign visitors first arrived in Korea and other neighboring countries. Koreans' very first contact with native English speakers occurred in three ways (Kim, 2008). First, Koreans met Christian missionaries and Catholic priests who lived in China and Japan near Korea. Second, Koreans met Western visitors who came to Korea for commercial purposes and maritime trade. Third, Korean governmental officials also met Westerners in China and Japan.

Foreign visitors became the first NESTs in Korea in 1883, when the Korean government established a special institute for teaching foreign languages. That institute was called *Dongmunhak*. At this institute, Thomas Hallifax from England was a lead teacher, and the

medium of instruction was English. Subsequently, in 1886, *Yugyeonggongwon* was opened as the first modern public school in Korea. At this school, teachers from the United States taught Korean students. *Yugyeonggongwon* later changed its name to *Hansung yeongeong hakgyo* in 1893 and *Gwanlip yeongeong hakgyo* in 1895 (Kwon & Kim, 2010). It is important to note that some Korean students in this school became the first generation of Korean English teachers (KETs).

NESTs as living resources

In the 1880s, the first private secondary schools were founded by Christian missionaries. Although the founders of those schools were not English educators, their students were naturally exposed to English input because they had to communicate with their teachers in schools. For example, Ewha School was a boarding school; thus, students had more chances to speak English on a daily basis (Kim, 2006). Therefore, NESTs became living resources for the students in those schools.

Even after the Korean War in 1953, when Korea reestablished the foundation of the education system in the country, English was a requirement in secondary and college education. In the late 1980s and 1990s, English education was supposed to meet more practical purposes. For example, courses such as English conversation or English communication were introduced in colleges. As a result, the needs for NESTs as living resources also increased. It was not surprising that there was an increasing high ratio of NESTs in English programs at each college (Kwon, 2003).

NESTs who were sent to Korea through the Peace Corps (1966–1981) or Fulbright ETA program (1992–present) were also living resources, usually in elementary and secondary schools. For example, Peace Corps Volunteers (PCVs) were asked to teach English lessons for 12–15 hours and after-school lessons for 3–5 hours per week in their first year of volunteering (Jung,

1976). In addition, ETA teachers were usually asked to work 20 hours per week, while they had a special field trip or research time during vacations (Choi et al., 1996). The Korean Ministry of Education is noticeably supportive of the ETA program with the major goal of placing NESTs outside of Seoul, particularly in less developed areas of Korea (Fulbright, 2016).

More recently, the Teach and Learn in Korea (TaLK) program launched in 2008 also provides NESTs to rural communities in Korea. It is assumed that the government is trying to provide public education services to learners in rural areas, which rarely have access to NESTs as living resources. In particular, TaLK teachers work for after-school programs, and they usually work 15 hours per week (TaLK, 2016).³

NESTs as co-teachers of Korean English teachers

The English Program in Korea (EPIK), established in 1995 and affiliated with the Korean Ministry of Education, has been the most popular program to date for providing NESTs to elementary and secondary schools in Korea. The number of NESTs from EPIK (officially called Guest English Teachers [GETs]) has increased over the past 20 years, increasing dramatically since 2009 to peak at 3,477 in 2012 (Kang, 2012). The number has slowly decreased since 2013 and is currently about 1160 as of 2016 (EPIK, 2016).⁴ EPIK teachers are usually asked to teach 22 hours per week for one year (EPIK, 2016).

³ Official title of TaLK teachers is TaLK Scholar, as TaLK provides college students with opportunities to gain personal, professional, and educational experiences in Korea (TaLK, 2016).

⁴ According to email conversations with an official at EPIK (June 13, 2016), EPIK teachers account for about 40 percent of all NESTs in public education. In other words, 60 percent of NESTs are sponsored and invited by each school, school district, local district, or Fulbright program, not by the government. For more information and statistics on recruiting EPIK teachers, see Kim and Park (2010).

The official status of EPIK teachers is assistant teachers for English lessons taught by Korean English teachers.⁵ Moreover, there has not been a clear concept of co-teaching in the Korean educational context. No other course subjects have more than one teacher in one class in Korean schools. Because of this reason, NESTs in actual classrooms have been seen differently by both Korean English teachers and NESTs. In addition, students, administrators, and other Korean teachers in each school could have different understandings about the roles of NESTs. In this study, however, we would call EPIK teachers co-teachers of Korean English teachers as they are responsible for the English lessons and should collaborate with KETs regardless of their portion of teaching or power relationship.

NESTs as teacher trainers

One of the main duties of PCVs was training Korean teachers in each school and office of education. According to Jung (1976), PCVs were in charge of teacher training for three to five hours per week in their first year of volunteering. They were also asked to teach in local teacher training programs during summer and winter vacations. In their second year, PCVs were asked to teach more teachers than students. They usually taught English language and the use of teaching methodologies to Korean teachers in the local training programs or workshop centers. Moreover, annual conferences or workshops for both NESTs and Korean teachers were sponsored by the Korean Ministry of Education.

The government has also supported the provision of NESTs to teachers' colleges since 1997. The number of NESTs was 72 for 12 public elementary teachers' colleges and 27 for 14 public secondary teachers' colleges as of 2012 (Kang et al., 2014; Min et al., 2013). Thus, each

⁵ Under Korean law, NESTs cannot become licensed/regular teachers in Korea, so they are technically called native English-speaking assistant teachers (Kang, 2013).

college had at least one NEST, and on average they had two or three NESTs. They usually taught English skill courses, culture courses, and English skill methodology courses (i.e., teaching English speaking, teaching English writing, etc.). It is assumed that NESTs are necessary to enhance pre-service teachers' English skills as well as teaching skills.

Moreover, the intensive English teacher training program (IETTP) has been supporting in-service English teachers since 2003. The peak number of IETTP teachers was 2,620 in 2009, but the number has decreased since then (Kim et al., 2014). One of the main goals of this program is to enhance English teachers' teaching skills for teaching English in English (TEE) classes, so those programs have NESTs as teacher trainers. According to Kim and Ahn (2011) and Kim et al. (2014), NESTs as teacher trainers help the trainee teachers to have more opportunities to communicate in English as well as improve teaching skills for TEE.

Previous Studies on NESTs in Korea

Effects of NESTs' teaching on students' English learning

Various research has been conducted to investigate the effects of NESTs' teaching practice on students' English learning. Most research has explored teachers' and students' perceptions of NESTs' teaching. Some research has investigated changes in language skills, while other research has focused on more affective aspects, such as attitudes or confidence. In addition, the targets of this research can be categorized by various school levels, such as elementary, secondary, and tertiary education. More systematic categorization of research is found in Kim (2011a)b, a meta-analysis of effects of co-teaching of NESTs and KETs on students' English learning.

Specifically, Kim (2011)d and Lee et al. (2011)a conducted large-scale surveys to identify the perception of students at various levels of their co-taught English classes. Both

surveys pointed out that the quality of co-taught English classes should be more considered, although the students had positive perceptions of co-taught English classes. For example, Kim (2011)d suggested using proficiency-based classes and various activities for different students. Lee et al. (2011)a suggested that students who have little access to NESTs outside of school should be more supported in becoming familiar with co-taught English classes in the long term.

Whereas Kim (2011)d covered secondary school students and Lee et al. (2011)a covered elementary and secondary school students, Chun (2015) collected the voices of college students in a qualitative way. Based on 139 college students' previous experiences in English classes taught by NESTs or KETs, she found that students perceived different teaching styles between NESTs and KETs. They pointed out that NESTs' advantages are their fluent English and open classroom teaching style while KETs' advantages are grammar instruction and explanation.

Kang et al. (2014), Kim (2011)a, and Min et al. (2013) focused in particular on the perception of the effects of NESTs in teachers' colleges. Kang et al. (2014) conducted a large-scale survey at 12 elementary teachers' colleges, and Min et al. (2013) conducted a large-scale survey at 14 secondary teachers' colleges. Both studies concluded that NESTs significantly contributed to the improvement of pre-service teachers' English communication skills and teaching skills. Kim (2011)a found positive perceptions of NESTs in one particular elementary teachers' college but also pointed out some problems with large classes and classes taught by unqualified NESTs.

Choi and Kim (2013) showed the statistical effects of NESTs on high school students' national achievement test scores. They found the effects were most highly positive for intermediate-advanced level students. Jang (2013) investigated the effects of NESTs'

communication-oriented classes on incidental vocabulary learning at the college level. Kang et al. (2014) reported the effects of NESTs' classes on students' language skills based on the TOEIC test results at one elementary teachers' college. They found that students who took NESTs' classes from 2008 to 2010 showed higher test results.

In terms of affective aspects, Lee and Kim (2013) investigated middle school students' perceptions of co-taught English classes at one school. Participants in this study showed low motivation and negative attitudes regarding co-taught classes, especially in regard to KETs. The researchers suggested KETs to take a more active role in co-taught classes. Furthermore, Kim (2009) investigated the effects of co-taught English classes on middle school students from more than 100 schools in one province. The students in the survey reported high percentages of high interest in English and confidence from co-taught classes.

Management and qualification of NESTs

Some research has investigated the governmental policy or management system related to NESTs. Some research has focused on the qualification of NESTs as reflected in the quality of their classes. Choi (2001) conducted a survey on the effects of the teaching and training system for NESTs, surveying 20 NESTs and 400 high school students. In this study, nearly all NESTs responded negatively to the 2-week training session for NESTs before they started teaching. Choi (2001) also showed that many NESTs had communication problems with officers at the Ministry of Education. Moreover, Lee et al. (2011)b discussed the ideal model for the governmental management of NESTs. They suggested NESTs should be admitted as part of the community so that they could adjust to Korean school culture and society. Effective co-teaching skills should also be discussed by NESTs and KETs in training programs or teacher learning communities. Kim (2011b)b and Kim and Park (2010) tried to find a long-term plan for

recruiting and managing NESTs in the public education system. Both studies suggested that the small number of well-qualified or expert NESTs should work flexibly for the particular school or local contexts, whereas the large number of KETs who are trained for TEE classes should play a key role in quality English education.

Regarding the qualification of NESTs, a report by the Korea National University of Education and Korean Ministry of Education in 2007 (as cited in Yoon, 2008) showed the statistics of EPIK teachers in terms of nationality, age, degree, and major. More than 70% of EPIK teachers were from North America (i.e., U.S.A. and Canada). The majority are in their twenties or thirties. Although 80% to 90% of EPIK teachers had a bachelor's degree, only 10% to 20% of them were English or ESL majors. Kim and Park (2010) also showed similar results for EPIK teachers' nationality and degree. In particular, their research found that approximately 46% of EPIK teachers in 2010 held teaching certificates, including 30% of which were TESOL/TEFL certificates. Based on this information, it is implied that many EPIK teachers were young inexperienced teachers who did not hold TESOL teaching certificates. As a result, Lee (2006) and Park (1996) also asked questions about the effectiveness of hiring EPIK teachers in public schools.

Co-teaching relationship

Some research has also been conducted to explore the relationship with NESTs and KETs in their co-teaching. Yoo (2009) focused on middle school KETs' issues regarding co-teaching. He found that most co-teaching classes were led primarily by NESTs while KETs played a more assistant role. In addition, regular meetings or communication between NESTs and KETs are most important for effective teaching. Park (2010) focused on the NESTs' and KETs' perceptions of co-teaching and ideal co-teaching models at elementary schools. He

pointed out that both NESTs and KETs thought a balanced co-teaching model was ideal, but their actual classes were not balanced. In other words, they were confused about their unclear roles and leadership depending on the focus of lessons. For example, in reading classes led primarily by KETs, the NESTs' role is not specified, while in listening classes, which is mainly led by NESTs, the KETs' role is not specified. Therefore, Park suggested that collaborative efforts should be made to build an ideal co-teaching model through training programs or teachers' networks. Lee et al. (2011)a also found that students preferred the balanced team-teaching style of both KETs and NESTs rather than either KET-led or NEST-led teaching styles. At the university level, Kim (2010)b emphasized that co-teaching could be helpful for the students when collaborative efforts are made for sufficient preparation, active communication, and incompatible teaching methods from both NESTs and KETs.

Kim (2010)a, Kim (2011)c, and Kim and Kim (2010) focused more on voices from NESTs. Kim (2010)a conducted a nationwide survey with NESTs about their co-teaching experiences. In this study, NESTs showed preferences for co-teaching with KETs for classroom management, student discipline, and translation. However, actual collaboration was not often found due to KETs' low involvement in the lesson implementation. This study also discussed many types of struggles that NESTs experienced, such as students' lack of interest, class management, communication problems with students or KETs, and KETs' unhelpful attitudes. In Kim's (2011)c other study, she interviewed nine NEST participants and gathered their suggestions for better co-teaching models. NESTs in this study said that they needed clearer guidelines for co-teaching or expected roles to follow and a decreased number of KETs with whom to work and communicate. Kim and Kim (2010) conducted a survey regarding co-teaching TEE classes to 130 NESTs in one province. The NESTs in this study emphasized the

balanced role of KETs and bilingual use of Korean and English in co-teaching. However, they thought the Korean language should be minimally used for effective TEE classes.

Additional research

In addition to Kim's (2011)c previously mentioned study, recent research such as Hong (2016) and Lee and Cho (2015) offers rare qualitative research that explores more detailed experiences of NESTs. Hong (2016) conducted a case study of a Korean American NEST working at a college. The participant in this study discussed her lived experiences in regards to the negotiation of identities, as she is considered both Korean, an assigned identity by Korean people, and American, her claimed identity. In Lee and Cho (2015), on the other hand, questionnaires and interviews with five NESTs and five KETs showed their experiences and thoughts on collaborative co-teaching. In the study, the researchers found that existing challenges to co-teaching can be tackled by understanding collaborative co-teaching as a process of learning and changing participation and identity transformation of both NESTs and KETs.

As reviewed in this section, the research on NESTs is among the most important research topics in the field of English education in Korea. Much of the previous research has shown how NESTs began teaching Korean students and how various members in the English education scene perceive NESTs' teaching practices differently. However, qualitative research to hear teachers' lived experiences from the field is still rare, and many quantitative studies have been conducted to view overall effects on and perceptions of NESTs and their co-teaching practices. Thus, we decided to conduct qualitative research to add more lived experiences from NESTs and KETs to the research on NESTs. Also, by listening to their voices, we would like to find the critical issues that have long been discussed by other researchers but not yet fully

addressed. Ultimately, we would like to find alternative ways to resolve such issues and identify possible or expected roles of NESTs in the future.

Methods

Data Collection

In order to explore the current issues of NESTs, NESTs and KETs were recruited through the researchers' personal contacts. The recruitment process was similar to snowball sampling (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981), in which the researchers start recruiting participants through personal contact or through information and then follow the resulting chain. The first author contacted her acquaintances, who in turn provided contact information for their colleagues. The selection criteria were broad and general: NESTs who have taught English learners in public elementary or secondary schools in Korea and have co-taught with KETs as well as KETs in public elementary or secondary schools who have co-taught with NESTs. The first recruitment period was February, 2014, when a KET—the second author—agreed to participate in the study. The second recruitment period was from May to August, 2016, when two NESTs agreed to participate in the study. Both NESTs and the KET wrote their own narratives, and their narratives were collected electronically between June and August 2016. It was one time, but the researchers gave the participants enough time to recall and write about their experiences. Each participant spent two to three weeks to complete their narratives. For writing narratives, a list of basic questions about their personal background, education, and teaching experience is provided (See Appendix 2A). The detailed information about all three participants is shown in Table 2.1.

Both Nancy and Ryan were invited by the EPIK program. Nancy just finished her second year of EPIK in August 2016 and was preparing to apply for graduate schools after

returning home to the United States. Ryan was working in university, having finished his last contract with EPIK. He also married a Korean woman several years before, and was committed to remain in Korea long term, if circumstances allowed. Kate worked in two middle schools in Korea before she came to the United States to pursue her master's and doctoral degrees. During her eight years of teaching, she worked with three NESTs in her schools.

Table 2.1. Basic information about participants

Participant (Pseudonym)	Nationality	Highest Degree	ESL / English teacher certificate	Teaching experience in Korea	School level
NEST (Nancy)	United States of America	Bachelor's (Musical arts)	100-hour TESOL certificate	2 years	Elementary school in Seoul
NEST (Ryan)	Canada	Master's (TEFL & Arts)	Master of TEFL	10 years	Elementary & secondary schools & college in Gangwon
KET (Kate)	South Korea	Doctoral candidate (TESOL)	National teacher certificate of English	8 years	Middle schools in Seoul

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using narrative inquiry. Narrative inquiry can refer to “research in which narratives, or stories, play a significant role” (Benson, 2014, p. 155). However, the terms narrative and narrative inquiry vary in different disciplines and, thus, are difficult to define (Benson, 2014). Polkinghorne (1995) distinguished two forms of narrative inquiry. One is narrative analysis, which refers to research constructing explanatory stories using nonnarrative data such as events and happenings (Benson, 2014; Benson et al., 2012; Polkinghorne, 1995). The other is analysis of narratives, which refers to using stories as data and analyzing them through content or thematic analysis, which is typical in qualitative methodology. This study

corresponds to the latter. We read and reread the narratives systematically and used thematic coding in terms of predefined categories, which are based on the questions in the protocol. The initial coding began with seven themes: teacher training, teaching in class, classroom management and working with a co-teacher, challenges, benefits, school life, and life outside of school. The theme of classroom management and working with a co-teacher was subsequently merged with teaching in class because they dealt with similar topics. In addition, school life and life outside of school were merged and included challenges and benefits. Ultimately, three main themes were used: teacher training, teaching class, and life in and outside of school. In order to avoid possible threats to the validity of the researchers' interpretation, we applied member checks after the analysis. We sent our preliminary findings to the participants so that they could identify any biases and misunderstandings of what we observed (Maxwell, 2013). During the analysis, we also repeatedly revisited NEST literature and reinterpreted the narratives.

Findings and Discussion

The three key themes of NESTs' teaching experiences emerged from the iterative analysis process of three participants' narratives: teacher training, teaching in class, and life in and outside of school.

Teacher Training

Nancy, Ryan, and Kate all highlighted the lack of adequate training sessions for co-teaching. Nancy and Ryan felt more prepared than other NESTs as they both held a TESOL/TEFL certificate, which requires 100 hours of training. Although 100 hours of training is not sufficient to fully prepare native English speakers to become qualified NESTs, many NESTs did not even have this minimum training, let alone a certificate. Approximately 46% of EPIK teachers hold teaching certificates, of which only 30% are TESOL/TEFL certificates (Kim &

Park, 2010). In addition to any training they receive prior to coming to Korea, NESTs are required to complete training sessions at the EPIK office and at a local education office. Nancy and Ryan, however, found that those training sessions provided neither current nor relevant teaching skills. Excerpt 1 is Nancy's narrative on her experience in the EPIK training sessions prior to and while working at school; Excerpt 2 is Ryan's narrative on his experience in the EPIK training sessions after one year of teaching at school.

Excerpt 1. Since arriving in Korea, my NEST training has consisted of an EPIK orientation course, completed in Daejeon, Korea, the week before beginning my contract, and a required online training module, completed during my first semester of work. In my opinion, neither of these were very helpful for gaining practical teaching skills. (Nancy)

Excerpt 2. The 'training' offered by EPIK was of little to no use, especially after I had been here for one year. The same routines and topics were re-visited year after year (co-teaching), with refusal to change anything when the NESTs requested or suggested it. (Ryan)

As Nancy pointed out, her week-long training prior to teaching and online training during the semester were insufficient for NESTs to gain practical classroom teaching strategies. Ryan also indicated that the training program never changed, although NESTs suggested some changes. Moreover, in Excerpt 3, he critically described some official training sessions for in-service NESTs and KETs organized by local districts, saying they seemed superficial given how much of the yearly budgets were being spent. Ryan said that he could gain the necessary knowledge or experiences from the informal meetings during the event rather than the formal

sessions. Ryan attributed this ineffective training to the bureaucracy in the Korean educational context.

Excerpt 3. Typical components are administrative confusion and poor management (late notice, changing deadlines, impossible criteria). . . . There were things learned at these meetings, but it seemed that these tended to come from more “informal” moments: between presentations or during post-training meetings/dinners. (Ryan)

On the other hand, KETs generally complete solid pre-service education encompassing English literature, linguistic, and pedagogical knowledge to acquire their teacher certificates. They also have to complete classroom observations and student teaching. Public school teachers have to pass a rigorous national teachers’ exam evaluating professional content knowledge, English communication skills, and teaching demonstration. While working at schools, KETs also participate in a variety of in-service teacher training sessions. However, Kate recalled that she did not receive any adequate training for co-teaching with NESTs. Excerpt 4 is Kate’s narrative on her experiences in participating in the in-service training sessions during summer and winter breaks.

Excerpt 4. In summer and winter, there were English teacher training camps. I attended a couple of times. Most trainings focused on improving or maintaining English teachers’ English proficiency, in particular, oral communication skills to run English classes in English. Other trainings focused on delivering useful strategies and activities to make English classes more communicative language teaching oriented. (Kate)

As seen in Kate’s narrative, the training for co-working with NESTs is generally missing in both pre-service and in-service training sessions in Korea. Overall, from the narratives of Nancy, Ryan, and Kate, both NESTs and KETs seem to need more substantial and practical

training for co-teaching in Korean English classes. KETs also seem to need more training for bridging gaps with NESTs and other members at school as well as in the larger Korean educational contexts, for which NESTs do not have adequate knowledge or training.

Teaching in Class

In terms of teaching in class, since each school has only one NEST, the number of students per NEST is relatively high. According to Kim (2011b)b, the average number of students per NEST in 2010 was 846. In addition to regular classes, NESTs are also involved in a variety of English-related work such as after-school programs, club activities, English contests, English library, and summer or winter English camps (Kim & Park, 2010). The challenge is that they have to prepare a lot for multiple-grade teaching efforts and additional after-school classes. In fact, from Ryan's narrative, the workloads in urban and rural areas seem quite different. Excerpt 5 is Ryan's narrative on his experience working at multiple schools in a district at the same time.

Excerpt 5. Many, many teachers have multiple schools and several grades, at which point it becomes exponentially more difficult. Five schools, 9 grades, 14 textbooks, 17 nominal and 0 actual co-teachers—the load is too much to actually teach anything.
(Ryan)

As seen in Excerpt 5, Ryan has taught in rural areas, whose districts had many smaller satellite schools. In those areas, NESTs are required to teach at several schools and different grades. In our study, the workload of Nancy, who worked at one school in the city, was actually not that different from Ryan's. Nancy said that she taught 22 regular classes per week in 4 different grades, working with more than 470 students. In those situations, NESTs' time for one-on-one interactions with students is extremely limited.

On the other hand, providing practical resources and technical support seems to reduce NESTs' workload. As mentioned in Park (2010), in many cases, NESTs are in charge of speaking or listening parts of lessons, and they need many teaching props and extensive technical support. Excerpt 6 and Excerpt 7 are the experiences of Nancy and Ryan on their use of resources at schools.

Excerpt 6. Our school has a variety of resources, including flashcards, balls, dice, plastic hammers, Jenga sets, UNO cards, and several other games. The English classroom is equipped with a large TV monitor, which we use to project pictures, videos, and PowerPoint slides for lessons. (Nancy)

Excerpt 7. None that are dependable. Always the oldest computer, usually riddled with viruses. Also, mandatory security software that blocks access to non-Korean sites and apps (i.e., at the moment Gmail is blocked "for security reasons"). You can depend on a chalkboard, with or without chalk. (Ryan)

As seen from the excerpts, the provided resources can differ in urban and rural areas. In rural areas, as Ryan experienced, especially where some technology is not supported, NESTs should rely on traditional resources such as chalkboards or paper. Such realities might need to be mentioned in NEST training before NESTs are assigned to particular school settings. According to Kim (2011b)b, approximately 60% of all NESTs are assigned to provincial areas outside the seven metropolitan cities in Korea. TaLK teachers work exclusively in rural areas (TaLK, 2016).

In terms of interaction with students in the classroom, Nancy and Ryan said that students are generally interested in studying with them. We found both Nancy and Ryan liked their students and have a passion for building a good rapport with students. Kate also said one NEST teacher with whom she had worked was very active about building relationships with

students, so he reached out to students even outside of classes (e.g., playing basketball, chatting in the hallway or cafeteria, and keeping in touch with former students).

However, the key challenge in teaching that Nancy, Ryan, and Kate highlighted was the unclear roles of NESTs and KETs. Some NESTs did not even try to deal with classroom management issues and instead totally depended on KETs for these issues. Excerpt 8 is Kate's narrative on her observation of one NEST with whom she worked.

Excerpt 8. In class, he was very dependent on Korean English teachers who co-taught with him. He left class management to the Korean teachers. ... The most challenging issues for me was setting up clear roles in class. I didn't like the way Korean teachers were shown as incapable in teaching speaking English and responsible for providing classroom set-up. I do think that we need clear role descriptions and principles in co-teaching. (Kate)

The unclear co-teaching system in the English classroom setting in Korea has long been discussed (Choi, 2008; Im & Kim, 2007; Park, 2010; Yoo, 2009). In the Korean educational setting, it is not usual to have more than one teacher in any subject class. According to the job description, however, EPIK teachers are described as a co-teacher of the KET in English classes (EPIK, 2016). Therefore, the English class is an exceptional case in that two teachers (NEST and KET) lead the class together. Due to this uniqueness, both NESTs and KETs need to have a mutual understanding about co-teaching and set up clear roles in class. In reality, co-teaching might depend heavily on individual teachers' understanding of co-teaching styles and the relationship between the NEST and KET. For example, Nancy said she had regular meetings with her Korean co-teacher to plan lessons and create materials together. Excerpt 9 is Nancy's narrative on her experiences with a Korean co-teacher for lesson preparation.

Excerpt 9. My co-teacher and I share the responsibility for creating materials (e.g., making a PowerPoint presentation, printing and cutting materials). ... Instead, I create the materials for each lesson I teach and collaborate with my co-teachers to design activities based on authentic situations. (Nancy)

There could be some extreme cases showing the power struggles between NESTs and KETs. Ryan talked a lot about his experience of being helpless and stressed in his co-teaching class. Excerpt 10 describes one of Ryan's experiences in a co-teaching class that was open to other teachers at school.

Excerpt 10. The NESTs' input was ignored, and the NESTs' role was window dressing. For example, in an open class, a NEST was asked to be in a funny costume and speak lines given to him by the co-teacher. What he prepared was not used. The KET said "our class", but it was really "her class". The KET/NEST power structure makes co-teaching by any standards impossible. (Ryan)

As shown in Ryan's narrative, such relationships between the teachers definitely have a strong influence on English classes. Students might feel the tensions between the teachers as well. To reduce the negative effects from these tensions on students, healthy co-working relationships might need to be established well before the teachers walk into the classroom. As Kim (2010) mentioned, mutual respect between the NEST and KET will lead to a positive co-teaching relationship and better classes for students.

Life In and Outside of School

Another big challenge for NESTs is the cultural and linguistic barrier that comes with working as a foreigner. Although Nancy and Ryan had a basic knowledge of Korean language and culture before becoming EPIK teachers in Korea, their knowledge was not well-activated in

an actual workplace. Excerpt 11 and Excerpt 12 are Nancy's and Ryan's narratives, respectively, on culturally challenging experiences working in Korea.

Excerpt 11. The most challenging aspects of working as a NEST are the cultural and language barriers I face as the only non-Korean person in my workplace. (Nancy)

Excerpt 12. The manner of thinking is different to the very core of how I was raised. This is not to suggest that these are all bad. I have seen so much kindness from Korean people—it's just the negative examples of cultural differences are what we tend to think of first (especially given the several pages I've just related). This is a very large, complicated issue. (Ryan)

As Nancy pointed out, it could be very difficult to communicate with others when one is the only foreign person in the workplace. In addition, NESTs' school lives could vary according to the school atmosphere, relationship with the KETs, and NESTs' individual personalities. Kate noted that NESTs' interest in learning Korean language and culture had an enormous influence on their school life. She identified several characteristics that would help NESTs adjust to their school life, like the following in Excerpt 13.

Excerpt 13. NESTs who like to experience new culture, have an outgoing personality, are interested in learning the home language and culture, and like children and teaching picked up how to teach, how to communicate with other teachers, and how to live in Korea pretty quickly. (Kate)

According to Kim (2010)a, NESTs who had worked in Korea suggested that flexibility, patience and understanding, and initiative are necessary qualities for successful English teaching in Korea. Such qualities should apply not only to NESTs, but also to KETs and other Korean teachers and administrators. Open-minded KETs who communicate more with NESTs seem to

help NESTs with their school lives. Both Ryan and Nancy talked about their experiences working with different Korean teachers over the years, as seen in Excerpts 14 and 15.

Excerpt 14. Administrators, for the most part, have no clue about English education of any kind (though they behave as though they do or defer to people who should). Some are actively against English, viewing it as a neo-colonialist (i.e., U.S.) tool to “weaken” Korea. They nod their heads and don’t listen to anyone (especially NESTs).

Communication is top-down or it doesn’t count as communication. (Ryan)

Excerpt 15. In my experience, I have found it easiest to communicate and work with teachers who have prior experience teaching English, more years of teaching experience in general, and who teach English in English. I have also observed that my co-teaching relationships have improved over time, as I gain more experience, teaching skills, and communication abilities. (Nancy)

Both Ryan and Nancy seemed to appreciate their co-teachers’ professional and friendly attitudes, while they talked about their unpleasant experiences with a few administrators’ indifference to English education or unhelpful attitudes toward them. One of the unhelpful attitudes toward NESTs stemmed from the KETs’ heavy workload for dealing with all kinds of NEST-related work. Generally, taking care of NESTs is one of the burdensome tasks teachers take on for a year, but it is assigned to only one teacher at a school. As a result, although all KETs in school work with the NEST in terms of teaching, only one KET is in charge of having the main communication with the NEST in terms of their housing, administrative processes, and other related tasks (Choi, 2008). Other Korean teachers may not feel that they need to interact with the NEST because it is not part of their tasks. Excerpt 16 is Kate’s narrative on her opinion about a school-wide attention to NESTs.

Excerpt 16. Also, all other teachers, not only the English teacher who's in charge of NEST at a school, need to give more attention to a foreign teacher and reach out and include him or her in their school community. (Kate)

Kate emphasized that taking care of NESTs is not one teacher's task, and NESTs should be understood as a member of the school community. Her opinion is similar to other KETs' opinions from Lee et al. (2011)b, who suggested that the status of NESTs should be changed to the same as regular faculty members at school so that there is less work for KETs taking care of NESTs in and outside of school. For example, it would be better if NESTs could also use the National Education Information System (NEIS), which faculty members use for dealing with all kinds of school work. As a result, KETs' work would be reduced.

In addition to the school community, NESTs need a network and community to build a relationship with other people outside of school. Although NESTs can be involved in various activities outside of school, many NESTs, especially those working for a short term, would have difficulties finding their own social groups or friends outside of school. Excerpt 17 is Nancy's narrative on her difficulty of living alone in a foreign country.

Excerpt 17. While I find my job very satisfying, my personal life suffers from the practical and emotional challenges of living alone in a foreign country. These challenges are difficult, perhaps impossible, to express to others who have not had a comparable experience. ... My social community consists largely of people from the international church I attend as well as a few Korean friends. (Nancy)

Although international exchange students are supported through host families or international student organizations, international teachers like NESTs are not provided with such programs outside of school. As seen in Excerpt 17, Nancy found (on her own) an international

church that she could attend. Ryan said he found some professional groups of NESTs (e.g., Korea TESOL) and online communities on which he could rely. He also married a Korean woman, which is a unique case. However, there is still a need to build more easily accessible communities for NESTs and help NESTs manage their well-being while in Korea. In this sense, the TaLK program seems to be a good example of building such communities for NESTs. TaLK has a buddy system for matching each Korean college student to each TaLK teacher. TaLK also publishes an online newsletter. According to the 24th TaLK newsletter in 2016 (TaLK, 2016), the current TaLK coordinator is a former TaLK teacher; therefore, it is assumed that she is able to tailor the program and build a community to meet current and future NESTs' specific needs.

Moreover, for Nancy, her social life outside of school was a motivator to learn the Korean language and culture. Nancy said that she stopped studying Korean after the two-week EPIK training session, but restarted when she met her new Korean friends outside of school. Excerpt 18 is Nancy's narrative on learning Korean through one Korean friend.

Excerpt 18. My motivation for learning Korean was extremely low until I met a Korean friend and we began exchanging messages in Korean only. She became my closest Korean friend, and through our friendship I was motivated to learn and use more Korean. (Nancy)

Nancy's case underscores the fact that a NEST is a learner of Korean language and culture while simultaneously teaching English to Korean students. In Chun's (2015) study, college student participants also said that it would be better if their NESTs tried to learn Korean and understand the Korean culture. Therefore, each school and EPIK program should provide more information about various activities in which NESTs can participate to learn the Korean language and culture throughout the semester and during breaks. Their satisfaction outside of

school would have positive impacts on their class teaching as well as satisfaction in school. In sum, the narratives of Nancy, Ryan, and Kate indicate that they could not participate in relevant and practical training sessions. In addition, the availability of instructional resources vary in rural and urban schools. Due to the ambiguity of the co-teaching system, an unequal power structure has emerged between NESTs and KETs in the classroom. In classes and schools, there has been a call for building better communication among NESTs, KETs, and other members of school. NESTs' well-being outside of school should be considered as well.

Conclusion and Implications

NESTs have served as important contributors in the history of English education in Korea, where English is neither the official nor the second language. Most recently, the EPIK program emerged to represent the government's efforts to improve the quality of English education by providing NESTs to public schools. Although it has been about 20 years since the EPIK program was initially launched, the critical issues surrounding it still have not been addressed in the Korean educational context. From the voices of two NESTs and one KET, we found those issues to include insufficient training sessions, different educational environments in rural and urban areas, challenges from an unclear co-teaching system, a lack of enough communication or community to share information, and a lack of support to participate in various social activities outside of school.

Based on these major issues, we would like to discuss the alternative ways to resolve such issues and possible roles of NESTs in the future. First, more practical teacher training sessions should be provided to both NESTs and KETs. The importance of teacher training for both NESTs and KETs has been identified by previous researchers (Kim, 2011d; Kim & Park, 2010; Lee et al., 2011b). The reality of teaching English in Korean educational contexts should

be introduced in teacher training sessions. Such training should not be just a one-time or short-term session, but ongoing, sequential, diverse, and targeted to various educational situations within local districts. As Lee et al. (2011)b suggested, training participants could build a community to actively and collaboratively work together.

More importantly, teacher training sessions should also give both NESTs and KETs opportunities to think about and discuss co-teaching methods in English classes in Korea. The training might include different co-teaching models, co-teaching strategies, co-teaching plans, or co-teaching demonstrations. Among many different co-teaching models, such as supportive, parallel, complementary, and team-teaching (National Center on Educational Restructuring and Inclusion, 1995), team-teaching is the one in which two teachers organize, implement, and evaluate the lessons in a collaborative way. This model might better reflect the balanced team-teaching style preferred by both NESTs and KETs in the study of Lee et al. (2011)a. Meanwhile, team-teaching could also include participation of other teachers in the school who can give detailed suggestions from diverse perspectives (Kim & Park, 2016). As a good starting point for this kind of training, EPIK has held the EPIK co-teaching contest every year since 2010, and the winning co-teaching videos can be found on the EPIK website.

Furthermore, based on the NESTs' narratives, they are also a part of the school community and the larger Korean society. Like Nancy, many NESTs might be the only non-Korean person at their schools. A few studies discussed NESTs' difficulties in living as a foreigner in the Korean society as they faced practical difficulties related to credit cards or accessing the internet at home (Lee et al., 2011b). It is important to note that they are also members of our community, just as we are. Furthermore, some practical online and offline communities will be helpful for NESTs, enabling them to share information and build social

relationships. They would also prevent possible unfair treatment of NESTs in their schools or districts.

Finally, we suggest possible roles of NESTs in the future of English education in Korea. As NESTs and KETs have their own history of learning and teaching experiences, a potential synergy of the two could be possible in their co-teaching. Lee and Cho (2015) introduced Wenger's (1998) model to suggest that teachers should be understood as members of the learning community for collaboration purposes, learning from peer coaches about the process of learning teaching. In this learning community, teachers can understand the existing challenges and develop solutions from a holistic perspective. This is somewhat similar to Macedo's (2002) idea that teachers have to consider their roles as learners in the classroom (as cited in Jang et al., 2010). Teachers can learn from and help each other as professionals, serving as peer coaches for each other. Of course, mutual respect and open-mindedness should be required of every member in this community for collaboration.

One limitation of this study is the small sample of our data set. We included only two NESTs and one KET who worked in either one city or one province. To consider a greater variety of educational situations, we need to recruit teachers from the other 14 metropolitan cities or provinces in the future. In addition, if we collect more narratives from the same participants in a follow-up study, it could provide meaningful data for tracking changes in their thoughts about or interpretations of their experiences.

Finally, we hope our research can be used for practical purposes as well for future NESTs and KETs. In particular, NESTs' individual voices are rarely collected because they usually teach only one or two years and leave Korea after completing the mission of the EPIK program. Therefore, written recordings of previous EPIK teachers, such as the participants in our

study, would be valuable resources for NEST training sessions. They would also be useful for pre-service or in-service KET training sessions.

References

- Benson, P. (2014). Narrative inquiry in applied linguistics research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 34, 154-170.
- Benson, P., Barkhuizen, G., Bodycott, P., & Brown, J. (2012). Study abroad and the development of second language identities. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 3(1), 173-193.
- Biernacki, P., & Waldorf, D. (1981). Snowball sampling: Problems and techniques of chain referral sampling. *Sociological Methods and Research*, 10(2), 141-163.
- Choi, H. (2008). Voices from teachers and students regarding the utilization of native English teachers in elementary schools: Issues and ideas for improvement. *Foreign Languages Education*, 15(1), 333-362.
- Choi, H., & Kim, S. (2013). The effect of native English teachers on high school students' English performance. *Journal of Employment and Skills Development*, 16(1), 1-19.
- Choi, S., Sung, K., & Park, K. (1996). *Woneomin yeongeog gyosa sugeup cheje gaebal yeongu [Research on the hiring system of NESTs]*. Seoul, Korea: Korean Educational Development Institute.
- Choi, Y. (2001). Suggestions for the re-organization of English teaching program by native speakers in Korea. *English Teaching*, 56(1), 101-122.
- Chun, S. Y. (2015). Native English-speaking teachers and Korean English teachers: A qualitative analysis of Korean university students' beliefs. *Studies in Foreign Language Education*, 29(3), 181-203.
- Cook, V. (1999). Going beyond the native speaker in language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33(2), 185-209.

- Dustheimer, C., & Gillett, R. (1999). The history of ELT in Korea. In G. Crocetti (Ed.), *The KOTESOL handbook: Teaching English in Korea* (pp. 1-12). Seoul, Korea: Moonyedang.
- EPIK. (2016). *EPIK official website*. Retrieved from <http://www.epik.go.kr>
- Fulbright. (2016). *Fulbright official website*. Retrieved from <http://www.fulbright.or.kr/en/fulbright/eta.php>
- Hong, Y. (2016). Teacher's stories to live by: Life stories of a Korean-American NEST teaching at a university in Korea. *English Language & Literature Teaching*, 22(1), 23-44.
- Im, B., & Kim, J. (2007). Students and teachers' reflection on team teaching. *Modern Studies in English Language & Literature*, 51(2), 197-223.
- Jang, S. H., Nguyen, H. B., & Yang, Y. (2010). Enhancing pedagogical roles of ESL/EFL native and non-native teachers through team teaching: How to make this 'International Partnership' successful. *The International Journal of Learning*, 17(9), 249-258.
- Jang, Y. S. (2013). The effects of native teachers' practical English classes on incidental vocabulary acquisition. *The Journal of Modern British & American Language & Literature*, 31(4), 27-50.
- Jung, W. (1976). Mi Pyeonghwabongsadangwa Yeongeogyoyuk. [Peace Corps Volunteers and English education]. *Education Gyeongnam*, 51, 135-140.
- Kang, H. D. (2012). Primary school English education in Korea: From policy to practice. In B. Spolsky & Y. Moon (Eds.), *Primary school English-language education in Asia: From policy to practice* (pp. 59-82). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Kang, H. D., Min, C. K., & Kim, J. S. (2014). The effects of the English native instructor program at universities of education in Korea. *Primary English Education*, 20(4), 63-89.

- Kang, M. K. (2013). The perceptions of Korean English teachers toward native English teachers. *The Journal of the Korea Contents Association*, 13(10), 615-623.
- Kim, C. (2009). The Analysis on the actual situations of team teaching with native English teacher in middle schools. *The Journal of Modern British & American Language & Literature*, 27(3), 147-169.
- Kim, D. (2011)a. The expectations and realities of pre-service elementary school teachers' toward native speakers of English lecturers. *The Journal of Foreign Studies*, 16, 35-57.
- Kim, E. (2008, April 9). Contact with Western culture and English. *The Korea Times*. Retrieved from http://www.koreatimes.co.kr/www/news/special/2009/04/181_22226.html
- Kim, G., & Kim, E. (2010). Guest English teachers' perceptions regarding Korean English teachers' practices during team teaching classes. *Foreign Languages Education*, 17(3), 297-321.
- Kim, J. (2011a)b. A meta-analysis of English KT and NT team teaching effects. *Journal of the Korea English Education Society*, 10(3), 91-113.
- Kim, J. (2011b)b. An efficacy reconsideration of utilizing native English assistant teachers. *Primary English Education*, 17(3), 7-31.
- Kim, J., & Ahn, K. (2011). Evaluation of an intensive English teacher training program: An investigation of teacher learners' perceptions and development. *Studies in English Education*, 16(1), 213-244.
- Kim, J., & Park, M. R. (2010). *Woneomin Yeongeobojogyosa hwaryongdo jegobangan yeongu [Studyon the utilization of native English-speaking assistant teachers]*. Seoul, Korea: The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology.

- Kim, K., & Park, S. (2016). A study on the effects of peer coaching on changes in instructional organization and student engagement in learning. *Korean Journal of Teacher Education*, 32(4), 77-104.
- Kim, M. (2006). *Gaehwagiui yeongeo iyagi [The story of English in Korea from 1894 to 1910]*. Seoul, Korea: International Graduate School of English Press.
- Kim, M. (2010)a. How do native English-speaking teachers perceive co-teaching? *Korean Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 26(4), 213-249.
- Kim, M. (2011)c. Exploring native English speaking teachers' voices about co-teaching. *English Teaching*, 66(4), 27-52.
- Kim, S. (2011)d. An evaluation of native English-speaking teachers' linguistic, cultural, and pedagogical competence. *Foreign Languages Education*, 18(2), 209-232.
- Kim, S. S. (2010)b. The role of teachers in team teaching. *Korean Journal of Teacher Education*, 26(1), 113-137.
- Kim, T., Lee, W. K., Hong, S., No, G. H., Ihm, H., & Ahn, K. (2014). A study on the analysis of primary English teachers' needs for improving intensive English teacher training programs. *Primary English Education*, 20(4), 149-176.
- Kwon, O. (2003). English teaching and testing in Korean universities: Trends and changes. In G. Poedjosoedarmo (Ed.), *Teaching and assessing language proficiency* (pp. 193-214). Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.
- Kwon, O., & Kim, J. (2010). *Hanguk yeongeo gyoyuksa [History of English education in Korea]*. Seoul, Korea: Hangukmunhwasa.

- Lee, D., & Kim, T. (2013). A study of middle school students' perceptions toward English co-teaching of a native English teacher and a Korean English teacher: Focusing on affective factors. *The Journal of Modern British & American Language & Literature*, 32(2), 29-55.
- Lee, I. (2006). *A study of the current status and the efficient teaching method of team teaching with a Korean English teacher and a native English teacher*. Unpublished Master's thesis. Seoul, Korea: Korea University.
- Lee, J., Choi, J., & Jeon, Y. (2011)a. Students' perception on the effects of Native English Teachers' team teaching. *Journal of the Korea English Education Society*, 10(3), 213-231.
- Lee, J., Jeon, Y., & Kang, K. (2011)b. An analysis on the utilization of native English teachers invited to Korea as a means of strengthening public English education. *The Journal of Modern British & American Language & Literature*, 29(2), 115-146.
- Lee, Y., & Cho, H. (2015). Promoting collaborative teaching between NESTs and NNESTs in English classrooms. *Studies in English Education*, 20(1), 87-112.
- Macedo, A. R. (2002). *Team-teaching: Who should really be in charge? A look at reverse vs. traditional team-teaching*. Unpublished Master's thesis, Birmingham, UK: University of Birmingham.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2013). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Min, C. K., Rha, K., & Kim, J. S. (2013). An analysis of the effectiveness of the native English teacher policy for Korea English teacher training institutes. *The Jungang Journal of English Language and Literature*, 55(4), 133-160.

- National Center on Educational Restructuring and Inclusion. (1995). *National study of inclusive education*. New York, NY: The City University of New York.
- Park, H. (2010). An analysis of native and nonnative English teachers' perception on their role in elementary school settings of co-teaching. *English Language Teaching*, 22(4), 133-163.
- Park, K. (1996). Woneomin gyosa hwaryongeul wihan jeeon [Suggestions for native English speaking teachers]. *Foreign Languages Education*, 3(1), 29-42.
- Polkinghorne, D. E. (1995). Narrative configuration in qualitative analysis. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 8(1), 8-25.
- TaLK. (2016). *TaLK official website*. Retrieved from <http://www.talk.go.kr>
- Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Yoo, B. (2009). Problematic issues experienced by native and Korean English teachers in the process of team teaching at middle schools in Korea. *Journal of the Korean English Education Society*, 8(2), 57-72.
- Yoon, Y. (2008). A study of an investigation about recruiting, management and evaluation system of English native speaker teachers and their levels of job satisfaction from After-school Programs. *Modern English Education*, 9(3), 152-188.

Appendix 2A

1. Questions for NESTs

Please write an essay (narrative) about your teaching experience as a native English-speaking teacher (NEST) in Korea. Please write your paragraphs freely but try to include the answers to the following questions.

► General background

Age

Native language/second language

Highest educational degree/major

► Learning background

Could you tell me about your educational background before you came to Korea?

Have you ever completed any ESOL related education or do you have a TESOL certificate?

Have you prepared to work in Korea?

Have you collected information about working conditions in Korea?

Have you studied the culture and language of Korea?

Could you tell me about your training as a NEST since coming to Korea?

Since you started working, what has been the most helpful information in your learning or training?

► Teaching experience

Did you teach before you came to Korea? Could you tell me about your teaching experience?

What was your motivation to work in Korea as a NEST?

What was your expectation about working in Korea as a NEST?

Could you tell me about your working environment? (class hours, class size, students' level, responsibilities, extra classes, wages, etc.)

How do you plan your lessons?

How does the district, school, or other English teachers support your teaching?

What types of resources, teaching materials, or equipment are available?

What do you think of your teaching load?

What do you think of your relationship/communication with students?

What do you think of your relationship/communication with other teachers?

What do you think of your relationship/communication with school administrators?

What is the most challenging aspect of working as a NEST? (Or, what is the least satisfying thing?)

What is the most beneficial aspect of working as a NEST? (Or, what is the most satisfying thing?)

What is your future plan for teaching as a NEST?

► Living experience

What are the most challenging aspects of living in Korea?

Have you experienced cultural differences? If so, could you give me some examples?

Do you have any leisure activities? If so, could you give me some examples? If not, why not?

Have you been involved in any social events? If so, could you give me some examples? If not, why not?

Is there a NEST community in which you can share some information and experiences with other NESTs?

2. Questions for KETs

► General background

Age

Nationality

Native language/second language

Highest educational degree/major

► Learning background

Could you tell me about your education background?

Have you ever studied outside of Korea?

How did you learn about foreign cultures and languages?

Could you tell me about your pre-service training as an English teacher in Korea?

Could you tell me about your in-service training as an English teacher in Korea?

► Teaching experience

How many NESTs have you worked with?

Could you tell me about your experience of working with NESTs?

What were their responsibilities (class hours, after-school classes, club activities, etc.)?

How did you plan to co-teach with a NEST?

Have you had any training for working with NESTs?

If so, how did it help your co-teaching or working with NESTs?

If not, do you think you need training to work with NESTs? (What kind of training?)

What do you think of NESTs' qualification of teaching adolescents in Korea?

What do you think of NESTs' knowledge of English language and teaching English language?

What do you think of NESTs' teaching methods or strategies?

What do you think of NESTs' classroom management?

What do you think of NESTs' adjustment to working in Korea?

What do you think of NESTs' adjustment to living in Korea?

What do you think of NESTs' attitudes toward students, teachers, schools, and the Korean culture?

What are the most challenging aspects of working with NESTs?

What are the most beneficial aspects of working with NESTs?

What do you think of the policy to increase or decrease the number of NESTs? What is your opinion about the current and future policy about NESTs in Korea?

What do you think about the hardships NESTs face?

How did you, other English teachers, or schools handle the hardships NESTs face?

What kinds of recommendations would you make for working with NESTs in a more beneficial way?

CHAPTER 3

“WHY DO I ALWAYS FEEL LACKING ALTHOUGH I HAVE BEEN WORKING HARD?”:
CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF KOREAN ENGLISH CLASSROOM AND NON-
NATIVE ENGLISH-SPEAKING TEACHER (NNEST) IDENTITIES⁶

⁶ Ahn, S. Submitted to *Linguistics and Education*, 02/02/18.

Abstract

This study explores the English classroom discourse and non-native English-speaking teacher (NNEST) identities in South Korea. Given the sociocultural context of English education in South Korea, a critical discourse analysis informed by interactional sociolinguistics was conducted to analyze classroom interactions in video-taped performances as part of a professional development initiative. The performances were conducted using a critical performative pedagogy (Harman & French, 2004); this recursive educational use of performance and critical discussion focuses on issues related to social equity. The findings show how the NNESTs face language ideological problems in normative classroom interactions, which tend to produce marginalized learners and deficit teacher identities. The analysis also shows how the NNESTs reframe the existing classroom discourse by adopting the concept of World Englishes and teacher qualifications beyond English proficiency. Implications of this study include the use of performance as an alternative professional development resource for the NNESTs.

Key words: critical discourse analysis; critical performative pedagogy; NNEST identity; Korean English teachers

Introduction

Since the very first generation of Korean English teachers were trained at *Yugyeonggongwon*, the first modern public institute for teaching foreign languages in Seoul in the 1880s–1890s (Ahn & Lew, 2017), Korean teachers have been trained in established teacher education programs to serve in public English education classrooms. Since 1945, when the United States (US) started to develop a close relationship with Korea in political, economic, and cultural aspects, the curriculum of English education and teacher education programs in general has also been developed under the US influence (Kwon, 2000). Specifically, the English education curriculum follows the National Curriculum of Korea (National Curriculum Information Center, 2017), which was first established in 1945 and includes both general criteria and specific guidelines for each school level and subject. The English teacher education curriculum has also been designed to prepare pre-service teachers to respond to the national English education curriculum, which has changed over several decades (Sung, 2009). Although the contents of English teacher education curriculum reflect the changing needs of English education in the Korean society, the teacher education curriculum model has remained unchanged for a long time. In some empirical surveys and interviews, many English teachers said that their teacher education program curricula focused on theories (Chang, Jung, & Choi, 2008; Sung, 2009; Yook & Lee, 2016)—an influence of the long-time Asian educational belief informed by the Confucian culture that teachers have the authority to deliver knowledge to students via a top-down method (Han & Scull, 2010). Due to this cultural belief, teachers are required to gain as much knowledge as they can from the teacher training courses.

One particular reason for the theory-oriented English teacher education curriculum is the governmental guide for teacher education related to the national teacher's exam,⁷ which necessitated some type of standard teacher education curricula across the nation (Kwon, 2000). To acquire an English teaching certificate, teacher candidates take a number of credits related to theories or methodologies in teaching English, knowledge on English literature, and linguistics. Then, the national teacher's exam tests teacher candidates' knowledge on the contents from those courses. For example, English teacher candidates must take 50 credits in their major, including 21 credits from among the following subjects (Ministry of Education, 2017):

Theories in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (or Multimedia and English Education); Introduction to English Linguistics; Introduction to English Literature; English Grammar (Teaching English grammar); English Speaking (or Teaching Listening & Speaking in English); English Composition (or Teaching Writing); English Reading (or Teaching Reading); Applied English Phonetics and Phonology; British and American Culture

In addition to courses, teacher candidates are required to complete volunteer teaching I and II (two semesters total) and teaching practicum (four weeks, one semester) before graduation. From this curriculum, it is inferred that the courses are practical in terms of learning English, but not in pedagogies for teachers.

Moreover, the current English teacher curriculum is influenced by native-speakerism (NS) as are many other English as a second language/English as a foreign language (ESL/EFL) settings. NS is generally defined as the "belief that 'native-speaker' teachers represent a

⁷ In Korea, a college graduate who has a national teacher certificate can work at either private or public schools. However, in order to work at public schools, one must pass the teacher's exam relative to his or her specific district.

‘Western culture’ from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of English language teaching methodology” (Holliday, 2005, cited in Holliday, 2006, p. 385). NS raises the issue of marginalization of non-native speakers in classrooms. Holliday (2006) pointed out the problem of native-speakerism as:

the ‘othering’ of students and colleagues from outside the English-speaking West according to essentialist regional or religious cultural stereotypes, especially when they have difficulty with the specific types of active, collaborative, and self-directed ‘learner-centered’ teaching-learning techniques that have frequently been constructed and packaged as superior within the English speaking West. (p. 385)

In relation to NS, the Teaching English in English (TEE) policy also pushed the English teacher education curriculum to focus more on English language skills. As part of the recent English education reform in 2009, the government started recommending that all English teachers teach English lessons in English only in order to increase students’ English input and output in classrooms and improve teachers’ professional skills (Lee, 2017). This policy is also reflected in the national teacher’s exam, as teacher candidates are required to complete their lesson plans and teaching demonstration only in English. Therefore, it is a requirement and burden for teacher candidates to be prepared for TEE in their future teaching. Although there have been continuing debates on the pros and cons of TEE in the Korean classrooms, the English teacher educators and teacher candidates cannot be free of expectations about TEE from many parents and students. Hence, many teacher candidates now spend a lot of time improving their English skills by taking courses for practical English skills in teacher education curriculum and private institutes or teaching themselves in various ways (Choi, 2008; Jee, 2016).

In these contexts, there is no room in teacher education programs for a creative alternative curriculum that draws on teacher candidates' real-world learning and teaching experiences in the Korean educational context. Although some researchers have suggested changes to the teacher education curriculum based on critical pedagogy across the curriculum (Sung, 2007, 2009), it is still limited in its application to the actual curriculum. In addition, the analytic tools for research about the current practices in Korean teacher education and any critical initiatives have been limited to brief short-term surveys, interviews, classroom observations, and narratives that cannot provide in-depth reflection or teacher development (Ahn, 2015; Kim, 2010). To fill this gap, this research was designed to provide teacher candidates with creative professional development that used storytelling, performance, and reflection to support them in critically reflecting on their teacher identities in Korea's particular sociocultural context.

In particular, the reason for focusing on a performance in this initiative was that it would serve as a reflective tool to foster and share collective perceptions about the problems and possible solutions for deficit teacher and student identity in Korea. As a teacher candidate trained in the English teacher education curriculum in Korea in 2004–2009, I realized that the problems in English classrooms are no longer individual problems. I realized that the classroom represents the larger societal discourse in Korea around English education, and I had been looking for the ways teachers could discuss this sufficiently in the teacher education curriculum. In the long-term academic journey related to this issue, I found that performance could be used to open up the discussion from and for the learners and teachers (Harman, Ahn, & Bogue, 2016). This study was designed with the hope that the participants would be able to see the social realities reconstructed through the performances in the classroom setting together and then be able to discuss possible ways of challenging the existing social discourse.

Conceptual Framework

Reflexivity

Although this study did not use real classroom data, the performed classroom was based on the authentic experiences of the participants, who are English learners and student teachers in Korea. The participants needed to look back at their own learning and teaching experiences to find and discuss what meanings were behind the educational scenes, which were not explained in the textbooks. In the process of this work, the concept of reflexivity was applied. Schön (1983) believed that reflection enables professional individuals to increase their self-awareness, develop new knowledge about professional practice, and build a broader understanding of the problems confronting practitioners. Wallace (1991) also developed a reflective model whereby teachers can recall their teaching experience and provide the results of the reflection as input for their future planning and action.

More recently, reflexivity, which extends the critical aspect of reflection, has shed light on understanding the language classroom under the social context. Reflexivity is broadly defined as “a turning back on oneself, a process of self-reference” (Aull Davies, 2008, p. 4). Reflexivity, in terms of critical reflection, “questions scientific objectivity and so-called absolute truths about reality” and “reveals and demystifies power structures” (Byrd Clark & Dervin, 2014, p. 27). Hoskins and Sallah (2011) mentioned that individuals were required to learn “critical thinking towards your own beliefs and actions towards others” (Hoskins & Sallah, 2011, p. 114) for enhancing their intercultural competence. De Costa (2015) also said that a critical reflexive approach deals with social justice, the power issues, and the ethical concerns in language education. In this current study, reflexivity is understood as a conceptual framework for teachers to see their own experiences and themselves in the Korean sociocultural context differently.

Performance

The major data source in this study was from pre-service English teachers' performances. In these performances, the participants played the roles of teachers and students based on their prior experiences. As their learning and teaching experiences are situated in the sociocultural context of Korea, the performed classroom interactions represent the collective perception and lived experiences rather than individual ones. Performance, therefore, provides an interpretive frame where this constitution of identities can be seen and analyzed (Briggs & Bauman, 1992). In fact, some researchers (Finley & Finley, 1998; Garoian, 1999; Saldaña, 2005) have used performance to explore the educational issues. Making the artifacts and sharing them with others facilitated the activism and created continuing dialogue (Finley, 2008). Gallagher (2007) also pointed out that the drama classroom can provide an open space in which students move and express themselves freely.

More specifically, critical performative pedagogy (CPP) is an experimental approach that draws performance as "a kinesthetic, dialogic, and multidimensional process for teacher educators and students to explore social justice issues" (Harman & French, 2004, p. 98). As Freire (1998) emphasized the teacher's role of promoting imagination in everyday classroom, imagination is one key element of CPP (Harman & French, 2004). Harman and French also identified essential elements and potential hurdles of CPP which is a collaborative work by participants in a particular socio-political and historical context. CPP also facilitates self-questioning about positioning, power relations, and privileges of the participants. CPP bares its local socio-political and historical nature, and it needs to be action-oriented on the issues raised through the process. As the facilitators of CPP also participate in everyday activity along with the participants, it is participatory in nature. On the other hand, how critical and collaborative we

are remains questionable. CPP can also step into people's vulnerable zones of emotion, sometimes making it difficult for people to return to their everyday lives. Finally, people can resist engaging in dealing with cultural or political hegemony (Harman & French, 2004, pp. 108-109). Harman and her colleagues have developed and practiced CPP in the US multicultural context for more than 10 years (e.g., Harman et al., 2016; Harman & French, 2004; Harman & Varga-Dobai, 2012; Harman & Zhang, 2015). Other researchers (Cahnmann-Taylor & Souto-Manning, 2010; Rymes, Cahnmann-Taylor, & Souto-Manning, 2008; Souto-Manning, 2011) also implemented similar models of CPP in their teacher education curricula in the US.

Literature Review

Teacher Identities

Norton defined identity as “how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is structured across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future” (Norton, 2013, p. 45). Other researchers also contributed to the development of a new understanding of identity from the poststructuralist perspective, which has two characteristics. First, identity is not singular or unitary but plural; a person has multiple identities, or identity facets (Cummins, 2001, p. 191). Furthermore, identity is dynamic rather than stable, making it a constantly evolving phenomenon (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009, p. 177). Second, language teacher identity is understood “in relation to discursive, social, cultural, and institutional matters” (Miller, 2009, p. 175). That is, a person's identities are based on his or her relation to the sociocultural contexts, which have the potential to be constantly changed.

On fluid teacher identities, especially of those generally called NNEST, several empirical studies have been conducted. Pavlenko (2003) examined imagined professional and linguistic communities available to ESL/EFL teachers in narratives of their own learning and

teaching experiences by using an autobiographic method. A newly introduced concept of multicompetence in a TESOL course allowed the participants to reconceptualize themselves as multicompetent and bilingual speakers in an imagined community rather than illegitimate speakers in the NS/NNS dichotomy. Zacharias (2010) also explored the construction of teacher identities through a narrative analysis of 12 EFL teachers in an American TESOL program. The narrative analysis from the data, including individual and focus group interviews, curriculum vita, and classroom assignments, indicated that linguistic identities (i.e. NS/NNS) continue to be central in the NNEs identity construction, while teacher identities can shift through responding to reading and discussion on critical pedagogy. Aneja (2016) explored how pre-service teachers negotiate and (re)invent their own identity positions in ways that both reify and resist dichotomized notions of nativeness and nonnativeness.

In addition, regarding fluid teacher identities of Korean English teachers, several research studies have recently been conducted. Kim (2011) examined how NNEs' identities were affected by the NS ideology within the intersections of power, language, culture, and race. The study showed that NNEs were influenced by the ideology of native-speakerism, leading to low professional self-esteem. Song (2016) presented five Korean English teachers' conflicted stories, such as cover and secret stories related to study abroad returnee students in their classrooms. These stories were analyzed in relation to teachers' emotional experiences of vulnerability to examine how vulnerability affects teachers' orientations to their ongoing professional development. These stories from teachers attested to the idea that Korean English teachers are under great pressure from their students and society to be like native-like speaking teachers. Moreover, Kim (2017) demonstrated how the identity of a Korean NNE was continuously negotiated and resituated according to how she positioned herself and how she

perceived others positioned her in educational and social contexts. The findings showed how a NNEST's self-image as an English language teacher can be transformed by participation in critical practices. Jee (2016) conducted autoethnographic research that critically reviewed the ideal of NS teachers in Korean society. She pointed out that her belief about NS is socially constructed, and the society's demand for learning English should be reconsidered in terms of multicompetency. Yang and Bautista (2008) presented an arts-based reflective research that explored a Korean English teacher's identity transformation through letter writing, which includes the responses to other artists' quests for identity as depicted in their work. They found that letter writing could be used as a reflective tool for navigating English teachers' identities.

Although recent research (Jee, 2016; Kim, 2011, 2017; Song, 2016; Yang & Bautista, 2008) has reflected the needs of research on Korean English teacher identities from the poststructuralist perspective, there is still a gap between the research and actual teacher education curricula. Kim (2011) and Song (2016) collected teachers' perceptions on their identities and emotions largely based on short interviews. In Kim (2017), the researcher used two group sessions for drawings and watching several movie clips related to NNEST and World Englishes. Jee (2016) conducted autobiographic research, which heavily relied on the researcher's own narratives related to a critical life event. Yang and Bautista's (2008) research was mainly based on one teacher's own teaching experiences and understanding about the artists' work. In this sense, most research was designed mainly for the research itself. However, this current research was designed for a one-semester program including 13 group sessions and additional individual sessions. During the sessions, the participants could constantly revisit their learning and teaching experiences through interviews, written narratives, the telling and retelling of stories, performance of a forum theatre, critical discourse analysis, written self-reflections, and group

discussions. In addition, during the workshops, participants could think of how to apply what they have done to their future classrooms or teacher preparation. Thus, participants learned how to become teacher-researchers from this research who could “initiate and enhance their research skills as a natural extension of the teaching practice” (Burns, 1999, p. 15). The English teacher education curriculum should provide teacher candidates with more varied formats to explore their own teacher identities in understanding particular social contexts.

Methodology

Research Site

The research site of this study was the English education department in a college of education in a prestigious national university in Seoul, Korea. As most teacher education programs do, this school’s program also followed the governmental guide for teacher education curriculum. All teacher candidates must complete 50 credits in their major as well as volunteer teaching for two semesters and a teaching practicum for one month of their senior year. In addition to the official curriculum, students could join freely and do some extracurricular activities in the department. When I was searching for possible participants, I noticed that some students had joined one study group to discuss educational issues every week. Since my research could not be done through the official department curriculum, I thought that my professional development initiative could be done through extracurricular activities such as this study group.

In addition, I attended this university as an undergraduate and graduate student and worked as a department assistant before coming to the United States. Therefore, I had a good understanding of the department’s curriculum, faculty, extracurricular activities, students, and school facilities. Thanks to this familiarity, I could design this research that would additionally

support the students in the department, especially those who wanted to become English teachers in the near future.

Participants

To recruit participants, I adopted the snowball sampling method (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981), in which the researchers start recruiting study subjects through personal contact or through information and then follow the resulting chain. First, I contacted a leader of the study group in the department in late August 2016, once the study had been approved by the school IRB and department chair. I explained the purpose of study, workshop plans, and compensation for the study to her. Next, she delivered my study plan to all other group members and asked if any of them wanted to participate in the study. The decision was solely up to individual group member, without any pressure. Ultimately, four participants showed interest in participating, and I met them in person to explain more details about the purpose of the study, workshop plans, and compensation for the study. They were all students who wanted to become English teachers in the near future, so they were willing to spend their extra time after school for teacher development. In other words, they agreed with the needs of alternative teacher education workshops using their extracurricular time.

The participants of this study included four student teachers majoring in English education. Three of them (Lime, Alice, and Oscar, which are pseudonyms) were juniors while the fourth one (Arnold, a pseudonym) was a sophomore. All were planning to become English teachers in the near future, while planning to continue to study at graduate schools in English education, psychology, or philosophy. Although they had not yet completed student teaching, which was usually required of seniors, they had done at least one semester of volunteer teaching in public middle or high schools. In addition, all of them had experienced private English

tutoring on a part-time basis. Moreover, the four of them were very close friends and had actively led the study group in the department. For this particular research project, they named their group “SVOC,” which stands for Skinner, Vygotsky, Osgood, and Chomsky as well as an English sentence structure including the subject, verb, object, and complement. This naming and their activities in the department suggested that these pre-service teachers were intellectually very curious and motivated about learning new theoretical or practical knowledge to become good teachers.

Data Collection and Analysis

This research used an ethnographic approach to explore culture through participant observation at the research site. The ethnographic approach involves “ongoing regular contact and some degree of participation by the researcher in the (sub)culture being studied” aiming to “understand that way of life as group members understand it themselves” (Cameron, 2001, p. 54). This approach was selected for this study since I shared similar English learning and teaching experiences with the participants and was willing to hear about the participants’ understanding on discourse around English education in the Korean social context and their identities from their living experiences. To draw on their living experiences, the study followed a cyclic and reflexive process of collecting and analyzing the data.

More specifically, the data were generated by following the principles and design of CPP. Based on CPP, I designed a CPP data collection cycle targeting Korean English pre-service teachers (Figure 3.1). It included diverse individual and group activities, such as interviews, writing chronicles of English learning, narrative writing, storytelling, theatre games, story retelling, performances of story, critical discourse analysis of performance, and group

discussions. Between the activities, the participants were also asked to write reflections on how they perceived the critical issues and their teacher identities during each activity.

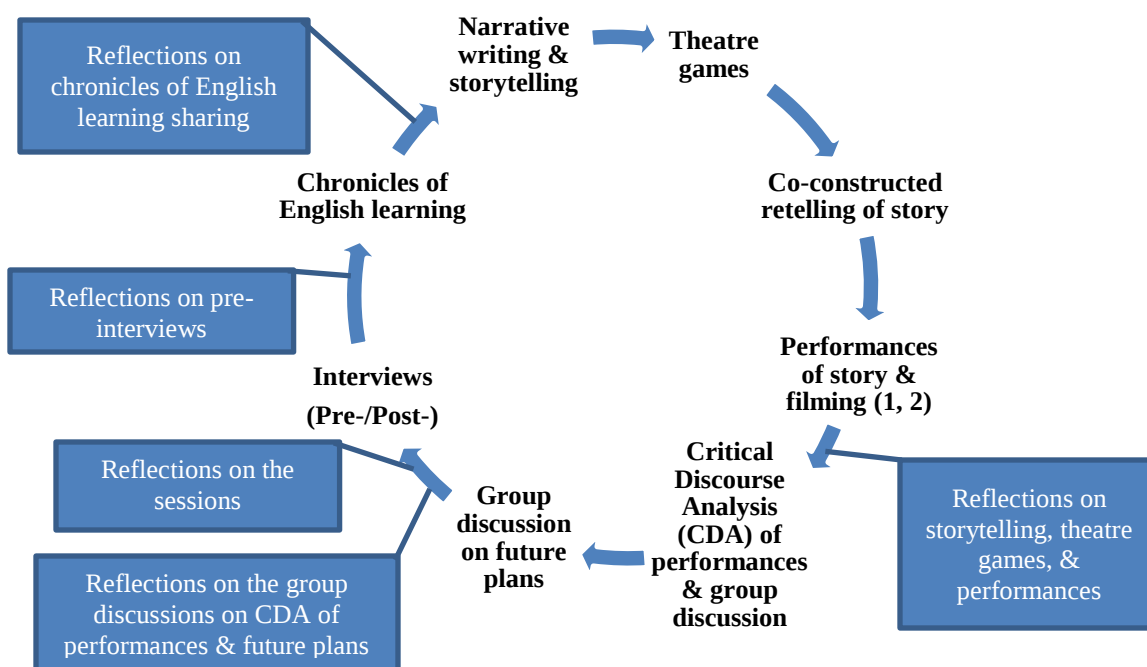


Figure 3.1. Data collection cycle

(Adapted from Harman, Ahn, & Bogue, 2016; Harman & Zhang, 2015)

As it is a cyclic and reflexive approach, all the activities and collected data are connected to each other. For example, the participants began to think about the history of their English learning and teaching experiences when they were asked some background questions by the researcher. They then drew the chronicles of English learning and compared them to each other's chronicles. The chronicle of English learning, adapted from Jo (2016), allows participants to remind themselves of overall previous learning experiences. Among the experiences in the chronicle, each participant began focusing on one critical event or moment. By sharing their stories in a group, they began developing a community. In addition, they had a chance to use verbal, actional, and visual modalities to present their ideas and feelings, which are called

“theatre games” (Boal, 1979). Next, they prepared to film the performances, which included a reconstructed and collective storyline from all four participants. The performances were based on Forum Theatre, a kind of Boal’s (1979) Theatre of the Oppressed, which deals with social equity issues from the characters’ authentic experiences. There is also a “spect-actor” role that does not exist in the traditional performance. According to Boal, “the spectator is transformed into a protagonist in the action, a spect-actor, without ever being aware of it” (Boal, 1995, p. 17). Due to the spect-actor role, there is no separation between the actors and audience in Forum Theatre. After the performances, all participants had an opportunity to transcribe the performances and discuss the issues related to teacher and student identities in the performed English classrooms. They also discussed their future classrooms and plans. Finally, during individual reflections and interviews, they shared their thoughts about how fluid teacher identities have been explored through the workshops.

The data analysis had two phases. In the first phase, all the data were analyzed using a thematic analysis (Creswell, 2003), which is a general method to analyze the contents of qualitative research data. I read the written data (chronicles of English learning, narratives, individual reflections) and transcribed spoken data (discussions, storytelling, interviews) to develop the themes. The data were categorized into big themes, such as social discourse around English education in Korea, NNEST identities, and reflection of the CPP workshops. The sub-themes were also developed according to their importance in the data. The sub-themes included NS norm in the classroom, marginalization of NNS, deficit NNEST teacher identities, and teacher qualifications beyond English proficiency.

In the second phase, the transcripts of performances were analyzed through critical discourse analysis (CDA), “a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way

social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context” (van Dijk, 2003, p. 352). In other words, CDA tries to explore the hidden meaning of our language use in the given social contexts. Within this framework, this study draws on the interactional sociolinguistics (IS) approach, which is about “how people use language and other systems of communication in constructing language and literacy events in classrooms with attention to social, cultural, and political processes” (Bloome, Carter, Christian, Otto, & Shuart-Faris, 2005, p. xv). Here, other systems of communication include intonation, pitch, stress, pause, hesitation, speed, and volume, which Gumperz (1982) called contextualization cues. Switching to a different language, dialect, style, or register is also included an analysis of contextualization cues. These contextualization cues contribute to the delivery of complex information about the speaker’s intention in the message, and they are very important and systematic in making meaning of spoken discourse as they are usually enacted by the speakers without awareness (Cameron, 2001). Following the IS approach, I tried to analyze the use of language and contextualization cues performed by the participants in their performances of the English classroom.

Findings

Discussions and Performances Highlight the Problem of English Fever in Classroom Discourse

Native speaker’s norm in the classroom interaction

My thematic analysis of the lived experiences of the four pre-service teachers over the course of five months revealed that the participants see NS norm as pervasive in the Korean English classroom. In the interviews, group discussions, and written reflections, the participants shared the anecdotes related to it. For example, in his reflection on storytelling, Arnold related the term linguistic imperialism (Phillipson, 1992), which he had learned from a course, to the

commercial phrases used in the media or bookstores: “You can speak like a native speaker.” All participants agreed that such a phrase was commonly used and acceptable in Korea. Also, he pointed out that only American or British speakers were considered native speakers. He felt that the concept of World Englishes (Brutt-Griffler, 2002) was only discussed among the scholars, not accepted by the public in the larger Korean society. Similarly, in the discussion after the performances, Lime said that the more English someone learns, the more eager they are to be seen as a native-like speaker. Oscar added that we are always conscious of other people’s perceptions in Korean culture and evaluated each other based on one standard. In this sense, when we learn English, many people think that we should have one standard: standard English. Here, standard English in Korea generally means American English, not other Englishes.

In the first performance, Lime and Oscar enacted the role of students who have lived in the US and have good English proficiency, while Arnold was constructed as a student who had never lived abroad and lacked English proficiency. As mentioned earlier, this performance was enacted after several sessions of discussing the critical issues from their learning and teaching experiences in their middle school, high school, and college days, which are also connected to social discourse around English education. As a result of the popularity of study abroad, even for very young children, among Korean parents, several students have experienced living abroad in many English classrooms; teachers have to deal with these students (Song, 2016). Of course, many of the other students and teachers learn and teach English only in Korea. Given this context, this performance showed a group activity that deals with making and practicing a dialogue about the imaginary situation of being in the US. This has been a very common activity in every English lesson since the national curriculum adopted communicative language teaching (CLT) as a major English education reform in the 1990s (Lee, 2011). When I asked them to

create a scenario for group activity, the participants immediately started thinking about making a dialogue for ordering food at a famous fast food place in the US.



Figure 3.2. The scene from group activity in performance 1

(Oscar, Lime, and Arnold, from left)

Figure 3.2 shows the scene from a group activity in the first performance. At this point, Oscar and Lime led a group conversation while Arnold was marginalized. Arnold found it hard to participate in the conversation because of his lack of English proficiency and, importantly, his lack of US cultural knowledge. The specific conversation in this scene is shown in Excerpt 1.

Excerpt 1

37 L: Um (3) We::ll so:: (..) what about (..) we make a dialogue about ordering food at (..) a fast
38 food place?

39 O: That's good.

40 L: Yeah

41 O: Um, how about IN-N-OUT?=
42 L: =(giving a gasp, with a big smile) (with her hands on her chest) ↑Oh my go::sh=

43 O: = Do you know? Have you ev (.) have (.) have you ever been there?

44 L: I lo::ved it when I was in California=

45 O: =Yeah

46 L: =like, (with an exaggerated gesture) they serve the **best** burgers and **best** french fries(..) **in**

- 47 **the wo::rld**
- 48 O: (*making a big smile*) Yeah, **super** duper good.=
- 49 L: =yeah (*making a big smile*)
- 50 O: [so (.) I]
- 51 L: [I love the place] (*touching her hair*)
- 52 O: Okay. [Let's choose this one]

Here, Lime and Oscar showed great enthusiasm in creating a scene about a well-known fast food restaurant, IN-N-OUT. Through gestures, emphasis, and lengthened syllables, Lime showed how excited she was and how her identity was one of an insider American. Line 42, where she used “↑**Oh my go::sh=**,” Line 44 “**I lo::ved**,” and Lines 46 and 47 “**in the wo::rld**” indicate to a Korean audience that she is filled with English fever. In Lime 48, where Oscar agreed with Lime by saying with a big smile “Yeah, **super** duper good.=”—emphasizing “super”—shows that Oscar also has a similar attitude toward American culture as Lime.

Therefore, from this excerpt, we can assume that someone who knows American culture better than others feels more confident in their English learning than others who do not know it. In fact, as only people who have experienced living in America know specific restaurants like IN-N-OUT in this scene, this excerpt implies that not every student can get such cultural knowledge. Only a limited number of students whose parents can afford to take their kids to America can enjoy such American cultural authority in the classroom. Consequently, students and teachers who have never experienced living abroad can feel deficit and marginalized (Song, 2016). The next two examples are about the marginalization of those students and teachers.

Marginalization of Korean English learners

As Holliday (2006) pointed out in a discussion of the othering of people from outside the English-speaking West, the NS norm can lead to the marginalization of some students and teachers

in the classroom. In fact, such gaps or the marginalization of some students in English classes is not new. In storytelling, Oscar shared his voluntary teaching experience at a local library during high school, when he realized the English gap existed even among elementary students. Although he prepared his class thoroughly, some students did not even know the English alphabet. At the same time, other students were very good at English. In other words, they were sitting in the same class. Oscar confessed that he had a hard time dealing with that unexpected situation and processing the class.

The problem of such a gap in the English classes was related to not only how to teach, but also how to reduce the marginalization of students without study abroad experience. In fact, it cannot be resolved easily because of the evaluative Korean classroom atmosphere. In the Korean classroom, the teachers tend to evaluate the students, and the students tend to evaluate other students. For example, Lime talked about her experience with her high school classmates. The students asked each other about their scores in English, particularly English conversation. They had assumptions about their English proficiency and treated each other based on their assumed proficiency levels. Lime said it was very obvious that students judged other classmates.

Similarly, Arnold shared his experience with his English teacher in high school. When the teacher asked Arnold to read some paragraphs from the textbook, the teacher said that his pronunciation and intonation were weird. The teacher also compared Arnold's pronunciation with that of his classmate who had lived in England. Arnold said that his confidence became very low at that time due to such a competitive atmosphere in English classes.

Based on these living experiences, they enacted this scene in their performance. In the first performance, Arnold, Lime, and Oscar were acting out a scene in which they were assigned

to work together as a group. When Arnold joined the group, the performed responses from Lime and Oscar marginalized Arnold in the group.



Figure 3.3. The scene prior to the group activity in performance 1

(Oscar, Lime, and Arnold, from left)

As seen in Figure 3.3, Oscar and Lime played out a private conversation before they actually started the group activity. They talked about their evaluation of Arnold's English skills and said he would be unhelpful for the competition with other teams. In this scene, their evaluation is based only on English skills.

Excerpt 2

- 19 O: (*While Arnold is sitting, Oscar points at Arnold*) So, Arnold is (3) in our team, right?
- 20 L: (*Looking at Arnold*) You are (3) (*pointing to herself*) in our team?
- 21 AR: Yeah, (*stretching his hands and making a clap, with a smile on his face*) we are team!
- 22 L: (*Lime looks annoyed and puts down her pencil case on the desk. And then covering one*
- 23 *side of her face with a piece of paper to hide their conversation from Arnold*) (*in a whisper*)
- 24 Oh my gosh, he **sucks** at English.
- 25 O: (*Shakes his head*)
- 26 L: (*with a clicking sound of a pen*) uh we won't do uh (...)
- 27 O: (*covering his mouth with a piece of paper as well*) Honestly speaking (.) with his level of
- 28 English proficiency (.) he's not eligible for (..) ou::r (*with a hand gesture*) **team**.

- 29 L: yeah (*flipping her hand*) we are not going to make the **top** tea::ms. Ha:: (*flipping her hand*)
- 30 what should we do? Like he (..) (*making annoying face*) ahhh
- 31 A: (*Scratches his face and just watches Oscar and Lime having conversation*)
- 32 O: yeah he might be an obstacle to=
- 33 L: =Yeah

In Excerpt 2, in Lines 19 and 20, Oscar and Lime showed a reluctance to work with Arnold by having three-second pause for each line. In Line 22, Lime showed more explicit contextualization cues, such as an annoyed facial expression and the action of putting down her pencil case on the desk. Moreover, Lime told Oscar in a whisper that Arnold “**sucks** at English,” with an emphasis on “sucks,” in Line 24. Of course, because it exhibits a rude attitude to talk directly to Arnold, they keep speaking in a whisper. In Line 28, Oscar made a judgment, saying that Arnold “is not eligible for (..) ou::r (with a hand gesture) **team**.” Similarly, in Line 29, Lime agreed with Oscar that “we are not going to make the **top** tea::ms.” In this line, Lime again made an annoyed face when she was talking. Here, the reason why Oscar and Lime emphasized “team” and “top” was that they were being evaluated based on their group work. The competition among individuals or groups in Korean educational context is very common. In this context, they could naturally complain about the possible “obstacle” like Arnold in this scene for their group work. Arnold, in fact, was marginalized just because of his lack of English skills. His other intelligence, knowledge, experiences, characteristics, or attitudes were not considered in this scene.

Korean English teachers’ deficit identity

The marginalization of NS norm is not limited to students. Indeed, as identities are co-constructed in classroom discourse, the social and professional identities of students and teachers interact in a dialectic relationship. The NNEST is not free from the NS norm, but in general has

internalized this hegemonic relationship to English. Throughout the professional development sessions, the four participants shared testimonials about how they had a deficit teacher identity. For example, Alice wrote about her deficit teacher and student identity in her reflection on chronicles about English learning. At this same time, she problematized why she should feel deficit although she did her best all the time to learn English throughout her school curricula. She thought that the reason was the abnormally high expectation from the larger Korean society. She said that she was forced to become a “global elite” by high school, and she was forced to be a native-like speaker by society, particularly because she was an English education major.

Moreover, Oscar shared his concerns about the legitimacy of English teachers in the Korean educational context. In the pre-interview, he said that he knows he will never be a native speaker, and he was doubtful if he could become a confident English teacher for his students, even if he would pass the teacher’s exam and become a teacher. Due to this concern, he said that he would like to continue to study English by going to study abroad and attending graduate school. He said that English learning was endless and hard to master. He understood that his students would also feel the same way about learning English, so he wanted to continue his English learning as a learner just the same as his future students. At this moment, he felt more like an English learner than a teacher. He said that he would keep reading English books or other materials as a way of learning English. In fact, this has been a constant issue for many in-service Korean English teachers as well. Most in-service Korean English teachers think they need and spend a lot of time on their English learning in this way (Jee, 2016). Therefore, many online and offline courses for English skills are provided for the in-service teachers. Indeed, the national curriculum reflects the focus, given that the English teacher education courses are mostly about learning English and not on the pedagogical design of English classroom instruction. However,

foreign language teacher education could be different from other teacher education (e.g. history, math, science), where the focus is on very deep knowledge of the subject matter.

The last scene of the first performance highlighted the teacher's deficit identity issue clearly. In this scene of the after-class time, Arnold acted as a student who met Alice, playing the teacher's role, to talk about his difficulty in doing the group activity.



Figure 3.4. The scene of a conversation after class in performance 1

(Alice and Arnold, from left)

In this scene (Figure 3.4), Arnold played the role of a student expecting to get some helpful advice from the teacher, Alice; however, she did not give helpful feedback to Arnold. The specific lines from their conversation are shown in Excerpt 3.

Excerpt 3

254 AR: (*heading to the teacher*) Teacher

255 AL: Oh, ↑ hi, Dokyung.

256 O: (*heard from the background*) He didn't make [any contribution of discussion]

257 AR: [Uh (..) I (..)] actually (..) I had hard time taking this class.

258 AL: (*looking at Arnold*) Uh-hum

259 AR: (*making some gestures with his hands*) I'm good at reading and writing (..) but (..) I'm not
260 good at speaking.

261 AL: hum (*crossing her arms*)

- 262 AR: But they (..) Lime and Oscar (.) say so fast. They are good at speaking too. And so:: uh::
- 263 it is quite hard to listen (.) exactly ↑ and (..) uh:: it is also hard to understand what they mean
- 264 AL: (*Looks at her watch and looks at Arnold again*)
- 265 AR: For example (.) IN-N-OUT or tips (..) It's quite hard and I (..) don't understand well (..)
- 266 How can I (...)
- 267 AL: (*crossing one arm and looking at a paper held in the other hand*) Okay:: I know
- 268 you have a problem. But you know they have been abroad for such a **lo::ng** time and (.) so
- 269 (*looking at a paper*) they know much uh:: (*looking at a paper again*) they know much about
- 270 the cultural things. Right? (*crossing her arms again*) So:: I'm sorry but I cannot help
- 271 you anything.
- 272 AR: Uh:: ↓
- 273 AL: And I'm so busy so:: (*looking at her watch again*) see you later (*shaking her hand*) bye
- 274 (*leaving Arnold*)
- 275 AR: (*bowing to Alice*) Thank you ↓ (*Arnold walks out*)

From the many hesitations, such as “uh” and pauses in Lines 257, 259, 262, 263, and 265, it is inferred that Arnold needed courage to talk about his difficulty with his teacher. However, the teacher did not show active gestures to give feedback to Arnold. She crossed her arms in Lines 227 and 231. She also looked at her watch or paper several times when Arnold was talking to her in Lines 267 and 270. All of these postures showed her reluctance to listen to or help the student. Her answer also seemed that she gave her authority on English language and culture to other students who knew more about cultural things, when she said, “they have been abroad for such a **lo::ng** time and, so (*looking at a paper*) they know much, uh::, (*looking at a paper again*) they know much about the cultural things. Right?” in Lines 268, 269, and 270. She finally gave up being a supportive teacher for him by saying “So:: I’m sorry but I cannot help

you anything.” in Lines 270 and 271. From this excerpt, it is obvious that the teacher positioned herself as a deficit English teacher who cannot give enough knowledge to her student. Also, this is similar to a Korean teacher from Song (2016) and a Chinese English teacher from Harman and Zhang (2015). The teachers in these studies experienced an emotional conflict when they felt lack of knowledge about English language and culture while they were supposed to know everything as a teacher and give perfect answers to students. This is not limited to some of Korean English teachers, but applies to many Korean English teachers.

Korean English Pre-service Teachers’ Reframing of the Existing Discourse

Adoption of World Englishes

In this study, the workshops were designed to help the pre-service teachers not only become critically aware of their existing discourse, but also challenge the discourse. Throughout the workshops, they came to think of the concept of World Englishes when they enacted scenes about having to be a native speaker. All participants learned the concept of World Englishes from their major courses in college, and they wanted to introduce and apply this concept to their future students. As an example, the first scene of the second performance included a teacher’s introduction to the group activity for students (Figure 3.5).



Figure 3.5. The scene of a teacher’s introduction in performance 2
(Arnold, Lime, Alice, and Oscar, from left)

In this second performance, the participants tried to tackle the problems identified in the first performance. As the role-playing students in the first performance felt very competitive about their group work, they marginalized a student based on his English skills. Therefore, this time, one performer who adopted the student's role wanted to change his role to that of a teacher. He wanted to clearly state that the focus of this group activity was not about English proficiency. In fact, this new teacher role was performed by a spect-actor (Boal, 1979). As a spect-actor, Oscar stopped the scene and went up to the front of the room to take on the role of teacher instead of another performer, Alice. Alice took the student's role instead of the teacher's role after that.

In this introduction, the performer Oscar in the teacher's role encouraged the students to speak English without fear several times: "you don't have to feel **burden** or you don't have to feel **restless** or nervous." To make the students feel confident, the teacher also tried to adopt the concept of World Englishes by saying "there is no **one wa::y** to speak English" or "there's no **perfect** English." By stating this explicitly, the teacher could encourage students to feel confident as non-native English speakers.

Throughout the workshops, the participants said that they could feel free from the NS norm or high expectation about English teachers in Korean society. In the reflection after the performances, Oscar—who was a spect-actor in the second performance—testified that the biggest change for him during the professional development sessions was that he was finally set free from his obsession about being a native-like speaker. Also, he came to think that speaking like a native speaker is not the only qualification for English teachers. Indeed, in the second performance, he stated "there's no **perfect** English," which resonated not only with his students, but also with himself as an English teacher.

Teacher qualifications beyond English proficiency

Although the participants were obsessed by the ideal of a native English-speaking teacher, they came to think of the other qualifications for being a good English teacher during these professional development sessions. They identified two key teacher qualifications.

Frist, teachers can be the best scaffold for students' learning. The teachers can become a scaffold for the students rather than be an evaluator of their products. For example, in the second performance, Oscar, as the teacher, decided to give supplementary material about American culture (e.g., the burger place IN-N-OUT) to Arnold before their group activity began. Oscar wanted to help Arnold, who might be marginalized by other students, who were study abroad returnees in the group activity role-playing. Oscar's action actually made a huge change in the role-playing group's conversation. Arnold introduced their group activity to the other group members by saying, "according to this paper uh (.) we are (...) we are going to take a trip to USA?" and "And we are in the situation of ordering (··) burgers and ↑ (..) burgers in IN-N-OUT a burger place." When he told this to Alice and Lime, they showed interest in and respect for the information by responding with "Uh huh ↑" and "Ah:::". They did not marginalize Arnold because they needed information from the materials that Arnold had received from the teacher. Such an interaction did not happen in the first performance.

In fact, after the performances, the participants discussed this issue more deeply. Oscar said that the teacher needed to consider different students' status in group activities. If not, students would not be satisfied with their group activities. Lime shared her experience of studying English on her own for a long time. She said that there was always her parents' help for her English self-study. Her parents were not English teachers, but tried to help her develop her own learning styles and strategies. She said that she wanted to help her future students become

better people from their own learning processes, just as her parents had done for her. She explicitly said that she wanted to be a scaffold or aid for each student and the whole class in the future.

Second, teachers can be the best encouragers for students. The participants discussed how teachers can encourage students in classrooms. In the second performance, at the end of the class, Arnold, who played the student role, approached Oscar, the teacher, in a similar way as he did in the first performance (Figure 3.6).



Figure 3.6. The scene of an after-class conversation in performance 2

(Arnold and Oscar, from left)

Unlike the first performance, when Arnold talked about his difficulty in the group work and asked for the teacher's help to improve his English skills, here Oscar the teacher tried to give more helpful advice to him in the second performance. First, the teacher tried to understand Arnold's situation, saying "We::ll (..) it's very hard." Then, he again emphasized the concept of World Englishes: "as I said there's no **one wa::y** to: uh speak English." In this sense, Arnold's English was not bad. The teacher responded by saying "So:: I think you're very good at English at at the moment and (..) you did (..) you've done your **best** so you are very **good**." He emphasized the words "best" and "good" here. Furthermore, the teacher added more encouraging comments, like "you don't have to feel less confident about it." After that, Oscar smiled at

Arnold. Smile was one of the contextualization cues Oscar used to show positivity and a willingness to help Arnold.

This scene was also based on the participants' real experiences. For example, in her reflection on the performances, Lime said that she thought the mean students in the first performance did such behaviors just because society gave an authority of native-likeness to those students who have lived abroad. However, from acting and reflecting on the second performance, Lime realized that it was mainly because of the teacher's position in the classroom. She said that the teacher should have been a person who can give a definition of English and the goal of English learning to students in the classroom. After the performances, Oscar also shared his experience of getting encouragement from one of his English conversation professors in college. In the one-on-one meeting with her, Oscar expressed his concern that he was not confident speaking in English in class. The teacher showed great understanding by saying that learning a foreign language was very hard. Oscar said that he never forgot this encouragement whenever he felt discouraged. Also, he came to think that this was one important thing he would be able to do as an English teacher for his students in the future. Oscar's experience was well-reflected in his actions in the very last scene of the second performance, when he tried to give helpful advice to Arnold.

Conclusion

This study confirms that the enacted classroom interaction represents the social discourse of English education in South Korea under the impact of native-speakerism. The analysis shows how the Korean NNESTs faced problems pertaining to classroom interactions that produce marginalized English learners and deficit English teacher identities. This is in line with the findings from previous research (Jee, 2016; Kim 2011; Song, 2016). The analysis also

showed how the Korean NNESTs could reframe the existing classroom discourse by adopting the concept of World Englishes and teacher qualifications beyond English proficiency. This is also a similar finding from the previous research (Aneja, 2016; Kim, 2017; Pavlenko, 2003).

This study supports a new understanding of pre-service NNEST identities, especially how teacher identities have been positioned in the given social and political contexts (Miller, 2009). The particular contexts of Korean education, such as teachers' authority and expectations about teachers as masters of knowledge as well as nationwide competition among students, were combined with the ideology of native-speakerism. As a result, the marginalization of NNEST teachers and students without study abroad experiences was found in the enacted classroom. This situation resonated in the reflective narratives of Korean English teachers in Song (2016). However, this study also helped the enacted NNEST find the ways to reframe the existing discourse by performing the problematic situation in a different way. In particular, the CPP process including the Forum Theatre provided a powerful tool for the NNESTs to be liberated from the social pressure of being a perfect teacher from both the NS and Korean traditional views. The Forum Theatre also allowed participants to open up their own problematic learning and teaching experiences and deal with the solutions by performing together. This has not been considered important in traditional English teacher education curriculum in Korea. In this sense, this study shows the potential of CPP that can be integrated into future teacher education curriculum in Korea.

Arnold, however, raised one possible limitation of this participating group while reflecting on the whole series of professional development sessions. He said that the four participants shared different views and thoughts with one another, but they also often found a common ground. In fact, they were all academic elites in their school days, and they had been

educated in the most prestigious national university in Korea. By referring to Bourdieu's concept of "habitus," Arnold said that the discussions, previous experiences, and imagination about future English classrooms were based on their habitus of educational elites in Korean society. For example, none of the participants had any problem writing their own stories or doing two performances in English, which requires quite an advanced level of English proficiency. Arnold said that it must not have been a coincidence that the imagined context of the classroom in their performances was also based on an advanced level classroom in high school. Arnold also recalled Alice's story that she shared during one of the workshops. Alice said that she had volunteered to do tutoring at a high school in a relatively low socioeconomic area in order to meet some students who might not be able to get help from any mentors. However, contrary to her expectations, she was asked by the school teacher to mentor the smartest kids in that school. Ultimately, Arnold voiced his concern that his expectations about students or classrooms would be quite different from the actual students or classrooms in the future.

This could actually be the concern of many educators as well. Expectations could be different from reality. The teachers' community could be homogeneous rather than diverse even though their learning and teaching backgrounds are different. In most cases, qualified teachers are successful learners in their educational journey. For that reason, this kind of series of workshops should be provided for more educators not only locally, but also nationally and internationally. From such open spaces or conferences, the educators would at least realize that their views about their experiences as well as their expectations are limited by societal ideologies. By expanding their concept of community, they might be able to make small changes in their own views and practices.

References

- Ahn, K. (2015). An analysis of articles on teacher education in English Teaching. *English Teaching*, 70(5), 161-192.
- Ahn, S., & Lew, S. (2017). Native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) in Korea: Voices from two NESTs and one Korean English teacher. *Korean Journal of Teacher Education*, 33(2), 89-119.
- Aneja, G. A. (2016). (Non)native speakerhood: Rethinking (Non)nativeness and teacher identity in TESOL teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 50(3), 572-596.
- Aull Davies, C. (2008). *Reflexive ethnography: A guide to researching selves and others*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Briggs, C., & Bauman, R. (1992). Genre, intertextuality, and social power. *Journal of Linguistic Anthropology*, 2(2), 131-172.
- Beauchamp, C., & Thomas, L. (2009). Understanding teacher identity: An overview of issues in the literature and implications for teacher education. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 39(2), 175-189.
- Biernacki, P., & Waldorf D. (1981). Snowball sampling: Problems and techniques of chain referral sampling. *Sociological Methods and Research*, 10, 141-163.
- Bloome, D., Carter, S. P., Christian, B. M., Otto, S., & Shuart-Faris, N. (2005). *Discourse analysis and the study of classroom language and literacy events: A microethnographic perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Boal, A. (1979). *Theatre of the oppressed*. New York, NY: Theatre Communication Group.
- Boal, A. (1995). *The Rainbow of desire: The Boal method of theatre and therapy*. London, England: Routledge.

- Brutt-Griffler, J. (2002). *World Englishes: A study of its development*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Burns, A. (1999). *Collaborative action research for English language teachers*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Byrd Clark, J. S., & Dervin, F. (2014). Introduction. In J. S. Byrd Clark & F. Dervin (Eds.), *Reflexivity in language and intercultural education* (pp. 1-42). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Cahnmann-Taylor, M., & Souto-Manning, M. (2010). *Teachers act up! Creating multicultural learning communities through theatre*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Cameron, D. (2001). *Working with spoken discourse*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Chang, K., Jung, K., & Choi, B. (2008). A study on the curriculum for training pre-service secondary English teachers. *English Language Teaching*, 20(2), 213-241.
- Choi, K.-H. (2008). Can a non-native speaking teacher become a good English teacher in an EFL setting? *Secondary English Education*, 1(2), 131-141.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Cummins, J. (2001). *Negotiating identities: Education for empowerment in a diverse society* (2nd ed.). Ontario, CA: California Association of Bilingual Education.
- De Costa, P. (2015). Teaching reflexivity through a narrative and identity lens. In Y. L. Cheung, S. B. Said, & K. Park (Eds.), *Advances and current trends in language teacher identity research* (pp. 135-147). New York, NY: Routledge.

- Finley, S. (2008). Arts-based research. In A. Cole & J. G. Knowles (Eds.), *Handbook of the arts in qualitative research: Perspectives, methodologies, examples, and issues* (pp. 71-81). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Finley, S., & Finley, M. (April, 1998). *Traveling through the cracks: Homeless youth speak out*. Paper presentation at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego, CA.
- Freire, P. (1998). *Teachers as cultural workers: Letters to those who dare teach*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Gallagher, K. (2007). *The theatre of urban: Youth and schooling in dangerous times*. Toronto, Canada: University of Toronto Press.
- Garoian, C. R. (1999). *Performing pedagogy: Toward an art of politics*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Gumperz, J. (1982). *Discourse strategies*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Han, K., & Scull, W. (2010). Confucius culture in the mainstream classroom: A case study of an Asian American student. *The International Journal of Learning*, 17(1), 601-616.
- Harman, R., Ahn, S., & Bogue, B. (2016). Reflective language teacher education: Fostering discourse awareness through critical performance process. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 59, 228-238.
- Harman, R., & French, K. (2004). Critical performative pedagogy: A feasible praxis in teacher education? In J. O'Donnell, M. Pruyn, & R. Chávez Chávez (Eds.), *Social justice in these times* (pp. 97-115). Greenwich, CT: New Information Press.

- Harman, R., & Varga-Dobai, K. (2012). Critical performative pedagogy: Emergent bilingual learners challenge local immigration issues. *International Journal of Multicultural Education*, 14(2), 1-17.
- Harman, R. M., & Zhang, X. (2015). Performance, performativity and second language identities: How can we know the actor from the act? *Linguistics and Education*, 32, 68-81.
- Holliday, A. R. (2005). *The struggle to teaching English as an international language*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Holliday, A. R. (2006). Native-speakerism. *ELT Journal*, 60(4), 385-387.
- Hoskins, B., & Sallah, M. (2011). Developing intercultural competence in Europe: The challenges. *Language and Intercultural Communicaiton*, 11(2), 113-125.
- Jee, Y. (2016). Critical perspectives of world Englishes on EFL teachers' identity and employment in Korea: An autoethnography. *Multicultural Education Review*, 8(4), 240-252.
- Jo, D.-J. (2016). The characteristics of teachers' experiences in the teacher community focusing on self-reflection. *The Journal of Korean Teacher Education*, 33(3), 289-318.
- Kim, H.-K. (2011). Native speakerism affecting nonnative English teachers' identity formation: A critical perspective. *English Teaching*, 66(4), 53-70.
- Kim, H.-K. (2017). Demystifying native speaker ideology: The critical Role of critical practice in language teacher education. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 14(1), 81-97.
- Kim, S. (2010). A review of the recent teacher education research in Korea. *English Language Teaching*, 22(1), 273-294.

- Kwon, O. (2000). Korea's English education policy changes in the 1990s: Innovations to gear the nation for the 21st century. *English Teaching*, 55(1), 47-91.
- Lee, M. W. (2011). The influence of the current national curriculum on pre-service English teacher education in Korea. *Journal of the Korea English Education Society*, 10(1), 1-23.
- Lee, M. W. (2017). TEE uncertified teachers' perceptions regarding the TEE certificate program. *Studies in British and American Language and Literature*, 126, 195-214.
- Miller, J. (2009). Teacher identity. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 172-181). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Ministry of Education. (2017). *Teacher certification manual 2017* [2017 nyeon gyo-won-ja-gyeog-geom-jeong sil-mu-pyeon-lam]. Retrieved from <http://moe.go.kr/boardCnts/view.do?boardID=342&boardSeq=70356&lev=0&searchType=null&statusYN=W&page=1&s=moe&m=030503&opType=N>
- National Curriculum Information Center. (2017). *National curriculum of Korea*. Retrieved from <http://ncic.re.kr/english.index.do>
- Norton, B. (2013). *Identity and language learning: Extending the conversation* (2nd ed.). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Pavlenko, A. (2003). "I never knew I was a bilingual": Reimagining teacher identities in TESOL. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, 2(4), 251-268.
- Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Rymes, B., Cahnmann-Taylor, M., & Souto-Manning, M. (2008). Bilingual teachers' performances of power and conflict. *Teaching Education*, 19(2), 93-107.

- Saldaña, J. (2005). An introduction to ethnodrama. In J. Saldaña (Ed.), *Ethnodrama: An anthology of reality theatre* (pp. 1-36). Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press.
- Schön, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Song, J. (2016). Emotions and language teacher identity: Conflicts, vulnerability, and transformation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 50(3), 631-654.
- Souto-Manning, M. (2011). Playing with power and privilege: Theatre games in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27, 997-1007.
- Sung, K. (2007). A critical analysis of current discursive practices in ELT in Korea. *Foreign Languages Education*, 13(3), 79-104.
- Sung, K. (2009). A study on the development and application of a critical English teacher and learning model. *Foreign Languages Education*, 16(1), 199-231.
- van Dijk, T. A. (2003). Critical discourse analysis. In D. Schiffrin, D. Tannen, & H. Hamilton (Eds.), *The handbook of discourse analysis* (pp. 352-371). Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Wallace, M. J. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers: A reflective approach*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Yang, S., & Bautista, D. D. (2008). Reflection, arts, and self-inquiry: A letter to other for negotiating Korean English teacher identity. *Reflective Practice*, 9(3), 293-305.
- Yook, C., & Lee, Y.-H. (2016). Korean EFL teachers' perceptions of the impact of EFL teacher education upon their classroom teaching practices. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 44(5), 522-536.

Zacharias, N. T. (2010). The teacher identity construction of 12 Asian NNES teachers in TESOL graduate programs. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 7(2), 177-197.

Appendix 3A**Transcription Convention**

All remarks in parentheses () are movements.

= latching

[] overlap

: elongated word

? rising intonation

↑ marked rise in pitch

↓ marked lowering of pitch

Bold: emphasis on word

Pause: (3) pause of 3 secs

(.) very slight pause

(..) pause of less than .5 of a second

(...) pause of more than .5 of a second (and less than 3 secs)

CHAPTER 4

CRITICAL PERFORMATIVE PEDAGOGY FOR KOREAN ENGLISH TEACHERS⁸

⁸ Ahn, S. Submitted to *Modern English Education*, 03/22/18.

Abstract

In response to recent curriculum needs in secondary education in South Korea (e.g. free semester programs which provide a one-semester interdisciplinary curriculum for middle school students), this research suggests a contextualized use of critical performative pedagogy (CPP) (Harman & French, 2004) as an alternative English teacher education model. Informed by theories of multiliteracies and performance studies, CPP supports teachers in re-creating and reflecting on their learning and teaching experiences. It also encourages teachers to explore problematic policies and practices in a particular cultural context and to find possible resolutions collaboratively. Specifically, CPP professional development includes the use of interactive and sequenced experiential activities (e.g. interviewing, narrative writing, storytelling, performances of stories) that promote critical awareness of the socio-cultural context and factors at play. This paper discusses the Korean pedagogical design, created to meet the needs of English teachers, that includes a pedagogy of multiliteracies (New London Group, 1996) and reflection literacy (Hasan, 1996), along with specific illustrations of designing and implementing a CPP model in the professional development of four pre-service English teachers for one semester in South Korea. The practical implications of CPP for Korean English teachers and teacher educators are provided.

Key words: critical performative pedagogy, multiliteracies, reflection literacy, teacher education, Korean English teachers

Introduction

In a pilot study on secondary English teachers' needs in response to current curriculum change, I met a group of in-service teachers in the late spring of 2016 in Seoul, South Korea (hereafter, Korea). One middle school English teacher in the group shared her concerns about a showcase interdisciplinary lesson plan she needed to design with a home-economics teacher at her school. The object of that lesson was for students to learn how to make a Korean dish, spicy stir-fried rice cakes (*Tteok-bokki*) in English. The lesson was supposed to be conducted in a cooking room, not in a regular classroom at school, and she as the English teacher was expected to provide the students with the English terms and expressions they would use in the process of cooking. This experience illustrates the new Korean educational environment where English textbooks are no longer seen as necessary in giving students their linguistic knowledge and skills and that English teachers are no longer obliged to teach students through pre-existing language teaching methodologies. In fact, a recent call for English education in Korea is to make students and teachers ready to use language for more varied purposes in their society. It was an interesting finding to me as a researcher who has been interested in looking at the English classrooms in the changes of educational policy and the broader social context. Also, I was looking for a possibility to create a space for teachers to open up their critical issues and find possible resolutions in a collaborative way.

This change in school curriculum was publicly announced as “free-semester programs (FSP)” in 2013 (Ministry of Education, 2013). FSP gives middle school students a semester where they can enjoy a flexible interdisciplinary curriculum and explore with various activities in and outside classrooms to find their interests and pursue their future careers (Seo, Jyung, & Jeong, 2015, p. 320). With its pilot implementation time from 2013 to 2015, FSP became

mandatory in all 3,204 Korean middle schools in 2016 (Gim, 2017). Compared to the previous secondary school curriculum guideline that specifies the contents and structures of curriculum, FSP allows individual teachers to have more freedom and responsibility to develop curriculum to meet their students' needs. This aligns with Lee's (2015) research that emphasizes the importance for individual teachers to have more freedom in implementing the curriculum in their classrooms, even if the national curriculum cannot be changed in the short term. In actuality, FSP is still in the beginning stage of implementation, so few educators or scholars have explored the issues around this policy. The implementation of FSP has been reviewed and discussed in general (Lee, Hong, Kim, & Lim, 2014; Park, 2015; Seo, Jyung, & Jeong, 2015) and has also been discussed in the context of Korean language arts education (Gim, 2017) and arts education (Chung & Kim, 2015). Ahn (2014) discussed the issues surrounding English teacher qualifications and environmental conditions for interdisciplinary education, but it did not specifically discuss FSP. Based on interviews from Korean primary and secondary school English teachers, this research suggested the high-stakes, test-oriented Korean educational environment should be changed to allow students to have more creative experiences. Also, this research argued that more systemic and collaborative work among schools, educational administrative offices, and research groups should be done to support teachers. It proposed that English teacher education programs should also be modified to meet these new calls for English teachers.

Pre-service teacher education has likewise not yet responded to the change. Ahn (2014) argued that the English teacher education curriculum should be revised to promote pre-service teachers' creativity, innovation, and interpersonal skills. Even though it might take a while for this policy to become well-established in school settings, it needs to be included in the teacher

education curriculum as soon as possible to make room for pre-service teachers to exert creativity. Such changes would prepare pre-service teachers for new trends and build powerful resources for their future classrooms based on their own experiences.

As an example of a professional development model to promote teachers' creativity, collaboration, and criticality, this article argues for the use of critical performative pedagogy (CPP) in English teacher education in Korea. CPP is an educational praxis that looks critically at social equity issues in an embodied and dialogic way (Harman & French, 2004). It mainly includes performance, which in this context differs slightly from the traditional notion of staged performance. Role-playing in CPP requires all participants to create their storylines and actions based on their own lived experiences and imagination. Through role-playing and discussion about imaginative solutions to everyday issues (e.g. bullying in classrooms; speaking only English, etc.), it promotes participants' creative reimagining of what classrooms can look like.

This article provides a conceptual framework of CPP with a specific example of how I shaped CPP for use in Korean professional development. The article includes discussions of the conceptual framework of CPP and explores the essential elements of pedagogical design of CPP for Korean English teachers (KETs) with discussion of its integral use of the pedagogy of multiliteracies (New London Group, 1996) and reflection literacy (Hasan, 1996). To illustrate the Korean CPP approach, I draw from a one-semester CPP project with four Korean pre-service English teachers. The paper concludes by discussing practical suggestions of CPP in practice for EFL teachers and teacher educators.

Conceptual Framework

Critical Performative Pedagogy

Based on the growing need for an embodied critical pedagogy, critical performative pedagogy (CPP) has been developed as an educational praxis that is “a kinesthetic, dialogic, and multidimensional process for teacher educators and students to explore social justice issues” (Harman & French, 2004, p. 98). CPP mainly borrowed performance elements from Boal’s image and forum theatre (Boal, 1974, 1998, 2002) and from the Lincoln Center Institute for the Arts in Education (Greene, 2001). In other words, CPP interweaves “critical analyses of texts, works of art, and multimedia to deepen students’ understanding of the politics of representation, the social construction of race, class and gender and the interconnections between micro- and macro-level power relations” (Harman & French, 2004, p. 98). In particular, forum theatre enables all the actors to narrate and interpret a story collaboratively (Boal, 1979, p. 170). Boal (1979) emphasizes the social interpretation of characters, in which the characters are developed based on relations with others (p. 165). The participants essentially had an all-agreed storyline from discussions, but they did not have a script to do the play. Here, when they find possible resolutions through role-playing, it is important to have a role of “spect-actor”, who is transformed from a member of the audience to a protagonist involved in the action (Boal, 1995, p. 17). By playing the role of spect-actors, they change the problematic situation of the play, and this leads to a new development in the story.

In a further development of CPP for teacher education (Harman, Ahn & Bogue, 2016; Harman & Zhang, 2015), Harman and colleagues incorporated a post-performance discourse analysis conducted by CPP participants. Critical discourse analysis supports teachers in looking in more micro level ways at “the way[s] social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are

enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context” (van Dijk, 2003, p. 352). In my work in Korea, I introduced teachers to a simple use of interactional sociolinguistics (IS) within a CDA framework. The IS approach in education is used to explore “how people use language and other systems of communication in constructing language and literacy events in classrooms with attention to social, cultural, and political processes” (Bloome, Carter, Christian, Otto, & Shuart-Faris, 2005, p. xv). Here, other systems of communication include intonation, pitch, stress, pause, hesitation, speed, and volume, which Gumperz (1982) called contextualization cues. Analysis of language switching, dialect, style, or register can be also included in an analysis of contextualization cues. These contextualization cues contribute to the delivery of complex information about the speaker’s intended message, and they are very important and systematic in making meaning of spoken discourse, as they are usually enacted by the speakers without awareness (Cameron, 2001).

For effective application of CPP in and out of the classroom setting, Harman and French (2004) discussed six key elements. First, CPP requires collaborative work between the participants related to a particular sociopolitical and historical context. Second, CPP needs to continually question the participants’ and teachers’ social positioning, power relations, and cultural capital. Third, CPP needs to be designed and practiced over time in a specific location and work with specific oppressive issues. Fourth, CPP is action-oriented, so the teachers and teacher educators can focus on specific strategies of resistance against state or local oppressive policies. Fifth, play and imagination are pivotal in transformative education. Sixth, CPP needs to be participatory and dialogic, so facilitators need to participate in the process with the participants. In this way, teachers also become learners and risk takers (Harman & French, 2004, pp.110-111).

Previous practical examples of CPP practices by Harman and colleagues, especially with language teachers in the US multicultural context, were found in Harman et al.(2016), Harman and Varga-Dobai (2012), and Harman and Zhang (2015). Other researchers also implemented similar models of CPP in their language teacher education curricula in the US (Cahnmann-Taylor & Souto-Manning, 2010; Cahnmann-Taylor, Souto-Manning, Wooten, & Dice, 2009; Rymes, Cahnmann-Taylor, & Souto-Manning, 2008; Souto-Manning, 2011). Overall, the approach has been shown to support teachers and students in using embodied inquiry to think about the socio political and historical factors that inform teaching and learning processes.

Pedagogy of Multiliteracies

CPP integrates a pedagogy of multiliteracies, as proposed by the New London Group (1996). As they proposed, CPP learners needed to be immersed “in meaningful practices within a community of learners who are capable of playing multiple and different roles based on their backgrounds and experiences” (New London Group, 1996, p. 85). In this sense, the curriculum includes the learners’ particular issues and needs in their particular social communities. The curriculum needs to be designed and practiced over time in a specific location and work related to with specific oppressive issues. In fact, only teachers who live and interact with learners in a particular socio-political context over time would have a good understanding of the particular social contexts and issues which cause learners to struggle. Based on this insider understanding, teachers can actively design and participate in the CPP process as facilitators for the learners.

Second, *overt instruction* includes “all those active interventions on the part of the teachers and other experts that scaffold learning activities” (New London Group, 1996, p. 86). It includes “the introduction of explicit metalanguages,” which help learners understand the texts

and activities in different modes (New London Group, 1996, p. 88). Here, the notion of different modes is related to the notion of “multiliteracies,” which extends the range of literacies in growing a social context of cultural and linguistic diversity and in increasing the use of a variety of text forms associated with multimedia technology (New London Group, 1996, p. 60).

Multiliteracies include different modes (oral or written), specialized vocabulary, the formality or informality of address between participants, and acceptable grammar in a particular situation (Anstèy & Bull, 2006, p. 20). As one must be literate in multiple modes and contexts in which literacy is practiced, teachers need to prepare students for these new forms of literacy. Many researchers confirmed the importance of multimodality for pedagogic resources and learning in classroom (Bezemer & Kress, 2008; Cope & Kalantzis, 2000; Kress et al., 2004). This is the reason teachers can be seen as “designers” of learning processes and environments, rather than just deliverers of knowledge to students (New London Group, 1996, p. 73). The multiliteracies approach extends the range of texts and learning activities through greater imagination, a key element of CPP. For example, CPP includes performance, which requires participants to reconstruct their life experiences with imagination. To help participants understand this new format of performance, teachers need to explicitly explain how to do this new form of role-playing and participate in this activity without confusion.

Third, *critical framing* refers to the learners’ ability to “frame their growing mastery in practice and conscious control and understanding in relation to the historical, social, cultural, political, ideological, and value-centered relations of particular systems of knowledge and social practice” (New London Group, 1996, p. 86). When New London Group discussed the pedagogy of multiliteracies, they included the idea of “order of discourse” (Fairclough, 1995), which is the structured set of conventions associated with semiotic activity in a given social space in regards

to learning. In other words, the pedagogy of multiliteracies aims to promote students' awareness of how different discourses relate to each other. Critical framing is a key element of CPP, which requires participants to question their positioning, power relations, and cultural capital. As New London Group emphasized, learners' critical awareness of socio-political discourses needs to be fostered through a series of activities. For instance, when enacting a problematic situation through role-playing based on their lived experiences in the educational world, participants reflect also on their own learning and teaching experiences.

Fourth, transformed practice is about a transfer in meaning-making practice; that is, "students can demonstrate how they can design and carry out, in a reflective manner, new practices embedded in their own goals and values" (New London Group, 1996, p. 87). In this sense, students' learning is not limited to class activities, but is applied to implementation in their own lives. This is an important element of CPP, which is action-oriented for change in real-life situations. In role-playing in CPP, participants not only enact problematic situations but also find possible solutions collaboratively. These experiences of thinking out problems and solutions help participants change their attitudes and behaviors in real-life situations. For example, my own involvement in the CPP process as a student learner supported me in thinking back to an uncomfortable lived experience and helped me to explore the cultural and social climate that shaped how I was positioned as a student teacher in a Korean teacher education program (Harman et al., 2016). Indeed, the reflections and realization of the multilayered dimensions of the experience motivated me to take up CPP to support new Korean pre-service teachers.

Reflection Literacy

CPP, with its post-performance emphasis on collaborative discourse analysis, aligns closely with what Hasan (1996) refers to as reflection literacy. Indeed, she sees literacy as

needing to be taught in the context of understanding the wider social environment (Hasan, 1996, p. 378). Hasan's insistence on this wider understanding of literacy is not "an invocation of individual originality or personal voice, but a claim to the right of all citizens to participate in the continuing evolution of the larger social order" (Potts, 2018, p. 207).

Hasan refers to *action literacy* as learners acquiring abilities to use language in different discourses. In other words, action literacy asks learners to understand how languages are practiced in particular social communities. As Hasan said learners have different degrees and varieties of such discursive abilities, this ability of students needs to be nurtured through pedagogy (Hasan, 1996, p. 397). Also, Hasan refers to *reflection literacy* as a type of literacy where students learn to produce knowledge using language through reflection, inquiry, and analysis. Through analysis and reflection, CPP students develop critical awareness of their received knowledge and the discourses that inform knowledge production, and in this way, they contribute to knowledge evolution in the world (Schleppegrell & Moore, 2018, p. 25).

Based on the six key elements of CPP, informed by the theories of the pedagogy of multiliteracies and reflection literacy, I tried to design my own CPP for Korean pre-service English teachers. While I was planning and practicing the whole process, I found particular elements of the CPP design that were suited specifically to the needs and context of Korean English teachers. More details about this context and the three essential elements of my practice will be elaborated with a specific example of the CPP process in the next section.

Pedagogical Design of CPP for Korean English Teachers

Context

This project was initially inspired by a classroom project from fall 2013. At that time, I was a doctoral student in a Classroom Discourse Analysis course. The class covered not only

general discourse analysis of the classroom but also critical approaches to discourse analysis, applying Boal's (1979) Theatre of the Oppressed (TOP). Before that time, I was not familiar with Boal, although I had some knowledge about Freire's (1970) Pedagogy of the Oppressed. It was an eye-opening experience to bring our social equity issues or struggles and discuss possible resolutions with colleagues. My group created a performance scenario based on my story as an English student teacher working within complex power relations in the classroom and in Korean society. Initially, I needed to be courageous to open up about my experience since it was an embarrassing moment in my life. However, when I played a different role, not a student-teacher role, in the scenario, I could look at that moment from a broader point of view. I realized that critical moment was constructed on a basis of many socio-political factors. This class project was the basis for an article which was written based on our continuous cyclic processes of reflection, discussion, and writing about our experiences as CPP participants (Harman et al., 2016).

Through this process, I came to think about applying CPP to the Korean context in which I was born and educated. I also wondered if this could open up a space for current pre-service or in-service teachers to talk about their issues, especially given the current shift in the national curriculum and the call for more creativity in Korean schools. In a pilot study researching the needs of current in-service teachers, I joined a group of secondary English teachers meeting several times in early summer 2016, who were struggling with the recently-changing educational needs and trends. They felt the need to be more creative to make their lessons and activities help students stay motivated, collaborative, and critical about society and people around them. It was very encouraging that the teachers voluntarily participated in this group, which functioned as a teacher-community where teachers shared their issues together. However, this teacher community was also a transient program, rather than an established one.

This pilot study convinced me to explore how I could design a program that could eventually be a permanent part of the Korean teacher education program. I wanted to see how teachers could be supported by some preliminary ground work in the teacher education curriculum or in training programs in response to the new Korean focus on creativity.

When I was searching for possible participants, I visited the English education department of a university in Seoul, Korea, where I graduated. I attended this university as an undergraduate and graduate student and worked as a department assistant before coming to the United States. Therefore, I had a good understanding of the department's curriculum, faculty, extracurricular activities, school facilities, and students—possible participants of my study. Having a good understanding of the particular sociocultural context and sharing a similar experience with the participants gave me the confidence to tackle some possible obstacles of collaboration (Harman & French, 2004), I was able to design a CPP curriculum that would support the students in the department, especially those who wanted to become English teachers in the near future. At that time, some students had joined a study group to discuss educational issues every week, which means those students had already shown an interest in participating in extracurricular activities to make themselves ready to become teachers. This showed the students' willingness to grow as teachers, as they worked in addition to their regular curriculum.

Based on the snowball sampling method (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981) in which the researchers start recruiting study subjects through personal contact or through information and then follow the resulting chain, I finally gathered four participants for this project. They agreed to the consent form issued by the school, and the department chair also agreed to this project. These participants were individuals who joined a departmental study group and wanted to become English teachers in the near future. Three of them were juniors while the fourth one was

a sophomore. At the time, they had not yet completed student teaching, but they had done at least one semester of volunteer teaching in public middle or high schools. They also had some additional private tutoring experiences. Moreover, they were very close friends and spent a lot of time doing in-class and out-of-class activities together. When we started this project, I asked them to give their group a name. They called their group “SVOC,” which stands for Skinner, Vygotsky, Osgood, and Chomsky as well as the English sentence structure in the form of subject, verb, object, and complement. It was obvious that these pre-service teachers were eager to learn new theoretical and practical knowledge that would enable them to become good English teachers.

Pedagogical Design of CPP

This CPP was practiced from September 2016 to January 2017. My CPP design was cyclic, so all the activities and the outcomes of those activities were connected to each other (Figure 4.1). The design included a cycle of interviews, writing chronicles of English learning, narrative writing, storytelling, theatre games, story retelling, performances of stories, critical discourse analysis of performances, and group discussions. It was basically adapted from Harman et al. (2016) and Harman and Zhang (2015), but I added interviews and chronicles of English learning which were not included in the previous studies. Also, between the activities, I asked the participants to write journal reflections on how they perceived the critical issues and their teacher identities during each activity, which was not essentially included in the previous studies.

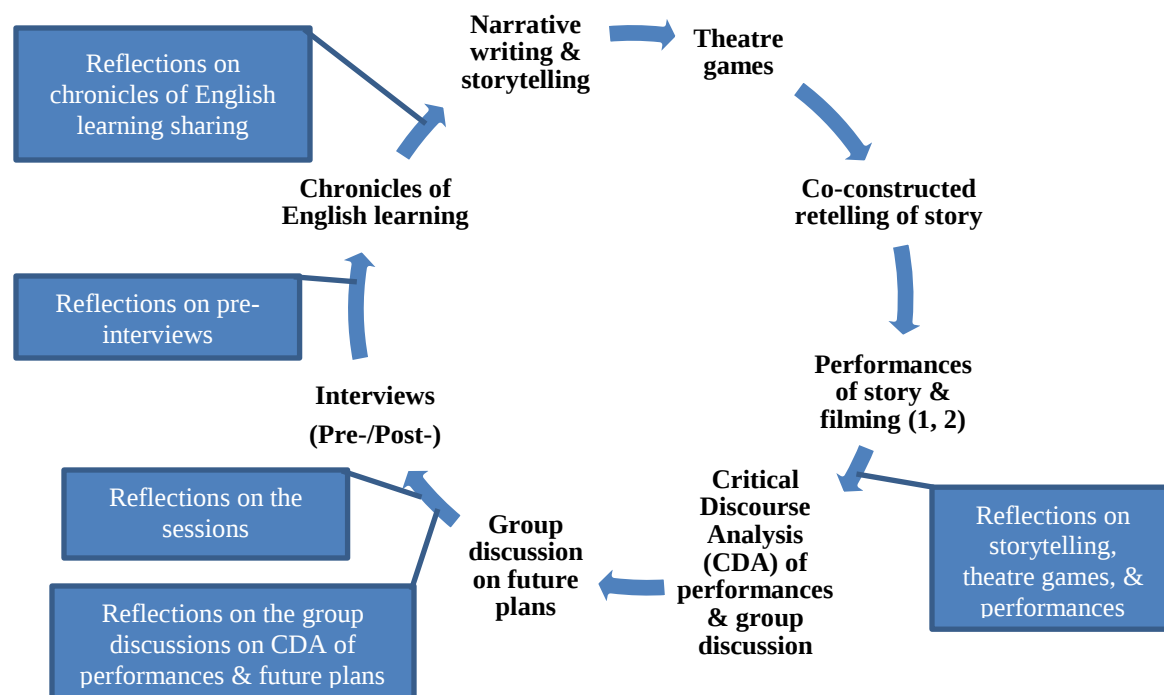


Figure 4.1. Pedagogical design of CPP for Korean English teachers

(Adapted from Harman, Ahn, & Bogue, 2016; Harman & Zhang, 2015)

In the first sequence of the CPP module, the participants began to think about their own history of English learning and teaching experiences, as elicited by background questions from the researcher during the individual interview. After that, our next workshop was to write/draw our chronicle of English learning, adapted from Jo (2016). In this activity, the participants drew on blank paper vertical lines for the year/age and horizontal lines for social events (left side) and personal events (right side) (Figure 4.2). For social events, for example, they wrote both governmental educational policy (i.e. English immersion programs, TEE, National English Aptitude Test, etc.) and socioeconomic event (i.e. Korean economic crisis in 1997 etc.). After completing individual chronicles, all participants shared their writing with one another. Writing and sharing their own learning histories associated with the social events helped the participants connect their learning experiences to the social discourse. This allowed the participants to start

thinking about their positions and power relations in their social discourse, which is a key component of CPP. Moreover, understanding a particular social context and issues in a particular community is another important element of CPP. In this sense, it is noteworthy that these participants were born and raised in the Korean educational context and want to teach Korean students in the near future. Hence, these pre-service teachers understand the English education curriculum and the social discourse around English education very well. Moreover, these pre-service teachers are also able to become good facilitators in bringing their future students' own life experiences into the classroom, as these students will likely be situated in a similar educational context.

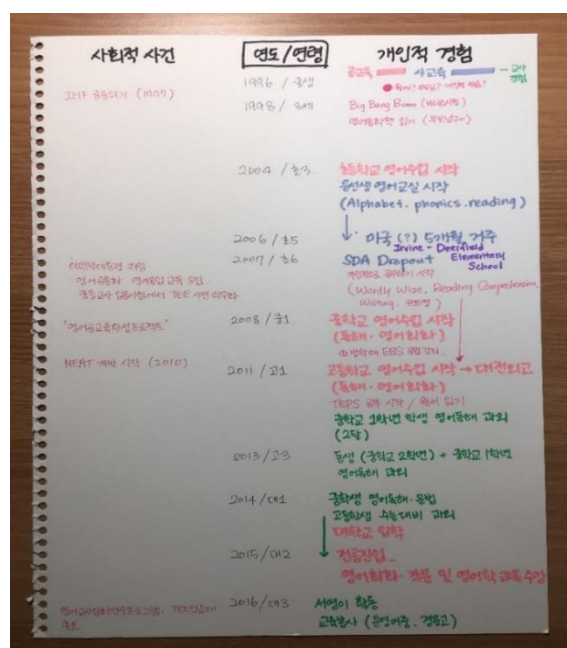


Figure 4.2. Lime's chronicle of English learning

From all the experiences in the chronicle, each participant was asked to select and write a narrative on the most critical or significant moment among their experiences (e.g. Alice's story in Appendix 4A). As Johnson (2009) said, "narrative accounts of experience connect phenomena and infuse them with interpretation and thus uncover our interpretations of the activities we

engage in” (p. 96); such narratives become a powerful tool for the participants to understand their past experiences which were critical to their learning and also in understanding their interpretations of them.

With these narratives, they did storytelling in a group. Through sharing their personal stories in a group, they began developing a sense of community. Moreover, at this time, I asked the participants to use their bodies to express some abstract ideas and emotions. It is a practice called “theatre games” that is explained by Boal (1979) and involves participants using verbal, actional, and visual modalities to present their ideas and feelings. For example, before starting storytelling, I used some theatre games to make the participants familiar with using body language and non-verbal expressions instead of verbal expressions. They looked at each other carefully and then walked to their partners, an action which resulted in mutual trust (Figure 4.3). Another example of theatre games we did was to make body statues to express some abstract or ideational concepts such as discrimination, loneliness, peace, love, and friendship (Figure 4.4). These embodied activities help the participants feel more comfortable using their bodies as a means of communication and activate their creativity and imagination, which is an important element of CPP. Also, it enabled them to feel closer to each other and other group members.



Figure 4.3. Theatre game 1



Figure 4.4. Theatre game 2

As a major group activity, the participants enacted a performance based on a reconstructed and collective storyline from their own stories. The performance was done based on forum theatre. Because the participants were not familiar with the concept of Boal's forum theatre, which has not been widely introduced to Korea, I shared some supplementary materials with my participants. This sharing of information can be understood as overt instruction, a component of the pedagogy of multiliteracies. We read a summary of Boal's (1979) chapter, an article that is a translated version of the interview of Movimento Direitos Humanos (MHuD) with Boal in 2008 (MHuD, 2009), as well as an article about the application of Theatre of the Oppressed theory by one non-profit play group in a non-educational Korean social context (Noh, 2010). We also watched how other university students did forum theatre on YouTube⁹ and read a chapter of B. Lee (2014) that looks at Korean education fever with critical lens. We read an additional chapter which included the brief introduction to CDA such as Wodak, van Dijk, and Fairclough and its application in English education such as research on language ideology, English curriculum, English classrooms, and learner identities (M. Lee, 2014).

⁹ <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NbYx01re-ec>

In doing forum theatre, the participants basically had an all-agreed storyline from discussions, but they did not have a script to do the play. The scenario of play is about a group activity to make and practice a short dialogue about the imaginary situation of being in the United States. This type of dialogue has been a very common activity in English lessons since the national curriculum adopted communicative language teaching (CLT) as a major English education reform in the 1990s (Lee, 2011). When I asked them to create a scenario for group activity, the participants immediately started thinking about ordering food at a famous fast food place (In N Out) in the US. In the scenario, a teacher guided the lesson, gave some feedback about the group activity to three students, and consulted one student about his difficulty in the group activity.

After one rehearsal, they performed the play and filmed it. They performed the scenario twice. The first performance focused on the problematic situation of classroom interaction among students and teachers; more specifically, the performance centered around the marginalization of one student who was relatively not good at English nor knowledgeable about American culture (Figure 4.5). The second performance focused on the resolution of that problem with a spect-actor; the teacher helped the marginalized student by adopting the concept of World Englishes and providing supplementary materials for cultural knowledge (Figure 4.6). In this performance, the teacher and one student exchanged their roles in order to make changes for the classroom scenes. The second performance reflects the action-oriented element of CPP, which means this activity can provide a resolution to their problems in real-life situations.



Figure 4.5. The first performance



Figure 4.6. The second performance

After the performances, all participants had an opportunity to transcribe the interactions in the two performances and discuss the issues related to non-native English-speaking teacher and student identities in Korean English classrooms (Two transcripts in Appendix 4B and 4C). For this activity, I introduced the students to CDA and asked them to look at closely both verbal and nonverbal languages in the transcripts. Through this transcribing and analyzing the classroom discourse from a critical lens, all four participants were able to look at the classroom interaction several times and interpret the meanings of the nonverbal languages present in that interaction. For example, Arnold said that he could see the characters' attitudes and intentions through their intonation, silence between the lines, their eye movements, and altering facial expressions. Also, he said the marginalization in the group was also easily seen because the turns taken in the performed interactions were mainly made only between two students with one

student largely left out from the interactions in the first performance. The CDA activity maximized the participants' critical awareness of their positions and power relations in their social discourse.

After the CDA session, we had one further session to discuss all the workshops and our future plans. After this session, I conducted an individual interview with each participant. During the interviews, they shared how their thoughts about English education and English teacher identities in Korean society had changed through the CPP curriculum over the course of five months. Their overall reflections about the workshops will be discussed further in the next section.

Essential Elements of CPP for Korean English Teachers

I identified three key elements of the pedagogical design of CPP for Korean English teachers based on our PD workshops: reflexive, supportive, and transformative. I will illustrate these three elements with both the excerpts from the participants' written reflections and my reflections on the sessions.

CPP as a reflexive practice

First, by reflecting on their own experiences and other colleagues' experiences, the pre-service teachers began to look at their learning and teaching experience more critically and broadly in relation to the context of social discourses they live in. This is connected to CPP's key focus on the critical awareness of power relations in a particular social context (Harman & French, 2004). Oscar illustrated his experience on the process of forum theatre making and the analysis of the group performance in Excerpt 1.

Excerpt 1

While we made a script for the forum theatre, we could think deeply about the problems in English education in Korea. In brainstorm process, we thought about the diverse problematic situations and discussed those. After that, when we performed and changed the roles in the second forum theatre, we also were able to think about the resolutions. The unconscious actions and languages shown in the performance represented the reality of English education in Korea. So, it was very helpful to see the real English education in Korea. At first, I was not sure this would be helpful for us, but the forum theatre kept us think about the problems and resolutions. It was very meaningful to me. (Of course, the resolutions were not absolute answers, but idealistic ones. However, thinking about the possible resolution at least once means something.)

(Oscar's reflection on storytelling, theatre game, and performance)

As Oscar said, in order to do forum theatre, the participants needed to think of diverse problematic situations they had experienced in a particular context they lived in. In fact, the participants in this research found that they had already encountered some situations that could be problematic in English classrooms and society in Korea. In the second forum theatre, where the spect-actors got into the scenes and changed the scenes by suggesting resolutions for problematic situations, participants could also think of multiple possible resolutions together. As a result, the participants came to have critical eyes and potentially developed the readiness required to tackle similar problematic situations in their future classrooms. In future research, indeed, I intend to conduct some follow ups on their teaching to see if this is the case in their current teaching practices.

In addition, Arnold talked about the power of performance as it gave the participants a chance to play the teacher and student roles from various positions. Playing a variety of social roles in the performances connected clearly to CPP's focus on critical awareness of power relations in social discourses and the critical framing of the pedagogy of multiliteracies.

Excerpt 2

We created our own play. Our conflict situation was that the low-proficient student was marginalized by the high-proficient students in the group in English classroom. And the teacher did not pay much attention to that situation. I took a role of a low-proficient student and I was so surprised that I just felt like that person while I was doing the play. I found that other group members also felt the same way. I realized that we just acted like the character we took in the performance, regardless of the personal relationship in reality. (.....) The power of play was much stronger than I had expected. The power of it is that we understand the situations by taking a role and acting those situations for a couple time and experience related emotions in the situations.

(Arnold's reflection on storytelling, theatre games, and performance)

For example, as illustrated in Excerpt 2, Arnold played the role of a low-English-proficient student and was marginalized by peer students in the forum theatre. He said he "just felt like that person" while he was doing the play. From this acting experience, he could appreciate the feelings and marginalization of the low-proficient students and understand their position in the English classroom. As New London Group emphasized, the teacher needs to facilitate the learners' critical awareness about the discourses (New London Group, 1996); what was powerful in the Korean CPP was that the participants began to self-question their and others' positions and power relations in regards to their particular context. This enactment practice

would be helpful for any participant who is going to teach students from diverse backgrounds or positions.

On the other hand, CPP includes a module on critical discourse analysis. Through critically looking at verbal and nonverbal languages, the participants could find the hidden meanings of the group's communication. For instance, the participants easily found how their differing use of language and other contextualization cues made a difference in similar scenes of the first and second forum theatre scenarios. Especially, Arnold, who played a marginalized student in both the forum theatre scenarios, said that he realized the main difference between the two teachers. He realized that the teacher's contextualization cues such as arm crossing and eye contact could reveal much information to the students: more eye contact meant a more supporting attitude, while crossed arms meant a non-supporting attitude¹⁰. This is an example of reflection literacy in which learners can produce knowledge through analysis of language (Hasan, 1996).

CPP as a supportive practice

Second, the pre-service teachers discussed the issues and tried to find resolutions collaboratively. Their plot in the forum theatre was built on agreement among the participants. When there was disagreement, they kept discussing the issues and tried to produce a resolution. This is related to CPP's focus on collaboration of participants in a particular social context (Harman & French, 2004). In Excerpt 3, Arnold talked about the collaborative process in the performance.

¹⁰ The detailed analysis of two performances was discussed in my other article (see Chapter 3 of this dissertation).

Excerpt 3

The stage we talked about the resolutions after we performed the conflict was very helpful to me. It was a process of analyzing the problematic situation and discussing the possible resolutions, and I learned that the group members' thoughts about the conflict and resolutions were more different than I had expected. As I realized the previous experiences or thoughts of individuals can affect a lot on the possible resolutions, it would be generally great to gather different ideas for making a better resolution.

(Arnold's reflection on storytelling, theatre games, and performance)

As Arnold said, he first realized that all the group members' thoughts about the conflict and its potential resolutions were not the same. Also, he realized that an individual's life experiences can greatly affect his or her proposed resolutions. Further, he realized that the group could make a better resolution through continuous discussion and the gathering of ideas.

Moreover, when my participants role-played in the performance, I found they were still nervous and wanted to make their performances perfect because their stereotypes regarding classroom theatre could not be changed in a short time. In fact, role-playing in English classrooms in Korea has been mainly used as a way of practicing English skills or promoting motivation of English learning (Kim & Lee, 2017; Yeo, 2013). Moreover, as Alice in our research group said, the role-playing in Korean English classrooms has been used as resources for achievement assessment in the lessons in many cases. For example, when they finished the second forum theatre, Oscar told us that he wanted to do it again because he thought his acting was not perfect. Particularly, he felt a little uncomfortable about some mistakes he had made when he delivered his conversation in English as a spect-actor. Therefore, I tried to make sure that this performance did not need to be perfect at all.

Since forum theatre does not follow pre-existed scripts or actions, participants naturally make some mistakes when performing it. Also, Oscar's acting in English was just good. There was no big mistake that needed to be performed again. After all, I realized that his anxiety actually mirrored the student who consulted the teacher about his anxiety in the performance. Just as Oscar, who played the role of advising teacher in the second performance, did for the student in his scene, I convinced him his performance was totally natural and just good enough. In this sense, CPP's insistence that the facilitator also participate in the process is very important in convincing other participants to take a risk (Harman & French, 2004). This could also be understood as a part of overt instruction (New London Group, 1996) because the facilitator should intervene in the process and help the participants practice new forms of performance that most participants would not be familiar with.

CPP as a transformative practice

Third, in searching for possible resolutions, the participants became action-oriented. CPP emphasizes the importance of thinking about social action collaboratively throughout the whole process (Harman & French, 2004). My participants thought about how they could resolve the issues raised in the play and how the lessons they learned could relate to their future classrooms. In Excerpt 4, Lime talked about her experience participating in forum theatre and its analysis.

Excerpt 4

When we prepared the second forum theatre filming and watched it, I realized that that teacher's comments could change the student's behavior/participation. In fact, my role in the forum theatre was an advanced learner who led the group activity based on her living abroad experience in an English-speaking country and her authority knowing

about English/American culture. I thought that the biggest reason why such students had those attitudes was the social atmosphere which forces learners to acquire ‘native-like’ language competence. And because of that, individual teachers cannot lead any change on the students’ attitudes. However, by participating in the forum theatre, I learned that even teacher’s one comment—it is more important to work collaboratively with the group members than just to speak “perfect” English—can change the students’ attitude toward the group activity. I think that such a comment is important not only to the marginalized students in classrooms but also to all students because it gives them a chance to think about what English means to them and for what they have to learn English.

(Lime’s reflection on the group discussions on CDA of performances and future plans)

As Lime pointed out, she realized that the teacher—the spect-actor in their second forum theatre—actually changed the problematic situation from looking back at the first and second performances. The teacher said that no one needed to speak perfect English, and as a result, the students’ attitude toward the group activity changed. This kind of experience was very important because it gave participants the belief that their actions could make a huge change in the classroom.

Moreover, Arnold said that he wanted to use this activity in his future classes one day. As illustrated in Excerpt 5, he believed that forum theatre would help students understand classroom discrimination and have empathy towards marginalized students.

Excerpt 5

After I did the forum theatre, I thought that I would like to do this activity in my future class one time. In college, I have been interested in the life of marginalized people in

our society. But I did not have a real discrimination experiences or related emotions.

But I felt a kind of emotions while I took a role of a marginalized student in English class. (.....) In Korean society, there are so many discriminations, so the play will help the students have a chance to experience such discrimination and related feelings.

(Arnold's reflection on storytelling, theatre games, and performance)

Although the performance is a form of enactment, role-playing in forum theatre could be a very powerful tool for people to relate themselves to social justice issues. This is not limited to classroom issues but extends to various issues in our society. CPP can be a part of arts-based educational inquiry that uses various art forms such as stories, poetry, paintings, and theatre at multi-level educational contexts (Barbera, 2009; Finley & Finley, 1998; Gallagher, 2007; Garoian, 1999; Kenny, 1998; Mitsumura, 2012; Saldaña, 2005; Shapiro, 2004, 2006). If participants see that their actions can make changes in performances, they can be more action-oriented when they encounter problems in real life. In this sense, the fact that students' learning further changes their own lives is connected to the concept of transformed practice in the pedagogy of multiliteracies (New London group, 1996). As Oscar said, he wanted to think about many other social issues that might happen in the classroom with his future colleagues and students. By using CPP, elements of critical discourse analysis, and reflective discussions, my participants most likely continue to pursue transformed practice in their future teaching practices by analyzing and discussing their critical issues with others in a broader social view.

In sum, here is a diagram to show the relationship of three essential elements of pedagogical design of CPP for Korean English teachers discussed in relation to CPP elements, the pedagogy of multiliteracies, and reflection literacy (Figure 4.7).



Figure 4.7. CPP for KETs diagram

Implications for Teacher Educators

Based on my experience of designing CPP for pre-service English teachers in Korea, I would like to discuss some practical implications for teachers and teacher educators in the field of language education. I will discuss the conditions for effective CPP and the conditions for challenged CPP in order.

Conditions for Effective CPP

Based on my own practice of CPP with Korean pre-service English teachers, I found two conditions for effective CPP: learning about multiliteracy and a sense of community. First, getting familiar with multiliterate activities is important for successful CPP application. The experienced facilitator's role is important in giving explicit and rich explanations about these new forms of literacy that students need to learn. For example, my participants originally were not familiar with the multiliterate activities in CPP, particularly the part of doing theatre games and acting in forum theatre. As Alice, one of the participants, said, it was different from the plays

or skits they usually did in English conversation classes, in which she was nervous about perfect memorization of scripts and perfect acting. Also, she said the performances in such classrooms were resources for the teacher's assessment of her, so she was not free from pressure. Forum theatre, however, did not require participants to memorize the script or act perfectly because it is based more on improvisation and a deep understanding of character and situation. Also, it did not become resources for assessment. Therefore, I, as a facilitator, tried to make sure to every participant that this performance was different from traditional performance both in process and in product.

Second, making a sense of community among participants is crucial for successful CPP application. In fact, collaboration among participants is the key element of CPP. During our workshops, my participants often talked about their solidarity. Oscar said that the workshops were like counseling group activities to him. He said that he usually did not talk about personal issues freely with his classmates. In fact, some students in the department were not interested in those issues because they hoped to walk other career paths other than education. Also, even other students who hoped to become teachers could not talk about them deeply because of the uncomfortable atmosphere that comes with talking about those issues in open spaces. In this sense, these workshops provided the participants with a space to talk about their experiences and thoughts deeply and openly. This was not only from Oscar's reflection. For example, in Excerpt 6, Alice said that she was very honest in talking about her failures and hard times without any burden, as she usually hid her emotions to her friends.

Excerpt 6

Second, it was very good to share our hard-time experiences in a comfortable mode. I usually do not show my dark side to my friends and try to make good comments to my

friends. So, some friends misunderstood me because they thought I saw the world only from a positive way. Also, whenever I had an interview or write a statement about myself, I had to reconstruct my hard-time experiences or failures as something that I overcame or some good learning experiences. However, in this group, it was very nice for me that I did not need to glamorize my past experiences. I just shared my authentic experiences and emotions with my group members. Reminded of the bestseller book entitled, “Courage of Being Hated”, I took courage and talk about my painful experiences. Sharing such experiences with others comforted me so much.

(Alice’s reflection on the whole workshops)

Alice became courageous enough to open up about those painful experiences to her colleagues, and she felt relaxed by sharing the experiences within the group. This feeling of relaxation signifies the liberation of those things one feels is oppressing him or her. Therefore, this is in line with the philosophy presented in Theatre of the Oppressed by Boal (1979). In the post-interview, Arnold also agreed that all participants showed mutual respect and trust for one another. He said that he sometimes realized that four participants had different opinions about some specific issues. However, they exchanged their ideas and opinions without actual conflicts. He said that it was good towards building a community.

Moreover, I also tried to build trust with all participants. In CPP, a facilitator’s role should be participatory and dialogic during the process. Therefore, in each activity, I shared the learning and teaching experiences I had gained in both Korea and the US. When they co-constructed the plot of forum theatre, I also listened to their discussions and brainstormed ideas with them together. Though we essentially met all together weekly, we could also talk to each other anytime through a mobile chat messenger (i.e. Kakaotalk). I sometimes met my

participants even after our planned CPP was done. It should be noted that our group chat room is still alive even today. Building trust and collaboration among the group was not easy (Harman & French, 2004), so the whole CPP process needs to be designed and conducted based on a long-term plan with good understanding of the particular sociopolitical context.

Conditions for Challenged CPP

First, it is not clear how and if my participants' experiences can be transferred to future classrooms. Although the participants showed willingness to apply what they learned and experienced from this CPP workshop, the transferability remains questionable. There could be psychological and practical hurdles for teachers in designing CPP for their future classrooms. Also, these participants will teach adolescents in the future, so the participation of youth should also be considered when discussing factors that influence CPP performance. Furthermore, as mentioned in the introduction, CPP can be developed as a collaborative lesson with other subject teachers. In that case, the possible resources, processes of designing, and the potential outcomes can be rich and diverse. At this point, a follow-up study is needed to see how the participants' CPP experiences are applied in their actual classrooms.

Second, there are also some practical issues related to CPP application, such as technology issues, physical space issues, and the physical conditions of the participants. First of all, in terms of technology, we used Edmodo as our online classroom platform while using Kakaotalk as our daily mobile messenger. From our first-hand experience, we realized that Edmodo was teacher-oriented and not very interactive. So, the use of Edmodo was limited to such activities as announcing schedules, deadlines, and uploading written reflections. Therefore, I would suggest that teachers and teacher educators use more interactive platforms to interact with their students online. Also, in order to film performance, we need video-recording devices.

These days, it is easy to record videos even by smart phones, but some teachers and students would not feel comfortable using those devices. In my case, I used a digital camera that has a recording function and a tripod to make the camera stand still.

Next, in terms of physical space, doing theatre games and performances also required us to find enough space for physical moving. Since I had only four participants, it was not very hard to find a place in our home department building. However, I felt that some seminar rooms seemed a little too small to do that. This was especially the case when the rooms were packed with large desks and many chairs. We sometimes moved those objects to the corners of the rooms before we started our activities.

Last, the physical conditions of the participants should also be carefully considered in the designing process. In our group, unexpectedly, two of my participants injured their toe and leg, respectively, in the middle of our workshop period. One participant was wearing a cast on her leg for a couple of weeks, even when we did our theatre games. At that time, I asked if she would be okay to participate in the activities that required her physical movement. I thought that her physical expression could differ if she did not have a cast during that specific time. Therefore, it would be beneficial for teachers to know that they also might encounter such an unexpected situation when it comes to student health.

Conclusion

In response to the very recent curriculum needs of Korean English teachers such as free semester programs, this article describes a conceptual framework of CPP with a specific example in the professional development of four Korean pre-service English teachers. The essential elements of CPP were discussed with discussion of the pedagogy of multiliteracies and reflection literacy. Reflexive, supportive, and transformative aspects were discussed as essential elements

for the CPP practice for the KETs. The conditions for both effective and challenged application of CPP in teacher development were also provided.

To teachers, “‘reflexive’ refers to the constant vigilance teachers must have, in order to gauge which pedagogical move is appropriate at different moments of the learning process, for different students, and for different subject matters” (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015, p. 16). In this sense, as teachers become reflexive in their learning and teaching experiences, they become more flexible in applying prior knowledge and experiences to new classroom contexts. While I was writing this article, I became reflexive again and began to look back on my role as a facilitator of the group. At every moment of the workshops, for example, I was nervous and excited at the same time. Although I put a lot of effort in designing these activities which could be suitable and helpful for my participants in the planning stage, I was still not sure how they would respond to them and re-create knowledge based on their own stories and experiences.

I was also afraid of possible resistance from the participants who did not want to acknowledge the power imbalance in our classroom and society, as shown in the study of Souto-Manning (2011). My participants did not show such resistance, but it does not mean my future participants will also do the same. In fact, Harman and French (2004) also discussed some possible resistance from students or teachers in accepting the issues of systemic oppression or being emotionally vulnerable. In the context of Korea’s high-stakes exam for college entrance, for instance, a teacher who participated in a critical pedagogy course in TESOL graduate school in Korea showed a cynical attitude towards the course since the teacher thought the critical approach was unrealistic (Choi, 2013). Lee and Chun (2017) pointed out that classroom assessment is also an important part of pedagogical curriculum change, which is usually briefly included in the curriculum without detailed descriptions for teachers. Therefore, such concerns

from classroom teachers should not be ignored. Based on the repeated but different experiences with diverse participants, the pedagogical design should be flexibly applied. In other words, those experiences will be used as available designs for the future workshops.

Finally, a month ago, I heard that Alice, one of my participants, passed this year's teacher's exam. She had dreamed of becoming a teacher for a very long time, from her middle school age to a senior in college. She shared this story of her ambition to be a teacher during the workshops with us and that she never thought about having other jobs for her future. She will make her very first step as an English teacher this year. I do hope all her experiences from our workshops can be used also as a part of her resources for her future classrooms and students.

References

- Ahn, S.-H. G. (2014). English teacher qualifications and environmental conditions for *Yungbokhap* Education: Focus group interviews of primary and secondary school teachers. *Teacher Education Research*, 53(2), 362-379.
- Anstèy, M., & Bull, G. (2006). Defining multiliteracies. In M. Anstèy & G. Bull (2006). *Teaching and learning multiliteracies: Changing times, changing literacies* (pp. 19-55). Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association.
- Barbera, L. E. (2009). *Palpable pedagogy: Expressive arts, leadership, and change in social justice teacher education (an ethnographic/auto-ethnographic study of the classroom culture of an arts-based teacher education course)* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Antioch University, Yellow Springs, OH.
- Bezemer, J., & Kress, G. (2008). Writing in multimodal texts: A social semiotic account of designs for learning. *Written Communication*, 25(2), 166-195.
- Biernacki, P., & Waldorf D. (1981). Snowball sampling: Problems and techniques of chain referral sampling. *Sociological Methods and Research*, 10, 141-163.
- Bloome, D., Carter, S. P., Christian, B. M., Otto, S., & Shuart-Faris, N. (2005). *Discourse analysis and the study of classroom language and literacy events: A microethnographic perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Boal, A. (1974). *Theatre of the oppressed*. (C. McBride & M. O. Leal McBride, Trans.) London, England: Pluto.
- Boal, A. (1979). *Theatre of the oppressed*. New York, NY: Theatre Communication Group.
- Boal, A. (1995). *The Rainbow of desire: the Boal method of theatre and therapy*. London, England: Routledge.

- Boal, A. (1998). *Legislative theatre: using performance to make politics*. (A. Jackson, Trans.). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Boal, A. (2002). *Games for actors and non-actors* (2nd ed.). (A. Jackson, Trans.). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Cahnmann-Taylor, M., & Souto-Manning, M. (2010). *Teachers act up! Creating multicultural learning communities through theatre*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Cahnmann-Taylor, M., Souto-Manning, M., Wooten, J., & Dice, J. (2009). The art & science of educational inquiry: Analysis of performance-based focus groups with novice bilingual teachers. *Teachers College Record*, 111(11), 2535-2559.
- Cameron, D. (2001). *Working with spoken discourse*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Chung, S.-H., & Kim, H.-S. (2015). Implementing convergent art programs for free semester in middle school. *The Korean Journal of Arts Education*, 13(3), 133-146.
- Cope, B., & Kalantzis, M. (2015). The things you do to know: An introduction to the pedagogy of multiliteracies. In B. Cope & M. Kalantzis (Eds.), *A pedagogy of multiliteracies: Learning by design* (pp. 1-36). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Fairclough, N. (1995). *Critical discourse analysis*. London, England: Longman.
- Finley, S., & Finley, M. (1998). *Traveling through the cracks: Homeless youth speak out*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego, CA.
- Freire, P (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York, NY: Herder and Herder.
- Gallagher, K. (2007). *The theatre of urban: Youth and schooling in dangerous times*. Toronto, Canada: University of Toronto Press.

- Garoian, C. R. (1999). *Performing pedagogy: Toward an art of politics*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Gim, C. (2017). Reflections on the free-semester program. *Korean Language Education Research*, 52(3), 5-35.
- Greene, M. (2001). *Variations on a blue guitar: The Lincoln Center Institute lectures on aesthetic education*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Gumperz, J. (1982). *Discourse strategies*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Harman, R., Ahn, S., & Bogue, B. (2016). Reflective language teacher education: Fostering discourse awareness through critical performance process. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 59, 228-238.
- Harman, R., & French, K. (2004). Critical performative pedagogy: A feasible praxis in teacher education? In J. O'Donnell, M. Pruyn, & R. Chávez Chávez (Eds.), *Social justice in these times* (pp. 97-115). Greenwich, CT: New Information Press.
- Harman, R., & Varga-Dobai, K. (2012). Critical performative pedagogy: Emergent bilingual learners challenge local immigration issues. *International Journal of Multicultural Education*, 14(2), 1-17.
- Harman, R. M., & Zhang, X. (2015). Performance, performativity and second language identities: How can we know the actor from the act? *Linguistics and Education*, 32, 68-81.
- Hasan, R. (1996). Literacy, everyday talk and society. In R. Hasan & G. Williams (Eds.), *Literacy in society* (pp. 377-424). New York, NY: Longman.
- Jo, D.-J. (2016). The characteristics of teachers' experiences in the teacher community focusing on self-reflection. *The Journal of Korean Teacher Education*, 33(3), 289-318.

- Johnson, K. E. (2009). *Second language teacher education: A sociocultural perspective*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Kenny, C. B. (1998). The sense of art: A First Nations view. *Canadian Journal of Native Education*, 22(1), 77-84.
- Kim, H.-S., & Lee, J.-Y. (2017). Effectiveness of English language instruction using drama in primary school: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Learner-Centered Curriculum and Instruction*, 17(23), 163-190.
- Kress, G., Jewitt, C., Bourne, J., Franks, A., Hardcastle, J., Jones, K., & Reid, E. (2004). *English in urban classrooms: A multimodal perspective on teaching and learning*. London, England: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Lee, B. (2014). *Dang-sin-ui yeong-eo-neun wae sil-pae-ha-neun-ga?* [Why does your English fail?]. Seoul, South Korea: Woorischool.
- Lee, J.-C., Hong, H.-J., Kim, M.-J., & Lim, J.-I. (2014). An analysis of instructions and educational activities on pilot schools of Free Semester System. *Journal of Research in Curriculum & Instruction*, 18(4), 1135-1161.
- Lee, K.-M., & Chun, S.-Y. (2017). A study on English teachers' understanding of the 2015 revised English curriculum. *Journal of Educational Innovation Research*, 27(3), 307-333.
- Lee, M. W. (2011). The influence of the current national curriculum on pre-service English teacher education in Korea. *Journal of the Korea English Education Society*, 10(1), 1-23.
- Lee, M. W. (2014). Utilizing critical discourse analysis in English language education. In O. Kwon (Ed.), *New horizons in English education research* (pp. 493-517). Seoul, South Korea: Seoul National University Press.

- Lee, W. (2015). Revisions of the national curriculum of English and challenges of English education. *English Teaching*, 70(5), 35-52.
- Ministry of Education. (2013). *Jung-hak-gyo ja-yu-hak-gi-je si-beom un-yeong-gye-hoek [The planning of free semester programs in middle school]*. Seoul, Korea: Ministry of Education.
- Mitsumura, M. (2012). *Transforming multicultural teacher education through participatory theatre: An arts-based approach to ethnographic action research* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ.
- Movimento Direitos Humanos (MHuD). (2009). The interview with Augusto Boal (Trans. by W. Park). *Translatin*, 10, 24-39.
- New London Group. (1996). A pedagogy of multiliteracies: Designing social features. *Harvard Educational Review*, 66(1), 60–92.
- Noh, J. (2010). *Mo-du-ga ju-in-gong-in yeon-geug, mo-du-ga ju-in-gong-in se-sang [Everybody's hero in the theatre, everybody's hero in the world]*. In B. Cho (Ed.), *Han-gug-gyo-yug-yeon-geug-ui hyeon-jae [The present of educational drama in Korea]* (pp. 85-104). Seoul, South Korea: Yeongeukgwa Ingan.
- Park, H.-Y. (2015). A critical discourse analysis regarding the tensions between the identities on the application of the free semester program. *The Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 33(3), 1-27.
- Potts, D. (2018). Critical praxis, design and reflection literacy: A lesson in multimodality. In R. Harman (Ed.), *Bilingual learners and social equity: Critical approaches to systemic functional linguistics* (pp. 201-223). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.

- Rymes. B., Cahnmann-Taylor, M., & Souto-Manning, M. (2008). Bilingual teachers' performances of power and conflict. *Teaching Education*, 19(2), 93-107.
- Saldaña, J. (2005). An introduction to ethnodrama. In J. Saldaña (Ed.), *Ethnodrama: An anthology of reality theatre* (pp. 1-36). Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press.
- Schleppegrell, M., & Moore, J. (2018). Linguistic tools for supporting emergent critical language awareness in the elementary school. In R. Harman (Ed.), *Bilingual learners and social equity: Critical approaches to systemic functional linguistics* (pp. 23-43). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.
- Seo, W., Jyung, C.-Y., & Jeong, J. (2015). Developing integrated model of educational community for free-semester. *The Journal of Practical Arts Education Research*, 21(4), 319-335.
- Shapiro, L. (2004). *Disrupting what is going on: Women educational leaders make art together to transform themselves and their schools* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Union Institute and University, Cincinnati, OH.
- Shapiro, L. (2006). Releasing emotion: Artmaking and leadership for social justice. In C. Marshall & M. Oliva (Eds.), *Leadership for social justice: Making revolutions in education* (pp. 233-250). Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Souto-Manning, M. (2011). Playing with power and privilege: Theatre games in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27, 997-1007.
- van Dijk, T. A. (2003). Critical discourse analysis. In D. Schiffrin, D. Tannen, & H. Hamilton (Eds.), *The handbook of discourse analysis* (pp. 352-371). Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.

Yeo, H.-S. (2013). English drama activity and performance practice for English education and creative expression. *Studies in British and American Language and Literature*, 106, 211-240.

Appendix 4A

Alice's story

<A night before high school entrance ceremony>

Finally, tomorrow is the first day at high school. I have dreamed of being an English teacher for such a long time, so I decided to enroll in foreign language high school to study English more. For this, I maintained almost perfect GPA for 3 years and attended an academy for every subject. However, although my reading skill and vocabulary improved a lot, I've never practiced speaking in English. I guess there will be a lot of students who have lived abroad. I am really worried about school life and I hope nothing will happen tomorrow.

<A week after entrance>

Well, it is always not easy to adjust to a new environment. Although my homeroom teacher is beautiful, she is a little bit scary and why is this school located at a high mountain? Above all things, every student looks rich and smart. In last conversation class, some students spoke with native English teacher without difficulties, but I could not even say a word. To make matters worse, teacher said that we should raise a hand and make an announcement (손들고 발표하다...) at least once in English Reading class. It's a pain in the neck for me.

<Next English Reading class>

Teacher : Good morning, guys. Today, we will finish the chapter 1 and let's do the reading section together. By the way, is there anyone who have not read the reading section? The teacher looked through the attendance book and my hearts also started beating so fast.

Teacher : Oh, how about Kyeong-jin? Could you read the first paragraph out loud? I was still nervous, but I could read it more fluently than expected as I had prepared for class in advance.

Teacher : Your pronunciation is good enough, but why didn't you do the reading earlier? Good job.

It seemed that the door of my heart against people and English started opening little by little. Although it was not a big compliment, it reminded me of forgotten courage that I can do better if I try hard.

Appendix 4B

Video 1 Transcript

Transcription Convention

All remarks in parentheses () are movements.

= latching

[] overlap

: elongated word

? rising intonation

↑ marked rise in pitch

↓ marked lowering of pitch

Bold: emphasis on word

Pause: (3) pause of 3 secs

(.) very slight pause

(..) pause of less than .5 of a second

(...) pause of more than .5 of a second (and less than 3 secs)

(AL: Alice, L: Lime, AR: Arnold, O: Oscar)

[00:00] Starts

- 1 AL: Good afternoon everyone↑: How was your weekend? (*looking at students*)
- 2 O: (*raise his hand and put it down quickly*) Fine.
- 3 L: Great.
- 4 AL: Okay. Today (.) we're going to do a group work and this is about (..) (*pointing to a*
- 5 *blackboard*)
- 6 making a ↑dialogue:: (*shaking her hands*) Yay::
- 7 O, L, AR: (*clap*)
- 8 AL: (*Looking at the paper she is holding*) The topic is what might happen when you take a
- 9 trip to U.S.A.
- 10 (*Look at the paper and then blackboard*) (*pointing to a blackboard*) So here is the rubric. As
- 11 you can see:: the group's performance takes accounts for the highest scores so you should
- 12 work together **very hard** (.) a::nd one thing you should keep in mind is that you can speak
- 13 English only. (*pointing to a blackboard*) So:: (...) I will tell you the group members. (*looking*

- 14 *at the paper*) So, the first group is (...) (*pointing at each student*) Oscar (.) Lime (.) and Arnold.
- 15 Please sit there (*pointing to the back seats of the classroom*) (.) with your group members.
- 16 (*Oscar, Lime, and Arnold stand up and move to the assigned seats in the back holding their*
- 17 *papers and pencil cases. When they get together, Oscar and Lime do a high-five each other*
- 18 *and sit in their chairs faster than Arnold*)
- 19 O: (*While Arnold is sitting, Oscar points at Arnold*) So, Arnold is (3) in our team, right?
- 20 L: (*Looking at Arnold*) You are (3) (*pointing to herself*) in our team?
- 21 AR: Yeah, (*stretching his hands and making a clap, with a smile on his face*) we are team!
- 22 L: (*Lime looks annoyed and puts down her pencil case on the desk. And then covering one*
- 23 *side of her face with a piece of paper to hide their conversation from Arnold*) (*in a whisper*)
- 24 Oh my gosh, he **sucks** at English.
- 25 O: (*Shakes his head*)
- 26 L: (*with a clicking sound of a pen*) uh we won't do uh (...)
- 27 O: (*covering his mouth with a piece of paper as well*) Honestly speaking (.) with his level of
- 28 English proficiency (.) he's not eligible for (..) ou::r (*with a hand gesture*) **team**.
- 29 L: yeah (*flipping her hand*) we are not going to make the **top** tea::ms. Ha:: (*flipping her hand*)
- 30 what should we do? Like he (..) (*making annoying face*) ahhh
- 31 A: (*Scratches his face and just watches Oscar and Lime having conversation*)
- 32 O: yeah he might be an obstacle to=
- 33 L: =Yeah
- 34 AR: (*Clenching his fist*) **Hey** let's start.
- 35 L: (*putting down their paper*) [Okay.]
- 36 O: [Okay.]
- 37 L: Um (3) We::ll so:: (..) what about (..) we make a dialogue about ordering food at (..) a fast
- 38 food place?
- 39 O: That's good.
- 40 L: Yeah
- 41 O: Um, how about In-N-OUT?=
 42 L: =(giving a gasp, with a big smile) (with her hands on her chest) ↑**Oh my go::sh**=
- 43 O: = Do you know? Have you ev (.) have (.) have you ever been there?
- 44 L: I **lo::ved** it when I was in California=

- 45 O: =Yeah
- 46 L: =like, (*with an exaggerated gesture*) they serve the **best** burgers and **best** french fries(..) **in**
- 47 **the wo::rld**
- 48 O: (*making a big smile*) Yeah, **super** duper good.=
- 49 L: =yeah (*making a big smile*)
- 50 O: [so (.) I]
- 51 L: [I love the place] (*touching her hair*)
- 52 O: Okay. [Let's choose this one]
- 53 A: [Wha wha] Oscar what did you say? I (.) IN? IN and?
- 54 O: **IN (.) N (.) OUT.**
- 55 AR: IN N OUT?=
56 O: =Yes.
- 57 AR: What, what's that?=
58 O: =Don't you know that? (*making annoying face*)
- 59 L: Oh
- 60 AR: I didn't know=
61 L: (*inhaling with baffled face*) that's (...) that's a burger place in America (...) in California.
- 62 AR: (*with hand gestures*) Ah:: Okay then (.) so (.) IN-N-OUT is like um (.) some (.) McDonalds
- 63 (.) um?
- 64 L: (*inhaling again with far more baffled face*) Oh but like Uh:: (sigh) You ↑**can't really**
- 65 **compare McDonalds and IN-N-OUT=**
- 66 O: =Yeah:: it's much better than just a franchise. McDonalds is just a franchise↓.
- 67 AR: Uh (..) o o o okay↓,
- 68 O: You might not know that [because it is]
- 69 L: [Yeah, it's alright] It's not a big deal..
- 70 AR: okay↓
- 71 L: (..) (*raising her hand*) oh so can I be the cashier?
- 72 O: Of course (*raising his hand*) can I take a role of customer?
- 73 L: Okay=
74 O: =Then how about you? (*pointing at Arnold*)
- 75 AR: (3) Uh, um:: (3) customer (..) a::nd (..) cashier↓

- 76 O: (...) (*Pointing to Arnold*) another customer=
 77 L: =Yeah okay=
 78 O: =Okay
 79 L: You do a customer=
 80 AR: =Oh okay okay↓
 81 L: Okay um (...) good morning? may I help you?
 82 O: um I'd like to order (...) uh one double-double and one coke, please.
 83 L: (*a slight inhale*) Okay that's five dollars in total↑
 84 O: (...) Oka::y. Here you are::
 85 L: Thank you (*with her hand gesture*) and here's your food↑
 86 O: Okay (*with his hand gesture*) here's your tip↑
 87 L: Tha::nk you. Good bye::
 88 O: Good bye=
 89 L: =Okay. (*smiling*) Great great=
 90 O: =Perfect (*smiling*) =
 91 L: =Perfect
 92 O: (...) It's your turn (*pointing at Arnold*)=
 93 L: =yeah you do that
 94 AR: yeah, my turn and
 95 L: Um
 96 AR: [okay]
 97 L: [Good morning?] May I help you?
 98 AR: Yes, uh (...) I (...) would (...) like to (...) have (3) uh (...) shrimp burger?
 99 L: (*inhaling, baffled*) uh they don't sell shrimp burger. Choose another one.
 100 O: yeah, shrimp burger is Korean style. Korean style bu burgers=
 101 AR: =ah, ah::
 102 L: Yeah
 103 O: No one choose [shrimp burger in America]
 104 AR: [o o okay okay] (...) I would like to have (...) uh:: cheese burger?
 105 O: [Yeah]
 106 L: [Okay]

- 107 AR: (*nodding*) Cheese burger and (...) and (...) One (...) one cup of cola?
- 108 O: (*shaking index finger*) No no no no
- 109 L: (*shaking her pen*) we we don't say one cup of **cola** we say just one **co::ke**
- 110 AR: Pardon? What? one one coke?
- 111 L: One **co::ke**=
- 112 AR: = one coke one coke? Oh (...) ah (...) Oh oh okay (...) um (....) But coke but isn't it coke,
- 113 coca cola (...)
- 114 L: (*slightly frowning*) **Yeah** but we just say one **coke**. (*pointing to Arnold's paper*) Just write
- 115 it down.
- 116 AR: oh:: okay (...) one cheese bur[ger and]
- 117 O: [C O, K E]
- 118 AR: uh (.) uh (.) one (...) coke (...)
- 119 O: Yeah
- 120 AR: Yes. Ah (.) ah↑ and I (..) also want to drink uh (.) a cup of cider too?
- 121 L: (*sighs*)
- 122 O: No::
- 123 L: =(*leaning backwards*) ah::=
- 124 O: No=
- 125 AR: =(*murmuring*) n, no....
- 126 O: the cider in in in America is different from the cider in Korea. So::
- 127 AR: and (..) [um]
- 128 O: [yeah] you may say (.) you can say um like this sprite or soda
- 129 AR: so (..) so (..) soda? Ss (...) [what? Wha what this]
- 130 O: [sprite]
- 131 L: [sprite]
- 132 AR: sprite?=
- 133 L: =S P R (.) I T E
- 134 AR: SP (..) what? (*looking at Lime*)=
- 135 L: =S (.) S P R=
- 136 AR: =R=
- 137 L: =I T E=

138 AR: =I T E

139 O: Have you never (.) have you never drunk uh::

140 L: sprite?=
 141 O: =sprite?

142 AR: uh (..)

143 O: It is sold in Korea too.

144 AR: Ah really? I always drink Chilsung cider

145 L: Okay=

146 O: =Okay

147 AR: Oh oh okay so=

148 L: =just just move on

149 AR: Okay and (..) Ah I would like to have cheese burger and (..) one coke and (..) One sprite
 150 please?

151 L: Okay (*tapping the paper with her pen*) that's (..) um seven dollars in total↑

152 AR: Ah okay (..) He, here you are↑ (*pretending to hand something to Lime*)

153 L: Thank you↑ and here's your food↑ (*pretending to hand something back to Arnold*)

154 AR: (*Pretending to receive the thing*) thank you

155 L: Hey (*Touching Arnold's arm, frowning*) you must give me tip (*holding both hands up with
 156 palms facing up*)

157 AR: tip?

158 L: Where's tip?

159 AR: tip? wh where's (..) wh wha:: what's **tip**?

160 L: Oh:: (*sigh*) so (..) when you go to a restaurant in America you must (..) uh (..) give waiters or
 161 cashiers tip

162 AR: what [what]

163 L: [Didn't] you know that?

164 AR: I don't know (..) Then, tip is mo money?

165 O: (*Oscar looks around and shakes his legs nervously*)

166 L: Uh:: like (..) um=

167 AR: =like extra=

168 L: =tip is ten to twenty percent of the whole price you pay for your food↑

- 169 AR: [Ah::]
- 170 L: [So] you must give them **some** amount of money for the waiters or the cashiers.
- 171 AR: Ah Ah:: Okay (..) I think=
- 172 O: =Please hurry up. [Look at other teams]
- 173 L: [(tapping her watch and frowning) yeah, we are out of time]
- 174 O: They are waiting for us. They've already finished.
- 175 A: (embarrassed and trying to write down something) Ah (.) uh (.) I (.) here is (..) here is
- 176 O: (pointing at Lime and whispering) You do that, you do that=
- 177 L: =(taking the worksheet away from Arnold) Ah (.) just give me that. [Um (..)]
- 178 O: [(urgently) What else um (..)]
- 179 L: (writing it down) here's the tip=
- 180 O: =How about for here or to go?=
 181 L: =Yeah. (writing it down) For **he:re** (..) or (..) to go↑ and why don't we just say [To go?]
- 182 O: [For here]=
- 183 L: =For here? Okay. (writing it down) for here (looking at Alice)=
- 184 AL: = (coming to the group and tapping on Lime and Oscar) Oh↑ you guys are really doing
- 185 we::ll But **why** (..) **why** Arnold why isn't Arnold speaking at all?
- 186 L: (Heaving a sigh and complaining) Like he's **not participating**↑
- 187 O: (Reluctantly) Yeah↓
- 188 AL: (Alice nods listening to what Lime and Oscar say)
- 189 L: (Shaking her head slightly) He's (.) He's not saying **any::thing**=
- 190 O: =He doesn't experience (.) he doesn't express his own ideas.
- 191 AL: Arnold, you should work harder.
- 192 AR: Uh (.) uh (.) I'm trying my best but (..) they say so fast↑ and it's difficult to (..) it's difficult
- 193 to (..)
- 194 AL: (flapping her hand) No no no=
- 195 L: (sighing and complaining) = it's not our **fau::lt**, teacher↑ [He's just]
- 196 AL: [I know (nodding her head) I understa::nd]
- 197 L: He's just (..) (looking down, frustrated)
- 198 AL: As you are in the best class in our school, you can do better if you try hard (...) and you
- 199 guys, keep in mind that this is not a competition and you are a **tea::m** (..) so↑=

- 200 L: =But it i::s a **competition**↑=
- 201 O: =[*(nodding)* yeah↑]
- 202 AL: [*(waving her hands)* **Stop**↑, stop, stop, stop] Just work together right? (*leaving the group*)
- 203 L: (*raising her hand and looking at Alice*) But can I↑ can I↑ teacher↑ teacher?
- 204 O: (*looking at Alice*) teacher?
- 205 L: (*talking to Alice*) Um (..) can we just two be the team?
- 206 AL: (...) No. As I mentioned (.) you are a **tea::m** so you should work together right?=
 207 L: =[ah:: (*sigh*)]=
- 208 O: =[ah:: (*sigh*)]
- 209 AL: Make something (*Alice leaves the group.*)
- 210 O: (...) ha:: (*sigh*)
- 211 L: (...) Oh yeah so (..)
- 212 O: (*discouraged*) What else. [What is your]
- 213 AL: [*(clapping her hands)* Time's up guy::s↑] Please bring your paper in front of the class.
- 214 O: (*Oscar brings a paper to the teacher*)
- 215 L: [*(Lime is looking at Arnold and the teacher)*]
- 216 AR: [*(Arnold is grabbing a pen with his fingers while looking at Oscar's desk)*]
- 217 AL: Thank you↑
- 218 O: (*Oscar gets back to his desk and sits down*)
- 219 AL: (*writing the scores of each group on the blackboard*) So:: let's choose the **top** three::
- 220 groups and raise your hands for the best groups.
- 221 O: [*(Oscar is tapping his desk with his hands)*]
- 222 T: So:: first (.) group number one.
- 223 O: (*Oscar is raising his hand*)=
- 224 L: =(Lime is raising her hand)
- 225 O: (*saying to Arnold in a quiet voice*) raise your hand=
- 226 A: =(Arnold is raising his hand)
- 227 AL: (*writing a number on the blackboard*) Okay::
- 228 O: [*(Oscar puts down his hand)*]
- 229 L: [*(Lime puts down his hand)*]
- 230 A: [*(Arnold puts down his hand)*]

231 AL: Group number two (*writing a number on the blackboard*) (...) Group number three
 232 (*writing a number on the blackboard*)
 233 L: Ha:: (*sigh*)
 234 AL: (*writing numbers on the blackboard*) So:: the best team is group number 3. Yay↑ (*clapping*
 235 *her hands*)=
 236 AR: =(*Arnold claps his hands*)
 237 L: [(*Lime claps her hands*)]
 238 O: [(*Oscar claps his hands*)]
 239 AL: Here's your reward (*moving her hands pretending to give rewards to students*). And this
 240 is the end of our class a::nd see you later bye (*shaking her both hands*)
 241 L: Bye↑ (*shaking her head*).
 242 O: Bye
 243 L: (*heading to Oscar*) (*in a whisper*) What's this? I don't understand like why does=
 244 O: =Yeah=
 245 L: =she make us do this **stu::pid** (*making quotation mark with hands*) things? Like I don't
 246 think we are learning anything (*shaking her hands*)
 247 O: Most of mistakes is kind of (...) (*tapping his desk with his hand*) he wrote.
 248 L: Ah::
 249 O: Because of him (*tapping his desk with his hand*).
 250 L: Yeah. He couldn't really do like like just I said (..) before the activity (..) we couldn't (.)
 251 they thought just be sick (..) (..) uh we couldn't do anything [because of him]
 252 O: [Yeah] (*the focus of scene has been changed from the conversation of Lime and Oscar to*
 253 *the conversation of Arnold and the teacher*)
 254 AR: (*heading to the teacher*) Teacher
 255 AL: Oh,↑hi, Dokyung.
 256 O: (*heard from the background*) He didn't make [any contribution of discussion]
 257 AR: [Uh (..) I (..)] actually (..) I had hard time taking this class.
 258 AL: (*looking at Arnold*) Uh-hum
 259 AR: (*making some gestures with his hands*) I'm good at reading and writing (..) but (.) I'm not
 260 good at speaking.
 261 AL: hum (*crossing her arms*)

262 AR: But they (..) Lime and Oscar (.) say so fast. They are good at speaking too. And so:: uh::

263 it is quite hard to listen (.) exactly↑and (..) uh:: it is also hard to understand what they mean

264 AL: (*Looks at her watch and looks at Arnold again*)

265 AR: For example (.) IN-N-OUT or tips (..) It's quite hard and I (..) don't understand well (..)

266 How can I (...)

267 AL: (*crossing one arm and looking at a paper held in the other hand*) Okay:: I know

268 you have a problem. But you know they have been abroad for such a **lo::ng** time and (.) so

269 (*looking at a paper*) they know much uh:: (*looking at a paper again*) they know much about

270 the cultural things. Right? (*crossing her arms again*) So:: I'm sorry but I cannot help

271 you anything.

272 AR: Uh::↓

273 AL: And I'm so busy so:: (*looking at her watch again*) see you later (*shaking her hand*) bye

274 (*leaving Arnold*)

275 AR: (*bowing to Alice*) Thank you↓ (*Arnold walks out*)

[10:20] Ends

Appendix 4C

Video 2 Transcript

Transcription Convention

All remarks in parentheses () are movements.

= latching

[] overlap

: elongated word

? rising intonation

↑ marked rise in pitch

↓ marked lowering of pitch

Bold: emphasis on word

b>

Pause: (3) pause of 3 secs

(.) very slight pause

(..) pause of less than .5 of a second

(...) pause of more than .5 of a second (and less than 3 secs)

(Role change: Alice (teacher→student), Oscar (student→teacher) in Lines 12 and 13)

(AL: Alice, L: Lime, AR: Arnold, O: Oscar)

[00:00] Starts

1 AL: Hello everyone↑: How's your weekend?

2 L, O, AR: (*Lime, Oscar, and Arnold look at the teacher*)

3 L: Great=

4 O: =Fine (*smile*)

5 AL: Okay today you're going to do a **very** interesting work. It's (..) dia↑logue making

6 activities. Yay (*shake her right hand*)

7 L, O, AR: (*Lime, Oscar, and Arnold clap with a cheer*)

8 AL: And the topic (.) is what might happen when you take a trip to USA. (*Pointing at the*

9 *blackboard*) Here's the rubric. As↑ you can see, tea::m performance is the most important part

10 so you should work together very hard.

11 O: (4) (*Raising his hand*) Oh, stop.

12 (*Alice and Oscar switch their roles. Oscar gets up and goes to the front of the class. Alice*

13 *goes to Oscar's seat and sit down there. Oscar is the teacher from now on.*)

- 14 O: (*Looking at students*) Okay, guys. This is not a competition. (*He waves his hand*) So:: you
 15 don't have to (..) **worry** about that. Um (..) the focus of this (..) um (..) task is (..) uh (..) the focus
 16 of this ta:sk (..) is not on the quality itself (..) but it's (..) rather on: the who↑le process of
 17 cooperation so:: I will see how **cooperative** and **collaborative** you a::re. So (..) you should
 18 do your best to (..) um (..) you know (..) **collaborate** each other. (*Looking at the blackboard*)
 19 And then (..) I'll give you a lot of time to do. Um, (..) We'll make a script and then (..) we'll (..
 20 ah (..) you'll deliver a presentation (..) but (..) uh (..) you don't have to do it (..) **this** time (..) I
 21 will (..) um (..) you will give (..) you will deliver the presentation in the next class so:: you don't
 22 have to feel **burden** or you don't have to feel **restless** or nervous. So: don't worry. A::nd the
 23 last↑ one is (..) uh (..) there is no **one wa:y** to speak English. There's no **perfect** English. So::
 24 you don't have to (..) feel pressed. You don't have to (..) uh (..) feel that I have to uh (..) speak
 25 English perfectly or I have to write English in a perfect way because there is **no** perfect English.
 26 So, I will um (..) I will emphasize **creativity** and **originality**. And this is (..) um (..) this is more
 27 important fact (..) um (..) evaluation factor of your presentation.
- 28 O: Okay. Um: I'm gonna organize the team. Um::, (*walking toward students and pointing at*
 29 *each student*)
- 30 Arnold (..) Lime (..) and Oscar. You are a group one. Okay. Um (..) anyone from each team (..
 31 come come to the front.
- 32 A: (*Arnold goes to the front*)
- 33 O: Okay, Arnold. Okay. This is (*looking at a piece of paper*) a material and you can refer to
 34 this material for your uh, dialogue. (*hand gesture for showing the papers to Arnold*)
- 35 AR: Thank you. (*AR bows to Oscar and comes back to his seat*)
- 36 AL, L, AR: (*Alice, Lime, and Arnold move to the assigned seats and gather together*)
- 37 L: What, what does he say?
- 38 AR: Uh:: according to this paper uh (..) we are (...) we are going to take a trip to USA?
- 39 AL: Uh huh↑
- 40 AR: And we are in the situation of ordering (...) burgers and↑ (..) burgers in IN-N-OUT a burger
 41 place.
- 42 L: [Ah:::]
- 43 AL: [Ah:::]
- 44 AR: Have you been to the (..) IN-N-OUT?

- 45 L: (*Smiling*) Actually I love that place.
- 46 AR: Um: okay.
- 47 AL: Actually I haven't heard about it. So: um can you introduce the menus in IN-N-OUT?
- 48 AR: Okay. Uh: there are double double burgers and cheese burgers. Only **two**: menu menus,
- 49 (..) in IN-N-OUT.
- 50 AL, L: (*Alice and Lime nod their heads*)
- 51 L: Um (..) so (..) who:: wants to be:: the cashier? (*Looking at Alice*)
- 52 AL: (*Alice looks at Lime and raises her hand*)
- 53 L: Okay (*smiling*)=
- 54 AL: =I will.
- 55 L: And um (..) (*Looking at Alice and Arnold*) can I order a food or=
- 56 AR: =you you first=
- 57 L: =okay.
- 58 AL: May I help you?
- 59 L: uh yes↑ I would like to one double double=
- 60 AL: =uh huh=
- 61 L: =And, one double-double↑ one French fries↑ one coke (..) and one coke.
- 62 AL: Okay. It's five dollars.
- 63 L: Here's uh huh↑ (..) the (*pretending to give money to Alice*)
- 64 AL: Thank you. (..) Here's the change. (*pretending to give the change to Lime*)
- 65 AR: (*Arnold taps on Lime's right arm*)
- 66 Lime: Huh?
- 67 AR: How, how about, guh, (..) giving cashier some tips?
- 68 L: [Ah:::]
- 69 AL: [Oh:::] yeah that's good=
- 70 L: =yeah I didn't (...) realize that we didn't include tips.
- 71 AL: (*Alice nods her head*)
- 72 L: So:: uh, right after that (..) giving **tips** (..) a::nd
- 73 O: How's it going?
- 74 L: Uh:: we we made our dialogue. Here's it. (*giving teacher the paper to Oscar*)
- 75 L, AR, AL: (*Lime, Arnold, and Alice look at Oscar and wait for his feedback*)

76 O: *(He reads the dialogue)* Um:: Huh:: *(Inhaling and smiling)* **wow**↑ you add you added the
77 tip ideas.

78 L: Yes

79 O: Who's ideas this?

80 L, AL: *(Lime and Alice point at Arnold)*

81 AR: *(Raising his hand)* Actually, I.

82 O: Oh Really↑ *(walking toward Arnold)* I (.) oh:: I'm really satisfied with this idea. It is **very**
83 **goo::d**. Um, I didn't (.) you know (..) I didn't um expect that you can think (.) you can come
84 up with this idea. Okay. This is **very** nice. It's great. Okay. Keep going on *(Oscar turns the*
85 *paper back to Alice)*

86 AR: [Thank you::]

87 L: [Thank you::]

88 AL: [Thank you::] Good job Dokyung *(Alice and Lime give a big hand to Arnold)*

89 AR: Uh

90 O: Oka::y. Gu::ys um please hand in your script.

91 A: *(Alice gets up and gives the paper to Oscar)*

92 O: Okay Then (..) I will uh:: then you guys will deliver the presentation next class.

93 L, AL, AR: *(Lime, Alice, and Arnold nod their heads)*

94 O: Okay. Class dismissed. *(Oscar smiles and clap his hand)*

95 L: Thank you:: *(clapping her hand)*

96 AL: [Thank you::] *(clapping her hand)*

97 AR: [Thank you::] *(Arnold stands up and goes to teacher for asking something)*

98 AR: Um (..) Teacher=

99 O: =Yes

100 AR: I have a question↑=

101 O: =Oka::y. *(looking at Arnold and smiling)*

102 AR: *(With some gestures with his hands)* Uh:: (...) I'm trying (.) I'm trying my best to (..)
103 coope to (..)

104 O: *(Oscar nods his head)*

105 AR: to address this class but I (..) have rather some difficulties in::

106 O: Uh huh *(nodding his head)*

107 AR: speaking↑ So:: how can I improve my English speaking skills?

108 O: We::ll (..) it's very hard because um (..) (*Looking seriously and making some gestures with*

109 *his hands which seem to be explaining*) there is as I said there's no **one wa::y** to: uh speak

110 English. So:: I think you're very good at English at at the moment and (..) you did (..) you've

111 done your **best** so you are very **good**. And you don't feel you know (..) you don't feel less

112 confident at the you don't have to feel less confident about it. So um:: and If you need any tip

113 or advice then I will um:: I will find more materials and I'll find more (..) um I'm gonna check

114 my books and I'm gonna my uh some documentaries so that I can find you any helpful you

115 know advices. So:: okay.

116 AR: Thank you (*Arnold bows to Oscar*)

117 O: (*Smiling*) Does it answer to your question?

118 AR: (*Nodding*) Yes=

119 O: =Okay.

120 (*Arnold walks out*)

[6:53] Ends

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

Overview

This research was designed and conducted regarding particularities of beliefs about English teachers, English education fever, English educational policy, and English teacher education curriculum in Korea. Specifically, according to the traditional beliefs about teachers in Korea, English teachers must be masters of knowledge with high authority; English education fever has been fierce in Korea while it has been combined with native-speakerism, which resulted in marginalization of the non-native speaking teachers and students in classroom; governmental-led educational policies have a strong influence on English classrooms such as the Teaching English in English (TEE) policy; and flexibility is difficult to maintain in English teacher education curriculum in connection with the governmental guidelines. In the English classroom, those sociocultural factors come into play together, and Korean English teachers face strong pressure from the government, society, and school. However, there is still a research gap in understanding this particular social context, gathering individual teachers' input, and offering alternative efforts as part of the teacher education curriculum.

This research aims to fill this gap. The study aimed to understand the particular Korean sociocultural context regarding English classrooms and Korean English teachers' identities based on their own opinions and lived experiences. Their input was collected mainly through narratives, performances, and other arts-based activities. The reflexivity, pedagogy of multiliteracies, and reflection literacy became a conceptual framework to guide the research in its

entirety. In particular, critical performative pedagogy (CPP) was designed and practiced as an alternative professional development model. During my own CPP practice with four pre-service English teachers, I found that our enacted classrooms showed problematic situations and possible solutions in the marginalization of non-native English-speaking learners and teachers. Moreover, I found that reflexive, supportive, and transformative aspects were essential elements in the effective CPP practice for Korean English teachers (KETs).

Revisiting Research Questions

This dissertation examined the English classrooms and English teachers in the particular Korean educational context in relation to the governmental policy for English education. I explored the English classrooms related to NESTs' English teaching, TEE for English classrooms, and free-semester programs for middle-school classrooms. Furthermore, I suggested CPP as a powerful tool to analyze the issues in English classrooms and find possible resolutions which can serve as an alternative professional development model for KETs.

The specific questions developed for each article in this research were as follows: First, what were the issues of English teaching of native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and KETs in Korea based on the in-service teachers' co-teaching experiences? Second, what were the Korean English classroom discourses and non-native English-speaking teacher (NNEST) identities found in the critical discourse analysis of enacted role-playing by pre-service teachers? Third, how could CPP be used as an alternative professional development for Korean English teachers?

Each article was also related to an education policy. The first article was related to the NESTs in public English classrooms and their collaborative work with KETs. The second article was related to the TEE classrooms, which resulted in language ideology issues. The third article

was an alternative response to the latest call for English teachers, such as free-semester programs. It suggested the CPP process as an alternative model for English teacher development.

Summary of Findings

The findings from each article are summarized as follows. In the first article, we found several critical issues for the co-teaching of NESTs and KETs in Korea based on their narratives on previous teaching experiences. They mainly pointed out insufficient teacher training, different educational environments, challenges from unclear co-teaching systems, a lack of sufficient communication or community, and a lack of support for social activities outside of school as major issues of NEST's teaching in Korean English classrooms. They also suggested that more practical teacher training sessions and discussions related to co-teaching English classes be provided to both NEST and KETs to resolve these issues. Moreover, future teachers should be approached as teacher learners or peer coaches for collaborative teaching. NESTs should also be recognized as members of the larger Korean community.

In the second article, I explored the Korean English classroom discourse and Korean English teachers' NNEST identities found in the critical discourse analysis of enacted role-playing through CPP. This study confirmed that the enacted classroom interactions represented the social discourse of English education in Korea under the impact of native-speakerism (NS). The analysis also illuminated the problems the KETs face pertaining to classroom interactions that produce marginalized English learners and deficit English teacher identities. Furthermore, this study offered a new understanding of pre-service NNEST identities, especially regarding how teacher identities have been positioned in the given social and political contexts. For instance, we found that the high authority and expectations about teachers as masters of knowledge was combined with the NS ideology which resulted in the marginalization of Korean

English teachers and students without study abroad experiences in the enacted classroom. However, this action research study also supported focal KETs to find ways to reframe the existing discourse by approaching the problematic situation from a different cultural framework. The forum theatre in the CPP process provided a tool and space for the KETs to open up their issues and find resolution in a collaborative way. Ultimately, they felt freed from the social pressure of being a perfect teacher from both the NS and Korean traditional views.

In the third article, I focused more on the pedagogical design of CPP, which can potentially be used as means for alternative professional development for Korean English teachers. This responds to the recently identified curriculum needs, such as free semester programs in which KETs make their lessons more interdisciplinary and creative so that students can find interests and future careers beyond learning language skills. From the CPP practice with a group of four Korean pre-service English teachers, I found that reflexive, supportive, and transformative aspects were essential elements in the CPP practice for KETs. Reflexivity refers to the pre-service teachers' examination of their own learning and teaching experience more critically and broadly in relation to the context of social discourses they live in by reflecting on their own experiences and that of their colleagues. Being supportive indicates collaborative discussion among the pre-service teachers about the issues as they tried to find resolutions together. It also includes the facilitator's participatory and supportive role. Being transformative means that the participants became action-oriented in searching for possible resolutions of the problematic situations during the process.

Together, all three articles show the relation of English classrooms and particularly the Korean sociopolitical context, specifically in relation to educational policies. As a conceptual framework, the concept of reflexivity was importantly applied. Reflexivity enabled the

researchers and teachers to reflect critically on their own teaching and learning experiences in relation to others, especially social discourses. Also, Cope and Kalantzis (2015) stated, “‘reflexive’ refers to the constant vigilance teachers must have, in order to gauge which pedagogical move is appropriate at different moments of the learning process, for different students, and for different subject matters” (p. 16). This approach is very useful for the teachers as they prepare more flexibly for their future teaching practices. The CPP process was applied as a powerful tool for reflexivity. In becoming familiar with this tool and designing the process for my participants, I found the potential of this tool to be used for promoting the reflexivity of many Korean English teachers and teacher educators.

Implications for Teachers and Teacher Educators

During this dissertation research, I found that the teachers who live and interact with learners in a particular sociopolitical context over time have a strong understanding of the particular social context and the issues with which learners would face difficulty. In this sense, KETs would be great facilitators for their students who struggle with their everyday life within the Korean educational context. This understanding of the particularity of the context was also one of the key elements of CPP practice (Harman & French, 2004). In this sense, teacher education programs should also provide the chance for KETs to reflect consistently on their educational experiences for future teaching classrooms.

As a way of promoting teachers’ reflexivity, I found that CPP can help support KETs. Effective CPP must involve understanding about multiliteracies and a good sense of community. Since many KETs are not familiar with the new forms of literacy including forum theatre mainly used in the CPP practice, the facilitator’s role is important in providing explicit and rich information about these elements. In particular, many Korean English teachers would consider

performance as a practice of English speaking skills or resources for assessment. Changing this stereotype poses a difficult task, as does building a strong sense of community. Thus, building trust among the participants, including the facilitator, should be carefully executed for long-term success.

Also, I acknowledged the possible challenges in CPP. For example, transferability of CPP to real classrooms is still under question. As Harman and French (2004) pointed out, being critically aware of utterances and performance is very difficult for all participants, while being critically aware of the details of the everyday classroom is a very tough job for teachers. In other words, critical awareness is a process that takes time, collaboration and constant negotiation. From a practical perspective, issues emerged related to technology, physical space, and the physical conditions of the participants. Filming the performances using some digital devices, having enough space for body movements, and confirming participants' physical conditions were all considered carefully before and during the CPP practice process. In this sense, teachers should be careful "designers of learning processes and environments" (New London Group, 1996, p. 73). Since this is a difficult process for individual teachers, all members of the educational community, such as other teachers, teacher educators, artists, administrators, and other facilitators, should work collaboratively to support reflexive processes in teacher education and K-12 classrooms.

Final Thoughts

I would like to conclude this dissertation with two important findings from this dissertation project over the entire two-year period. As Hasan (1996) said, we can produce our knowledge by analyzing the existing discourse of knowledge, and I believe that our reflexive practices in this dissertation re-create the meaning of learning and teaching English as a foreign

language, particularly in the Korean educational context. In other words, our knowledge cannot be stationary; it is constantly evolving. The social context is also changing over time. I think if all teachers and teacher educators embrace this knowledge, the classroom can become a place of greater flexibility and creativity. At the moment, Korean classrooms are very rigid because people are seeking the one excellent way for learning or teaching English, which follows the NS norm of English language teaching in many cases.

Second, I also found that our own experiences can be valuable resources for teaching and research. This second point is somewhat related to the first. When we learn and teach English, our own experiences seem to be out of place. Sharing these experiences with colleagues is a very important process, as it gives us agency to reflect and interpret our lived experiences. Having a supportive environment for sharing our experiences is also very important. If we keep evaluating each other with only negative feedback, a sense of support cannot be established. Since I was also educated and taught in a traditional Korean educational environment, I struggled to break the stereotypes I held. This dissertation serves as part of that long journey to change my understanding and identity as an English learner and teacher. I would like to continue this journey in the coming years with more teachers, students, and other people so that their diverse educational experiences can contribute to the evolution of our society's understanding about teaching and learning English.

References

- Cope, B., & Kalantzis, M. (2015). The things you do to know: An introduction to the pedagogy of multiliteracies. In B. Cope & M. Kalantzis (Eds.), *A pedagogy of multiliteracies: Learning by design* (pp. 1-36). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Harman, R., & French, K. (2004). Critical performative pedagogy: A feasible praxis in teacher education? In J. O'Donnell, M. Pruyn, & R. Chávez Chávez (Eds.), *Social justice in these times* (pp. 97-115). Greenwich, CT: New Information Press.
- Hasan, R. (1996). Literacy, everyday talk and society. In R. Hasan & G. Williams (Eds.), *Literacy in society* (pp. 377-424). New York, NY: Longman.
- New London Group. (1996). A pedagogy of multiliteracies: Designing social features. *Harvard Educational Review*, 66(1), 60-92.