

**Historical and Ideological Understandings of EFL Teacher Education and Critical Policy Discourse Analysis of IETTP in South Korea**

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**ABSTRACT**

By problematizing unwarranted assumptions in relation to native-like English proficiency, this thesis aims to reveal the unequal power relationship between the government and Korean teachers of English in public schools through a historical and ideological examination of EFL teacher education along with a critical textual analysis of the IETTP (Intensive English Teacher’s Training Program) drawing upon Critical Policy Discourse Analysis. The discussion on the history of EFL teacher education indicates that the IETTP is distinct from previous training programs in that it particularly aims to facilitate trainee teachers’ ability for TETE (Teaching-English-Through-English), and that it can only be a band-aid solution as long as the existing pre-service programs are evaluated as lacking in producing competent EFL teachers. Necessitation and self-deprecation, two Korean-specific language ideologies, have been adopted to explain Korea’s obsession with English education, and Korean teachers’ identities and roles as English teachers. Viewing the IETTP as a social event that represents the current status of in-service EFL teacher education, this thesis critically analyzes it by contextualizing and deconstructing relevant news articles, academic journals, and the texts and discourses in the General Plan of the IETTP. The analysis shows that the immediately preceding policy, TETE, acted as a catalyst for the IETTP while neoliberal influences disguised as the *segyehwa* (globalization) policy justify the new policies. By being promoted through the media and favorably evaluated by the academy, IETTP became naturalized in society. Through this process, Korean teachers of English have been described as passive and incapable beings who need constant improvement for better public English education. Under strong neoliberal influences, Korean teachers of English were downgraded to unsuccessful self-entrepreneurs or unskilled technicians. This thesis argues that more attention needs to be paid to the hidden power dynamics existing and affecting policy making and implementation so that we can face the emerging issues squarely.

**Chapter 1**

**Introduction**

Having over 130 years of history since its official start at *dong-mun-hag* (the first English school in South Korea) in 1883, English language teaching (henceforth ELT) in the country has gone through a number of changes in terms of the purpose, contents, and teaching methods. After the nation’s liberation from the Japanese colonial rule in 1945, changes have taken a more systemic form in accordance with the National Curriculum. Since the first implementation of the National Curriculum in 1954, there had been seven revisions by the year 1997, which was followed by three additional revisions in the years 2007, 2009 and 2015, respectively (National Curriculum Information Center [NCIC], 2018). Each revision reflects differently specified educational needs based on its unique social and political circumstances. In recent decades specifically, some significant changes in public English education have been made according to political decisions by the government. Under the slogan of *se-gye-hwa* (globalization) or *gug-je-hwa* (internationalization), the government decided to offer English as a compulsory subject in elementary school in 1995 arguing for early-childhood English education (Kwon & Kim, 2010). With the strong government level push, compulsory English education from the 3rd grade in elementary school began two years later in 1997. Around that time period, other prominent changes, such as the introduction of Communicative Language Teaching (henceforth CLT) and the initiation of English Program in Korea (referred to hereafter as EPIK, a government-initiated program which hires native English speakers as assistant teachers of English in public schools), occurred in 1992 and 1995, respectively. While the transition to a communication-oriented syllabus (the application of CLT) from a grammar-oriented one has been considered as the most notable and considerable change for the English subject in the 6th National Curriculum (Kwon & Kim, 2010), EPIK has brought about a strong presence of native English-speaking teachers in the public English education sector. These English language policies initiated and enacted by the government seemed quite drastic compared to the previous periods before globalization, and they became obvious signs for people to recognize the importance that the government imposed on English. Along with this government’s strong drive for globalizing the nation in the education sector, the nation’s neoliberal restructuring that followed the Asian financial crisis in 1997/98 became a powerful trigger for *yeong-eo-yeol-pung* (‘English fever’ or ‘English frenzy’) in Korean society, which is a well-known syndrome describing the relentless pursuit of English learning in Korean society (Cho, 2010; Park J., 2009; Piller & Cho, 2013). In Korea, English is not one of the foreign languages anymore. English proficiency has become “a crucial asset in order to obtain admission to elite schools and highly-desired jobs” (Lee, 2010, p. 247) regardless of its seldom use in people’s everyday lives. Not to mention the surge of the private English education market, this elevated status of English has also brought about other follow-up policies in the following years. Those policies are Teaching-English-Through-English (henceforth TETE, Teaching-English-in-English is often used interchangeably in an acronym, TEE) in 2001, IETTP (Intensive English Teacher’s Training Program) in 2003, TETE Certification System in 2009, and English Conversation Instructors in 2011. While all these follow-up policies aimed to improve the quality of public English education focusing on the aspect of English communication skills, they are all related to the teachers of English, more specifically Korean teachers of English in public schools. Since the introduction of CLT in early 1990s’, discussions in relation to English education have focused on how to teach English in communicative ways as a matter of course, and the following government policies are largely related to the Korean teachers of English. TETE is recommended as a desirable way to teach English while IETTP provides 6 month-long camp training with an only-English principle. In addition, TETE Certification System certifies TETE-capable teachers while the English Conversation Instructors policy supplies the growing demand for English-speaking teachers in public schools as the class hours of English increased from 2011.

Among the government polices listed above, this thesis argues that the specific policies initiated by the government show how the government conceptualizes issues of public English education and how it positions in-service Korean teachers of English. This thesis aims to focus on IETTP particularly as it is the most recent addition to in-service English teacher training in South Korea, which mainly focuses on improving trainee teachers’ speaking and listening abilities in English. The reason for choosing IETTP as the subject of this research is that this policy is distinct from previous teacher training programs in that its prime objective is to facilitate teachers’ abilities for teaching English through English (TETE or TEE). This unique aspect of IETTP makes it a good example for better understanding of the past and the present of EFL (English as a foreign language) teacher education in South Korea. This thesis claims that the specificity of IETTP also shows how the government conceptualizes public English education and the role of in-service Korean teachers of English. For this reason, this thesis aims to investigate IETTP in depth, and to critically analysis its policy texts in order to reveal hidden power dynamics that leave in-service Korean teachers of English disempowered and marginalized. Specifically, this thesis aims to reveal the power relations around IETTP through the historical and ideological considerations of the emergence and continuous presence of IETTP along with Critical Policy Discourse Analysis (Hyatt, 2014) of the IETTP-related texts and discourses produced by the government, print media and academy The reason for this methodological choice is that the research questions listed below are particularly related to ideologies and power relations, which can be better answered in their unique sociopolitical contexts. The point that the Critical Higher Policy Discourse Analysis Framework helps researchers to view policy texts from multiple perspectives, and to analyze them in their immediate and longer-term sociopolitical context (Hyatt & Meraud, 2015) also supports the methodological choice.

Since IETTP began in 2003, studies about the policy have mainly been on the effects or the evaluation of the program and training institutions. The studies carried out by Chang (2007), Kim, Lee and Oh (2006), Kim and Ahn (2011), Min (2006), and Park (2004) provide evaluations of IETTP. In her evaluation research, Chang (2007) claims that the results can provide program decision makers with judgements about IETTP and program staff with useful information for improving the program. Kim et al. (2006) and Min (2006) examine the effects of IETTP and indicate that the program is successful in improving trainee teachers’ language proficiency and teaching skills. Kim and Ahn (2011) evaluate IETTP from trainee teachers’ perspectives comparing what they expect from IETTP and how they evaluate it after the program. The study carried out by Kim et al. (2010) evaluates the training institutions ranking them anonymously. Some other studies examine the influences of IETTP on teachers’ professional development (Chang, Kim, Ko, Han, Kim & Hayes, 2012; Ha, 2009) while recent research is concerned with trainee teachers’ achievement and perceptions toward professional development in relation to IETTP (Kim & Kim, 2016; Hong & Min, 2016). As seen above, previous studies on IETTP have mainly focused on the effects and evaluation of IETTP and the training institutions.

In terms of the methodological approach, there seems to be no research adopting the framework of Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough, 1992, 1995, 2001, 2003, henceforth CDA) or Critical Policy Discourse Analysis (henceforth CPDA) to study IETTP though there are some studies that have adopted CDA in the field of English education. Some of the studies utilizing CDA analyzed a global commercial English language textbook used in South Korean universities (Fitzgibbon, 2013), the dominant discourses of English education for young children (Jun, 2011), the conservative discourse on the schools’ failure (Kim, 2009), the English-learning boom in Korea (Park H., 2006), the ‘Classroom Collapse’ reports (Seo, 2003), the homeschooling reports in South Korea (Seo, 2006), and the English immersion program discourses by some private elementary schools in South Korea (Shin, 2015). As listed, the subjects of the analysis are specific discursive events or discourses. Furthermore, none seems to be about English language policies in South Korea.

Given that IETTP has been studied mainly from the perspective of its effectiveness and influence on teachers’ professional development, the attempt to critically analyze IETTP adopting the Critical Policy Discourse Analysis framework can contribute to widening the scope of research on IETTP and also uncovering some areas that have been hidden by dominant power and discourses. This is because the CPDA framework is designed for the critical analysis of policy texts, and “of the processes and motivations behind their articulations, grounded in considerations of relationships and flows between language, power and discourse” (Hyatt, 2014, p. 41). In addition to utilizing the CPDA framework as its analytical tool, this thesis also attempts to provide a thorough historical ideological understanding of EFL teacher education in South Korea, which will explain the emergence and continuous existence of IETTP.

The research questions of this thesis are as follows.

* What is the justification for the heavy emphasis on improving English speaking skills of in-service Korean teachers of English?
* What is the historical background of the emergence of IETTP?
* What language ideologies of English exist in Korean society and how are they affecting English teaching and learning in the country?
* In what socio-political context did IETTP emerge and in what ways has IETTP been justified, legitimized and sustained?
* What are some naturalized discourses in relation to IETTP? In what ways are they produced, reproduced and reinforced?
* What power relations exist around IETTP and how do they affect each agent in the relations?

Posing the questions above, this thesis will attempt to answer them through historical and ideological considerations of EFL teacher education in South Korea and CPDA of IETTP-related texts and discourses produced by the government, print media, and academy. Due to the limited space of this thesis, not all the available texts and discourses will be analyzed (the selection criteria are described in Chapter 5). This can possibly weaken the analysis and interpretation of this thesis, which is unavoidable given limitations of space. The thesis proceeds through the following sequence.

The next chapter sets the context for the subsequent discussion in relation to IETTP and EFL teacher education. In this chapter, I problematize unwarranted assumptions in relation to native-like English proficiency in Korean society and in connection with IETTP. With the overview and the details of IETTP described, some contextual and ideological explanations for the heavy emphasis on native-like English proficiency are added.

Chapter 3 provides historical understanding of English language teaching and EFL teacher education in South Korea. In addition, it also attempts to provide better understanding of domestic EFL teacher education through the mainstream perspective of second/foreign language teacher education considering the influences it has on ELT in the country.

Chapter 4 identifies what language ideologies of English exist in Korean society and how they affect Korean people. Assuming specific language ideologies of English act as the moving force of English language teaching and learning, this chapter looks into in what ways those ideologies have influenced English language policies and Korean teachers of English.

In Chapter 5, my positionality as a researcher is presented, and is followed by the description of CDA as a theoretical framework with the contribution and critique of this approach. In addition, the CPDA frame is briefly outlined as the research methodology for analyzing IETTP-related texts and discourse in Chapter 6.

Chapter 6 shows how IETTP can be contextualized utilizing the three elements: temporal context, policy levers and drivers, and warrant, proposed by Hyatt (2014, p. 46). In this chapter, IETTP is also deconstructed using a set of criteria suggested by Hyatt (2014): Interdiscursivity and Intertextuality, Inscribed/evoked evaluation, and Presupposition (p. 52). From this contextualizing and deconstructing the policy, this chapter provides critical analysis and interpretation about the ways in which language work “within discourse as agents and actors in the realisation, construction and perception of relations of power” (Hyatt, 2014, p. 41).

Chapter 7 concludes the thesis with key findings, limitations of the research, some recommendations for further research, and what I have learned from the doctoral journey.

Though this thesis began from my critical question about the prime objective of IETTP, this research is not solely about the policy itself. It views IETTP as a social event that represents, though it can be partial, the current status of in-service EFL teacher education in South Korea. Based on the historical, ideological and contextual understanding of the policy, this thesis attempts to reveal what texts and discourses the government produces about English language teaching, in-service English teacher education, and in-service Korean teachers of English, and in what ways those texts and discourses are circulated, reproduced, and reinforced by print media and academy. In doing so, this thesis aims to reveal what power relations operate around IETTP and what implications they have on the agents involved in the relations.

Lastly, it is necessary to address the reasons why I became interested in this chosen topic. The fact that I am a native Korean speaker and an EFL teacher places me in the position of lifelong English learner. My English has never been better than my Korean and so pursing the nativeness in English, as a teacher of the language, seemed a natural obligation. Through my doctoral studies in the EdD program, I became aware of the hidden side of taken-for-granted assumptions in our society and also in my personal situation as I pursued nativeness. From my lived experience as an English learner and a teacher, I cast doubt on the Koreans’ consensual pursuit of English nativeness, and raised questions about the government’s equating proficient English speakers with good/better English teachers. What I consider most problematic is that there is an unequal power relationship affecting the perception and the status of Korean teachers of English in a negative way. Viewing IETTP as a social event, this thesis adopts CDA to analyze IETTP-related discourses aiming to reveal the influences of taken-for-granted assumptions and the unequal power relationship around the policy. I believe this thesis provides new perspectives on the chosen topics and also encourages some positive changes in the existing power dynamics.

**Chapter 2**

**Unwarranted Assumptions: Overemphasis of Native-like English Proficiency**

**2.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to set the scene for discussing historical and ideological understanding of IETTP in the context of Korean EFL teacher education in Chapter 3 and 4. This chapter and two other subsequent chapters aim to provide deeper understanding about the policy, IETTP, in the historical and ideological context of EFL teacher education in Korea before moving on to the Critical Policy Discourse Analysis of IETTP in the later chapter. The intended aim of Chapter 2, 3 and 4 is to provide both general and deeper understanding about the emergence and existence of IETTP, and, as the result, to aide and strengthen the CPDA of the policy.

In recent decades, ‘native-like English proficiency’ has been a quite popular phrase in South Korea (henceforth Korea). More precisely, native-like English proficiency is preferred and admired in the society when it comes to English learning and teaching. Though the validity of the native speaker model in the field of second/foreign language teaching has been questioned (Canagarajah, 1999; Medgyes, 1992), the native vs. non-native dichotomy still exists in Korean society. In the EFL (English as a foreign language) environment, there had been a growing demand for ‘authentic English’ and an ‘authentic English-speaking environment’ with the introduction of CLT in the field of English education, and this demand led to the emergence of English Program in Korea (referred to hereafter as EPIK) in 1995. EPIK is a government-initiated program, which hires native English speakers (henceforth, NES) as assistant teachers of English in public schools. Until recently, for about twenty years, the necessity of having NES as assistant English teachers had been emphasized for better public English education. In other words, Korean teachers of English alone had been considered lacking in teaching authentic English. This native vs. non-native dichotomy has been one of the characteristics of recent discourses in relation to English education in Korea, which is closely related to the popular phrase ‘native-like English proficiency’.

The main argument of this chapter is that the discourses of the native vs. non-native dichotomy or native-like English proficiency are closely related to IETTP, in terms of its purpose, specifically. The aim to improve Korean English teachers’ communicative competence, and their instructional skills of TETE presuppose that teachers’ high-level of English speaking proficiency to teach English in English will lead to better students’ learning. Downgrading the value of Korean teachers of English, the discourses of native-like English proficiency are being produced, reproduced and reinforced by the government, media and academy. Problematizing this unwarranted assumption, this section will look into the details of IETTP, which will be followed by a discussion about two possible explanatory elements for the emergence and continuous existence of IETTP: Communicative Language Teaching and Native-speakerism. In doing so, this chapter aims to provide an overview of the recent in-service English teacher training in Korea using a specific example of IETTP before moving on to historical and ideological understanding of English language teaching and learning, and EFL teacher education in South Korea.

**2.2 About IETTP**

IETTP is the most recent addition to the in-service English teacher training in Korea, which mainly focuses on improving trainee teachers’ speaking and listening abilities in English. IETTP is distinct from previous in-service training programs in that it particularly aims to facilitate teachers’ ability for teaching English only in English. IETTP was implemented in 2003 by the Korean Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (currently the Korean Ministry of Education, henceforth MOE) in accordance with the government initiative “to upgrade the nation’s English education to improve English education quality and the nation’s competitiveness” (Korean National University of Education [KNUE] the Center for In-service Education [TCIE], 2018). The main purpose of the program is “to improve Korean English teachers’ communicative competence” and “to practice their instructional skills of Teaching-English-Through-English” (KNUE TCIE, 2018).

To begin with, it is necessary to make the term, IETTP, clear as there are several other similar but slightly different English versions being used depending on how it is translated by authors. The original Korean title of IETTP is *yeong-eo-gyo-sa sim-hwa-yeon-su* and the literal translation of this Korean name into English is *English teacher Intensive training*. Some English versions used in research papers are ‘Intensive Secondary English Teacher Training Program’ (Park, 2004), ‘Intensive Training Program for In-service Secondary School English Teachers’ (Min, 2006), and ‘Intensive in-service English teacher training programs (INSET programs)’ (Chang, 2007). Among the several English versions, this thesis adopted IETTP which is the one used at the official website of KNUE TCIE.

IETTP consists of in-service English teacher training courses, which last a minimum of 600 hours over a 6-month time period (commonly, a combination of 5-month domestic training and a 1-month overseas training course). Having a quite brief history, IETTP has quickly become a representative in-service teacher education program for in-service Korean teachers of English in the country. Table 2.1. below shows the program and session overview presented on the website of KNUE TCIE (2018).

**Table 2.1.** IETTP Program and Session Overview

**Program Overview**

* **Purpose of Training Program**
* To improve Korean English teachers' communicative competence
* To practice their instructional skills of Teaching-English-Through-English
* **Principles of Training Program**
* To improve Korean English teachers' communicative competence
* Building a curriculum that enhances their English communicative competence, instructional skills and strategies
* Strengthening their active participation in discussion, presentation, and practice in the class
* Participating in the overseas program at the end of the training program

**Session Overview**

5-month + 1-month

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Session** | **Time** | **Number of Class Hours** | | **Teaching Concept** |
| **Regular** | **After class** |
| Session 1 (Basic) | 11 weeks | 308 | 14 | Communicative Competence |
| Session 2 (Intermediate) | 12 weeks | 301 | 15 | Communicative Competence  Micro-teaching Demonstration |
| Overseas Training (Advance) | 4 weeks | 120 |  | Communicative Competence  Teaching Methodology  Cultural Experience |
| Other | 1 week | 24 |  | Project study, Events, etc. |
| Total |  | 753 | 29 |  |

3month + 3-month

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Session** | **Time** | **Class Hours** | **Teaching Concept** |
| Session 1  (Orientation for overseas) | 3/4 | (4) | Opening Ceremony & Orientation |
| 3/1 – 3/23 (4 weeks) | 84 | Preparation for overseas course |
| Session 2 (Overseas) | 3/24 – 6/16 (12weeks) | 450 | Practicum in overseas schools |
| Session 3 (Reflection) | 6/17 – 6/23 (1 week) |  | Back to Korea break |
| 6/24 – 6/30 (1 week) | 28 | 1st Practicum in Korean schools |
| 7/1 – 8/14 (8 weeks) | 232 | KNUE course |
| 8/15 – 8/31 | 20 | 2nd Practicum in Korean schools |
| Total |  | 814 |  |

* **Total number of Trainees and Class Size**

About 140 trainees for each term

Class size: 12 trainees per class

* **Guiding Principles of English Only Zone**

All the classes are conducted in English by foreign faculty as well as Korean lecturers

Multimedia rooms will be available even after class for trainees in order to use a variety of multimedia resources

All the trainees are always encouraged to speak in English around the Center

All the trainees are encouraged to participate in a variety of activities after class

IETTP began in the spring of 2003 at the center for in-service education of KNUE. In the beginning, IETTP targeted secondary school teachers of English but, from the second half of 2005, it has extended its subject of education to elementary school teachers adding Keimyung University as the 2nd educational institution of IETTP. In the year 2006, the Korean Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (currently MOE) came up with its innovative plan to improve the quality of English education in public schools. As one of its implementation actions, it additionally designated educational institutions other than the two universities mentioned above aiming to provide in-service teacher education for over 1,000 teachers of English, annually. This expansion was also continued by the Korean Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (henceforth MEST, previously the Korean Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development) with the government policy to strengthen public English education from the year 2008 and therefore, the number of teachers who had participated IETTP more than doubled in three years: 2,620 and 2,037 in the years 2009, 2010, respectively.

As mentioned above, IETTP aims to help in-service Korean teachers of English improve their English communicative competence and practice their instructional skills of Teaching-English-Through-English. Teaching-English-Through-English (TETE) or Teaching English in English (TEE) is one of the major English education policies, which was introduced in the year 2000 (Hwang, 2014). In Korea, the introduction of Communicative Language Teaching (henceforth, CLT) along with the 6th Educational Curriculum in 1992 has been creating a strong demand for Korean teachers of English to be more proficient speakers of English in order to apply CLT methodologies in their class. Keeping pace with this trend, the government has announced its nationwide expansion plan of the TEE certificate system, which has certified Korean teachers who are proficient enough to teach English only in English, since 2009 (MEST, 2009).

Unlike other in-service teacher education programs previously administered, IETTP is designed to invite in-service teachers to attend a 6-month-long training camp away from their daily duties, which is the longest and the most intensive in-service teacher education program ever in Korea. The description below shows how IETTP operates on site.

In order to achieve the main objectives of IETTP, the curriculum is designed to develop teachers’ self-directed English learning ability and teaching methods. For better educational effects, all the training areas are designated ‘English-only Zones’ which encourages trainee teachers to speak only in English. Also, the class size is limited to 11 to 13 people, that enables them to have opportunities to converse with English native speaking instructors, to have discussions or debates and to enhance their teaching abilities through practicum and micro teaching. In addition, overseas training is attached to maximize the educational effects of the domestic training and, for trainee teachers, to have a chance to experience the new culture and to utilize their experiences for their teaching. (Min, 2006, p.33, translated from Korean)

**Some Limitations and Drawbacks of IETTP**

Lastly, some limitations and drawbacks of IETTP will be discussed and then what implications they may have for positive change in the program. The fact that IETTP aims to improve teachers’ English communicative competence paradoxically suggests that the existing pre-service teacher education fails to help student teachers develop necessary English abilities. In terms of teachers’ continuing professional development, in-service teacher education cannot be separated from pre-service teacher education which is supposed to teach a student teacher the required knowledge and skills to be a teacher. If teachers’ English communicative competence is of the utmost importance in being an English teacher, this matter should be treated most importantly from the beginning of pre-service teacher education. In reality, however, the current pre-service teacher education courses lack English communication ability-centered curriculums (Kim E., 2008; Kim, 2016). The course curriculums are rather heavily influenced by English language and literature, and linguistics (Bae, 2002; Park J., 2006). Kim (2016) reports that the percentage of English language and literature in pre-service teacher education reaches about 27.4%. As for the reasons why English language and literature has a profound impact on pre-service teacher education, Park J. (2006) points out,

It has not been long before TEFL (Teaching English as a foreign language) or ELT (English language teaching) was recognized as an independent, scholarly discipline or a professional area in Korea… Literature with its long history and tradition has been considered and ranked top as a noble, sublime study and research area followed by language study or linguistics, and teaching at the very bottom of the ladder of English related disciplines… Unlike English literature and linguistics, TEFL does not stand alone with its own subcategories…… lack of understanding of TEFL as a professional area is shown in the university curriculum for English education majors which consists of a larger number of courses and faculty in literature and linguistics than in TEFL. (p. 123-124)

The heavy influence of English language and literature is more prominent in the curriculum of the National University of Education, which prepares elementary school teachers. This is problematic in that CLT is strongly highlighted in elementary schools. Ironically, Teacher Colleges that educate secondary school teachers are less influenced by English language and literature but the strong focus on preparing students for the pencil-and- paper College Scholastic Ability Test (henceforth CSAT) hinders teachers teaching English via CLT (Bae, 2002). Since the 1990’s when MOE attempted to reform the educational system, departments of English Education have gradually included TEFL-related subjects in their curriculums. However, maintaining the same faculty composition makes things difficult to bring about the drastic changes that are needed (Park J., 2006, p. 124).

In fact, it does not seem feasible that the 6 month-long IETTP can achieve whatever goals the 4-year pre-service teacher education courses do not properly deal with. Without having a fundamental approach to the current issues, IETTP can only be a temporary remedy that can hardly accomplish its objective. In Korea where education is considered powerful “cultural capital” (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 47), teaching students ‘communicative competence’, that CSAT does not include, sounds empty given that current English education is still focused on preparation for the CSAT.

**2.3 Some Contextual and Ideological Matters**

As discussed above, it is quite clear that IETTP mainly emphasizes the high level of English speaking proficiency of Korean teachers as the objective of the program. This thesis suggests that this heavy emphasis on teachers’ English-speaking proficiency can be explained with two elements: CLT and Native-speakerism. In the following section, CLT and Native-speakerism will be discussed in relation to the emergence of IETTP. For better understanding of CLT in the context of Korea, a brief description of the history of English Language Teaching (henceforth, ELT) in Korea will be first made. In doing so, this section aims to show when, why and how CLT was implemented in the national curriculum and also, what influence CLT has had on educational policies and in-service teacher education in the country. The following discussion of Native-speakerism will supplement the explanation by providing an ideological element of IETTP.

**2.3.1 Significant Influence of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)**

**Brief History of English Language Teaching in Korea**

The English language was first introduced in Korea in 1882 when the government concluded a commercial treaty with the U.S. and, in the following year, English education began at *Dongmoonhak* which was the first English school in the country (Hwang, 2014: Kwon & Kim, 2010). Having over 130 years of history, English education in Korea can be roughly divided into three parts: the late period of the Chosun Dynasty (from the late 19th century to the early 20th century), the Japanese colonial period (1910-1945) and the post-liberation period. In the late period of the Chosun Dynasty, English education was provided at government schools, *Dongmonhak* (a government school for training official English interpreters), *Yookyounggongwon* (the Royal English College), and *Oegukeohakgyo* (the Foreign Language School) and, at the same time, English education was done at the missionary schools founded by American missionaries. After the conclusion of the Treaty of Peace, Amity, Commerce and Navigation with the United States and the United Kingdom in 1882 and 1883, respectively, the government felt the need to foster English speakers in order to communicate with those countries. The late 19th century is considered the beginning stage of English education in Korea while the Japanese colonial period is evaluated as the depression period (Hwang, 2014; Kwon & Kim, 2010) of English education. As their colonial policy was to destroy the Koreans’ national spirit and to combine the colonies with their country, the Japanese government suppressed the number of non-governmental schools advocating strong nationalism at that time. In the meantime, they were expanding the number of government and public schools in order to reinforce their Japanese language education policy by excluding or drastically reducing the English language from curriculum subjects. In the classroom, the use of English language was banned labeling it as an enemy’s language. In addition, native English-speaking teachers were replaced by Japanese and Koreans who were proficient in Japanese, which resulted in the use of Japanese language for English teaching and learning. For this period of time, the focus of English education was not on practical English but on the grammar and translation. The teachers mainly used the grammar translation method to teach English which influenced the early English education of the country after liberation (Hwang, 2014; Kwon & Kim, 2010).

After liberation from Japan in 1945, Korea was under US military government control for three years. During that time, the form of English education as well as those of other subjects started to be redefined and, as a result, temporary teaching guidelines were decided and implemented until the national curriculum was formulated by Education Law under the Korean government. This period is called ‘the Era of Teaching Guidelines’, which continued until 1954. For the first time, Education Law was enacted and proclaimed in 1949 along with the establishment the South Korean government in 1948. After 6 years of legislation, the 1st Educational Curriculum for secondary school was finally announced in 1955. Since then, the Educational Curriculum has undergone seven revisions, the last being in 2007. The 1st Educational Curriculum is considered to have partially adopted audiolingual method based on structural linguistics and behavioristic psychology while the 2nd Educational Curriculum fully adopted the audiolingual method. From the 3rd Educational Curriculum, cognitive-code learning influenced by cognitive approaches and cognitive psychology was applied, which resulted in a stronger emphasis on grammatical knowledge. This was because cognitive-code learning regards sentence structure and grammar as important. In the following two revisions, the government claimed to support CLT but grammar-oriented classes continued at the classroom level, without a considerable change. From the 6th Educational Curriculum which adopted a ‘notional-functional syllabus’ (Wilkins, 1976), English education in Korea finally changed its direction to CLT (Kwon, 2000; Kwon & Kim, 2010) and this continues up until today.

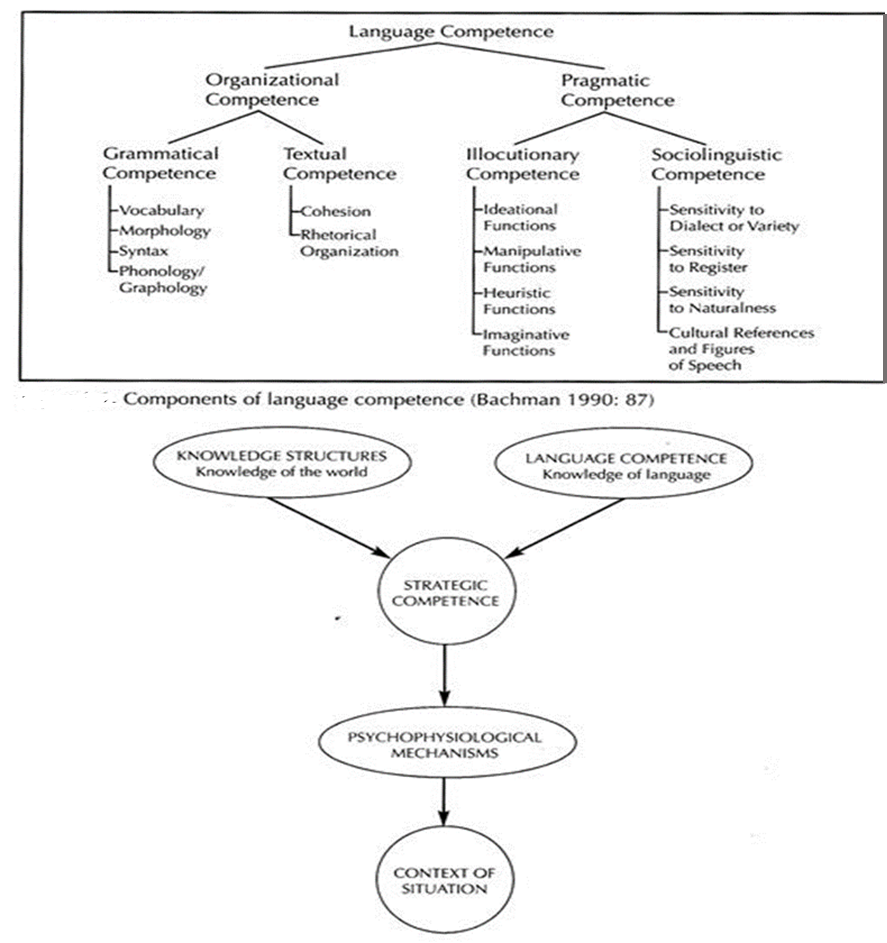
**Communicative Competence and CLT in South Korea**

Communicative competence is ‘a household phrase in Second Language Acquisition (SLA)’ and Communicative Language Teaching is ‘the pedagogical counterpart’ of communicative competence (Brown, 2007, p. 218). A dictionary defines competence as “the ability to do something well or effectively” (Collins Cobuild Online, 2018). In relation to language, “competence is one’s underlying knowledge of the system of a language – its rules of grammar, its vocabulary, all the pieces of a language and how those pieces fit together” (Brown, 2007, p. 36). Dell Hymes (1972, 1967) who first coined the term ‘communicative competence’ describes it as that which “enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts” (as cited in Brown, 2007, p. 219). After the introduction of the term, it has been at least five decades since the social, cultural, and pragmatic implications of communication gained more attention than structural and cognitive characteristics (Brown, 2007). Researchers have attempted to define and redefine the conception of communicative competence (Savignon, 2005). Among them, Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) define communicative competence with four different components as shown in Table 2.2. below (as cited in Brown, 2007, p. 219-220).

**Table 2.2.** Four components of communicative competence

* **Grammatical competence** is related to ‘knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology’ (Canale & Swaine, 1980, p. 29).
* **Discourse competence** is related to ‘the ability we have to connect sentences in stretches of discourse and to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances. Discourse means everything from simple spoken conversation to lengthy written texts (articles, book, and the like)’ (Brown, 2007, p. 220).
* **Sociolinguistic competence** ‘requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of the participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction. Only in a full context of this kind can judgements be made on the appropriateness of a particular utterance’ (Savignon, 1983, p. 37).
* **Strategic competence** is related to ‘the verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or due to insufficient competence’ (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 30).

While grammatical competence and discourse competence are related to “the use of the linguistic system itself”, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence are concerned with “the functional aspects of communication” (Brown, 2007, p. 219). These four-component constructs have been modified over the years and these newer views on communicative competence are best captured in Bachman’s ‘language competence’ (p. 220-221). Below Figure 2.1. shows how ‘language competence’ (Bachman, 1990) is configured, and the components of communicative language ability in communicative language use (cited in Brown, 2007, p. 221-222).



***Figure 2.1.*** Components of communicative language ability in communicative language use

In Bachman’s model, the components are subdivided and elaborated under language competence. Also, the components of communicative language ability are newly structured. The salient point of this model is that sociolinguistic competence is subcategorized under pragmatic competence with the addition of illocutionary competence. Illocutionary competence includes functional aspects of language, such as greeting, parting, requesting, responding and the like. This functional aspect of language is in line with the functional approach to describing language. British linguist, J.R. Firth who viewed language as interactive and interpersonal is considered to be one of the contributors to the emergence of the functional approach (Brown, 2007). Among the various interpretations of language functions, Halliday (1973) elaborates seven different functions of language as in Table 2.3. below.

**Table 2.3.** Seven Functions of Language

* **Instrumental function**: This serves to manipulate the environment, to cause certain events to happen.
* **Regulatory function**: This is the control of events – approval, disapproval, behavior control, setting laws and rules.
* **Representational function**: This is the use of language to make statements, convey facts and knowledge, explain, or report.
* **Interactional function**: This serves to ensure social maintenance, which requires knowledge of slang, jargon, jokes, folklore, cultural mores, politeness and formality expectations, and other keys to social exchange.
* **Personal function**: This allows a speaker to express feelings, emotions, personality.
* **Heuristic function**: This involves language used to acquire knowledge, to learn about the environment.
* **Imaginative function**: This serves to create imaginary systems or ideas: telling fairy tales, joking, or writing a novel.

(Halliday, 1973 as cited in Brown, 2007, p. 224)

These functional descriptions of language have led to the use of functional syllabuses or notional-functional syllabuses for language teaching (Brown, 2007, p. 225).

In Korea, the notional-functional syllabuses were adopted from the 6th Educational Curriculum in 1992 along with the implementation of CLT. In addition, the first listening comprehension section of the nationwide College Scholastic Ability Test was administered in 1994. This can be interpreted as an official sign of governmental level interest in the listening and speaking aspects of ELT which had been disregarded previously (Hwang, 2014, p. 224). In the following curriculum revisions after the 6th, the focus on improving students’ English communicative competence has continued along with the ongoing spread and emphasis of CLT. After 8 years of CLT implementation, a new policy, Teaching English in English (TEE), was published in 2000 (Hwang, 2014; Lee & Hong, 2012).

Since its implementation, CLT has been at the core of ELT in Korea for over twenty years. At first glance, it does not seem difficult to infer what CLT is from the term itself, however, it is not simple to define what exactly CLT means. Richards and Rodgers (2001) claim that CLT is best understood as an approach, rather than a method. Brown (2007) points out that CLT is “a unified but broadly based theoretical position about the nature of language and of language learning and teaching” (p. 241). For the sake of simplicity, Brown (2007) offers four interconnected characteristics (p. 241) as a definition of CLT as in Table 2.4. below.

**Table 2.4.** Definition of CLT

1. Classroom goals are focused on all of the components of communicative competence and not restricted to grammatical or linguistic competence.
2. Language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes. Organizational language forms are not the central focus bur rather aspects of language that enable the learner to accomplish those purposes.
3. Fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques. At times fluency may have to take on more importance than accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use.
4. In the communicative classroom, students ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts.

Since the CLT-oriented curriculum was implemented, Korean teachers of English have faced many challenges and difficulties in their classrooms (Ahn, 1998; Choi, 2000; Fuilloteaux, 2004; Jeon, 1997; Kim, 2009; Li, 1998 as cited in Jeon J. 2009). In particular, teachers’ favorable attitudes towards the communicative approach do not always lead to their actual application to teaching in the classroom (Jeon J., 2009). In her study on key issues in applying the communicative approach in Korea, Jeon J. (2009) claims that teachers’ lack of experience with a communicative and leaner-centered approach, the test-oriented education system and the large number classes are the reasons for the challenges and difficulties that Korean teachers face. In relation to teachers’ lack of experience with CLT, she points out the grammar-translation approach through which most Korean teachers have learned English as the reason why Korean teachers are not familiar with the learner-centered English teaching approach. Therefore, teachers may well know about CLT theoretically through their previous teacher education programs, but they did not have enough chances to observe or apply the practice in actual classrooms. Secondly, most students learn English to get good grades in school, to enter prestigious colleges, to get decent jobs, and to get promoted at work. So, teachers’ performance is also evaluated with the results of those students’ goals. The problem is that practical English communication ability is neither required nor necessary to achieve those goals. This situation pressures teachers “to continue to teach for test success, not for communicative skills” (Jeon J., 2009, p. 124). Lastly, the common class size with 35-40 students is not small enough to effectively apply a learner-centered approach (Jeon J., 2009, P. 124)

In the same study, Jeon J. (2009) also highlights 18 key issues expressed by practicing language instructors in Korea in relation to the reality where “an evitable gap between the ideals represented in the national curriculum and the reality practiced in the actual classrooms” (Choi, 2007 as cited in Jeon J., 2009, p. 128) exists. Table 2.5. shows the 18 key issues in applying the Communicative Approach (Jeon J., 2009, p. 130-132), which I consider useful for understanding practical issues of CLT implementation in the context of Korea.

**Table 2.5.** 18 key issues in applying the Communicative Approach in Korea

**Issue 1. Changing from education centered on passing a university entrance exam.**

Most of the Korean education system has focused on preparing students to successfully pass university entrance exams. To change from this emphasis to promoting communicative competence in language skills has caused much upheaval in the system.

**Issue 2. Developing assessment techniques to match communicative objectives.**

While the communicative approach is emphasized for instructions, the main mode of assessment is still discrete point tests or standardized tests, in conjunction with preparing students for the university entrance exam. However, this is not an appropriate way to assess progress in communicative competence.

**Issue 3. Developing curriculum that allows flexible use of the textbook.**

Many teachers still feel the need to finish, or cover, all the material provided in the textbook, instead of allowing time for students to practice actual use of the language.

**Issue 4. Developing practical and interesting materials.**

There are many complaints about the topics and information included in the textbooks. They are often neither interesting, relevant, nor motivating to students.

**Issue 5. Developing supplemental materials.**

Usually only a textbook is provided for teachers. There are few supporting materials available, and teachers are too pressed for time to make interesting and relevant materials themselves.

**Issue 6. Providing tools and technology.**

There often is a lack of availability of language labs, computers, overhead projectors, videos and tapes. Appropriate technology could strongly support a communicative approach.

**Issue 7. Providing instruction on using technology and resources.**

Having the technology available is simply not enough without the appropriate training and support for teachers to use the tools effectively and easily.

**Issue 8. Improving teachers’ English communicative competence.**

Many EFL teachers in Korea have had little experience themselves in communicating in English. It is difficult to focus on listening and speaking in the classroom when a teacher’s own level is low in these areas.

**Issue 9. Developing detailed teaching techniques for communicative competence.**

Most of the resources describing communicative teaching techniques are published by foreign publishers. Korean EFL teachers want specific support and explanation of techniques that are appropriate to their unique situation.

**Issue 10. Providing experience in the learner-centered approach.**

The learner-centered approach is contrary to Korean educational tradition, and most teachers have had no personal experience in this approach. Therefore, there is a need for the modeling of this approach in the classroom, and personal experience for the teachers to better understand how the approach can work.

**Issue 11. Providing opportunities for systematic in-service teacher training.**

Currently, there is only one, formulaic in-service training program that teachers can attend. There is a need for greater depth and support of the communicative approach for in-service teacher training programs.

**Issue 12. Promoting teacher motivation to comply with the communicative approach.**

Even if teachers thoroughly agree with the theory behind the communicative approach, it can be incredibly difficult to implement. School administrators, parents, and students still want high test score results. Therefore, teachers are often more motivated to teach to the test instead of working hard to create materials and lessons encouraging communicative competence.

**Issue 13. Having a reasonable number of students in the classroom.**

There are more students than a teacher can handle in one language classroom. In order to make a language class communicative, the number of students per class should be reduced.

**Issue 14. Appropriate seating arrangements.**

Most classrooms in Korea have fixed desks in rows, all facing toward the teacher’s podium. This makes group work and monitoring difficult.

**Issue 15. Promoting leaner motivation and participation.**

Korean students are accustomed to passive learning. To suddenly be in a classroom where they are expected to participate and respond is often a surprise. Students are not sure of what is appropriate behavior in such a situation. Also, in large classes it is difficult for teachers to monitor activities well, therefore, students are not held accountable to participate. In addition, students still are not evaluated according to communicative competence, so their motivation for participating in communicative activities is very low.

**Issue 16. Lowering students’ anxieties about new teaching methods.**

Korean students can feel insecure and nervous in a communicative atmosphere since they have not had previous experience to such an educational approach. Also, most Korean students are extremely afraid of making any mistakes in front of the teacher or another classmate. This can greatly limit practice of language use in the class.

**Issue 17. Increasing parents’ and administrators’ understanding of the communicative approach.**

Since test scores are still so important and necessary in Korean culture, it is hard to convince parents that a communicative classroom is helping their child improve in language skills. Public awareness needs to be raised about communicative language learning and teaching.

**Issue 18. Improving pre-service teacher training programs.**

Hopefully, the training of teachers in the communicative approach can begin before they arrive in the classroom. Recently, there has been an emphasis on including training during an in-service training program. There needs to be more work done to include communicative language teacher training in university classes.

Among the practical implementation issues of CLT, the most addressed and influential one in designing in–service teacher education programs has been Korean teachers’ communicative competence in English (see *Issue 8.* described above). As previously mentioned, the government’s strong drive for CLT has brought about new polices like TEE and IETTP, which both aim to produce better English-speaking teachers. In terms of teachers’ oral proficiency in the communicative classroom, Brown (2007) argues that nonnative teachers who are not very proficient in English speaking may have difficulties in effectively applying CLT because they may feel not comfortable doing unrehearsed exercises that require much more spontaneity than using dialogs, drills, rehearsed exercise and discussions of grammatical rules in their first language. Even so, it is problematic that there are no standards or guidelines on how proficient nonnative English-speaking teachers (henceforth NNEST) should be in an era when NNESTs are estimated to outnumber their native English-speaking counterparts three to one (Crystal, 2003 as cited in Selvi, 2011, p.187). In the same vein, there is no such discussion as to what level of proficiency NNESTs should have in order to apply CLT in their classroom. Despite the absence of such standards or discussion, the communicative competence of NNESTs is often problematized in the Korean society. In fact, current social circumstances suppose that NESTs hold a prominent position in English language teaching (Min & Hong, 2015) – or in the application of CLT– supporting the notion of ‘native speaker fallacy’: a prevalent assumption that “the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker” (Phillipson, 1992, p.185). This thesis argues that this unwarranted assumption contributes to the overemphasis of the value of native-like English proficiency in the society.

**2.3.2 Strong Presence of Native-speakerism**

As discussed above, this thesis argues that CLT has influenced the recognition of and the attitude towards in-service Korean teachers of English, and also contributed to the emergence of IETTP in Korea. In addition to CLT, this thesis claims that ‘native-speakerism’ (Holliday, 2006) is another contributory element in the same domain. Holliday (2005) defines the term native-speakerism as “a pervasive ideology within ELT (English Language Teaching), characterized by 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” (p. 385). In Korea, native-speakerism can be considered as not only one of the major characteristics of the public’s but also the government’s attitude toward ELT. Currently, the significant number of NES who are hired by public schools, private academies or educational institutions shows the strong presence of native-speakerism. This is because the reason for recruiting NES is, not to fill a shortage, but to “improve the English speaking abilities of students and teachers in Korea and to reform English teaching methodologies” (Jeon, M. 2009, p. 231). In fact, native-speakerism has come to the level where it affects the government policy decision on NEST recruitment. Since 1995, the government has hired NES as English teachers for public schools through the English Program in Korea (referred to hereafter as EPIK). EPIK, affiliated with the Korean Ministry of Education, was established to recruit native speakers of English as teachers for public schools, “with the mandate to improve the English speaking abilities of students and teachers in Korea and to reform English teaching methodologies” (Jeon, M. 2009, p. 231). The biggest problem with EPIK is that “it attempts to establish a direct causal relationship between language proficiency and pedagogical practices” (Braine, 1999, 2010 as cited in Selvi, 2011, p. 188). According to MEST (2010), the number of NESTs has greatly increased from 59 in 1995 to 1,107 in 2005 and 8,547 in 2010. According to the data for parliamentary inspection of the government offices, the average disposition rate of NESTs at public schools has reached 65.46% (Jung, 2009). This means that 65.46% of public schools have at least one NEST for their English class. Among the major cities, the ratio at schools in Jeju, Chungnam, Gyeongggi and Busan is 100%, 90.39%, 87.13% and 82.68% respectively, while the lowest cities are Gyeongbuk (24.61%), Daegu (30.77%), and Jeonam (38.42%) (Jung, 2009).

In fact, the assumption that equates NES with an ideal English teacher has been creating several major issues. Among them, whether qualified teachers are being hired has been a major concern. Although there has been a movement to enhance the basic qualifications of NES teachers in recent years, being a citizen of one of the ‘inner circle’ (Kachru, 1997) countries, Australia, anglophone Canada and South Africa, Ireland, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, and the United States, is still the most favored requirement for the applicants (Park J., 2006). It is assumed that people from those English-speaking countries are natively qualified to be good teachers of English although there is no clear evidence or high correlation to support the assumption. Other major qualifications are a “minimum Bachelor’s degree in **any** area”, “a good command of the English language”, and “the ability and willingness to adapt to Korean culture and living” (Park J., 2006, p. 129). It is problematic that no English teaching experience or certification has been required until recently when the applicants are from those countries. On the contrary, having proper qualifications is essential for Korean teachers to teach any subject in public schools. In principle, graduation from a Teachers’ College or College of Education and a teacher’s certificate are necessary to be teachers in public elementary and secondary schools. While the government provides no reasonable rationale why schools should keep hiring NES teachers, there is “only a strong assumption that this is a ‘good gospel’ to quench the people’s thirst of learning English” (Park J., 2006, p. 128-129). With regard to this situation, Park J. (2006) points out,

They are political agendas rather than educational decisions supported by English Language Teaching (ELT) or Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories. With many questions and concerns unanswered, more and more native English speakers are being hired as classroom teachers and teacher trainers. (p. 129) Note: The political and ideological aspects of government policy decisions will be discussed further in Chapter 4 and Chapter 6.

In terms of the educational effect of having NESTs, contrary to some people’s expectation, Hwang et al. (2011) report that students at schools with NESTs exhibit neither better English efficacy nor higher English test score in their study on the effectiveness of EPIK. Based on the findings, they suggest that more attention should be paid to improving the quality of EPIK than to expanding the program (p. 235).

The deeply rooted native-speakerism in Korean society has had an influence on the image of ideal teachers of English. Although Jeon M. (2009) argues that “the dichotomy of the native speaker of English as a superior teacher, and the non-native speakers of English as an inferior teacher is too simplistic to explain real-life experiences of EPIK teachers” (p. 231), it is not deniable that the existing native-speakerism in the country “privileges speaking English by assigning a superior status of ‘teachers’ to the speakers of the language” (Shin, 2006, p.151). This circumstance has placed Korean teachers of English in an inferior position, where they are asked to make persistent efforts to improve their English communication abilities until they become native-like. Besides, this perspective may be “leading to negative consequences for their teacher persona, self-esteem, and thus their in-class performance as well” (Selvi, 2011, p. 187). Contrary to this, in the broader field of second/foreign language teaching, some researchers reject the distinction between native and non-native speakers (Canagarajah, 1999; Medgyes, 1992) arguing that it only works for the interests of the inner circle countries (Kachru, 1981). Though internationally there seems a call for a paradigm shift “in which non-native speakers should be treated as different instead of deficient” (e.g., Moussu & Llurda, 2008 as cited in Pae, 2017, p. 165), the reality in South Korea seems quite distinct from this recent trend of research.

**2.4 Summary**

Knowing that IETTP is the most recent addition to the in-service English teacher training in Korea, Chapter 2 has problematized the overemphasis on improving in-service Korean teachers’ English communicative competence and examined some contextual and ideological matters behind the emergence of IETTP. Firstly, this chapter provided the overview of IETTP and looked into the details of the policy along with its limitations and drawbacks. After describing a brief history of ELT in Korea, the significant influence of CLT and the strong presence of native-speakerism in IETTP were discussed for better understanding of the policy. Since the government’s strong drive for CLT, new policies like TEE and IETTP have been implemented emphasizing the necessity of producing better English-speaking teachers. Having no standard or discussion as to how proficient NNESTs should be for their communicative English teaching, the non-nativelikeness of NNESTs is often problematized in the Korean society bestowing NESTs a superior position in English language teaching. In short, this chapter has set the scene for discussing historical and ideological understanding of IETTP in the context of Korean EFL teacher education in Chapter 3 and 4 before moving on to the CPDA of the policy in the later chapters.

**Chapter 3**

**Historical Understanding of EFL Teacher Education in South Korea**

* 1. **Introduction**

The purpose of Chapter 3 is to provide an historical understanding of IETTP in the context of Korean EFL teacher education. This aim is set to provide deeper understanding about the emergence of IETTP in the historical context of EFL teacher education in Korea. In other words, the aim is to investigate from what historical background of EFL teacher education has IETTP emerged. This thesis argues that having a historical understanding of EFL teacher education is crucial for locating from where IETTP emerged and where it stands in the larger picture. To start, a brief history of how EFL teaching has evolved in Korea since its official beginning about 130 years ago will be offered, which can be a useful base for the following discussions about EFL teacher education. A general description of the past and present of EFL teacher education (public level only) will be followed in the form of a brief history and some current key issues of EFL teacher education. It will then go through some major discussions that are heavily treated in the field of second/foreign language teacher education along with recent trends in the field. Next, it will examine how current EFL teacher education including IETTP in South Korea can be better understood through the lens of second/foreign language teacher education. Lastly, it will see what implications this better understanding of EFL teacher education has on the emergence and continuous existence of IETTP. Considered that previous research has rarely dealt with contextual aspects of IETTP, this attempt will, hopefully, widen and deepen the understanding of the policy.

**3.2 English as a Foreign Language Teaching in South Korea**

This section will briefly look at how EFL teaching has evolved in South Korea from its official beginning in the latter era of the Chosun Dynasty (the late 19th century) to the Period of National Curriculum (1954-present). The history of ELT in South Korea can be roughly divided into two parts: before the liberation and after the liberation from Japanese rule. The former begins with the nation’s first contact with English language and its culture, and ends with the nation’s liberation. The latter begins in 1945 and continues until the 2000s. As will be discussed in the following section, EFL teaching in South Korea has been influenced by several teaching approaches or methods originated and developed in European and North American countries. Understandably, language teaching approaches and methods also influence the contents and the ways of English language teacher education as they are one of the key elements that language teachers should be knowledgeable about and familiar with. For this reason, the following discussion will be around how ELT teaching has evolved in South Korea in relation to language teaching approaches and methods.

**Before the Liberation**

ELT officially was started at *dong-mun-hag* (the first English school in South Korea) in 1883 by British telegraphic engineer Halifax and two Chineses instructors who were university educated in America (Moon, 1976 as cited in Kwon, 1995, p.109). Kwon and Kim (2010) classify the time from 1653 to 1883 as ‘the waking period’ of English language teaching in the country as they see that there had been increasing situations and needs to use English language in the country long before the establishment of *dong-mun-hag*. Following the waking period, those years from 1883 to 1895 are classified as the germinating period when American missionaries taught English to a limited number of people after the country first opened the door to foreign countries. After that, the period from the year when the decree of establishing first modern schools was issued until right before the beginning of Japanese colonial education is labeled as the formative period (1895-1911). This period is considered to have formed regular school education of English language (Kwon & Kim, 2010, p.28). This formative period was followed by the tribulation period, from 1911 to 1945, when ELT was carried out by the Japanese colonial government.

During these periods described right above, the Direct Method, the Natural Method, and the Grammar-translation Method were mainly used for EFL teaching (Kwon & Kim, 2010). In fact, ‘the Direct Method’ and ‘the Natural Method’ (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 11) can be used interchangeably. They are both based on the natural language learning principles, which argue that a foreign language can be taught only in the target language if meaning is conveyed directly through demonstration and action. Neither translation of the target language into the learner’s native language nor the use of the learners’ native language is necessary. This monolingual approach to teaching inspired by the observation of child language learning was popular in the nineteenth-century in European countries and the United Sates. On the other hand, ‘the Grammar-Translation Method’ (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 6) is one of the traditional language teaching approaches, which was dominantly used from the 1840’s to the 1940’s. This method was originally used to teach classical languages, for example, Latin. The Grammar-Translation Method focuses on translating sentences, understanding grammatical rules and acquiring vocabulary. In fact, speaking the foreign language was not the goal of this method (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

During the germinating period in Korea, English was taught only in English by native English speaking instructors who did not speak Korean at all (Moon, 1976 as cited in Kwon, 1995). At this time, the aim of teaching English was to train government interpreters who needed practical skills of speaking and listening. Regarding this situation, Kwon and Kim (2010) assume that the practical objectives of English teaching and the native English-speaking instructors’ lack of proficiency in Korean have contributed to the major use of the Oral Method and Direct Method (p.26-27). During the following formative period, Korean instructors who were taught by native English speakers and who returned from abroad joined as instructors to teach English. In this period, there was an attempt to apply ‘the Reading Method’ (Richards & Rogers, 2014, p. 21) according to the curriculum of government schools that was designed to develop students’ reading abilities first. However, the Direct Method and the Natural Method were still adopted by native English speaking instructors due to their lack of proficiency in Korean (Kwon & Kim, 2010). Regarding this situation, Campbell who was an American missionary founded *Baewha Hakdang* (one of the modern schools in Korea) and one of the English instructors herself documented that “I took all the trouble to teach the Bible and English classes by hand signals and gestures or by brining realia on the lecture table (p.67)” (Baewha 60 years of history, 1958 as cited in Kwon & Kim, 2010, p.35, *retranslated the quotation from Korean into English*). This illustrates the practical necessity of persistently using the Direct Method or the Natural Method by foreign instructors.

In the tribulation period under Japanese colonial rule, being fluent in the Japanese language became one of the major qualifications to be teachers at private schools (previously many private schools were missionary schools that were founded and taught by Americans). This led to the increased number of Japanese and Korean teachers of English while the number of American teachers decreased, significantly. In this circumstance, the ELT method shifted to the Grammar-Translation Method with an aim of teaching English for students to take exams to go on to higher schools. Thus, English classes were teacher-centered focusing on how to solve test questions in order to get good grades (Kwon & Kim, 2010, p. 42). Underwood (1926) describes this situation in his book *Modern Education in Korea* as follows:

Under this sort of plan, it is not surprising that ‘the best teacher of English Grammar in the city of Seoul’ should be an individual who cannot speak English intelligently but who has thoroughly mastered the puzzles and trick questions of the examinations for the advanced school in this subject (as cited in Kwon & Kim, 2010, p. 42).

Park (1975 as cited in Kwon & Kim, 2010, p. 43) also describes that English instructors at this time gave teacher-centered, one-way lectures and, in addition, they were teachers of complicated grammar rules, not the speakers of the target language. Kwon and Kim (2010) assess this period as the beginning of grammar and translation-oriented ELT in the country, which failed to breed up fluent speakers of English even after long years of learning the language (p. 43). This brief history before the liberation provides the historical origin of the significant influence of Grammar-Translation Method on EFL teaching in the country.

**After the Liberation**

After the liberation from Japanese rule, ELT in the country went through seven periods of national curriculum (1954-2006) starting with the Era of Teaching Guidelines (1946-1954). After the liberation, EFL teaching in Korea evolved mostly around the Grammar-Translation Method, the Audiolingual Method, and the Communicative Approach. In fact, the Grammar-Translation Method was considered as the most influential one that has been passed down until the 1990’s although there had been some attempts and voices to apply new methods (Kwon, 1995, p. 110). In relation to the English teaching method in the country, Bae (1973 as cited in Kwon, 1995) pessimistically foresaw that “while rejecting the grammatical explanation and translation oriented teaching method, it has persistently, overwhelmingly used them, and this will continue” (p. 110). Among scholars, there had been continuous introductions and discussions of new teaching methods or approaches mainly from European and North American countries. However, they did not permeate down to the classroom level (Kwon, 1995) until the implementation of the 4th National Curriculum in the late 1980s. It was the 5th National Curriculum (1987-1992) when the word ‘communicative competence’ was first introduced. Strong emphasis on improving students’, as well as teachers’ communicative competence began to appear in the following National Curricula.

As described above, there have been attempts to apply the flow and trends of the broader field of second/foreign language teaching in the country although there always was a gap between the introduction and the application of new methods. Kwon (1995) argues that the history of EFL teaching in Korea can be considered an uphill struggle to introduce new methods or approaches from the West in the midst of major application of the Grammar-Translation Method (p. 110). The struggle can be interpreted as evidence that EFL teaching in Korea has been under the influence of the so-called mainstream language teaching methods or approaches. In other words, ELT in Korea is subordinate to the mainstream of second/foreign language teaching, to a certain extent. Currently, a widespread application and strong support for Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the country can be another example of the subordinate relations.

While the period of ‘before the liberation’ can be considered the historical origin of the considerable influence of Grammar Translation, the latter period shows the influence from the mainstream second/foreign language teaching. Given the long-standing influence, it is necessary to understand the current ELT in Korea through the mainstream trends. However, as it will be discussed later in this chapter, the influence of the mainstream only provides a partial explanation about present EFL teaching and EFL teacher education in Korea.

**3.3 Emergence and Development of EFL Teacher Education in South Korea**

This section will present when and how EFL teacher education in Korea started and how it evolved mainly utilizing the retrospect and prospective of English teacher education in Korea by Min and Park (2013) which provides the general overview of EFL teacher education with necessary and informative details. EFL teacher education for public school teachers in the country can be roughly divided into pre-service and in-service. According to Min and Park (2013, p. 159), pre-service EFL teacher education dates back to 1946 when the department of English literature was newly opened at College of Education at Seoul National University. After two years, in 1948, the department of English literature produced five graduates for the first time. In 1946, another department of English literature was opened at the College of Education at Daegu University. In 1960, the department of English literature at the College of Education, at Gongju National University was newly founded and, three years later, the department of English education was opened at Ehwa Womans University in 1963, when pre-service EFL teacher education began to be more regularized (Min & Park, 2013). In the early 1970’s, pre-service EFL teacher education was offered at most national universities. In the case of private universities, it started in the 1980’s, which was about a decade later. Having about seventy years of history, the number of Colleges of Education with departments of English education are 39 and admit about 1,200 students every year. In addition, there are two general universities that have departments of English education and 92 universities, in total, that have graduate schools of education with English education majors (Min & Park, 2013). From these universities, about 5,300 pre-service English teachers are being produced every year obtaining Grade 2 teaching licenses (Ministry of Education and Science Technology, 2011 as cited in Min & Park, 2013).

In the case of in-service EFL teacher education, it is not clear when it exactly began. It seems that there was workshop style training from the 1960’s, which was systematized later as Qualification Training and General Training when a teachers’ in-service training ordinance was enacted in 1972 (Min & Park, 2013, p. 162). From 1982, in-service teacher training for public elementary school teachers was implemented to help them teach English as one of the extracurricular activities. In 1996, a year before English language was chosen as one of the regular subject for the 3rd grade elementary students, a 120 hour-long teacher training program was developed and administered by the Ministry of Education for elementary school teachers.

In general, the Qualification Training targets Grade 2 school teachers who have a minimum 3-year teaching experience in order to certify them as Grade 1 teachers. (Grade 2 teachers here mean those who are licensed school teachers and Grade 1 teachers are the Grade 2 teachers who completed the Qualification Training). This training is controlled by the regulations under a Presidential decree. By participating in this Qualification Training, teachers aim to improve their necessary qualities as EFL teachers, such as English teaching skills, teacher classroom practices, and teaching materials development and utilization. However, the trainee teachers’ satisfaction level was not that high according to research on the Qualification Training (Kim Y., 2008; Oh, 2010). In order to improve the Qualification Training, the government revised the regulations on September 28, 2012 (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2012). Table 3.1. shows how the Qualification Training was configured and how it has been revised.

**Table 3.1.** Revisions to the Qualification Training for Grade 1 school teachers

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Before the revision** | **After the revision** |
| **Training period and class hours** | Over 30 days, over 180 hours | Over 15 days, over 90 hours |
| **Training course** | Basic qualities 10~20% | Basic qualities 10~20% |
| General teacher training 10~20% | Competences 20~30% |
| Specialties 60~80% | Specialties 50~70% |

(Min & Park, 2013, p. 163)

As seen in Table 3.1. above, the prominent change was replacing general teacher training with competences. While the content of general teacher training was about the understandings of government’s policies on education, that of competences is, in principle, meant to focus on teachers’ self-directed professional development (Min & Park, 2013, p 163) as described in Table 3.2. below.

**Table 3.2.** The description of competence area in the standard curriculum of Qualification Training for Grade 1 secondary school teachers

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Area | Subcategory | Details | Subject | Allocation ratio |
| Competence area | Professional  development | -Self-development, Learning conation  -Self-monitoring, Responsibility  -Leading changes, Assertiveness  -Self-respect, Self-esteem | -Research on class improvement  -Self-driven practice after training  -Building learning organizations,  -Practice of research on subject matter education  -Autonomous training based on the evaluation index of teachers competence development | 10~15% |
| Class management | -Leadership, Decision-making  -Initiative, drive  -Communication  -Problem-solving  -Conflict management | -Strategies and skills of class management  -Understandings of regulations on education, office management, and schools’ accounting system  -Creating a democratic class environment  -A friendly and trustworthy relationship between teachers and students | 10~15% |
| Autonomy | -Autonomous competences | -Autonomous choice of training institution | 0~10% |
| Sub-total | | | 20~30% |  |

(Min & Park, 2013, p. 164)

The General Training, which is another major in-service EFL teacher education, is run by each city and province. This General Training is divided into Job Training and Intensive Training. Job Training basically aims to improve teachers’ qualities and abilities by providing teachers with various training courses. Unlike the Qualification Training, teachers can choose from various training courses that focus on one topic each, depending on their needs. Generally, Job Training is run for 30~60 hours in one or two weeks (normally, one credit for fifteen hours). In the case of training that runs over 60 hours, participants are evaluated as well (Min & Park 2013, p. 165). Recently, there are also on-line training courses with blended ones also being available while the ratio of the on-line is gradually increasing (Oh, 2010 as cited in Min & Park, 2013). In relation to the Job Training for in-service teachers, some research suggests that the Job Training courses they studied have some areas for improvement, such as addressing ineffective and lenient evaluation methods and the lack of professional teacher trainers (Chang, 2006; Park J., 2006 as cited in Min & Park, 2013, p. 165).

In 2003, the form of Intensive Training, specifically IETTP, was newly implemented aiming to overcome the limitations of the previous short-term and temporary EFL teacher training (Min & Park, 2013). This Intensive Training particularly intended to establish the foundation for TEE (Teaching English in English) by helping trainee teachers develop their abilities to apply CLT and improve their teaching skills. Currently, different types of the Intensive Training are available but all of them are operated with the basic rules of about 700 training hours, 10~15 trainees per class, TEE-oriented training, improving trainees’ teaching abilities and skills, leveled lessons, and pre and post evaluation (p. 165-166). The IETTP curriculum analysis done by Jin, Joo, Kim J, Kim S, Ko, Lee, Park, and Song (2010) supports this strong focus on TEE-oriented training demonstrating that the courses for improving trainee teachers’ English communicative competence have the highest percentage, 53.4%, of the curriculum while courses related to English teaching theory, methods and practice have 37.4%.

To sum up, EFL teacher education is divided into pre-service and in-service teacher education. Pre-service EFL teacher education has about 70 years of history in Korea. After producing the first 5 graduates from College of Education at Seoul National University in 1948, over 5,000 pre-service English teachers are being produced every year. On the other hand, in-service EFL teacher education became systemized in 1972 when a teachers’ in-service training ordinance was enacted. While in-service EFL teacher education is divided into the Qualification Training and General Training, the General Training is comprised of Job Training and Intensive Training. In general, Job Training is run for 30-60 hours over one or two weeks, and is available in the forms of on-line, off-line, or blended. In the case of the Intensive Training, it was newly implemented in 2003 with the name of IETTP aiming to overcome the limitations of previous in-service EFL teacher education programs. The rationale provided by the government for implementing IETTP was to effectively support TEE classes in elementary and secondary schools (Kim, Kim, Lee & Woo, 2010). This brief history of EFL teacher education shows that IETTP is the most recent addition to the in-service EFL teacher education, which is distinct from previous in-service teacher education programs in that it is a long-term, camp-style program particularly aiming to facilitate Korean teachers’ abilities for TEE.

**3.3.1 Current Key Issues of EFL Teacher Education in South Korea**

Drawing on the general description of the emergence and development of EFL teacher education in the previous section, this section will go through some notable issues that have been raised by previous research on EFL teacher education in Korea.

As mentioned, EFL teaching has not been recognized as a separate area of study in Korea. Considered that the first EFL teacher education in the country began in the Department of English Literature in 1946 at College of Education at Seoul National University, it was about twenty years later after the first EFL teacher education began when the Department of English Education was opened for the first time in the country. The situation where EFL teaching or EFL teacher education was subcategorized under the department of English Language and Literature has led to the heavy involvement of English Language and Literature in the contents and the work of the faculty members of Teacher Colleges of Education (Park J., 2006). Lee (1999 as cited in Min & Park, 2013) reports that, among the total 385 curriculum subjects of 11 Teacher Colleges of Education nationwide, 118 (30.6%), 100 subjects (25.9%) are related to the field of English Literature and English Linguistics respectively while 89 subjects (23.1%) and 78 subjects (20.2%) are linked to the functions of English Language and English Education. Considering the fact that Lee’ research was carried out over fifty years after the first EFL teacher education program, it is quite surprising to see how long and how deeply English Language and Literature has wielded its influence over pre-service EFL teacher education. In a more recent study of curricula in English teacher (pre-service and in-service) training programs for primary and secondary school, Kim E. (2008) demonstrates that the courses related to English Literature and English Linguistics still outnumber the four skills of English, English pedagogy and evaluation (p. 269).

According to Pae (2002), over 70% of the faculty members of the Department of English Education at Teacher Colleges nationwide are comprised of professors of English Language and Literature. Pae (2002) also argues that the curriculums of those Teachers Colleges are not much different from those of the Department of English Language and Literature at general universities. More recent research (Min & Park, 2013) shows that there has been about a 10% increase in the number of English education related subjects while those of English language and literature have decreased as seen in Table 3.3. below.

**Table 3.3.** The component ratio of curriculum subjects and faculty members of the Department of English Education at Teachers Colleges

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | English language skills | English education | English language | English literature | Others | Total |
| The number of subject | 417 | 431 | 288 | 307 | 21 | 1464 |
| Percentage | 28.5% | 29.4% | 19.7% | 21% | 1.4% | 100 |
| Faculty members |  | 91 | 81 | 72 |  | 244 |
| Percentage |  | 37.3% | 33.2% | 29.5% |  | 100 |

(Min & Park, 2013, p. 161)

On the contrary to the recent rise in the percentage of English education-related subjects, the number of faculty members of English Language and Literature is still high, comprising 153 (62.7%) full time instructors among 244. The research referred to above all indicate that those curriculums of the Department of English Education at Teacher Colleges are still inadequate to produce competent English teachers as they have been criticized (Min & Park, p. 160-161). In addition to the strong influence of English Literature and Language on the curriculums and the faculty, the major focus on acquiring knowledge about English language and learning theories and the lack of subjects for improving TEE capability are also addressed as some issues in relation to pre-service EFL teachers education (Kim E., 2008; Jin et al., 2006; Min & Park, 2013).

In the case of in-service EFL teacher education, major key issues are related to the low satisfaction level of the Qualification Training, the inadequate evaluation system of Job Training, and the effects of the Intensive Training. With regard to the Qualification Training, Kim Y. (2008) reports that the trainee teachers rated the course organization 2.84/5, the course materials 2.91/5, the teaching method 2.79/5 and the evaluation method 2.34/5. The research also reports that the majority of the teachers felt that the Qualification Training was not useful in improving their teaching skills and job performing abilities. In addition, other research (Oh, 2010) shows that some participating teachers found the training unhelpful to improve their English communicative competence. In terms of Job Training, inadequate and lenient evaluation systems were reported as shortcomings (Chang, 2006; Park J., 2006). As the most recent addition to in-service teacher education, IETTP has been studied mainly for its effects on trainee teachers. While the majority of previous research reported positive effects of IETTP on trainee teachers’ overall professional development (Ahn, 2011; Ha 2009; Min, 2006; Na, Ahn & Kim, 2008; Kim, 2007; Kim et al., 2010; Kim & Ahn, 2011; Yang, 2009), Kim and Kim (2015) report that there was no significant change in teachers’ English utterances encouraging and maintaining students’ English communication in class, which was different from the previous studies. (p. 370, 378).

To sum up, English Literature and Linguistics have been the most influential subjects in educating pre-service and in-service teachers of English due to its long history and tradition in Korea. As a result, there is a considerable number of English Literature and Linguistics-related courses and faculty members in the departments of English education at universities. These elements make the current pre-service EFL teacher education programs are inadequate to produce competent EFL teachers (Pae, 2002). In relation to the in-service teacher education, the low satisfaction level of the Qualification Training, the inadequate evaluation system of the Job Training, and the effects of the Intensive Training were reported. The discussion of this section indicates that the emergence of IETTP which is the most recent addition to the in-service teacher education, cannot be separated from the issues of old-established pre-service and in-service EFL teacher education programs. This is mainly because the existing pre-service EFL teacher education programs are evaluated as lacking in terms of producing competent EFL teachers due to the heavy influence of departments of English Literature and Linguistics in its history. This can be interpreted as the governments’ attempt to overcome the drawbacks of existing pre-service and in-service teacher education by creating a new in-service program with an aim of dealing with unsolved issues. This thesis raises the question of whether this policy attempt is reasonable and justifiable. In other words, this thesis suggests that IETTP is a band-aid solution in the situation where the current system of pre-service EFL teacher education remains unchanged.

**3.4 Second/foreign Language Teacher Education in Mainstream Contexts**

Given the subordinate relations that EFL teaching and teacher education have to the mainstream of second/foreign language teaching (this was briefly discussed above in *3.2 English as a foreign language teaching in Korea*), looking into the key issues of second/foreign language teacher education in mainstream contexts is meaningful for better understanding EFL teacher education in Korea. In other words, influences from the mainstream and Korea-specific features can become clearer, by identifying the similarities and differences between the global and the local.

According to Richards (2008), two major factors affect Second Language Teacher Education (henceforth, SLTE): “a rethinking of its knowledge base and instructional practices” (p. 158), and external pressures from the increasing demand for competent language teachers worldwide. In other words, the field of SLTE has been shaped and developed by attempting to respond to those two factors (p. 159). He continues his argument that the former might be called “internally initiated change, that is, the teaching profession gradually evolving a changed understanding of its own essential knowledge base and associated instructional practices” (Richards, 2008, p. 159) and the latter includes, for example, the increasing need for a language of international business and communication in the so-called ‘globalized era’. Reflective teaching and critical pedagogy are some examples of the internally initiated change as they derive from within the profession largely “as a result of self-imposed initiatives” (Richards, 2008, p. 159). According to Richards (2008), the external pressures call for “new language teaching policies”, “greater central control over teaching and teacher education”, and “standards and other forms of accountability” (p. 159), to name a few.

In the same article, Richards identifies some of the key issues which shape the way SLTE is conceptualized and realized. The key issues include “the growth of SLTE” (p. 159), “the professionalization of language teaching” (p. 160), “the knowledge base of SLTE” (162), “the nature of teacher-learning” (p. 163), “the role of context in teacher-learning” (p. 165), “the role of teacher cognition” (p. 166), “a focus on teacher identity” (p. 167), “a rethinking of teaching methods and strategies” (p. 169), “the need for accountability” (p. 171) and “critical language teacher education” (p. 173). This section will attempt to describe the nature of second/foreign language teacher education in mainstream contexts adopting some major discussions from Richards (2008) and others (Crandall, 2000; Crandall & Christison, 2016; Mann, 2005). They are (1) teacher training, teacher education, teacher development and SLTE (Crandall, 2000; Mann, 2005; Richards, 2008), (2) models of language teacher education (Crandall, 2000; Mann, 2005; Richards, 2008), (3) the knowledge base of language teacher education (Richards, 2008), (4) the nature of teacher learning (Richards, 2008), (5) from methods to methodologies (Crandall, 2000), (6) the role of teacher cognition & belief (Crandall, 2000), and (7) language teacher identity, the globalization of English, and non-native English-speaking teachers (Crandall & Christison, 2016)). By looking into these discussions in the field of second/foreign language teacher education, a useful frame may be provided to understand EFL teacher education in Korea in the global context, and also to find out what influences these mainstream ideas have on EFL teacher education in the country.

**3.4.1 Major Discussions in Second/foreign Language Teacher Education**

(1) Teacher training, teacher education, teacher development and SLTE

According to Crandall (2000), traditional language teacher education has been developed around two concepts, training and education. The concept of language teacher training is contrasted with that of language teacher education: while training emphasizes developing skills to apply language knowledge and language teaching and learning in the practice of teaching, education focuses on developing the knowledge of language, and language teaching and learning (Crandall, 1998 as cited in Crandall, 2000). The role of language teacher training is also defined as “to introduce the methodological choices available and to familiarize trainees with the range of terms and concepts that are the common currency of language teachers” (Mann, 2005, p. 104). Teacher training is also described as solution-oriented in that “...teachers are to be given specific instruction in practical techniques to cope with predictable events…”, while teacher education is more problem-oriented with the implication of “broader intellectual awareness of theoretical principles underlying particular practices” (Widdowson, 1997, p. 121).Though teacher training and teacher education are defined with their own characteristics, trainee teachers are viewed as the passive recipient of transmitted knowledge in both descriptions (Crandall, 2000, p. 36). On the other hand, the concept of teacher development emphasizes its orientation from the inside of teachers (Bowen, 2004 as cited in Mann, 2005, p. 104). Instead of trainers providing trainee teachers with predetermined methodological choices or common currency of language teachers, teacher development focuses on encouraging trainee teachers to pursue “a life-long process of growth, which may involve collaborative and/or autonomous learning” (Crandall, 2000, p. 36). The concept of autonomous learning is also closely related to the element of self-direction in teachers’ own learning (Nunan & Lamb, 1996), which sets teacher development from teacher training or education.

Though the term, teacher development, is seen more often in recent research discussions, teacher education is still being commonly used in the field of second/foreign language teaching with its general meaning. In the history of language teacher education, wide-scale formal education programs have been available since 1960’s (Grenfell, 2014). In fact, the discipline of applied linguistics dating from the 1960’s became a body of specialized academic knowledge and theory for SLTE, which was represented in the curricula of graduate level language teacher education, specifically MA programs (Richards, 2008). Around this time, English language teaching experienced a major expansion worldwide with the introduction of new methodologies such as ‘Audiolingualism’ (Richards & Rodgers, 2014) and ‘Situational Language Teaching’ (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). From this period, the approaches to language teacher training began taking the form of short-term training programs and certificate courses, which were designed to teach language teachers the practical classroom skills needed to apply the new methods. In MA programs, courses in language analysis, learning theory, methodology, and teaching practicum began to be offered (Richards, 2008). This knowledge base of SLTE (namely knowledge about language and language learning) has been questioned due to its “unquestioned assumption that such knowledge informs teachers’ classroom practices” (Richards, 2008, p. 162). The close link between practical skills and academic knowledge in relation to teaching has led to the on-going discussions about the gap between practice versus theory. Richards (2008) argues that the distinction between the practice and the theory was represented by distinguishing ‘teacher training’ from ‘teacher development’ in the 1990s. Recently, the practice and theory distinction has been substituted by a reconsideration of the nature of teacher learning, and also been influenced by sociocultural theory (Lantolf, 2000) and teacher cognition (Borg, 2006). From these new perspectives, teacher learning is viewed as “constructing new knowledge and theory through participating in specific social contexts and engaging in particular types of activities and processes” (Richards, 2008, p. 164). In addition, teaching is viewed as:

a complex cognitively-driven process’ affected by the classroom context, the teachers general and specific instructional goals, the learners’ motivations and reactions to the lesson, the teacher’s management of critical moments during a lesson. At the same time teaching reflects the teacher’s personal response to such issues… (Richards, 2008, p. 167)

In Korea, the English terms, ‘teacher training’ and ‘teacher education’ have been used interchangeably in major Korean academic journals (Park J., 2006). For the reason of this English usage, Park J. (2006) claims that the translation of the Korean word ‘yeonsu’ into English can be both ‘training’ or ‘education’, not necessarily reflecting the differences in the organizational purposes or goals (p. 116). In fact, the Korean words for training and education (‘hunryeon’ and ‘gyoyuk’, respectively) are considered to be synonyms in the dictionary. In the meantime, the term ‘teacher development’ recently began to appear in the academic journals referring to a continual growth in teachers’ professionalism and profession, as it is being discussed in mainstream SLTE. Based on the definitions discussed, the terms, teacher training and teacher education, seem more suitable for the situation of Korea, but the distinction of these two terms is quite blurry in Korea. In addition, the level of discussion about the new perspectives on teacher learning and teacher cognition is in its infancy. In the case of IETTP, this thesis argues that it belongs to the category of teacher training given its significant focus on improving in-service teachers’ English skills.

(2) Models of language teacher education

In terms of language teacher education models, Deyrich and Stunnel (2014) claim that “essentially a model provides a way of presenting, a way of thinking, a way of rationalizing about a complex process or of presenting it schematically” (p.85). As they argue, teacher education models provide ways of presenting, ways of thinking, and ways of rationalizing about a complex process or of presenting teacher learning schematically. Most existing language teacher education programs are based on certain teacher education models. Some of the most influential and traditional teacher education models are ‘the craftwork model’, ‘the applied teacher model’, ‘the reflexive practitioner model’ and ‘the experiential model’ (Deyrich & Stunnel, p 86-87).

Observation and limitation are important factors in the craftwork model. Teaching is seen as a craft that is best learned on the job (p. 86). In this model, learning about theories of education is less valued. The acquisition of skills is valued more than that of knowledge. Extended periods of in-school teaching practice is an example of teacher education models based on the craftwork model. On the other hand, the applied teacher model gives more weight to time spent learning educational theories and knowledge rather than skills. Student teachers are expected to apply the knowledge they learn to their practice once they start teaching. In this model, acquiring knowledge at higher education institutions is more valued than acquiring skills. Thirdly, the reflexive practitioner model is centered on development of the student teacher’s capacities for self-perception and critical awareness. This model encourages teachers to become active decision makers. Their decisions, informed by theory and guided by learner-centered values, should lead to action which is in its turn evaluated, reflected upon and if necessary, further adapted within a cyclical process (Schon, 1983). According to Furlong et al. (2008), reflexive practice that is closely associated with action-research has been promoted in around 70% of teacher education programs in England. In the US, however, this model has been criticized as there is the possibility that teachers’ informed decision making can sometimes lack a relevant theoretical input. In other words, the extent to which teachers’ actions are informed is uncertain (Deyrich & Stunnel, 2014). Lastly, the experiential model broadens and increases the level of external input compared to the reflexive model. “At the moment of reinvesting in the cycle of investigation, the practitioner searches for theoretical information from outside, even from another domain” (Deyrich & Stunnel, 2014, p.87). A more active and aggressive search for theory and knowledge is a distinctive feature of the experiential model compared to the reflexive model.

In this model, learning academic observation and analysis techniques and learning how to use theoretical information is likely to enrich teacher understanding of the processes of teaching and learning and the contexts within which these processes can be expected to take place effectively. The evolution of the experiential model also reflects the growing acceptance within research into language teaching, and within educational research in general, that full understandings of teaching and learning situations will involve integrating input from a wide range of seemingly diverse academic disciplines. (Deyrich & Stunnel, 2014, p. 87)

The situation in Korea, in terms of language teacher education models, is that the craftwork model and the applied teacher model are more influential than the other two models. The concept of acquiring skills or learning educational theories and knowledge is more common in teacher education programs than being reflexive or self-active in searching for necessary theory and knowledge.

(3) The knowledge base of language teacher education

Freeman and Johnson (1998) claim that the knowledge base of second language teacher education has drawn heavily from the disciplinary knowledge in linguistics and Second Language Acquisition (SLA) to define what it is that second language teachers need to know about language and second language learning. In relation to the knowledge base of SLTE, Richards (2008, 2014) argues that the field of SLTE has traditionally developed around two strands: pedagogic issues including teaching skills, and knowledge about language and language learning. These two strands can be described as the content of the established core curriculum of SLTE programs at graduate school. Coursework at many graduate-level language teacher education programs covers topics of SLA, language analysis, discourse analysis, phonology, curriculum development, methodology and such in order to teach student teachers “the knowledge about the language” and “the knowledge of how to teach” it (Richards, 2008, p. 162).

In the Foreword to *English as a foreign language teacher education* (2014), Richards claims that *knowledge about* or *content knowledge* constitutes the theoretical foundations of language teaching. There are also different kinds of *content knowledge*, for example, *disciplinary knowledge* and *pedagogical content knowledge*. He defines *disciplinary knowledge* as “a circumscribed body of knowledge that is considered by the language-teaching profession to be essential to gaining membership in the profession, but which may not have practical application in the classroom” (p. 1). Some examples of *disciplinary knowledge* are the history of language teaching or recent trends in linguistics. On the other hand, *pedagogical content knowledge* can be defined as “knowledge that provides a basis for language teaching. It is knowledge which is drawn from the study of language teaching and language learning itself and which can be applied in different ways to the resolution of practical issues in language teaching” (p. 1).

The traditional knowledge base of language teaching has been challenged due to its “unquestioned assumption that such knowledge informs teachers’ classroom practices” (Richards, 2008, p. 162). Johnson (2009) argues that it is doubtful whether “providing second language teachers with knowledge about the formal linguistic properties of language would directly inform second language teachers’ instructional decisions” (p. 42) in the classroom. Recent classroom-based research studies show that the disciplinary knowledge provided to second language teachers during their professional coursework appears to have little impact on how the teachers actually teach although such knowledge seems useful in shaping their conceptions of the language (Bartels, 2005). In fact, the studies found a general failure to transfer disciplinary knowledge (about language) to classroom language teaching (Johnson, 2009).

In relation to the traditional knowledge base of language teaching, Freeman (2002) points out that “the knowledge base is largely drawn from other disciplines, and not from the work of teaching itself” (p.1). He argues that the fields of theoretical linguistics and SLA have provided the disciplinary knowledge defining what language is, how language works, and how language is acquired. This is, however, not the same knowledge needed both for teachers and students to teach and learn a second language, Freeman (2004) asserts. From a sociocultural perspective, the knowledge-base that is envisioned as a “repository of inert facts” (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000, p. 466) should reflect “the highly process-oriented” (p. 466) nature of teacher-student interaction as students go normally through “the gradual acquisition of understanding rather than in terms of the transfer of information” ( p.466). In a similar vein, Freeman (2002), and Freeman and Johnson (2004) claim that the knowledge base of second language teacher education should include the elements, such as processes of teaching, teacher learning, and teacher beliefs as they inform teachers’ actual teaching.

In relation to the problematic nature of the traditional knowledge base of second language teacher education, Richards (2008) attempts to explain the teachers’ unsuccessful uptake of the knowledge by elaborating the distinction between “explicit knowledge” and “implicit knowledge” (p. 162). He describes explicit knowledge as the basis of *knowledge about* while implicit knowledge as the basis of *knowledge how*. Particularly, implicit knowledge or *knowledge how* refers to “the beliefs, theories, and knowledge that underlie teachers’ practical actions” (p.162-163), which are also described as ‘principles’, ‘practitioner knowledge’, ‘personal theories’, ‘maxims’ in the literature of second language teacher education (Richards, 1996; Tsang 2004 as cited in Richards, 2008). However, “developing teacher knowledge from subject matter knowledge is neither a simple nor a straightforward process” (Huttner et al. 2012, xiv), which has resulted in a shift of research interest towards the means and the contexts of transforming subject matter knowledge into relevant teacher knowledge or *pedagogical content knowledge* (Shulman 1987) that is considered as the central point of teacher knowledge. Shulman (1986) defines *pedagogical content knowledge* (PCK) as “the particular form of content knowledge that embodies the aspects of content most germane to its teachability” (p. 9). Although there have been growing attention on PCK, and also on the ways and the contexts of developing it, there is a lack of agreement as to what the essential knowledge base for language teachers (Freeman & Johnson, 2004).

EFL teacher education in Korea in general is also under the influence of the knowledge base of SLTE. In addition, pre-service EFL teacher education has been considerably affected by English Language and Literature due to historical reasons (as discussed in *3.3.2 Current key issues of EFL teacher education in Korea*). Though there are emerging discussions on the need for teachers’ active roles in analyzing and developing their teaching (Chang et al., 2011), and for teachers’ being reflective and active in their own professional development (Ha, 2009), particularly for in-service EFL teacher education, the current situation in Korea seems still under the influence of the knowledge base. In other words, knowledge about language and language learning, not the nature of teaching itself or teachers themselves is what is valued. In the case of IETTP, the distinctive feature of this program is that it focuses on improving trainee teachers’ English proficiency, which makes it a unique in-service teacher education program in Korea and in the broader field of second/foreign language education as well.

(4) The nature of teacher learning

Johnson (2009) argues that it has been believed that “knowledge about teaching and learning can be transmitted to teachers” (p. 8) in the history of teacher education. The traditional language teacher education programs that are mostly theoretical are seen as problematic since a number of recent studies show that teachers do not seem to make much use of theory in their actual teaching practice (Hoekstra et al., 2007; Nicolas et al., 2011). At the same time, the studies suggest that the quality, quantity and type of theoretical knowledge that are taught to trainee teachers are not entirely in vain. The problem seems to be related to the way in which the knowledge is presented to teachers (Deyrich & Stunnel, 2014). Traditionally, teacher-learning was viewed as a cognitive process in which the learner obtains and stores the knowledge on his or her own. Teaching was then viewed as a knowledge transmission process (Richards, 2008). Freeman (2002) argues that, within a transmission model, teaching is examined in terms of learning outcomes that the teaching produced. This is based on the process-product (in other word, positivist) paradigm that assumes the link, between the teacher’s teachings and the students’ learnings, is causal. From this perspective, research questions are centered on “how teachers’ action led - or did not lead - to student learning” (Freeman, 2002, p.2). Also, when teachers fail to acquire prescribed knowledge, it is seen as teachers’ ‘resistance to change’ (Hayes, 1995, 2000 as cited in Singh & Richards, 2006). These traditional views consider that teacher-learning is “translating knowledge and theories into practice” (Richards, 2008, p.164). However, more recent research into the nature of teacher learning suggest a lack of direct correlation between teachers’ acquiring knowledge and their improvement of teaching (Crandall, 2000; Crandall & Christison, 2016; Korthagen, 2010). Teacher-learning is viewed as a bottom-up rather than a top-down process. The fact that any classroom situation is highly complex and situational, and teachers have to react to events as they happen reveal the situated and socially constructed nature of teacher-learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991). From this point of view, teacher-learning is regarded as “constructing new knowledge and theory”, not as “translating knowledge and theories into practice” (Richards, 2008, p.164). These recent views have led to replacing the traditional transmission modes of teaching in SLTE programs with dialogic and collaborative inquiry of trainee teachers and to creating of a learning community engaged in social practices and interactions (Crandall & Christison, 2016; Richards, 2008; von Glasersfeld, 2001).

(5) From methods to methodology

The core of traditional language teacher education has long been the methods course, a course which presents the theoretical rationale and practical implications of language teaching approaches, methods, procedures, and techniques. (Anthony, 1963; Blair, 1982; Celce-Murcia, 1991; Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Oller, 1993; Oller & Richard-Amanto, 1983; Richards & Rogers, 1982, 1986; Rivers, 1981; Stevick, 1980 as cited in Crandall, 2000, p.37)

The traditional methods courses normally include discussions about the rationale of, and instructional practices reflected in teaching methods (e.g., Grammar-Translation, Audio-Lingual, Communicative) and some innovative methods (e.g., Silent Way, Community Language Learning, Natural Approach, Content-based Language Instruction). The discussions are often combined with specific interests in techniques for teaching listening, speaking, reading and writing skills (Crandall, 2000). It is still true that language teaching methods are considered as central to language teacher education, however there have been arguments that language teachers need to equip themselves with available instructional choices, and to examine their educational decisions in planning and teaching through case studies, interviews, or introspection (Richards, 1990; Roberts, 1998; Stevick, 1998; William & Burden, 1997). Influenced by constructivist theories of learning, the interest in language teaching moves away from methods to methodology – “from a top-down approach to methods as ‘products’ for teachers to learn and match and toward a bottom-up approach to methodology as reflections on experiences” (Crandall, 2000, p.38). This shift encourages teachers not to solely depend on language teaching methods but to explore the strategies of successful teachers and learners seeking a better understanding of effective teaching and learning (Richards, 1990).

Brown (1994), Nunan (1991, 1999) and Omaggio Hadley (1993) address the important role of context in terms of teaching methodology, while Graves (2000), Hartman (1998) and Nunan and Lamb (1996) emphasize the need of teachers’ analyzing their own teaching and learning theories in the process of teaching, discussing, and reflection. In other words, providing teachers with practical options or choices is not enough. Teachers’ actual analysis and evaluation of their teaching and learning strategies in a variety of contexts “can help balance more top-down, product-oriented conceptions of language teaching, with more nuanced, bottom-up, process-oriented descriptions of specific language teaching events” (Crandall, 2000, p. 38).

(6) The role of teacher cognition and belief

In traditional teacher education, what trainee teachers bring, such as their beliefs about teaching, learning, teacher-student roles from their own experiences as students, language learners and teachers, to their education programs have been largely ignored (Crandall, 2000). Recently, teacher cognition and beliefs are considered as one of the important components in the field of general education, which also influences the current conceptualizations of SLTE. Teacher cognition encompasses “the mental lives of teachers” (Richards, 2008, p. 166), especially in terms of how teachers’ beliefs and thoughts, and their prior learning experiences and thinking processes inform and shape their classroom practices. In relation to the importance of teacher cognition in understanding their teaching, Borg (2006) comments:

A key factor driving the increase in research in teacher cognition, not just in language education, but in education more generally, has been the recognition that teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who play a central role in shaping classroom events. Coupled with insights from the field of psychology which have shown how knowledge and beliefs exert a strong influence on teacher action, this recognition has suggested that understanding teacher cognition is central to the process of understanding teaching. (Borg 2006, p. 1 as cited in Richards, 2008)

This suggests that teachers do not just implement pre-set procedures or techniques of teaching. Rather, they are actively engaged in thinking, problem-solving, and decision-making through the entire process of teaching. Teachers should be given opportunities to ponder over their beliefs about what effective teaching and learning is, and also “to acquire the ways of thinking (general strategies, personal orientation, and habits of mind) that characterize being a member of the language teaching community” (Crandall, 2000, p. 38). Case studies, teacher narratives, and teacher journals are some examples of giving teachers those opportunities (Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Woods, 1996).

Teaching, which is considered as a complex cognitively-driven process, is also affected by the classroom context, for example, the instructional goals, the learners’ motivations and reactions to the lesson, the teachers’ classroom management and the like (Richards, 2008). This means that it is important to consider the context in which individual teachers are situated, as teacher cognition is “situated” in practice (Lave, 1988). According to Crandall (2000), the diverse language teaching situations have been reflected in traditional language teacher education programs by differentiating ages of learners, levels of proficiency, purposes for learning and contexts (second or foreign, intensive or occasional, for example) but these attempts seem unsuccessful in helping teachers prepare “for the heterogeneity of learners or contexts that teachers actually encounter” (p. 39).

In the first major study of teacher cognition, Woods (1996) suggests Beliefs, Assumptions, and Knowledge (BAK) model describing how teachers utilize their beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge in their decision-making as teachers. Richards (1996) identifies eight maxims or personal principles (in other words, “a rule for good or sensible behavior”) (p. 286) derived from teachers experience to explain their decision-making in the classroom. He emphasizes the necessity of making these maxims explicit when teachers attempt to apply new techniques or changes in their teaching practices. Some applications of the focus of teacher cognition in language teacher education are questionnaires or self-report inventories in which teachers describe their teaching beliefs and principles; interviews in which teachers have opportunities of expressing their thinking and understanding of pedagogic issues; teachers’ classroom observation of their own and others; reflective journals or narratives of their teaching (Borg, 2006 as cited in Richards, 2008, p. 167).

(7) Language teacher identity, the globalization of English, and non-native English-speaking teachers

According to Gee (2000), identities are fluid and changing, inevitably influenced by context, group membership, and languages or other sort of representational systems. In terms of teacher identity, Coldron and Smith (1999) describe that “identity as a teacher is partly given and partly achieved by active location in social space” (p. 711 as cited in Crandall & Christison, 2016). This sociocultural perspective of teacher identity is closely related to the recent discussion of teacher-learning, which views teacher-learning as the process of ‘reshaping of identity and identities’ in the social settings teachers belong to (Richards, 2008, p. 167). According to Crandall and Christison (2016), becoming a second language teacher is described as “the development of a teacher identity, identifying with language teaching as a profession, and over time, becoming the type of teacher one desires to be” (p. 12). In the last two decades, in the growing number of studies on English language teachers published, the largest area of research has been on the language teacher identity and the NNEST (Crandall & Christison, 2016).

With the global spread of English, there is a wide range of varieties of English used by diverse people in diverse contexts. In this era of globally-spread English, determining who is a ‘native-speaker’ is not quite so simple (Widdowson, 1994), and also ‘native speaker models’ have received a great deal of criticism (McKay, 2003). One of the common assumptions related to the native speaker models is the native speaker fallacy (e.g. Stern, 1983), the view that the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker (Phillipson, 1992). Though the native speaker models have been criticized as “a poorly defined construct of the native speaker” and “a narrow definition of expertise in language teaching” (McKay, 2003, p. 8), it is undeniable that there has been the NEST (native English-speaking teachers) and NNEST (non-native English-speaking teachers) dichotomy in the field of SLTE. In fact, the NEST/NNEST dichotomy has divided the TESOL world, in which NESTs are often privileged over NNESTs who are regarded as inferior in knowledge and performance. This dichotomy has also influenced employment policy, teaching methods and language use in the field of TESOL (Braine, 1999, 2010; Crandall, 2000; McKay, 2003). Kachru and Nelson (2001) claim that the native speaker/non-native speaker divide is rooted in a “linguistic caste system” (p. 20) of which one is either an insider or an outsider. The ideas that the native speaker is the benchmark for knowledge about language (Davis, 2003) and represents an ideal of ELT methodology (Holliday, 2005) have been challenged with the discussions about English as an international language and the status and the changing “ownership of English” (Widdowson, 1994, p. 377). The static conceptualization of the ideal NS is also challenged from the sociocultural perspective which sees language as “not only […] a linguistic system but also […] a social practice in which experiences are organized and identities negotiated” (Norton, 2010, p. 351). In fact, “language teacher identities are more complex than the binary NEST/NNEST distinction” (Vodopija-Krstanovic, 2012, p. 209). The problematic aspect of the NEST/NNEST dichotomy is that it denies cultural and personal variations, identifications and individual differences that exist among ELT professionals, ranging from ethnicity, education, age and personality to professional expertise (Holliday, 2005).

Despite the discussions above and the fact that NESTs are now outnumbered by NNESTs around the globe (Canagarajah, 2005; Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 2006), the NS construct still has far-reaching implications on teaching, teacher knowledge and teacher identity (Vodopija-Krstanovic, 2012) in the field of EFL teacher education. Particularly, native speaker/non-native speaker teacher expertise seems to be conceptualized through knowledge of English, which places the NEST in an advantageous position of the ideal teacher (Llurda, 2005; Phillipson, 1992). Crandall (2000) points out the common misunderstanding about the connection between native-speaking proficiency and professional competence, for example, when teachers are hired only because they are ‘native speakers’. This idea, which regards NESTs as the ideal teacher, seriously undermines (language) teacher learning and education (Johnson, 2009). This makes the role of language teacher education unclear placing teacher as “linguistic virtuosos” (Vodopija-Krstanovic, 2012, p. 209). Teachers are not linguistic virtuosos, but are individuals with their own prior experiences, personal values and beliefs that influence and shape their teaching knowledge (Freeman & Johnson, 1998), which is located in contexts where teacher learn and teach (Johnson, 2006). With regard to (teachers’) language competence, Pennycook (2001) claims that:

…language competence should be measured not as the capacity to perform in one language in a specific domain, but rather as “the ability to translate, transpose and critically reflect on social cultural and historical meanings conveyed by the grammar and lexicon. The role of language teacher from this perspective, therefore, is to “to diversify meanings, point to the meanings not chosen, and bring to light other possible meanings that have been forgotten by history or covered up by politics”. Language teaching is indelibly tied to translation and the diversity of meanings. (p. 141).

This argument calls for ELT to escape “its narrow vision of itself as a monolingual enterprise, as a place where English is taught only in its own presence” (Pennycook, 2001, p. 141).

From the research on language teacher identities, Vodopija-Krstanovic (2012) lists five themes flowing through the topic as follows:

First, identity is not a static, deterministic construct that EFL teachers and student teachers bring to the classroom and take away unchanged (Kramsch,1993). Second, in educational practices, identities and beliefs are negotiated and constructed through language (Duff & Uchida 1997; Norton, 2010). Third, identity is negotiated in specific sociocultural and political contexts (Duff & Uchida, 1997). Fourth, the ideological and political implications of ELT influence the identity formation of teachers and student teachers (Pennycook, 2001). And fifth, learning to teach is a process of identity formation (Clarke, 2008). (Vodopija-Krstanovic, 2012, p. 211)

This socio-structuralist view sees language teacher identities as a dynamic, hybrid and changeable category contextually situated and constantly in the process of becoming. Individuals place themselves by socially interacting with others and they negotiate different subject positions accordingly (Block, 2007; Norton, 2000, 2010). This is clearly distinguished from the traditional view of SLA which sees identity mainly through the NS/NNS lens (Firth & Wagner, 1997). With this contemporary understanding of language teacher identity as constructed and not intrinsic, Vodopija-Krstanovic (2012) argues that “ELT professionals have the power to be flexible” (p. 208) in building their professional identities according to their own inclinations in a way that works for the individual and the context. In Korea, the NS/NNS dichotomy still exists as discussed in Chapter 2, and thus recent discussions on language teacher identities described in this section are thought-provoking for the current and future of EFL teacher education in the country.

**3.4.2 Four Major Shifts in Our Perspectives on Language Teacher Education**

This section aims to provide the summary of recent trends in language teacher education. Drawing on the assumption that “language teacher education is a microcosm of teacher education” (Crandall, 2000, p. 34), this section will summarize four major shifts in our perspectives on language teacher education, that are originally derived from theory and practice in general teacher education particularly during the last several decades (Crandall, 2000) Though this section may partially overlap with some of the previous description of major discussions in the field of second/foreign language teacher education, the benefit of this summary will be the simpler and clearer understanding of the considerable influences from the broader field, the general teacher education. The four major shifts in our perspectives on teachers, teacher education programs, teachers’ prior learning experiences and teaching as a profession (Crandall, 2000) are summarized in Table 3.4. below.

**Table 3.4**. Four major shifts in language teacher education

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Four major shifts  in our perspectives on | From | To |
| Teachers | Passive recipients of transmitted knowledge | -Active mediators of knowledge  -Constructors of new knowledge |
| Teacher education programs | Decontextualized theory | -Situated teacher cognition and practice  -Concrete and relevant linkages between theory and practice |
| Teachers’ prior learning experiences | A philosophy of teaching and learning developed during teachers’ past 16 years or so as a learner | A philosophy of teaching consistent with their emerging understandings of the language learning and teaching through self-observation and conscious reflection |
| Teaching as a profession | Teachers are trained through typical short-term workshops or training programs | Teachers develop theory and direct their own professional development through collaborative observation, teacher research and inquiry, and sustained in-service programs |

(Crandall, 2000, p. 35)

Firstly, teachers are no longer seen as “passive recipients of transmitted knowledge” (Crandall, 2000, p.35), which is a view of traditional teacher education. Now, they are rather seen as “active mediators of knowledge” and “constructors of new knowledge” (Johnson, 2009, p.98 as cited in Huttner, Mehlmauer-Larcher, Reichl & Schiftner, 2012), which is based on a social-constructivist perspective of teacher learning. Crandall (2000) describes this shift as “transmission, product-oriented to constructivist, process-oriented theories of learning, teaching and teacher learning” (p. 34). This constructivist perspective sees teachers as “a primary source of knowledge about teaching, reflected in an increasing focus on teacher cognition (Johnson, 1999; Kleinfeld, 1992; Richards & Lockhart, 1994), the role of reflection in teacher development (Bartlett, 1990; Freeman & Richards, 1993; Schon, 1983,1987), and the importance of teacher inquiry and research throughout teacher education and development programs (Crandall, 1994; Freeman, 1998; Wright, 1992)” (as cited in Crandall, 2000, p. 35).

Secondly, there is a growing sense that teacher learning has a situated and social nature in it (Lave & Wenger, 1991). This perspective sees that teachers learn in a specific context and their learning evolves through the interaction and participation of the participants in that context (Richards, 2008). A traditional view saw teacher learning as a cognitive process; translating knowledge and theories into practice. Recently, many research studies show that teacher education programs have made little impact on teacher behavior and teacher learning (Korthagen, 2010) In fact, there have been complaints and disappointments about the effectiveness teacher education (Crandall, 2000; Huttner et al., 2012; Korthagen, 2010). Grossman (2008) argues that teacher education is at risk, given the many research studies showing the little impact of teacher education on teacher learning and behavior. An extensive meta-study by Wideen, Mayer-Smith, and Moon (1998) reports little impact of teacher education on teachers’ practice. In a review of North American research on teacher education, the AERA Panel on Research and Teacher Education concludes that there is no strong evidence of positive impact that teacher education makes on teachers’ practice (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005). The failure in transforming teachers’ teaching through transmitting knowledge and ‘best practices’ to teachers leads us to turn our eyes to the differences in leaners, programs, curricula, materials, policies and socio-cultural environments. We realize that “decontextualized theory fails to consider the multidimensionality and unpredictability of the classroom environment” (Bailey & Nunan, 1996; Doyle, 1986; Johnson, 1996 as cited in Crandall, 2000, p. 35). This has resulted in utilizing situated teacher cognition and practice in order to bring about changes in teachers’ practice (Bruner, 1986; Lave, 1988), and developing concrete and relevant connections between theory and practice throughout teacher education programs (Crandall, 2000).

Thirdly, teachers’ self-observation and conscious reflection on their teaching practice can help teachers “move from a philosophy of teaching and learning developed during their 16 or so years as a leaner to a philosophy of teaching consistent with their emerging understandings of the language learning and teaching process” (Crandall, 2000, p. 35-36). Teachers shape their views of effective teaching and learning and their teaching practices based on their previous learning experiences as a learner (Crandall, 2000) and their views can hardly change unless they are aware of the powerful role of their learning experiences in their own teaching practice (Freeman, 1996; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Johnson, 1994; Kennedy, 1987; Richards & Lockhart, 1994). For this reason, teachers’ self-observation and conscious reflection on their teaching practice is getting more attention in the field of teacher education in recent years.

Lastly, teaching is now seen to be a profession in which teachers need to play an active role “in seeking to be more effective in their pedagogy... and - as a corollary – for their own continuing education” (Candlin & Widdowson, in their introduction to series eds.). In line with shifting teachers from passive recipients of transmitted knowledge to active mediators of knowledge, this view sees teachers as main agents of improving their teaching and of their own development as teachers. This teacher-initiated and teacher-centered development involves collaborative observation, teacher research and inquiry, and sustained in-service programs, rather than typical short-term workshops or training programs (Crandall, 1996; Darling Hammond, 1994; The Holmes Group, 1986 as cited in Crandall, 2000).

Based on this summary of recent trends in language teacher education, IETTP is identified as not keeping pace with the trend. In Korea, some of these shifts have emerged in the form of discussion in the recent academic journals but few of them have appeared in educational practice. In the case of IETTP, none of the shifts seems clearly identifiable. This is of course not a matter of right or wrong but it verifies that IETTP is specific to the Korean context of language teacher education.

**3.5 Interpretations of EFL Teacher Education in Korea through the Mainstream Perspective of Second/foreign Language Teacher Education**

**Influences from the Outside**

As mentioned in the earlier part of this chapter, English language teaching in Korea has been constantly influenced by the second/foreign language teaching of European and North American countries (Kwon, 1995) since it officially began in 1883. The influences, however, have not been sequential. For example, the Direct Method that was mainly used by American missionaries from 1883 to 1895 made way for the Grammar-Translation Method when English language teaching was carried out by the Japanese colonial government beginning in 1911. This is clearly contrary to the chronological sequence of the two methods in the European context. Although the timing is not clear-cut, the Grammar-Translation Method was widely used from the 1840’s to the 1940’s in Europe. This was followed by the Natural Method and the Direct Method, which originated from and was developed by the nineteenth-century reformers of language teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). The first adoption of the Direct Method in Korea was due to practical necessity, rather than as a chronological adoption from the West. In the meantime, the retrogressive application of the Grammar-Translation Method was due to the enforced increase in the number of Japanese and Korean teachers of English who taught their students to prepare for educational transition, for example going on to university. After this period, the Audiolingual Method and other so-called ‘innovative methods’ were introduced, mostly on the theoretical level (Kwon, 1995). Since the Grammar-Translation Method, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), first introduced by Kim and Harvey in 1982, has been the most popular and influential English language teaching method in Korea until today. Kwon (1995) claims that, before the 1980s, foreign language teaching methods were introduced mostly in scholars’ monographs but, after the 1980s, there have been attempts to develop locally feasible methods and to prove their effectiveness through practical applications.

These changes in language teaching methods have also influenced EFL teacher education in the country. As previously described, current teacher education programs in Korea still pivot around knowledge about the language. This is particularly true of pre-service EFL teacher education programs. Most of the programs provide courses related to four major subjects: four skills of English language, English linguistics, English literature and English education. Recently, teachers’ communicative competence has gained more importance due to the implementation of CLT-oriented curriculums. If we look into EFL teacher education in Korea through the key issues of second/foreign language teacher education discussed above, it obviously tilts towards teacher training or teacher education (rather than teacher development), the craftwork model and the applied teacher model (rather than the reflexive practitioner or experiential model), and methods-focused approaches (rather than methodological). In addition, there is no evidence that current teacher education programs in the country take teachers’ cognition and beliefs into consideration seriously. The concept of situated teacher learning and the role of teachers’ prior learning experiences are not dealt with seriously in designing teacher education programs. Except for the strong support for CLT, it can be said that EFL teacher education programs in Korea are quite out of line with the recent trends of second/foreign language teacher education in the broader context. In addition, the influence of recent trends in the field of second/foreign language teaching tends to remain at the theoretical level only, not reaching to the level of practical application. Current EFL teacher education is specific to the context of Korea, though it is not completely separated from the mainstream. In other words, EFL teacher education in Korea is not entirely subordinate to the mainstream but it rather seems selective in its use and timing in accordance with necessity and situation.

**Some Korea-specific Issues**

Although there is a growing understanding that language teaching and learning should not be considered as a process of knowledge transmission in Korea (Min & Park, 2013), current EFL teacher education does not seem to actively incorporate the alternatives in its programs. Instead of adopting current popular ‘constructivist’ and ‘process-oriented’ theories, or ‘situated teacher learning’, the current EFL teacher education programs in Korea places heavy emphasis on teachers’ communicative competences to effectively apply CLT. The recent implementation and expansion of IETTP is a prime example. In fact, improving the quality of teachers has been the focus of teacher education in the country. The quality of English language teachers has been understood mainly in terms of their English teaching skills and English communication skills. Min and Park (2013) define teacher education as “overall activities aiming to improve the teachers’ quality that is one of the important elements constructing effective teaching and learning” (p. 154). This limited view on teacher professionalism is problematic in that it presumes ‘the higher teachers’ quality the better students’ learning’, which cannot always be the case. This view can be considered as the reason that EFL teacher education in the country is focused on transmitting knowledge and improving teachers’ skills and abilities.

Although this view on teacher education is still predominant in Korea, some changes have emerged in recent years. In 2005, the subject named ‘Observation and analysis of English lessons’ was included in the qualification training for Grade 1 school teachers (Min & Park, 2013). This was a meaningful attempt at incorporating practical elements since this type of class had not been offered before. In 2011, the class ‘Becoming a reflective teacher’ was, for the first time, opened in the same training course. In 2012, a so-called ‘competence area’ was newly enacted in the standard curriculum for the qualification training course aiming to open classes for self-initiated professional development of teachers. In the case of the Daegu Uniting Cultures & Communication center (Daegu UCC), which is one of the institutions providing IETTP, they allocate a hundred hours of class for teacher activities involving observation and analysis of peer teachers’ lessons, and self-analysis and evaluation of their own lessons. This program aims at helping teachers improve their reflective skill through those activities (Min & Park, 2013).

Despite some recent attempts to introduce some new ways to improve, the impact seems minimal as the existing EFL teacher education programs stay almost the same, in general. The recent creation of IETTP can be one of the examples of how strongly the limited view of teacher professionalism affects EFL teacher education in the country. From a historical perspective of second/foreign language teacher education, the existence of IETTP can be interpreted as Korea-specific and/or as being reluctant to moving on from the traditional ways. This interpretation, however, seems partial in explaining IETTP considered the complicated nature of educational policies. Thus, the following Chapter 4 will supplement this interpretation by providing an ideological understanding of EFL teacher education in Korea, which can construct a better and deeper understanding about IETTP.

**3.6 Summary**

In order to add a historical understanding of why IETTP has emerged, Chapter 3 first reviewed how EFL teaching has evolved in Korea since its official start over 130 years ago, which was followed by when and how EFL teacher education in Korea started and has evolved until today. Some current key issues of EFL teacher education in Korea were also discussed. In an attempt to understand EFL teacher education in the bigger picture, second/foreign language teacher education in mainstream contexts was described by adopting some key issues being discussed in the field, such as conceptions of language teacher education, models of language teacher education, the knowledge base of language teacher education, the nature of teacher learning, from methods to methodology, the role of teacher cognition and belief, and language teacher identity: native vs. non-native. This was followed by descriptions of the recent trends in language teacher education. In the last section, it made an attempt to interpret EFL teacher education in Korea through the mainstream perspective of second/foreign language teacher education. Some influences from the outside were discussed with some Korea-specific issues as well. The findings that Chapter 3 intends to emphasize are, current pre-service EFL teacher education programs are being criticized for not producing competent English teachers, and IETTP is the most recent addition to the in-service EFL teacher education aiming to train in-service teachers to be competent English teachers in their English speaking and CLT-oriented teaching, particularly. It also suggests that EFL teacher education in Korea is not in line with the recent trends of second/foreign language teacher education in mainstream contexts, except for the widespread of CLT. Any influence tends to be at the theoretical level and the current EFL teacher education in Korea seems selective in applying the mainstream ideas in accordance with its necessity and situation. The clear point, however, is that the application of CLT was not a Korea-specific movement. The application was part of a worldwide trend sweeping the field of language teaching. With no alternative or attempt to tailor the approach to the needs of Korean learners, CLT has taken a firm position at Korean public schools. This historical investigation of EFL teacher education proves the significant influence of CLT and provides the background of the emergence and existence of IETTP. To investigate the ideological aspects of IETTP, the following Chapter 4 will look into what language ideologies are supported in English learning and teaching in Korea and their relationships with Korean EFL teachers and IETTP.

**Chapter 4**

**Ideological Understanding of EFL Teacher Education in South Korea**

* 1. **Introduction**

After problematizing the overemphasis of English proficiency in the Korean society and IETTP in Chapter 2, the previous chapter attempted to provide historical background to the emergence of IETTP. The purpose of Chapter 4 is to reveal what ideologies contributed to the emergence and continuation of IETTP and in what ways they created the relationship between the government and the Korean teachers of English. In other words, this chapter will look into what ideologies are supported in EFL teacher education in Korea to rationalize, legitimize, and naturalize the governance of the state, and how those ideologies affect the power dynamics between the government and the Korean teachers of English. To achieve the aim, this section will focus on dealing with two major ideological influences, neoliberal influences and Korea-specific language ideologies, on the EFL teacher education in the country and what specific roles they played in terms of the government’s implementing IETTP and its continuous existence.

Claiming that the neoliberal educational policies and Korea-specific language ideologies of English have exercised considerable influence on EFL teacher education, this chapter will be devoted to discussing in what ways neoliberalism has influenced education and teachers in the country and what language ideologies of English have affected EFL teacher education. Firstly, the following section will briefly address what ideology and language ideology is. After that, neoliberal influences on educational policies in South Korea will be discussed. Specifically, the neoliberal influences on the identities and responsibilities of Korean teachers of English will be addressed. Finally, for Korea-specific language ideologies of English, drawing on Park J.’s (2009) three language ideologies of English (necessitation, externalization and self-deprecation) in South Korea, the last section of this chapter will show that ‘necessitation’ and ‘self-deprecation’ have a particular relevance to EFL teacher education explaining the status and social meaning of English in Korean society and how these have affected the Korean teachers of English in locating their roles and status as English teachers.

* 1. **Ideology and Language Ideology**

**Ideology**

The term ‘ideology’ is defined as “a system of ideas and ideals, especially one which forms the basis of economic or political theory and policy” (Oxford Dictionaries Online, 2017). Historically, the term ‘ideology’ was coined by Destutt de Tracy in 1796 and came into use in political debates around the time of the French Revolution (Thompson, 1990). Originally, de Tracy used the word ‘ideology’ to name his own ‘science of ideas.’ Since the origination of the term, ideology has been defined and used in a number of different ways without definitive agreement. According to Gramsci (1971), ideology is “the terrain on which men move, acquire consciousness of their position, struggle, etc.” (p. 377). For Hasan (1986), ideology is “a socially constructed system of ideas which appears as if inevitable” (p. 126). Thompson (1990) defines ideology as “meaning in the service of power” that “operates in a variety of contexts in everyday life, from ordinary conversation between friends to ministerial addresses on prime television” (p. 20).

In more recent years, ideology is described as an imaginary representation of the relationship between individuals and society, which plays a role of filter in interpreting the society (Althusser, 1998; Ferretter, 2007). This means that the ways individuals interpret the society are affected by certain ideologies whether they are aware of them or not. According to Brookfield (2005), ideology is “a broadly accepted set of values, beliefs… and justifications that appear self-evidently true,… personally relevant, and morally desirable to a majority of the populace” (p. 41). While a specific ideology is associated with particular groups of people based on their ethnicity, class, inclination of politics, religion and gender, “a general ideology prevails in every aspect of society, usually perceived as commonsensical to every actor within the society” (Lee C., 2014, p. 416). However, what seems commonsensical and self-evidently true should be recognized as an already rationalized, legitimatized, and naturalized ideology of a particular interest group in the society (Blommaert, 2005; Kroskrity, 2000; van Dijk, 2006; Woolard, 1992; Woolard, 1998). In this regard, naturalization is considered as a process in which a particular social group attains and maintains power by forging their ideas the most natural and commonsensical ideas of society (Gramsci, 1971 as cited in Pan, 2011, p. 247). This naturalization process gives rise to the concept of hegemony (Gramsci, 1971 as cited in Lee C., 2014, p. 417) by obtaining consent or becoming widely accepted in the society. Inevitably, a dominant ideology represses or even erases the subordinate ideologies infiltrating into political historical, economic, linguistic, cultural, and ideological spheres of a society (Lee C., 2014). Blommaert (2005) describes that the hegemony or the naturalization of a dominant ideology as a “temporal-sequential” (p. 166) process of historical, political and social change. In other words, ideology is a not static or compete form, but rather “a dynamic social process that is produced, transformed, and reproduced” (Lee, 2014, p. 417).

Based on the definitions of ideology described above, investigating what ideologies are prevailing in a society is meaningful particularly in the process of uncovering power dynamics between a dominant class and subordinate classes. Considering one of the research questions of this thesis is about the unequal power relationship between the government and Korean teachers of English, dealing with ideological elements of EFL teacher education is of particular importance.

**Language Ideology**

Silverstein (1979) defines that language ideologies are “any sets of beliefs about language articulated by the users as a rationalization or justification of perceived language structure and use” (p. 193). From Silverstein’s definition, language ideologies can be interpreted as how language users socially conceptualize the relationship between language and its use and how they maintain language structure and attach power and sociocultural meanings to language use. While Woolard (1992) describes language ideology, in broad terms, as an “interpretive filter of beliefs about language” (p. 242), Kroskrity (2000) claims that language ideology is a theoretical framework which pays attention to “the political use of language as a particular group’s instrument of mystification and tool of symbolic domination” (p. 8-9). In a similar vein, Fairclough (2001) argues that language can be a means of control and domination when it is mystified, rationalized, legitimatized, and naturalized. Although language is not power, it becomes “a means to exercise power or control through language ideology, so that users of a language or members of a speech community construe or conceptualize the relationship between the language and the social context” (Lee, 2014, p. 418) granting or attaching “power and sociocultural meaning to forms of language” (Lee, 2010, p. 246). Lee goes on to summarize that “language ideologies act as a window through which one can discover the reflexive relationship between language and society” (Lee, 2010, p. 246). In fact, language ideology is not just about language itself, rather “it attaches social meaning to languages or linguistic variables” (Lee, 2014, p. 418). In other words, language ideology contributes to creating the social meanings of language, from the common ground of speakers’ beliefs about a particular linguistic form and their perception of a particular social group (Woolard, 1998; Eckert, 2000; Irvine, 2001 as cited in Park J., 2009)

Pointing out the fact that Korea remains highly monolingual though there is a strong presence of English in the fields of popular culture and education, Park J. (2009) asserts that the concept of language ideology can be particularly useful for understanding where English is positioned in Korea. Due to the fact that English is seldom used in Koreans’ everyday lives, the approaches to study English in Korea utilizing language structure or linguistic patterns cannot capture “the totality of the place of English in Korea”, (Park J., 2009, p. 19). As the significance of English in Korea arises from its social meanings people attach to, it is important to understand what social meanings English has in Korean society. For this reason, this thesis utilizes the idea of language ideology to investigate the moving forces behind the government English language policies and teachers’ responses to them.

**4.3 Neoliberal Influences on Educational Policies and Teachers in South Korea**

Before discussing neoliberal influences on educational policies and teachers in Korea, neoliberalism and its influence on education in general will be briefly discussed as follow.

**Neoliberalism and Its Influence on Education**

Neoliberalism is explained as “an economic doctrine that has undergirded the global expansion of advanced capitalism over the past three or four decades” (Piller & Cho, 2013, p. 24). Under strong influences of neoliberalism, both government and society have placed a priority on their relationship with the economy (Davies & Bansel, 2007). With regard to this inseparable relationship, Brown (2016) points out that the extension of ‘economization’ (Caliskan & Callon, 2009) to all spheres of life is one crucial characteristic of neoliberalism, defining economization as “the conversion of non-economic domains, activities and subjects into economic ones” (p. 3). Lakes and Carter (2011) argue that “in an overly simplistic formula neoliberalism intends to remove the buffer of social welfare as a governmental function in the belief that the market operates most efficiently and effectively without regulation” (p. 107).

From the historical point of view, neoliberalism is considered as a revival of 19th century laissez-faire capitalism based on Adam Smith’s competitive equilibrium model, in which “the unregulated (hence, free) market is assumed to work for the benefit of all if individual competition is given free rein” (cf., Stiglitz, 2002, p. 74 as cited in Piller & Cho, 2013, p. 24). The labor movements in the 19th and the early 20th century followed by the Great Depression and World War II resulted in abandoning laissez-faire capitalism but it was re-imposed in its ‘neoliberal guise’ as the ‘Washington Consensus’ (Williamson, 1989) on Latin American countries and the former communist Eastern Europe countries by the Washington D.C.-based institutions such as the IMF (International Monetary Fund), World Bank, and United States Department of the Treasury (Dumenil & Levy, 2009 as cited in Piller & Cho, 2013, p. 24). The Washington Consensus included a set of ten economic policy prescriptions for those countries: cuts in public expenditure, tax reform, financial liberalization (market-determined interest rates), privatization of state-owned enterprise, abolition of regulations that impede the entry of new firms or restrict competition, and so on (Williamson, 2004).

Proposing that “human well-being can best be advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurial freedoms and skills within an institutional framework characterized by strong private property rights, free markets, and free trade” (Harvey, 2005, p. 2), neoliberalism makes people “commit themselves to endless self-development in order to enhance individual entrepreneurship” (Cho, 2015, p. 688). Some criticisms in relation to neoliberal policies are exploitation of natural resources and people, forced redistribution of assets from social welfare projects to market enterprise, and jeopardized human rights of free and compulsory education (Brym, 2005; Rodrik, 2006; Tomasevski, 2006 as cited in Lakes & Carter, 2011). In higher education particularly, under the neoliberal influence on educational polices with its imperative to compete, young people have to “chase credentials” (Jackson & Bisset 2005, p. 196) in order to gain security in future education or workplaces (Lake & Carter, 2011). In the neoliberal risk society, individuals are responsible for their own choice and failure to achieve. Wilson (2007) describes this situation that “human beings are made accountable for their predicaments” (p. 97). Apple (2006a) and Hursh (2007) argue that the neoliberal reformers aim to marketize educational systems, and privatize educational services. In a neoliberal environment, students and their parents have a choice about education but they are often “uninformed, misinformed, and fearful – fueled by media speculation about failing schools, incompetent teachers, and school violence” (Lakes & Carter, 2011, p. 108).

**Neoliberal Influences on Educational Policies, Teachers and EFL Teacher Education in South Korea**

While Song (2006) argues that Korean society has been restructured by new social orders under the strong influence of neoliberalism disguised as globalization since the IMF Crisis (refers to the IMF intervention when foreign exchange crisis occurred in 1997), the Democratic Uprising in 1987 is considered as the starting point of neoliberal influences in the country (Yoon, 2009), and the influences have continued on the initiation of and succession of governments’ education policies (Kim, 2011). One of the major discussions in the field of education has been the quality of public education and it is within bounds to say that the governments’ education policies have revolved around how to improve it. Some key terms used in these neoliberal educational circumstances have been, consumer-focused education, educational efficiency, market rationality, deregulation (school autonomy), performance-based pay system for teachers and teacher evaluation, consumer (students’ and their parents’) choice and so on. All these may sound new or innovative and are even considered as advanced ways to renovate education systems by some advocates, but according to Kim (2011) this is no more than imitating the private education system that operates according to market rationality. In this circumstance, public school is degraded to cram school. Schools and teachers are evaluated by the number of students they send to prestigious universities and their poor performance is considered as their own responsibility. It may sound extreme but Kim (2011) claims that it is now meaningless dividing public education and private education in that both operate under the market-oriented mechanism. In this neoliberal circumstance, teachers are regarded as the main agent of effective education. Constant self-development of teachers is crucial for their own ‘social survival’ (Kim, 2011, p. 37) ultimately, not for their students’ problem-solving or growth. The social survival here means teachers’ outliving in “conspicuous recognition struggle” in the society of teaching profession. (Kim, 2011 p. 37).

Park (2015) points out that teacher professionalism in South Korea has been weakened since the strong drive for implementing neoliberal educational policies began to appear in the 1980’s and 1990’s though teachers’ quality and competence have been continuously emphasized in securing greater school quality and effectiveness. Park supports his argument about “de-professionalisation” (Beck, 2008, p. 119) of teaching profession in South Korea by drawing on the concepts of “governmental professionalism” (Beck, 2008, p. 133), “regulated autonomy” (Apple, 2006b as cited in Park, 2015, p. 233), and intensified administrative control of teachers by the state (Hargreaves, 1994 as cited in Park, 2015, p. 233). In his critical analysis on the government project by Conservative and New Labour, Beck (2008) describes the government’s activities transforming teaching into a “modernised profession” (p. 119) as governmental professionalism and criticizes the government regulation and control making teaching profession de-professionalised “in the guise of re-professionalisation” (p. 119). In the meantime, Apple (2006b) claims that teachers’ autonomy is weakened under the stronger regulatory state influenced by neoliberalism. According to him, standardized and rationalized teaching results in changed characteristics of teachers’ professional autonomy, from licensed autonomy to regulated autonomy. Teachers and their teaching are being closely controlled and regulated in terms of the teaching process, results, contents and even proper teaching methods (Park, 2015, p. 233). Problematizing the de-professionalisation of teaching profession in South Korea, Park also criticizes the government policies that treat teachers as an object to be reformed, not as the main body of reform undermining teachers’ voluntary cooperation, their cooperative learning, professional learning community, peer coaching system, and so forth (p. 234).

As discussed above, in South Korea teachers are constantly being asked to develop themselves for their own social survival under the neoliberal educational policies while their professionalism as teachers is weakened due to the specific direction towards teacher professionalism driven by the government. These neoliberal influences also serve as “a covert language policy mechanism” (Piller & Cho, 2013, p. 23) in Korea emphasizing the importance of English as a global language. In other words, neoliberalism disguised as globalization (Song, 2006) has elevated English to the most important language to learn in the country. As Park (2011) points out, English became one of the most significant ‘soft skills’ indicating “one’s alignment with the neoliberal job market, where individual commitment to self-development is celebrated as an important virtue for maximizing the value of human capital” (p. 448). Also being considered as important economic capital in the global market, English received the unprecedented attention both on private and governmental levels. In this circumstance, strong demands for better English education have been created in the society, and the Korean governments became active in implementing new policies in public schools arguing for better public English education. Among them, IETTP can be viewed as one of the main policies that reflects the government attitude towards the Korean teachers of English. Since the government implemented the English-only Class policy in 2001, the level of English proficiency of Korean teacher of English has been often problematized by the government and in the media. In the related discourses, Korean teachers of English in public school were compared to the native or native-like English speaking teachers in private language schools. After 2 years of the English-only Class, the government started IETTP with the prime objective to improve in-service teachers’ English speaking and listening skills and this shows the way how the government views the issues at hand. While the initiation of English-only Class shows what English teaching approach the government favors, the beginning of IETTP and its expansion plans year by year reflect the government views on how to make their chosen approach work better. In the process of implementing these new policies, Korean teachers of English became a sticking point in providing better public English education.

Under the situation where natives or native-like English speaking counterparts are favored and Korean teachers of English are called upon to be more native-like English speakers, their identities as Korean teachers of English have been weakened and threatened. Being continuously evaluated by their English proficiency, they are blamed for poor public English education by the government and the media. In fact, the English communicative competence of Korean teachers of English has been the major topic of government discourses in relation to English education since the introduction of CLT. Particularly around the time when the English-only Class, TEE, and IETTP were all implemented in the early 2000s, newspaper accounts about incompetent Korean teachers of English appeared more often. Blurring other major issues like the paper-and-pencil oriented evaluation system, the curriculums of pre-service teacher education, etc., in-service teachers of English were placed in the crux of the malfunctioning public English education. This thesis claims that shifting the failure of English education heavily onto individual teachers is the result from adopting neoliberal educational policies as discussed. Being asked to be active participants of the government policies as public servants, the teachers are regulated, evaluated and even blamed according to the required standards set by the government.

* 1. **Necessitation, Self-deprecation, and Korean Teachers of English**

It is undeniable that English has a quite strong presence in various fields of Korean society. The terms ‘English fever’ or ‘English frenzy’ are used to describe the relentless pursuit of learning English in South Korea. This situation, however, can be considered unique given the fact that Korea still remains a highly homogenous, monolingual nation where English is a foreign language rarely used in people’s daily lives (Yoo, 2005). In recent decades, the status and market value of English have become significantly high pushing the nation into a heated pursuit of English particularly since the government initiated its ‘globalization’ (*segyehwa*) project and adopted English as a formal subject in elementary school. Consequently, English is considered as a competitive edge in the global economy and therefore, job applicants and company workers in particular struggle to equip with necessary English language skills to survive in the job market. Not being just one of the foreign languages, English, in Korea, is considered as one’s core competence, and indexical of job success, social mobility, and international competitiveness (Koo, 2007; Yim, 2007). As Fitzgibbon (2013) points out, English has hegemonic power in Korea. Koreans have embraced learning English without serious questioning, and the acceptance of its hegemony by Korean society has given it a place in entering prestigious universities and companies (Fitzgibbon, 2013). About this situation, Park J. (2008, 2009, 2010) criticizes that English wields power over the whole nation dividing the haves and the have-nots. The pursuit of transnational education by middle-class parents in the form of ‘early study abroad’ (*chogi yuhak*) is a popular example of education strategy by the haves establishing ‘symbolic capital’ for their families’ class maintenance and upward mobility in society (Ong, 1999 as cited in Song, 2010; Shin, 2012). In this circumstance, the consecutive Korean governments have been very active in implementing new educational policies to improve public English education. As mentioned earlier in Chapter 3, starting with the introduction of CLT in 1992, the government initiated EPIK and adopted English as a formal subject in elementary school. The TEE and TEE Certification System followed in the early 2000’s. IETTP is another attempt made by the government to support CLT at the classroom level.

Among the attempts to understand this Korean-specific situation in relation to ELT, this thesis argues that the language ideologies of English in South Korea presented by Park J. (2009) can be a useful interpretive tool to understand what social meanings the government and Korean teachers of English attach to English and in what ways their interpretations of English affect their activities and roles in relation to English education. What Park J. (2009) proposed as the language ideologies of English in South Korea are ‘*necessitation*’, ‘*externalization*’, and ‘*self-deprecation’*, which consist of an ideological complex that is not always easy to separate. Although it needs to be noted that the three ideologies are better understood holistically as they represent the general conceptualization on English in Korean society (Park J., 2009, p. 27), this thesis adopts *necessitation* and *self-deprecation* for the discussion of this chapter as the concept of *externalization* is less relevant to the topic. By *externalization*, Park J. (2009) means the ideology of seeing English “as a language of an Other, treating it as a language that is incongruent with and opposed to the identity of one’s group” (p. 26). As this ideology appears to contrast with necessitation, the concept of *externalization* will be included in the discussion of *necessitation* where it is applicable instead of being dealt with separately.

***Necessitation of English in South Korea***

Park J. (2009) summarizes the definition of *necessitation* as follows:

This ideology views English as a valuable and indispensable language. The grounds for this necessity can be economical, cultural, and/for political. This ideology obviously connects with global discourses of English that valorize English as an (or rather, the) international language; it constructs English as a language one must acquire and secure in order to survive and flourish in the globalizing world. English is thus projected to have true relevance to local context through this ideology, regardless of actual patterns of language use. It also follows that lack of English skills is a significant problem for maintaining one’s (and by extension, a nation’s) well being in the modern world. (p. 26)

*Necessitation* can be used to explain Korean’s obsession with English education as Park points out. The so-called ‘English fever’ or ‘English frenzy’ in Korean society seems quite contradictory to the reality where English is being rarely used in people’s every day communication but the fever or frenzy still strongly exists and permeates society. The necessity of having English skills as a global citizen has become common-sensical and indisputable in Korean society. Along with the discourses of globalization, the necessity of English gained such power as to even have been considered as an official language of Korea by some strong advocates (Bok, 1998). This strong *necessitation* of English is supported by some anxieties or warnings, mainly produced by the government and conservative newspapers (Park J., 2009), about one’s, or the nation’s, possible lag in the highly competitive international market. The necessity of English is, however, not only constructed for those involved in the economic sector. As Park J. (2009) mentions, the claims supporting the idea that “…in global competition, the English ability of every citizen matters” (p. 76) were quite common particularly in the early 2000’s.

While *necessitation* is commonly adopted to explain the heated pursuit of English in Korean society (Cho, 2017; Park J., 2009; Song, 2010), this thesis claims that *necessitation* can also be used to explain the attitude of Korean teachers of English towards English language. In the situation where English is acting as a gatekeeping mechanism in various educational and employment transitions, no one can easily deny the necessity of learning and teaching the language in schools. Given the fact that not all but most of the Korean teachers of English are members of Korean society once being school students and now parents or family members of children in the society of English fever, they are inevitably under the influence of some language ideologies of English. Among them, *necessitation* can have the strongest impact upon them—even more than it has on the whole nation. The fact that teachers are public servants can make the case stronger because they are not allowed to have any political and individual activities (Cho, 2012). In some recent research (Choi, 2015), secondary school teachers’ high-level disapproval of TEE was addressed but teachers’ disagreement or disapproval has never endangered any government policies at least in the modern education history of South Korea. At the individual level, Korean teachers of English can express various opinions on the necessity of English. Some may consider the necessity of English as natural while some may see it as a government-imposed necessity or may express feelings of *externalization*. As being civil servants, however, they are all placed in a position to follow the government dictates. Presumably, this is one of the reasons why the voices from teachers are seldom heard in the field of education in Korea.

***Self-deprecation of Korean Teachers of English***

This thesis claims that *self-deprecation* has a particular relevance to the Korean teachers of English in terms of their identities and roles as English teachers. In short, *self-deprecation* generalizes Koreans as bad speakers of English erasing the variation in the level of Koreans’ actual English skills and also undervaluing the effectiveness of Korean’s large investment in English learning (Park J., 2009, p. 80). The summary of the definition of self-deprecation by the author is as follows:

This ideology views Koreans as lacking sufficient competence to use English meaningfully, despite the abundance of English education they receive. Under this view, Koreans in general, including the language user who displays this ideology, are incompetent in English; thus the name *self-*deprecation. The term self-deprecation is adopted from Lukas Tsitsipis (1995), who in turn borrows it from Eric Hamp’s work, but here I am specifying the term further by applying it to cultural and social constructions of linguistic competence in order to understand how a community may subordinate itself within a hierarchical relation of power through the mediation of such constructions. (p. 26)

From this ideology, though it sounds a bit extreme, Koreans are viewed as “hopelessly incapable of mastering English” (Park J., 2009, p. 80). What Park J. (2009) emphasizes with *self-deprecation* is that “it is a shameful admittance that they lack legitimate competence in the language and therefore are subordinate to native speakers who have more power due to their linguistic capital” (p. 80) From this perspective, Koreans can never be legitimate English speakers and this fundamental incompetence in English is considered as intrinsic to Koreans.

This harsh generalizations about Koreans’ incompetence in English can be related to two other familiar terms: native-like English proficiency and linguistic insecurity. As discussed in Chapter 2, native-like English proficiency is admired and desired in Korean society, which affects people’s expectations of their English teachers. From the ideological perspective of *self-deprecation*, Korean teachers of English lack legitimate competence in English and so they are required to keep honing their English skills regardless of their individual differences in competence. However, not given any standards to meet except Teaching-English-Through-English, their destination seems unreachable unless they become native speakers of English. Considered that even returnees from study-abroad suffer from anxieties over native-like expectations of their English back in Korea (Cho, 2015), linguistic insecurity can hardly disappear in Korean society. In relation to this situation, Cho (2015) argues that “Korean people are made to feel constantly insecure about English skills, leading to the pursuit of linguistic perfectionism as informed by neoliberal ideologies” (p. 689). Being all interrelated, *self-deprecation*, native-like proficiency, and linguistic insecurity or linguistic perfectionism continues to be reinforced in neoliberal discourses on individual accountability. In this circumstance, Korean teachers of English, not to mention general individuals, can be easily blamed for their incompetence in English due to the higher expectations of English teachers from the stakeholders. Feeling constantly insecure about their English skills, they are asked to be accountable for their incompetence in English while being pushed to reach the unreachable goal.

**4.5 Summary**

This chapter discussed two major ideological influences on the EFL teacher education in South Korea: neoliberal influences and Korea-specific language ideologies of English. Neoliberalism has influenced educational policies in operating under market-oriented mechanism with its imperative to compete. Under the strong neoliberal influences, English as a global communication tool has become the most important language to learn, and teachers have become responsible for their own development and effective education in order to socially survive in the competitive education market. In this circumstance, teacher professionalism is considered weakened as teachers are more controlled and regulated by the specific direction set by the government. To keep the pace with its globalization policy, the government has implemented various English language policies since 1990’s. CLT, EPIK, TEE, TEE Certification System and IETTP are the new policies adopted to teach English in a communicative way. In addition to neoliberalism, the two language ideologies of English in South Korea, *necessitation* and *self-deprecation* have also influenced English language policies and Korean teachers of English. While *necessitation* prevails in the neoliberal discourses about English language, *self-deprecation* has a particular relevance to the identities and roles of Korean teachers of English. Being considered as both significant soft skills and important economic capital, English has become “the” indispensable language in Korean society. Being closely linked with *necessitation*, *self-deprecation* is connected with the government’s and conservative newspapers’ common claims that Korea is missing valuable opportunities in the global market because of Koreans’ incompetence in English. This strongly generalized essential incompetence of Koreans was also discussed with other similar concepts, such as the pursuit of native-like proficiency and linguistic perfectionism. Under the significant influences of neoliberalism and Korea-specific language ideologies of English, Korean teachers of English are being blamed for mal-functioning public English education, and, at the same time, being pushed to be better English speakers for their better English teaching. IETTP is a prime example of this.

**Chapter 5**

**Theoretical Framework and Methodology**

**5.1 Positionality**

I am a Korean. I was born and have lived in South Korea for more than 40 years. Korean is my mother tongue and I have spoken it almost my entire life. From middle school, I learned English as a foreign language according to the school curriculum as almost all other middle schoolers did at that time. My compulsory English education went on until high school. During that six-year period, I hardly had a chance to speak English outside the classroom. At university, I majored in English language and literature. After university graduation, I worked for a company where English was used for the daily communication with its key customers. Having a business career that lasted over a decade, I jumped into the field of English education viewing it as my new career opportunity. My teaching career started right after the completion of a six-month long TESOL program at a university. In the early stage of my teaching career, I completed a Master of Arts in TESOL at a graduate school in the United States. Right after the Masters’ degree, I proceeded to start my doctoral studies in relation to language learning and teaching. Having this academic and career background, for the last seven years or so I have been an English instructor, teaching mainly adult learners of English working at companies.

As a lifelong English learner and, at the same time, as an English instructor, I have been interested in learning and teaching English as a foreign language in South Korea for quite a number of years. I am a native Korean speaker and my English has never been better than my Korean. Constantly feeling inadequate and being conscious of the disadvantageous status of non-native English teachers compared to native English teachers (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Braine, 1999; Duff & Uchida, 1997; Flynn & Gulikers, 2001; Moussu, 2010; Richards, 2008; Varghese, Morgan, Johnston & Johnson, 2005) in the country, I have been striving to be a ‘better’ English instructor through continuous learning. In retrospect, I kept trying to be a ‘better’ English speaker and, at the same time, to elevate my status to a ‘better’ position among the group of non-native English instructors.

In the process of my doctoral studies and deciding the research topic for my thesis, my experiences as an English learner and instructor in South Korea led me to realize my own taken-for-granted assumptions about English, and learning and teaching the language in the country. To name a few, there was a vague distinction between ‘being a native-like speaker’ and ‘a better English teacher’ in my mind. Although I thought I was against equating the two notions, I was applying it to myself unconsciously being influenced by what was being said in society. By trying to be more proficient in English, I was utilizing my English as cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1977) in the society of English frenzy. Furthermore, I was, although pretending not to be, judgmental on other speakers of English by their not-native-like pronunciation and accent. Consciously and unconsciously, I admired the ‘standard English’ of people from inner circle countries while looking down on English dialects from the outer circle (Kachru, 1985).

After the realization of my twisted feelings and attitude toward English, I became more aware of similar attitudes prevailing in everyday conversations among ordinary people, news articles, books, etc. It seems that the society has formed certain attitudes toward English and English learning and teaching. Those attitudes seem embodied and confirmed by people, the media, and institutions mainly through their discourses in relation to English education. I was curious about why certain discourses became more dominant over others and about the interactional relationship between the discourses created in the society. Among them, my interest was narrowed down to the discourses with a strong emphasis on teachers’ English proficiency, which seemed quite contradictory to the existing written-test-oriented school curriculum. Around that time, the Intensive English Teacher’s Training Program (henceforth IETTP) grabbed my attention in that this program has a clear aim “to improve Korean English teachers’ communicative competence” and to have them “practice their instructional skills of Teaching-English-Through-English” (TCIE at KENU, 2018, para 1). Considering IETTP was the latest supplementary addition to in-service English teacher education in South Korea, it can be possibly interpreted as a government-driven measure responding to the educational needs of the times. In other words, the need for improving Korean English teachers’ communicative competence was recognized and reflected in the new policy by the government.

Putting an emphasis on improving Korean teachers’ English skills so that they could teach the language better seemed reasonable in a way but I doubted whether it should be the principal object of the in-service teacher training for teachers who were already qualified as English teachers at least three years before being entitled to apply for IETTP. I doubted the taken-for-granted assumption, which downplays in-service English teachers’ experience and suggests that they are in need of developing English skills. In fact, I doubted the assumption which equates proficient English speakers with good/better English teachers. Some queries that came into my mind were,

* Are teachers’ English skills the real issue of not-well-functioning English education as the government assumes?
* If the teachers’ English skills are not good enough, why did the government qualify them as English teachers in the first place?
* What are the grounds for Teaching-English-Through-English and why should it be the direction of English education in the country?
* Will the improvement of teachers’ English skills lead to better English education as the government assumes?

Pondering the questions above, I considered the government’s attitude toward in-service Korean teachers of English problematic in that it is uncertain whether the teachers’ improved English skills will lead to better student learning, and in that the government implicitly ascribes the issues of public English education to the Korean teachers of English. It seems that there is an unbalanced power relationship between the government and the teachers. While the voices of teachers are not being heard, the government wields its power and control over teachers just because they are hired to work for the government.

Through a closer consideration of the IETTP and EFL teacher education in the country, I realized that the taken-for-granted assumption equating proficient English speakers with good/better English teachers is prevalent in the society and is located at the center of IETTP. Behind the unquestioned assumption, there seem to be a cluster of certain attitudes about English. Given that attitudes are “socially shared opinions”, these cluster of certain attitudes “are general but limited to” South Korea, and “they may be organized by underlying ideologies” of Korean society (van Dijk, 2003, p. 329). This led me to delve deeper into the policy hoping to get to the heart of the matter. My hope is to reveal that there have been unquestioned assumptions about teaching English and teachers of English in South Korea, which many of us have not questioned, and which extend their influence on the people and the society of the country.

Lastly, the fact that I am an insider in the society but an outsider of the public education system can have both benefits and challenges. Having the student and teacher experience in South Korea, I am better equipped with insights and the ability to understand the contents of this research, culturally and linguistically. In the meantime, not having shared the in-service teacher experience, my perspectives and interpretations of in-service teachers can only be limited and partial.

* 1. **Critical Discourse Analysis as a Theoretical Framework**

This thesis adopts Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough, 1989) as a theoretical framework viewing the discourses around IETTP as the representation of the ideologies and power relations that IETTP bears and embodies. Drawing on this theoretical framework, it aims to unveil what ideologies related to English and English education are imposed and appropriated, and what power relations exist and are presented in the discourses around IETTP.

Language is considered as the primary domain of ideology whether or not the language users in a society are aware of it (Hodge & Kress, 1988). This implies that no language use represents absolute objectivity or pure facts (Hodge & Kress, 1993). Rather, any language use is inevitably ideological and has inseparable relations with the values, beliefs and practice of its social contexts (Fairclough, 1989; Fowler, 1991). This indivisible relationship between language and ideology has been the key interest of CDA. From the perspective that views CDA as a theoretical framework, it seems useful to take the following three aspects into account: language as social practice, language and ideology, and power and discourse (Li, 2016). Firstly, Fairclough (1993) sees language use as social practice in that it is “a socially and historically situated mode of action, in a dialectical relationship with other facets of ‘the social (its social context)’ - it is socially shaped, but it is also socially shaping, or constitutive” (p. 134). This implies that language use should be understood with the consideration of its “social circumstances (e.g., whether they are generated within, broadly, stable and rigid, or flexible and open, power relations)” (Fairclough, 1993, p. 134). Secondly, language has an inextricable relationship with ideology. People interpret the world through the language that can be considered as interpretive schemata (Hodge & Kress, 1993). This means people perceive the world through the language. Also, people from a particular social group tend to have distinctive beliefs and values, which affect how they perceive the world. Among the different definitions of ideology available in the field of CDA, Fairclough (1995) claims that ideology involves how people describe the world from their perspective of a certain interest. This implies that the social, political, and economic status of the language user affects what ideology they share. Consciously and unconsciously, ideology is expressed through language. In other words, language use can reveal the ideology of the users. Lastly, Fairclough (2015) argues that CDA has its central objective of analyzing and critiquing relations between discourse and power (p. 26). Distinguishing the ‘power to’ do things and the ‘power over’ other people, he problematizes the case when people have and exercise power over other people, especially “when it is not legitimate, or when it has bad effects, for instance when it results in unacceptable and unjustifiable damage to people or to social life” (p. 27). According to Fairclough (2015), “power is exercised and enacted in discourse… there are relations of power behind discourse… in both cases power is won, held, and lost in social struggles” (p. 98). This implies that through critically analyzing discourses, we can attempt to unveil what power relations exist among the parties involved, which might lead us to be aware of inequality and injustice constructed in a society.

**5.2.1 Discourse and Discourse Analysis**

Having a Latin origin, discourse means to circulate, literally moving around, spreading among people (Renkema, 2004). While a simple dictionary definition of discourse, “written or spoken communication or debate” (Oxford Dictionaries Online, 2017) pays attention to the linguistic aspect of discourse, Foucault (1972) argues that discourse is about language and practice defining it as:

a group of statements which provide a language for talking about – a way of representing the knowledge about – a particular topic at a particular historical moment…Discourse is about the production of knowledge through language. But… since all social practices entail meaning, and meanings shape and influence what we do – our conduct – all practices have a discursive aspect. (as cited in Hall, 1992, p. 291)

According to Foucault, discourse constructs a topic defining and producing the objects of our knowledge. He claims that discourse governs the way in which a topic is meaningfully talked about and reasoned about. From his perspective, discourse also plays an influential role in how people put their ideas into practice and how they regulate others’ conduct (Hall, 1997). Discourse constructs meaning and meaningful practice. In this regard, Foucault argues that discourse is crucial in creating meaning but the point here is not about the existence of things but about where meaning comes from (as cited in Hall, 1997).

Fairclough (2013) argues that we cannot define discourse “except in terms of both its ‘internal’ relations and its ‘external’ relations with (such) other objects” (p. 3). He describes the sets of relations that ‘discourse’ naturally bears as follows:

...’discourse’ might be seen as some sort of entity or ‘object’, but it is itself a complex set of relations including relations of communication between people who talk, write and in other ways communicate with each other, but also, for example, describe relations between concrete communicative events (conversations, newspaper articles etc.) and more abstract and enduring complex discursive ‘objects’ (with their own complex relations) like languages, discourses and genres. But there are also relations between discourse and other such complex ‘objects’ including objects in the physical world, persons, power relations and institutions, which are interconnected elements in social activity or praxis. (p. 3)

Based on the description above, Fairclough (2013) goes on to claim that “discourse brings into the complex relations which constitute social life: meaning, and making meaning” (p. 3). The feature of ‘meaning making’ of discourse or the potential for ‘meaning making’ is also emerged in the definitions of Discourse Analysis (henceforth, DA) , such as “discourse analysis examines how stretches of language…become meaning and unified for their users” (Cook, 1989, p. viii), “discourse analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between languages and the contexts in which is it used” (McCarthy, 1991, p. 12) and it is “the study of language in use. In other words, DA is “the study of language in use in the world, not just to say things but to do things” (Gee, 2011, p. 80). Using DA, researchers generally analyse the content of discourse possibly providing descriptive qualitative insights, however, those insights can only be in the level of micro interpretations (analysis of text, Luke, 2002) of language use (Fitzgibbon, 2013). This distinguishes DA from Critical Discourse Analysis (henceforth CDA) in that CDA may provide macro interpretations (analysis of social institutions, Luke, 2002) of discourse revealing the power and ideology that have been created by some social groups in a society (van Dijk, 1998).

**5.2.2 Critical Discourse Analysis**

CDA can be broadly understood as a set of approaches to search for answers about the dynamics between language and society (Rogers et al., 2005). More specifically, CDA attempts to unveil the ideologies and power relations behind the discourses it studies (Fairclough, 1993). In their literature review of CDA in the field of education, Rogers et al. (2005) list some major influential scholars and books in formulating the current form of CDA. The scholars are language philosophers and social theorists, Bakhtin (1981), DuBois (1903, 1990), Pecheux (1975), Volosinov (1930, 1973), and Wittgenstein (1953), and the books are *Language and Control* (Fowler, Hodge, Kress & Trew, 1979), *Language as Ideology* (Hodge & Kress, 1979, 1993). In their review, Rogers et al. point out that the attempt to relate the study of discourse to social events began to emerge along with the transformation of linguistic theories and methods in the social sciences and with social movements, such as the peace movement, the women’s movement, the disability movement, the civil rights movement, and so on. In the 1970s, linguistic theories and methods were transformed from traditional linguistics to interactional linguistics, and to critical linguistics. During this period, linguists became aware of the necessity to figure out the inextricable relationships between language and society. The theory of systemic functional linguistics by Michael Halliday (1975, 1978, 1985), which emphasizes language as a meaning-making process, influenced critical linguistics and then CDA. In society at large, the social events occurred during that time period were accompanied by a broader linguistic change in the social sciences shifting from methodological individualism, and the proliferation of post-structural and post-modern theories (Rogers et al., 2005).

It is suggested that CDA emerged from the collaborative work of Fairclough, Kress, van Leeuwen, van Dijk and Wodak in the early 1990s, in their ongoing discussions about the broad field of discourse analysis (Rogers et al., 2005). During the two days at a symposium in Amsterdam, the scholars discussed theories and methods specific to CDA. The fact that they have diverse academic backgrounds influenced CDA reflecting their interdisciplinary approach (van Dijk, 2001). Through CDA, scholars attempted to bring social theory and discourse analysis together “to describe, interpret, and explain the ways in which discourse constructs, becomes constructed by, represents, and becomes represented by the social world” (Rogers et al., 2005, p. 366).

While CDA has been used worldwide in many disciplinary areas, “each with a history and style unique to the practitioners in the field” (Rogers et al., 2016, p. 1193), there are commonalities across the approach applied:

an interest in the properties of real language by users in natural settings; a focus on texts, discourses, conversations, or communicative events; a study of action and interaction; an interest in the nonverbal aspects of communication; a focus on the social and cognitive aspects of interaction; and an investigation of the context of language use. CDA found its way into education research through an interdisciplinary interest in language, power and ideology (Wodak & Meyer, 2009 as cited in Rogers at al., 2016, p. 1193).

With regard to the question of what distinguishes CDA from DA then, in addition to the difference that was briefly mentioned in the previous section, the principal differences between the two approaches described by Fairclough (1992) as follow:

…critical approaches differ from non-critical approaches in not just describing discursive practices, but in showing how discourse is shaped by relations of power and ideologies, and the constructive effects discourse has upon social relations and systems of knowledge and beliefs (p. 12).

In a similar vein, van Dijk (2001) points out that “CDA applies a critical perspective to discourse analysis by focusing on social problems” (p. 96). In fact, critical approaches to discourse analysis are particularly interested in doubting unquestioned and naturalized assumptions in the society (Fairclough, 2015; Wodak & Meyer, 2001). When we say that ideological representations are ‘naturalized’, it means that they come to be seen as non-ideological ‘common sense’ in the society and therefore they become characteristically opaque to participants (Fairclough, 2015). CDA, therefore, can be an interdisciplinary or ‘transdisciplinary’ (Fairclough, 2013) tool that exposes inequality and injustice naturalized in our society. Herberman (1973) argues that as the use of written and spoken discourse in our society perpetuates the mediation between ideology and power, CDA illuminates the problems generated by this relationship.

Although CDA analyses written and/or spoken discourse, CDA does not aim to analyse discourse in and of itself, but to analyse “dialectical relations between discourse and other object, elements or moments, as well as analysis of the ‘internal relations’ of discourse” (Fairclough, 2013, p. 4). With regard to this, Fairclough (2013) concretely describes:

A primary focus of CDA is on the effect of power relations and inequalities in producing social wrongs, and in particular on discursive aspects of power relations and inequalities: on dialectical relations within the social process and their elements. This includes questions of ideology, understanding ideologies to be ‘meaning in the service of power’ (Thompson, 1984); ways of representing aspects of the world, which may be operationalized in ways of acting and interacting and in ‘ways of being’ or identities, that contribute to establishing or sustaining unequal relations of power. (p. 8)

Fairclough (2013) goes on to argue that critical analysis attempts to make ‘interpretations’ and ‘explanations’ of areas of social life which “both identify the causes of social wrongs and produce knowledge which could contribute to righting or mitigating them” (p. 8). Considering the fact that interpretations and explanations by certain members or groups of the society are already available, it is arguable whether interpretations and explanations made by CDA researchers are better than existing ones. In relation to this disputable point, Fairclough (2013) emphasizes the need for providing explanations with ‘greater explanatory power’, which is able “to provide justified explanations of as many features of the area of social life in focus as possible” (p. 8). Better interpretations and explanations need to be more consistent with available evidence, past and current events, people’s past and current actions, and what the effects of their actions are (Fairclough, 2013).

According to Fairclough (2013), the characteristics of research and analysis that counts as CDA are suggested as follows:

1. It is not just analysis of discourse (or more concretely texts), it is part of some form of systematic transdisciplinary analysis of relations between discourse and other elements of the social process.
2. It is not just general commentary on discourse, it includes some form of systematic analysis of texts.
3. It is not just descriptive, it is also normative. It addresses social wrongs in their discursive aspects and possible ways of righting or mitigating them. (p. 10-11)

**5.2.3** **Contribution and Critique of CDA**

CDA offers a synergistic framework drawing on a collection of different resources together (Fairclough, 2015; Rogers et al., 2005). Using different resources available, CDA can provide increased efficacy compared to the individual effect of each resource. CDA can be used as a means to analyse and research “social phenomena which are necessarily complex and thus require a multi-disciplinary and multi-methodical approach” (Wodak & Meyer, 2009, p. 2). This multi-disciplinary nature of CDA is considered its greatest strength because “social phenomena are far too complex to be understood and explained within the restraints of a single discipline, and seek to adopt, adapt and reappropriate methods, theories and approaches from the social sciences and linguistics, to account for the intricacies of the social” (Wodak & Meyer, 2009, p. 2). In addition, CDA has aspirations to denaturalize and destabilize the unequal power relations propagated by dominant discourses, which can be considered the potential contribution of CDA. By recognizing the twin forces of oppression and emancipation, CDA can lead to social emancipation of those who are dominated and oppressed (Fairclough, 2015; Wodak & Meyer, 2009). In fact, CDA research aims at raising awareness about the taken-for-granted assumptions in discourse so that the awareness can lead to emancipating the oppressed (Fairclough, 2015).

There also have been some critiques of CDA. Firstly, CDA is criticized due to its position of knowledge “that is somehow able to decide for others what is true” (Pennycook, 2001, p. 88). This issue may be related to “the researcher’s educational level and type, their access to English or their awareness of the need for critical inquiry (‘not all those involved in education share the desire for critical inquiry’)” (Fitzgibbon, 2013, p. 93). Secondly, CDA practitioners are required to “spell-out their point of view, perspective, principles and aims, both within their discipline and within society at large” (van Dijk, 1993, p. 252). Given the nature of CDA that is “admittedly and ultimately political” (van Dijk, 1993, p. 252), knowing the practitioners’ explicit sociopolitical stance is considered crucial to identify what interpretive lens they use to produce the knowledge. Another critique is about the lack of research that moved toward emancipatory action with the results of their analyses contrary to their liberative goals and aims (Rogers et al., 2005). In addition, CDA is criticized for presenting a limited interpretation of text from a particular point of view (Widdowson, 1995). Widdowson argues that CDA is partial because “it is not impartial in that it is ideologically committed, and so prejudiced” and “it selects those features of the text which support its preferred interpretation” (p. 169).

**5.2.4** **Educational Policy Analysis and CDA**

According to Sutton and Levinson (2001), approaches to educational policy analysis have gradually embraced more qualitative research methods and sociocultural perspectives during the past couple of decades. The notions of ‘policy as a practice of power’ and ‘the meaning of policy in practice’ have recently emerged in contrast to the perspective viewing policy as ‘a technocratic object, a kind of fuel rod for the body politic: put the policy in and watch the machine run.’ Until recently, policy analysis was considered as an activity applying ‘the best social scientific knowledge to the rational solution of perennial human problems’. Historically, policy analysis has been heavily influenced by a ‘managerial perspective’ (Bowe, Ball, & Gold, 1992, p. 7), which sees “the policy process divided into sequential steps and each is analyzed in turn” (Porter & Hicks, 1995, p. 8). On the other hand, the sociocultural perspectives on educational policy studies seek to expand the understanding of the cultural, contextual, and political dimensions of educational policy (Sutton & Levinson, 2001, p. 1). Shore and Wright (1997) describe a policy as a kind of political form “disguised by the objective, neutral, legal-rational idioms in which [it is] portrayed” (p. 8). Legally authorized or official policy can be described as “a form of governance” or “a discursive mode of governance” (Sutton & Levinson, 2001, p. 2). The intent of policy is described as “to direct and to harness social power for social outcomes” (Bhola, 1975, p. 1) and this power dynamics is intrinsic to making and implementing a policy. Therefore, the study of power and policy is critical to a sociocultural conception of policy (Sutton & Levinson, 2001). According to Clark (2001), “unequal power relations are realized through discursive practices” (as cited in Hyatt, 2014, p. 44) in the process of forming a policy. This ideological nature of policy formation calls for adopting methodological approaches that explore the meaning and effects in education policy, not the intentions of policy makers (Ball, 1990 as cited in Hyatt, 2014). Ideological and discourse analysis are closely related to a sociocultural approach to policy analysis in that “they dissolve the lines between ordinary and authoritative meanings of policy by directing attention to the regimes of meaning which are constantly reinvented and reinforced through institutional practices” (Sutton & Levinson, 2001, p. 9).

Fairclough (2003) argues that “relationships of texts, practices and ideologies to social structures, processes, and interrelationships should be seen as modalities of power and can be more systematically investigated” (as cited in Hyatt, 2014, p. 44). In this sense, the benefit of adopting CDA for policy analysis is that it provides a systematic framework for analysis, uncovering “how texts (seen as semiotic representations of social events) represent and construct the social world, institutions, identities and relationships, and how these are shaped and characterized ideologically through relations of power” (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999 as cited in Hyatt, 2014, p. 45). As Hyatt (2014) points out, CDA can provide “valuable insights in engaging with policy texts, where policy-making involves repeated struggles over meaning, and policies are seen as the outcomes of such struggles” (p. 45) between power and equality in the process of policy making.

**5.3 Methodology**

This thesis adopts the Critical Higher Education Policy Discourse Analysis framework proposed by Hyatt (2014), which theoretically draws on critical discourse analysis. This analytical framework was offered for:

the critical analysis of higher education policy texts, and of the processes and motivations behind their articulations, grounded in considerations of relationships and flows between language, power and discourse. (p. 41)

Acknowledging that higher educational policy analysis requires employing many different theories and disciplines, Hyatt (2014) claims that the critical higher education policy discourse analysis framework aims to be a systematic tool for “exegesis, analysis and interpretation, uncloaking the ways in which language (and other semiotic modes) work within discourse as agents and actors in the realization, construction and perception and relations of power” (p. 42).

By adopting the Critical Higher Education Policy Discourse Analysis, this thesis attempts to critically and systematically analyse the discourses about IETTP in the policy documents, news articles, and academic journals. By doing so, this thesis hopes to reveal in what ways Korean teachers of English are represented in the society, and what kind of teachers IETTP desires to produce and why, which will involve unveiling the ideologies and power relations behind IETTP and how these ideologies and power relations are produced and reproduced, and furthermore, how they are manifested in the status and social meaning of Korean teachers of English and of in-service teacher education for the teachers.

The Critical Higher Education Policy Discourse Analysis Framework is particularly suitable for this study as this systematic framework allows thorough analysis at the levels of contextualization and deconstruction of policy. The fact that this framework adopts “a transdisciplinary orientation, looking at social practices both within and beyond disciplinary boundaries to pursue new perspectives” (Hyatt & Meraud, 2015, p. 5) is highly significant for this study as the research questions of this thesis can be hardly answered in a single disciplinary domain and so this transdisciplinary approach is necessary to broaden and deepen our understanding about the issues raised. In addition, the point that this framework encourages the analyst “to view the policy text from multiple angles and insists on a thorough analysis of the immediate and longer term sociopolitical context from which the text emerges” (Hyatt & Meraud, 2015, p. 5) is another reason for this methodological choice. The reason is because the research questions of this thesis are particularly related to ideologies and power relations, which should be better understood and addressed in their unique sociopolitical contexts.

**The Text**

The corpus of this research is the written texts of the government policy, news articles and academic journals related to IETTP as seen in Table 5.1. below.

**Table 5.1.** The corpus of the research

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Source** | **Title** | **Year** |
| **Government policy document** | General plan of intensive training for English teachers | 2006 |
| **News articles** | Urgent need of expanding the foreign language re-training for in-service teachers  Stingy with investment on high school conversational English education  A nation shall stand straight when public education is right | 2003  2003  2007 |
| **Academic journals** | A questionnaire survey on the intensive secondary English teacher training program  The effects of the intensive training program for in-service secondary school English teachers  Evaluation of intensive in-service English teacher training programs  A study on the evaluation of teacher training programs for Korean English teachers  Evaluation of an intensive English teacher training program: an investigation of teacher learners’ perceptions and development | 2004  2006  2007  2010  2011 |

Specifically, the general plan of IETTP in 2006, three news articles, and five academic journals related to IETTP will be analysed. The general plan of IETTP in 2006 is one of the two general plans (government documents) that are currently and publicly available related to IETTP (the other one is for the year 2009). The reason for selecting the 2006 version is that it is more detailed than the other one though not significantly different in the basic scheme. The three news articles were selected through Naver (Korea’s most frequently used search engine) using the Korean key words ‘yeong-eo-gyo-sa-sim-hwa-yeon-su (intensive English teacher training)’ in the time period of 2002-2007 (for the 5 years after the policy implementation). Among the 142 news articles searched in total, the ones that concretely mentioned IETTP with the details of the policy were selected. The five academic journals were searched through Academic Information at Naver using the same Korean key word used for the news articles. Among the 34 academic journal articles searched, the top 5 articles that are directly related to IETTP and that were cited more than once were selected. The reason why this analysis includes news articles and academic journals along with the policy document is that this thesis also aims to look into in what ways IETTP-related discourses are circulated, reproduced and reinforced in society by the media and academia. With no human participants or personal data involved, this will be a desk-based piece of research, so there is no need to go through the institutional ethical review procedure.

**Translation**

In order to ensure the credibility of the analysis of the discourses from the selected documents, this thesis handles translation issues based on the criteria described below.

* When original English versions of any selected documents are available, this thesis will use the original English version over the Korean one to minimize any possible translation issues.
* When only Korean versions are available, the English translation will be done by third-party translators who are bilingual Korean/English speakers to ensure the credibility of translation and to avoid any researcher’s bias.
* In the case of academic journals, the authors’ original English titles and English abstracts will be used while only the introductions or prefaces will be translated by third-party translators who are bilingual Korean/English speakers to ensure the credibility of translation and to avoid any researcher’s bias. The partial use of the academic journals is due to the difficulties that arise as each journal covers a broader scope than this thesis addresses.

**Some Practical and Ethical Issues**

There are several practical and ethical issues that are inherent in this specific research. One major practical issue is related to the language difference between the object and the outcome of the research. Although ways to mitigate potential translation issues are provided as mentioned in the previous section, the fact that a translated version cannot be identical to the original still remains. A further practical issue is the use of only currently-publicly-available data. The general plan of IETTP and the selected news articles have not been compiled for this research. Like the academic journals, they are searched through available online resources using the key word ‘yeong-eo-gyo-sa-sim-hwa-yeon-su (intensive English teacher training)’. This leaves an issue as to whether or not there were/are possibly other data available but inadvertently omitted.

The main ethical issue is the centrality of the researcher in interpreting data and constructing conclusions like other research that has adopted a CDA approach or arguably any interpretive work. According to Weiss and Wodak (2003), the researcher is deeply involved in choosing topics, selecting texts, and the types of sampling and CDA adopted. The researcher’s positionality, personal experiences and views toward research topic inevitably influence the ways to analyse the data and make interpretations of it (Wodak & Meyer, 2009). This researcher bias can be minimized by being self-reflexive throughout all stages of researching and writing (Baxter, 2010; Wodak & Meyer, 2009). Researchers’ self-reflexivity can be achieved by being explicit about their prior assumptions, the motivations behind their research, and their personal value systems (Baxter, 2010). Unlike the majority of social science research, researcher bias is perceived as being a natural aspect of CDA research. So, CDA requires a researcher to explicitly define and defend his/her own socio-political position rather than denying or preventing it (Wodak & Meyer, 2009).

**5.3.1 The Critical Higher Education Policy Discourse Analysis Frame**

The Critical Higher Education Policy Discourse Analysis Frame is comprised of two elements: contextualizing and deconstructing the policy. The former comprises temporal context (Hyatt, 2005b), policy levers and drivers (Steer, Spours, Hodgson, Finlay, Coffield, Edward & Gregson, 2007) and warrants (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2001). The latter is concerned with deconstructing policy texts and discourses using a number of analytical lenses and tools derived from critical discourse analysis (Fairclough, 1995) and critical literacy analysis (Hyatt, 2005a as cited in Hyatt, 2014). Table 5.2. provides the overall look of the frame:

**TABLE 5.2.** The Critical Policy Discourse Analysis Frame

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **CONTEXTUALISATION**  **of POLICY** | **Temporal Context**  Immediate socio-political context  Medium term socio-political context  Contemporary socio-political individuals, organisations and structures  Epoch |
| **Policy Drivers and Levers** |
| **Warrant**  The Evidentiary Warrant  The Accountability Warrant  The Political Warrant |
|
| **DECONSTRUCTING**  **POLICY** | **Modes of Legitimation** |
| **Interdiscursivity and Intertextuality** |
| **Evaluation/Appraisal** |
| **Presupposition/Implication** |
| **Lexico-Grammatical Construction** |

Drawing on this frame, Chapter 6 will attempt to critically analyze IETTP by contextualizing and deconstructing IETTP. As the beginning of the contextualisation of IETTP, the temporal context from which IETTP emerged will be described. Firstly, the immediate socio-political context in which IETTP was enacted will be described. Specifically, some specific socio-political and economic events or activities will be described to see how they affect the texts and discourses about IETTP. After that, some socio-historic mores in relation to IETTP will be discussed given that they have had political, social and cultural influence on the emergence and continuation of IETTP. In the third section of the temporal context, in what ways the government, print media and academy represent IETTP in their related texts and discourses will be discussed “acknowledging the dialectical nature of the relationship and informing how structural and institutional properties of society play a part in the constantly dynamic transformation of the (self)-construction of individuals” (Hyatt, 2014, p. 48). In the section about an epoch, how the Korean government and society legitimate IETTP and achieve the social identity of IETTP will be discussed. What counts as knowledge or truth in the era of IETTP will be described. As the second part of the contextualisation of IETTP, the intended aims or goals of IETTP will be described and the discussion of their roles as the policy drivers will follow. For the last part of the contextualization, how the government utilizes the evidentiary, accountability and political warrants to justify the implantation of IETTP.

For deconstructing IETTP, this thesis will first look into the interdiscursivity in the General Plan of IETTP and intertextuality in the research papers about IETTP to understand how they establish the legitimacy of their claims and assumptions. After that, it will look into how IETTP and in-service Korean teachers of English are evaluated in the General Plan of IETTP, news articles, research papers, and will discuss in what ways these evaluations affect IETTP and the teachers. The last part of deconstructing IETTP will show some specific examples of presupposition made by the government, print media, and academy in relation to public English education and Korean teachers of English, and how those presuppositions help to construct convincing realities for them.

**Chapter 6**

**Critical Higher Education Policy Discourse Analysis of IETTP**

**6.1 Contextualising IETTP**

The contextualisation of IETTP will utilize the three elements suggested by Hyatt (2014): temporal context, policy levers and drivers, and warrant. For temporal context, the immediate socio-political context, the medium term socio-political context, the contemporary socio-political individuals, organisations and structures, and the epoch in relation to IETTP will be discussed. For policy levers and drivers, the specific aims or goals of IETTP will be addressed. Lastly, the evidentiary, accountability and political warrant for IETTP will be discussed.

**6.1.1 Temporal Context of IETTP**

Hyatt (2014) argues that “having a clear understanding of the impact and nuances of a temporal context is crucial for any reading of a policy text since all policy emerges, is constructed and is understood, within its context” (p. 46). Incorporating historical, political, social, and psychological dimensions of discourses (Discourse-historical approach, Wodak, 2001), Hyatt (2005b) suggests that a temporal context operates on four levels: immediate socio-political context, medium term socio-political context, contemporary socio-political organization, and epoch. Drawing upon these four interdependent levels, this section will analyse the synchronic (at this moment in time) context of IETTP with diachronic (across time) relevance (Hyatt, 2014, p. 46).

***Immediate Socio-political Context: TETE and IETTP***

Hyatt (2014) describes *Immediate socio-political context* as “the status of contemporary actuality, what is currently in the news” (p. 47). According to him, immediate socio-political context of policy includes the reason why the policy is implemented at the time it is. Given that IETTP was implemented in 2003, this section will look into the immediate socio-political context of IETTP at the time of its implementation.

In 2003, the government initiated IETTP for secondary school Korean teachers of English at TCIE of KNUE. This policy implementation can be better understood in line with the preceding policy called TETE (interchangeably TEE, Teaching English in English). TETE was initiated in 2001, two years earlier before IETTP, for elementary 3rd and 4th graders and 1st graders of middle school. Considering the fact that English had been taught mainly through Korean in most public schools until that time, TETE was a quite drastic step to take pedagogically and practically. After the introduction of TETE, issues about the effectiveness of TETE were brought up by the mass media (Kim, 2001; Lee, 2002). Lack of ‘specialist teachers’ was addressed as the primary cause of TETE not functioning well and this created and reinforced the need for more intensified forms of teacher training for Korean teachers of English (Lee, 2002). In this atmosphere, the government initiated IETTP which was a six-month long training camp for secondary school teachers in 2003 and, two years later, further expanded it for elementary school teachers. In the history of in-service English teacher training in South Korea, IETTP assumed the most intensified form of ‘English language training’ in terms of both the training hours and the training type. In fact, TETE acted as a catalyst for this intensive type of English language training for in-service Korean teachers of English.

When IETTP was initiated in 2003, the country had the Roh Moo-hyun government (from February, 2003 to February, 2008) following the regime of President Kim Dae-jung (from February, 1998 to February, 2003). Considering the period of the two administrations, it is rational to say that IETTP had already been planned by the previous Kim Dae-jung government and was executed by the following Roh Moo-hyun government. As previously mentioned in chapter 4, neoliberalism had been influencing South Korea since the late 1980’s. In the field of education, the 5.31 Education Reform Proposals in 1995 by the Kim Young-sam government are considered to be a significant event which took the form of neoliberal appearance (Kim, 2010). By adopting ‘globalization’ as its catchphrase, the Kim Young-sam government (from February, 1993 to February, 1998) planned and executed new policies based on neoliberal ideologies (Kim et al., 1998 as cited in Kim, 2001). Under the government’s strong drive for globalization and the neoliberal influence on education, English was considered as ‘a medium of globalization’ (Cho, 2010, p. 90). Cho (2010) describes the situation where English is closely associated with globalization in the country as follows:

From then (the Kim Young-sam government) on English education in Korea has so closely been associated with the notion of globalization: One may suspect that Korea’s globalization effort simply passes as an endeavor for English education. Government agencies, business organizations, institutions of higher learning, parents and teachers have all been in unison stressing the importance and the crucial role of English education ---all in the name of globalization. (p. 90, the parenthesis added)

In the Kim Young-sam government, English was adopted as a regular subject for elementary 3rd graders in 1997 and the following Kim Dae-jung government expanded it for elementary 4th graders in 1998 and further expanded it for elementary 5th and 6th graders in 2000 (Kang, 2000). Given the fact that teaching English as a regular subject in elementary school came into effect during the Kim Young-sam government followed by expansions to upper graders during the Kim Dae-jung government, it can be posited that both governments acknowledged the importance of English education in elementary school. Cho (2010) points out that the Kim Dae-jung government had “its’ own version of globalization with even greater vigor” and “the spirit and texture of globalization by Kim Young-sam had largely been kept intact” (p. 95) by the Kim Dae-jung government. In fact, English education in public elementary school was even reinforced by the Kim Dae-jung government as it first announced its plan described as teaching English only in English for an hour on a weekly basis in elementary and secondary school in the year 2000 (Park G., 2009). This government planning became the starting point of TETE and the continued emphasis of it, from then on. One year after the government announced its plan of ‘teaching English only in English for an hour on a weekly basis’, TETE was implemented for elementary 3rd and 4th graders and 1st graders of middle school.

Considering the fact that TETE was smoothly implemented in a short period of time, it is assumed that this new policy did not encounter serious opposition in society but rather it was accepted as necessary. This thesis argues that the implementation of TETE served as the momentum that shifted the main agent of English education to the teachers of English from the state education system. The continuation of TETE by the following governments helps this policy maintain its justification. As a result, the focus has shifted from TETE itself to Korean teachers of English who are not well prepared for TETE. The following news excerpt describes the situation at that time:

The Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development instructed TETE for elementary 3rd, 4th graders and 1st graders of middle school from the new semester this year with the aim of improving public school English education significantly, which produces no satisfactory results due to the lack of specialist teachers, poor preparation and so on…. This is due to the lack of specialist teachers, which was anticipated before adopting the new education policy by the Ministry of Education *(*Kim, 2001).

TETE is described as a way that will significantly improve public English education while in-service teachers are implicitly described as being non-specialist teachers who carry out TETE. As a result, in-service Korean teachers of English are presented as the cause of the not-well-functioning TETE program. The logic created here claims that intensified teacher training is of great need to help in-service teachers improve their English for better public English education.

Labeling the teachers as the main cause of failing English education invented the claim of having incompetent teachers and stressed the need for intensively educating them for better English education. This acted as a justification for the new form of intensified teacher training for Korean teachers of English, named IETTP.

***Medium Term Socio-political Context: the Segyehwa (globalization) Policy and IETTP***

According to Hyatt (2014), *Medium term socio-political context* covers “influential contexts that survive for a longer period than the individual policy text”, which “represent the broader socio-historic mores prevalent at a particular time” (p. 47). This thesis argues that globalization is the key word to describe the medium term socio-political context of IETTP. According to Giddens (1990), globalization is “the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa” (p. 64 as cited in Block, 2004, p. 75). Although it is evident that we are under the influence of globalization, it seems quite diverse how people view what it is (For some examples, see Held, McGrew, Glodblatt & Perraton, 1999). One of the notable debates in relation to globalization is that some consider globalization “as a way of life that should be adopted’ while others see it ‘as a sociological descriptor of events going on around us” (Block, 2004, p. 75). Fairclough (2006) describes globalization as an ideology which provides legitimacy and cover (p. 41) for allowing asymmetries of power and wealth across the globe (as cited in Cho, 2010, p. 92). In Korea, some people think that “globalization by and large refers to an economic strategy the government needs to tackle” (Cho, 2010, p. 92) while Korean conglomerates or the chaebol consider globalization as “freedom from governmental interferences and going global to cope with rising wage and ‘unreasonable’ demands from labor unions at home” (Cho, 2010, p. 92) In general, the idea of globalization is taken as something virtuous by Koreans although the meaning of the word globalization can vary depending on the socio-political and/or cultural context where it is used (Cho, 2010). In order to discuss this key word ‘globalization’ in the medium term socio-political context of IETTP, it is necessary to look back to the Kim Young-sam government which began in February 1993. President Kim Young-sam announced a *segyehwa* (globalization) policy, after his participation in the APEC summit in November 1994, with the explicit purpose of making the country an advantaged nation (Kim, 2001). This announcement was followed by a declaration by then Minister of Foreign Affairs who outlined the new administration’s ‘*sinoegyo* (new diplomacy)’ including five key elements: globalism (*segyehwa*), diversification, multi-dimensionalism, regional cooperation, and future orientation (*Oegyo paekso*, 1994, p. 15-17). In the following year, on 25 January, the Kim Young-sam government established a globalization committee (*segyehwa chujin wiwonhoe*) headed by the prime minister with the aim of preparing the government for a global economy and global competition (National Archives of Korea, 2017). Since its announcement in 1994, the government had strongly driven the globalization policy claiming that globalization was a global trend and the country was in the middle of an era of a borderless global economy. The necessity of rationalizing all aspects of life and the sweeping transformation of society was emphasized by the government (Korean Overseas Information Service, 1995). As part of the globalization policy, the globalization committee mandated English to be a compulsory subject for elementary 3rd graders in 1997 against public controversies and objections of educational bodies (Park G., 2009, p. 85). In fact, teaching English in elementary school started in 1982 as an extra curricula subject, which did not attract much attention nor raise serious educational concerns at that time. Park G. (2009) points out that the overemphasis of English education began in 1997 when the government hurriedly adopted English as a compulsory subject in elementary school without securing public consensus. The Ministry of Education pushed elementary school English education prioritizing economic gain in the ‘resistless’ wave of globalization (Park G., 2009, p. 85). This wave of globalization exerted its influence over the field of education in the next Kim Dae-jung government as well. As mentioned in the previous section, elementary school English education was expanded to 4th, 5th and 6th graders during the Kim Dae-jung government. In addition, running *yeongeo jeonyong gyosil* (English-Only Class) and *yeongeo sibeom hakgeup* (English Model Class) in elementary school was also recommended by the Kim Dae-jung government in 2001.

Offering compulsory English education from elementary school is considered to have had an immense impact not only on public English education but also on the private education sector (Park G., 2009, p. 85). ‘English frenzy’ (*yeongeo yeolpung* or *yeongeo gwangpung*) is a commonly used term to describe the nation’s relentless quest for English (Park, 2010, p. 22). The nation’s English frenzy is succinctly described by Park J. (2010) as follows:

Since the mid 1990s, the status and **market value** of English in Korea have shifted radically, pushing the nation into a heated pursuit of English. The government and the corporate sector actively promote the importance of English as a crucial resource for **competition** in the **global economy**, university students and white collar workers struggle to acquire and improve English language skills to render themselves **marketable** in the increasingly **flexible job market**, and parents strain themselves financially and emotionally trying to provide their children with the best opportunity for acquiring English. (p. 23, emphasis added)

As the emphasized words represent, the nation’s English frenzy is more closely related to the economic value of English than the educational value. As a result of this relentless quest for English, the expenditure on private education soared and early studying abroad or English language studying abroad became much common than before (Park G., 2009, p. 86). As the words in bold in the description above indicate, the nation’s English frenzy is closely related to the economic values of English, not the educational values of it. This positioning of English in the economic sphere can be traced back to the globalization policy of the Kim Young-sam government.

For a better understanding of the situation at that time, it is necessary to look into the government’s Education Reform Proposals dated 31 May, 1995 (henceforth 5.31 Education Reform Proposals). About one year into its regime, the Kim Young-sam government launched the presidential committee on educational reform (henceforth Education Reform Committee) on 5 February, 1994. During this government, this committee announced education reform proposals four times in total with the first one in 1995 commonly called the 5.31 Education Reform Proposals. These first proposals have been the ‘bible’ of neoliberal education reforms in South Korea since then (Kim, 2010) as it first attempted to reorganize the then authoritarian and dictatorial education system according to the market logic (Kim, 2011, p. 12). 5.31 Education Reform Proposals asserted a shift from the existing provider-oriented education to a consumer-oriented one stressing the importance of making schools and students competitive in the global economy.

The strong drive of the globalization policy along with the neoliberal education reform proposals intersect with the nation’s English education policy as described in the beginning of this section. This thesis argues that the government’s decisions on the early compulsory English education and on the subsequent implementation of TETE were justified by and continued under the slogan ‘*segyehwa*’.

***Contemporary Socio-political Individuals, Organization and Structures: Korean Teachers and Educational Workers’ Union***

Hyatt (2014) suggests that *contemporary socio-political individuals, organisations and structures* “may or may not be participants in the production of policy, such as government ministers, those who manage public services or groups seeking to oppose a particular policy initiative” (p. 48). Contemporary socio-political individuals, organization, and structures can play a role of providing contextualising details “on the influence of actors and agents on the representation of the text, and the impact of these individuals on the discourse” (Hyatt, 2014, p. 48).

To understand IETTP from a different angle, this section will look into the ways how the policy was treated and discussed by the representative teachers’ group in the country, Korean Teachers and Educational Workers’ Union. Among the two representative organizations of teachers in South Korea, the Korean Teachers and Educational Workers’ Union is considered to be more progressive than the Korean Federation of Teachers’ Association (Son, 2015) and this is the reason why the former is chosen for this section. As discussed in the previous section, IETTP was planned and implemented in the process of the government’s reinforcing public English education under the slogan of ‘*segyehwa*’. This government-driven policy was pushed forward as planned and expanded its territory producing more trainee teachers. While the government’s policy announcement and the related news reports were almost immediately released to the public, other voices about IETTP were seldom heard unless looking into the issue closely. In South Korea, the teaching profession has the social position of government officials. In this circumstance, teachers’ voicing different opinions are considered rebellious (Shin, 2005). This fact, presumably, contributes to making the teachers stay submissive to the government and its policies.

The Korean Teachers and Educational Workers’ Union is more commonly called Jeongyojo. Having the history of being repressed by the government even before its official formation on May 28, 1989, Jeongyojo has formed an opposition to the government and the Ministry of Education in relation to many education issues in South Korea. In relation to English education, recent policies to reinforce public English education, such as TETE, English Immersion Education (proposed by the Lee Myung-bak government in 2008) have been challenged and criticized by Jeongyojo. In fact, adopting English as a compulsory class in elementary school in 1997 was actively objected to by Jeongyojo. However, the government implemented the policy despite the objection (Park G., 2009, p. 85-86) and even expanded it to other grades. With regard to this issue, Park G. (2009) claims that the absence of a road map for the nation’s language policy causes and intensifies the conflicts between the government and educational groups including Jeongyojo (p. 84-85). Since the government pushed forward reinforcing public English education under the slogan of *segyehwa,* Joengyojo has been a major opposition body that expresses concerns about possibly negative consequences of the policies. Basically, they have been highly skeptical of elementary school English education. Joengyojo claims that the implementation of English education in elementary school has caused the excessive expansion of the private education market and English language testing industries instead of reinforcing public English education (Park G., 2009, p. 91).

Among the five governments that succeeded the *segyehwa* policy of the Kim Young-sam government, the Lee Myung-back government (from February 25, 2008 to February 24, 2013) was greatly criticized by Joengyojo for its’ excessive and exaggerated emphasis on the importance of English education (Park G., 2009, p. 78). Some main concerns raised by Joengyojo and other progressive educational groups about the educational policies by the Lee Myung-back government are summarized as follow:

-The Ministry of Education’s complacent long-term outlook: Is it necessary for all Koreans to learn English? Has the government been well prepared for compulsory English education in elementary school? What are the government’s countermeasures for the anticipated issues (as some listed below)?

-Imbalance of school subjects due to the increased class hours of English

-The surge of private English education expenses

-The intensification of the educational gap between the urban and the rural

-The issue of hiring English conversation instructors who are not licensed teachers

-Possible negative consequences of National English Ability Test (NEAT)

(Park G., 2009, p. 90-91)

Basically, Joengyojo is against English education for elementary students. They argue that English education in elementary school should be banned or, at least, minimized considering its’ negative influence on students’ establishing Korean identity (Park G., 2009, p. 95). In relation to IETTP, it does not seem that Joengyojo has publicly expressed any IETTP-specific opinions. Joengyojo’s criticism has been mainly on the unprepared and hasty implementation of English education in elementary school and the unbalanced focus on listening and speaking skills, in other words, the overemphasis of so-called ‘practical English’ (Park, 2008; Park G., 2009). Given the situation, it seems that there is no strong objection to IETTP even by the oppositional groups. This thesis, however, argues that this situation rather strongly supports the government’s unilateral decision of IETTP, and the unequal power relation between the government and the Korean teachers of English. This will be further discussed in the section on deconstructing the policy.

***Epoch: The Neoliberal Era and IETTP***

According to Hyatt (2014), an epoch is closely related to “what counts as knowledge/truth in a particular era” (p. 48). As one of the ways to contextualize IETTP, this section will look into the neoliberal era which was the sociopolitical background of the emergence of IETTP along with other relevant education polices. Shamir (2008) argues that neoliberalism is neither a concrete economic doctrine nor a definite set of political projects (as cited in Ball, 2015, para. 1). Recognizing both the material and the social relations involved (Ball, 2015), Shamir (2008, p. 3) defines neoliberalism as follows:

… I treat neoliberalism as a complex, often incoherent, unstable and even contradictory set of practices that are organized around a certain imagination of the ‘market’ as a basis for ‘the universalization of market-based social relations, with the corresponding penetration in almost every single aspect of our lives of the discourse and/or the practice of commodification, capital accumulation, and profit making’ (Carvalho & Rodrigues, 2006, p. 344, citing Wood, 1997).

Ball (2015) distinguishes between Neoliberalism (with a big ‘N’) and neoliberalism (with a small ‘n’), describing the former focusing on “the economization of social life and the creating of new opportunities for profit” (para. 3) while the latter as “the reconfiguring of relationships between the governing and the governed, power and knowledge and sovereignty and territoriality” (para. 3). In the field of English education, neoliberalism “serves as a covert language policy mechanism pushing the global spread of English” (Piller & Cho, 2013, p. 23). In Korea, after the nation experienced the Asian financial crisis in 1997, the increasingly competitive society has explicitly privileged English “as a terrain where individual and societal worth are established” (Piller & Cho, p. 23). In this neoliberal era, it is necessary to know what counts as knowledge or truth in terms of teacher education to better understand the emergence and continuous existence of IETTP.

While the Democratic Uprising in 1987 is considered as the starting point of neoliberal influences in South Korea (Yoon, 2009), the mid-1990s is commonly considered the time when South Korea transformed into a neoliberal age. Park (2010) argues that ‘the crisis in the effectiveness and legitimacy of the developmental state model that had defined the nation’s economic ascent since the 1960s’ (p. 25) led to Korea’s neoliberal transformation. While the Asian Financial Crisis (the so-called IMF Crisis in South Korea) of 1997 became ‘the catalyst for a set of socioeconomic transformations that led to the imposition of “competitiveness” as a core value’ in the country (Piller & Cho, 2013, p. 23), the subsequent IMF intervention until 2001 brought about “a period of rapid neoliberalization of Korean society” (Song, 2009 as cited in Park 2010, p. 26). In the neoliberal context, securing national competitiveness (*gukga gyeongjaengryeok*) became of national importance “calling for greater deregulation, privatization, and freedom of control over labor” (Kim, 1997 as cited in Park, 2010, p. 26).

The national level emphasis on having competitiveness in the global market including deregulation, privatization and flexibility of labor market has affected many aspects of social life in South Korea. Having the bad memories of massive dismissal and unemployment during the financial crisis, workers were “pressed to constantly engage in endless projects of self-development in order to prove their relevance to the fast-changing culture of work” (Park, 2010, p. 26). Park (2010) describes the situation as follows:

With the framing of neoliberalism as globalization, the ideal employee that companies sought was no longer a smart and diligent but passive university graduate, but a worker who actively embodied the ethos of globalization through flexibility, self-management, and global perspective. The ultimate virtue of a worker became continuous entrepreneurial engagement in the project of one’s own human capital development. (p. 26)

In this neoliberal climate, teachers were also pressed to become “entrepreneurial actors across all dimensions of their lives” (Brown, 2003, p. 38) as teachers. In his research on teachers’ identity confusion by neoliberal educational policies, Kwon (2017) points out that the government neoliberal educational policies derived neoliberal images of teachers, for example, “self-entrepreneurs”, “skilled technicians”, “who compete and become neglected, and who willingly receive inspection and take responsibility” (p. 145). Teachers were required to be responsible for their work and to invest in themselves for development. In terms of teacher education, Kwon (2017) describes heteronomous and short-term training as neoliberal teachers’ education as it aims to develop teachers’ human capital.

As discussed in the earlier section, there have been government’s policies to strengthen public English education particularly since the announcement of globalization policy. Among them, TETE had a direct impact on the emergence of IETTP. After the implementation of TETE, the issue of Korean teachers’ English proficiency was raised as the main cause of not-well-functioning TETE. With the introduction of TETE, Korean teachers of English were publicly evaluated on and even criticized for their English proficiency. In a news article that was published fifteen days later after the implementation of ‘Only English Class’ for the first-year students of middle school in 2001, the lack of specialist teachers was mentioned as the cause of ‘only basic instructions in English class’. Below is the excerpt from the news article, which describes the lesson scene of elementary and middle school classrooms:

In the majority of elementary and middle school classes adopting ‘Only English Class’ including H Middle School and Busan A Elementary School, only few basic English instructions (Classroom English) are used, such as ‘Read the book’, ‘Look at the blackboard’, after exchanging simple questions and answers about weather in English (Kim, 2001).

‘*Only English Class’ (is) an idle slogan…mostly in Korean except for basic instructions* (‘*Yeongeoromansueop’ heosguho…gibonjisieo ppaegon urimallo*), the title of the news article explicitly indicates the incapability of teachers for ‘Only English Class’. Without direct mentioning of the teachers, this title is successful in pointing out the teachers as the main cause of not-well-functioning ‘Only English Class’.

Starting from the implementation of TETE (interchangeably, ‘Only English Class’), the English proficiency of Korean teachers of English was publicly and frequently addressed. At that point of time, it seemed that the necessity of TETE was naturalized and so the focus shifted to teachers who were labeled as ‘not capable enough’ for TETE. In the situation where TETE was accepted as the right track for better public English education, Korean teachers of English were pressed to improve their English. In the neoliberal era, individuals’ distinguished English proficiency is regarded as more the fruitful result of their efforts than their belonging to the upper or privileged class, and thus the neoliberal society shifts the issue of Korean teachers’ English proficiency solely onto teachers’ shoulders. Korean teachers of English were downgraded to unsuccessful self-entrepreneurs or unskilled technicians.

**6.1.2 The Drivers of IETTP**

Policy drivers refer to “expressions of the intended aims or goals of a policy” (Hyatt, 2014, p. 48). Given that policy drivers can be articulated through different channels, as Hyatt points out, this thesis will look into the drivers of IETTP using three different sources: the government policy document, newspaper accounts and academic journal articles on IETTP. In the case of government documents, the general plan for IETTP released in 2006 (National Assembly Library of Korea, 2018) is used since its release was the closest to the first implementation plan (Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development) of the policy in 2003 and it is currently available on a government-run source, the National Assembly Library. Considering that the 2006 General Plan for IETTP states the first implementation of IETTP in 2003 as its origin, mentioning no further changes have been made to the policy during the three years’ gap, it should not be problematic using it as the representative government document of IETTP for the analysis of the policy. For the newspaper accounts, the table includes two newspaper articles reported in 2003 and in 2007, respectively. Newspaper articles which include the content of IETTP from 2003 to 2010 were searched for and the selection criterion was whether they specifically stated the goal of IETTP in their news reports. Lastly, the table also includes three published academic journals, which dealt with the IETTP program itself. Table 6.1. shows how these three different channels articulate the aims or goals of IETTP in their descriptions. They are direct quotations from the texts, which are translated into English from Korean.

**Table 6.1.** The aims or goals of IETTP described in three different channels

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Channels** | **Titles and sources** | **Stated aims or goals** |
| Government policy document | General Plan of Intensive Training for English Teachers in 2006  Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development | -Develop communication-centered curriculum operation skills of elementary and middle school English teachers (p. 1)  -Increase the trust in public education by ensuring internal stability of English classes and reducing private education costs through applying the advanced teaching-learning method acquisition (p. 1)  -Strengthen abilities to manage and utilize native English sub-teachers at unit school (p. 1)  -Improve speaking and listening skills of English teachers, and build up the foundation of『English Class in English』based on taking teaching-learning methods to reduce private education cost for annual basis. (p. 1) |
| Newspaper accounts | Gyosa oegugeo jaegyoyuk hwakdae jeolsil (Urgent need of expanding the re-training for in-service foreign language teachers)  Munwha Ilbo dated January 28, 2003 | Both programs have their focus on the improvement of English speaking by using English even as an everyday language during the program. (p. 1) |
| Gonggyoyugi baroseoya naraga baroseonda (A nation shall stand when public education is right)  Nocut News dated January 16, 2007 | The “Middle School English Teacher Intensive Training Program” is simply a hellish training designed to maximize English teacher’s communication skills and to minimize the distrust of public education coming from their poor English language skills, and to boost their future ``English lecture skills''. (p. 2) |
| Academic journals | The effects of the Intensive Training Program for In-service Secondary School English Teachers  Min, Chan Kyoo (2006)  *The Journal of English Teacher Society* 5(1) p.27-45 | …IETTP is focused to improve teachers’ (English) language proficiency and to develop their competence for TETE… (p.33)  The basic direction of IETTP is to intensively train intermediate-level English teachers to be advanced-level English speakers. Therefore, the primary goal of IETTP is to improve (English) communicative competence of elementary & secondary school English teachers and to develop their teaching skills for TETE. (p.33) |
| Evaluation of Intensive In-service English Teacher Training Programs  Chang, Kyungsuk (2007)  *Foreign Language Education* 14(3) p.257-282 | In the case of IETTP, the primary object is to intensify teachers’ (English) communicative competence and to develop their professionalism of TETE. It (IETTP) is focused on training intermediate-level English speakers to be advanced-level speakers. (p.272) |
| Intensive Teacher Training Programs for English Teachers in Korea: What Works and What Doesn’t  Kim, Sung-Yeon et al. (2010)  *English Teaching* 65(2) p.199-224 | The Korean Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology has made strenuous efforts to improve the quality of English education in public sector. One such attempt is a long-term, intensive teacher training that began in 2007 to facilitate teachers’ ability for teaching English in English (TEE). (p. 199) |

In the stated aims or goals described by each channel, there are overlapping concepts or ideas in relation to EFL teaching, such as communication-centered curriculum, improvement of (teachers’) English speaking, English teachers’ communication skills, teachers’ (English) language proficiency, their (teachers’) competence for TETE, teachers’ communicative competence, their (teachers’) professionalism of TETE, teachers’ ability for teaching English in English and being advanced level speakers. Using these words and phrases, these statements clearly indicate that IETTP is designed and implemented to train Korean teachers of English to improve and develop their English-speaking skills and teaching skills for TETE, though the ways of each description are not literally the same. According to these statements, there are two major issues that need to be resolved in terms of training Korean teachers of English. One of them is related to the English language skills of the teachers and the other one is concerned with TETE (or TEE). In the case of the General Plan of Intensive Training for English Teachers in 2006, the four bullet-pointed purposes make the matters quite simplified as if they are context free. These bullet points convey clear ideas about what is needed while they do not provide any contextual information or explanations about why they are needed. According to the Plan, Korean teachers of English need to operate communication-centered curriculums, to ensure internal stability of English classes, to improve their English speaking and listening skills and to be able to teach English in English. By putting these bullet points at the top of the very first page right below the document’s title, this General Plan accentuates their importance. In addition, each bullet point takes the short form of a complete sentence making each verb of action stand out more. The simplified and definite tone makes the purposes of IETTP sound indisputable. They convince the readers of the necessity of the actions. In other words, these statements themselves play the role of drivers of IETTP stressing the importance and necessity of what they are addressing.

With regard to the other issue related to TETE, these statements make the position of TETE secure as if TETE is a given direction to follow. As previously mentioned, the government’s *segyehwa* (globalization) policy emphasized the necessity of TETE for better public English education. The lack of specialist teachers was highlighted as the major issue for TETE not-well-functioning, which resulted in the need to provide Korean teachers with intensified training to improve their English proficiency. This problematizing process was initiated by the government and publicized by the media through their news reports. Through this process, TETE was justified as a necessary policy to improve public English education and furthermore it played a role in the basis for IETTP.

The academy started publishing journal articles in relation to IETTP from the year 2006, about three years after the program was implemented. Though the specific focus of each journal ranges from the program itself to the relationships of the program with other factors, such as teachers’ perceptions, teachers’ continuing professional development, etc., the majority of the academic journal articles have been about the effects or evaluation of IETTP. In other words, they have shown their interest in whether IETTP is effective in achieving its goals. There have been no fundamental questions about the implementation and existence of IETTP or TETE. Based on the academic journals that have been published, it is reasonable to assume that the academy has taken a position not to actively criticize or oppose the policies. Their interest has focused on improving IETTP or proposing better alternatives while retaining the basic concept of the policy. This thesis argues that this passive and receptive attitude of the academy contributed to the government’s unilateral push for implementing and maintaining the policy. In this atmosphere, IETTP has been justified and maintained, not challenged, criticized, altered or dissolved in the society.

As seen above, IETTP was initiated and implemented by the government with the clear purpose of training Korean teachers of English to be advanced level English speakers so that they can teach English in English. The clearly stated purposes reflected the result of the government’s problematization process in terms of English education in the country. In the process of initiating and implementing IETTP, the previous policy, TETE became the strong basis of IETTP. While the stated aims convince the reader of the necessity of those proposed actions, they are also circulated through the newspapers resulting in the issue being highlighted in the way the media want (this will be further discussed in the deconstruction section later). Through the process of being implemented by the government, publicized by the media, and favorably evaluated by the academy, IETTP became accepted and maintained in the society.

This policy implementation was also aided with some follow-up plans and initiatives by the government. One of the examples is the English Education Renovation Plan (Korean Educational Development Institute [KEDI], 2006), which aimed to achieve 100% TEE classes in all elementary and secondary schools within 10 years through reinforcing pre-service and in-service teacher education for Korean teachers of English, and teacher selection criteria. According to this renovation plan, the lion’s share of the English education budget (about 50 million dollars) was allocated for re-educating in-service teachers starting by training 500 teachers through IETTP in 2006, and 8,500 teachers in total by 2015. Another example is the nation-wide expansion plan of the TEE Certification System in 2009 (MEST, 2009), 9 years after the first implementation of TEE. In this plan, MEST announced its plan to support the nation-wide expansion of the TEE Certification System aiming at 100% TEE classes by all Korean teachers of English by the year 2012. Though these two plans ended up failing to achieve their stated goals by the target year, they served as the policy levers facilitating the implementation and continuation of IETTP.

**6.1.3 Warrant for IETTP**

This section will look into what warrants are used to justify IETTP. According to Cochran-Smith and Fries (2001), warrant is described as ”the justification, authority, or ‘reasonable grounds’...established for some act, course of action, statement or belief” (p. 4 as cited in Hyatt, 2014, p. 50). With regard to policy discourse analysis, Hyatt defines warrant as “the overt justification given for a particular area of policy” (Hyatt & Meraud, 2015, p. 10). Warrant can be subdivided into three categories: evidentiary warrant, accountability warrant and political warrant (Cochran-Smith & Fries as cited in Hyatt, 2014, p. 50)

Before and after the implementation of IETTP, more specifically in the course of initiating, implementing and expanding the policy, specific evidence, a preceding policy, and the public/national interest in relation to English education were highlighted by the government. Also, what the government presented and announced was selected, interpreted and circulated by the media. As will be discussed in the following, IETTP was justified by evidentiary, accountability, and political warrant. Using the three categories of warrant put forth by Cochran-Smith and Fries, this section will look into the ways in which IETTP was justified in society.

***The Evidentiary Warrant***

According to Cochran-Smith and Fries (2001), the evidentiary warrant is “the establishment of a position based on evidence provided” (as cited in Hyatt, 2014, p. 50). Around the time of implementing TEE and IETTP, some findings on the English proficiency of Korean teachers of English were reported to describe problematic English classroom situations. The following are some excerpts that were translated into English from Korean newspapers:

According to the recent findings (in 2001) of the Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development, among 67,464 elementary and middle school Korean teachers of English, only 7.5% which is 5,074 teachers have above-classroom English levels. (the parenthesis is added, Kukmin Ilbo, March 17, 2001, Dong-A Ilbo, February 18, 2002)

Although we take what the Ministry of Education explained literally, currently English teachers who are not capable of teaching English conversation classes are over 60%. (Hankyoreh, February 6, 2003)

A member of the National Assembly, Lee Joo-Ho from the Grand National Party argues in a news release that “718 is the average TOEIC score of middle and high school English teachers who have attended 6-month IETTP at the Center for In-service Education of Korea National University of Education and at Keimyung University since March, 2004.” and “this is much lower than the average score 841 of the new employees entering into 12 state-owned companies, and the average score 778 of new employees of 40 conglomerates in the first quarter of this year” (Yonhap News, July 4, 2005).

According to these newspaper articles, the government has attempted to quantify the English skills of Korean teachers using those figures and findings. The specific figures and the result of the findings make the statements sound more credible and trustworthy. However, the details, for example how they were measured or what standards were used to obtain the result, are hidden. What is clear is that the government suggests some evidence that is purported to show the poor English skills of Korean teachers, and the newspapers circulate and emphasize the claims made by the government. In fact, the government and the newspapers effectively convey how poor the teachers’ English skills are utilizing those specific figures. The percentiles and TOEIC scores mentioned establish “the credibility and trustworthiness” (Hyatt, 2014, p. 51) of their arguments. This is because arguments supported by specific findings and numbers sound more reliable than those without them. How reliable the evidences are is another issue here. According to the excerpts above, the evaluation of English ability of the teachers seems indisputable unless other opposing data is available in hand. Obviously, the numbers and findings play a powerful role in supporting the government position that calls for the improvement of teachers’ English ability.

This evidentiary warrant, however, should be seen in a critical light as evidence “is not a neutral entity – it is the production of researchers’ selections, omissions and interpretations, and these decisions are imbued with values and embedded in ideology” (p. 51) as Hyatt (2014) points out. As mentioned above, we do not know exactly in what ways the findings were found, for example, the procedures, the standards, etc. In the case of the TOEIC scores, the teachers’ previous scores (prior to the training) were not mentioned while they are compared with new employees of companies. Their inferiority is highlighted while their possible improvement is hidden.

***The Accountability Warrant***

When a policy is justified based on results or outcomes, the grounds for implementing the policy become ‘the accountability warrant’ (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2001 as cited in Hyatt, 2014, p. 50). As seen in the previous section, the implementation of TEE highlighted the issue that many in-service Korean teachers of English were not well prepared for teaching English through English. It is uncertain, however, whether the government pushed the policy knowing the issue or if they were not fully aware of it.

The government-driven TEE policy supposes that Korean students will better learn English when it is taught only in English. Hoping for better educational results, the government carried out TEE. However, soon after implementing it, issues in relation to teachers’ capabilities for TEE started coming to the surface. The fact that IETTP was implemented two years later after TEE explains the relationship between the two policies. In other words, TEE created the need for training in-service teachers to be TEE-capable. While TEE aims to raise students’ communicative competence, IETTP aims to improve teachers’ abilities for TEE. It is not clear whether the government overestimated teachers’ abilities or underestimated the importance of teachers’ abilities for TEE at the stage of the policy implementation. It is clear, however, that the government believed that TEE was the right path for better students’ learning of English. Under the slogan of ‘globalization’, one of the foreign languages in the country, English, gained an unparalleled powerful position in the society and so the government’s new plans for public English education were considered as necessary innovations to improve its outcomes. Around the time of TEE, English immersion education was a trend in the country among private English institutions. Having a vague hope for better English learning, enthusiastic parents sent their kids to English immersion classes, as the next best option to sending their kids to study English abroad, which became popular from the mid-1990s. In this circumstance, for those who could not afford either sending their kids to English-speaking countries or to private English immersion classes, the government offering of TEE might sound plausible. In fact, TEE did not face serious opposition from the majority of society. Rather, TEE was favored in a way in the field of English education. In other words, TEE was considered as a possible solution to repair the so-called malfunctioning public English education instead of being critically discussed or analyzed. The fact that the IETTP also has the ‘English-only’ principle in and out of the classroom favoring native English-speaking instructors indicates the high level of acceptance of TEE or the ‘English-only’ concept in the field of English education.

On its execution plans, the government has been emphatic about the necessity of IETTP on the ground of TEE. The simple logic the government relies on is that IETTP will improve the abilities of Korean teachers of English and this will bring about better outcomes of TEE. Their performance as teachers is evaluated based on their English abilities and they are regarded as “mere educational technicians” (Hyatt, 2014, p. 51) who need to improve their skills for the better educational outcomes that the government aims to produce. The better educational outcomes here mean students’ better communication skills in English, which is not instantly measurable. Having no measurement standard for the improvement of students’ communications skills, teachers are pushed on honing their English skills as that is viewed as the determining factor for better educational results by the government. It is, however, uncertain whether TEE will lead to better students’ learning. Furthermore, the simplistic perspective of seeing teachers as “educational technicians rather than autonomous professionals” (Hyatt, 2014, p. 51) runs the risks of the “terrors of performativity” (Ball, 2003 as cited in Hyatt, 2014, p. 51) of teachers.

***The Political Warrant***

The political warrant is “the way in which a policy is justified in terms of the public/national interest, the public good or the construction of the good society” (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2001 as cited in Hyatt, 2014, p. 51). While the primary objective of IETTP is described as improving teachers’ abilities for TEE, the following objectives are frequently carried over to the improvement of public English education and the reduction of private education expenses for the people. The excerpts below are from the general plan for IETTP in 2006.

1. Purpose and Implementation Details

1. Business Purpose

* Develop communication-centered curriculum operation skills of elementary and middle school

English teachers

* Increase the trust in public education by ensuring internal stability of English classes and reducing

private education costs through applying the advanced teaching-learning method acquisition

* Strengthen abilities to manage and utilize native English sub-teachers at unit school

2. Implementation Details

* Improve speaking and listening skills of English teachers, and build up the foundation of 『English Class in English』 based on taking teaching-learning methods to reduce private education cost for annual basis.
* General Plan of Intensive Training for English Teachers (Approved by Deputy Prime Minister in Feb. 2012)

\*The first training started with 200 people in 2003. Proceeds every year.

* English Teacher Intensive Training Plan (Approved by Deputy Prime Minister in Jan. 2014)

\*Trainee: 250 people (’04), 350 people (’05), 500 people (’06~’08)

Training Period: 6months (Includes 1month overseas training), Run by semester

* 『Private Education Costs Reduction Plan (Feb.2004)』: 500people after 2006
* 『A five-year comprehensive plan for the activation of English education (May.2005)』: Annual Expansion Plan

\*Trainee: 500 people (2006~2008), 600 people (2009~2010)

* Reports and instructions by Deputy Prime Minister (Dec. 26~28th,2005) Plan for accelerating English education

Operate intensive training courses by level of English teacher

* A policy debate on English education acceleration: Deputy Prime Minister, requires training support for English teachers with the expense of the state

(the General Plan of Intensive Training for English Teachers in 2006, the underlines added for emphasis)

As mentioned previously, English education has been one of the major issues in the field of education in the country. Also, English skills of people have been frequently associated with the national competitiveness in the era of globalization (Cho, 2010; Park J., 2009, 2010; Piller & Cho, 2013). Along with the nation’s emphasis on English education, English becomes more important for people to secure better opportunities for their education and jobs. However, the majority of the people have not been satisfied with public English education as they think their children can never catch up with their peers supported by rich parents (who send their kids to private academies or to English speaking countries for better English learning). They think the financial power of parents divide the English abilities of students (Lee, 2011; Park 2009; Shin, 2012). In this circumstance, the governments have tried to come up with solutions to improve the public English education and to reduce private English education costs for the common people. In fact, the reinforcement of public English education and the reduction of private education expenses have been the on-going goals of the governments though no noticeable improvement has been reported. IETTP is one of the efforts the government made to solve this issue and the underlining in the excerpts above show in what ways the government justifies its policy. IETTP is described as a necessity that will lead to the construction of better English education in schools and thus to the reduction of private education expenses as the majority of the public hope.

**6.2 Deconstructing IETTP**

The aim of this section is to deconstruct IETTP mainly through analyzing the texts and discourses produced around the policy. As the second element of Critical Higher Education Policy Discourse Analysis Framework, deconstructing policy is concerned with the analysis of texts and discourses using a number of analytical tools derived from Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough, 1995) and critical literacy analysis (Hyatt, 2005a). For the analysis, this section adopts the practical analytical tools suggested by Hyatt (2014), which will help to us “to look at the text from ‘macro semantic and societal levels’ and also from ‘a more micro lexico-grammatical level” (Hyatt, 2014, p. 52). The texts and discourses for the analysis are publicly available policy documents, news articles and academic journals produced in relation to IETTP. Through the analysis of the government document, it aims to uncover the government’s position and attitude on teacher education for Korean teachers of English broadly, and on IETTP more specifically. The reason for including newspaper articles and academic journal articles is to see in what ways the policy texts and discourses are circulated and reproduced by the media and the academy in the society. By critically analyzing the texts and discourses by the government, the media and the academy, this section aims to look into what role each agent is playing in terms of implementing and maintaining the policy. Also, it hopes to reveal what power relations exist among the three agents and the Korean teachers of English in public schools.

Utilizing the analytical tools provided by Hyatt (2014), this section will deconstruct the texts and discourses in relation to IETTP using three criteria; interdiscursivity and intertextuality, evaluation, and presupposition. Drawing on the perspective that views language as ‘social semiotic’ (Halliday, 1978), Hyatt (2014) describes language as “an interconnected series of systems of which offer finite sets of choices in particular sets of circumstances to particular participants to make particular meanings” (p. 52), which becomes the reason for considering both linguistic and extra-linguistic factors when it comes to any analysis of meaning in language. Considering that language should be understood in its social relations (Fairclough, 1993), the concept of seeing language as a social control agent is of particular importance in the process of shaping knowledge and power relationships in society. By problematizing accepted conventions and commonsensical practices (referred as ‘naturalization’ by Fairclough, 1989), critical language analysis attempts to “uncover the process of naturalization in any discourse” and show how meaning “can be deconstructed and reconstructed” (McKenzie, 1992, p. 226 as cited in Hyatt, 2014, p. 52) as meaning is socially constructed through language.

**6.2.1 Interdiscursivity and Intertextuality**

Hyatt (2014) argues that referencing to other texts, genres, discourses and individuals is “one consistent way in which texts from all genres seek to establish the legitimacy of their claims, common-sense assumptions and world views” (p. 53). In this regard, interdiscursivity and intertextuality are presented as two key ideas. Interdiscursivity is explained as “the diverse ways in which genres and discourses interpenetrate each other”, while intertextuality is described as “the identifiable borrowings from other texts” (Hyatt, 2014, p. 53). According to Fairclough (2003), interdiscursivity can be seen as a way in which “social boundaries are blurred in contemporary social life” (p. 35) or as a form of ‘hybridity’ of social practice (p. 35). The blurred social boundaries or the hybridity of social practice is considered as a feature of ‘postmodernity’ (Harvey, 1990; Jameson, 1991 as cited in Fairclough, 2003, p. 35), which is characterized as ‘new capitalism (see Notes)’ by Fairclough (2003). An example of interdiscursivity is described by Hyatt (2014) as follow:

For example, the relationship of the discourse of education and consumerism – the growing trend to describe students as *customers* or *clients* who *earn credit* which they can *cash in* for qualifications, which implies education entails acquiring measurable outcomes (e.g. grades, qualification etc.) rather than engaging with processes of learning. (p. 53)

As seen in the example above, adopting terms from other genres and discourses may involve applying different semantic nuances to the texts in accordance with the original meanings of the terms used. Through those economic terms, students are transformed into agents of economic activity who invest money in ‘measurable outcomes’. The social boundaries are blurred and the interdiscursive texts establish its legitimacy. The implied meanings easily permeate to the public lessening potential resistance to the transformation.

Meanwhile, intertextuality is more identifiable to the readers. Fairclough (2003) argues that “there is a set of other texts and a set of voices which are potentially relevant, and potentially incorporated into the text, for any particular text or type of text” (p. 47). Taking a broader perspective, Fairclough (2003) describes quotations as the most obvious example of intertextuality defining it as “the presence of actual elements of other texts within a text” (p. 39). Addition to quotations, citations of and references to other texts are other clear examples of intertextuality (Hyatt, 2014). The impact of intertextuality is described by Hyatt (2014) as follows:

The impact of intertextuality, used as a technique for particular construction, representation and projection of preferred meanings, can be to support, reinforce and legitimize the argument of the writer. Careful selection and editing of ‘borrowed’ texts, the inclusion and exclusion of differing ‘voices’, and the utilization of other genres and discourses can achieve required evaluation, yet reference to other texts, directly through quotation of indirectly, retains projected links to ‘reality’ and, hence, claims for the truth-value of the assertion. (p. 54)

In terms of intertextuality, some significant questions are: “which texts and voices are included, which are excluded, and what significant absences are there” (Fairclough, 2004, p. 47). In most cases, the writers decide what to include and what to exclude in a better way to support, reinforce and legitimize their arguments. In other words, intertextuality is “inevitably selective to what is included and what is excluded from the events and texts represented” (p. 55).

Before analyzing the interdiscursivity and intertextuality of IETTP-related documents, the following section will first deal with the individual genre analysis of each document and then look into how interdiscursivity and intertextuality are embodied in them in the way of establishing its legitimacy.

**Individual Genre Analysis of IETTP-related Documents**

Before presenting the individual genre analysis, this section will first look at what genre is and what role it plays in contemporary society. According to Fairclough (2003), “a genre is a way of acting and interacting linguistically” (p. 17). Genres, such as interview, lecture and news report, structure texts in specific ways, which means each genre has “a characteristic generic structure” (Fairclough, 2003, p. 17). In addition, a particular genre commonly has particular purposes and, whether they are explicit or implicit, the purposes are revealed by the activities of communicative events. Although Fairclough (2003) points out that privileging purpose too much is problematic when defining a genre (as not all genres are purpose-driven), it is true that “many genres are clearly purposive, clearly tied to broadly recognized social purposes” (p. 71). Fairclough argues that there are two general points to remember about genre. One is that “genres vary quite considerably in terms of their degree of stabilization, fixity and homogenization” (p. 66) as they bear a tension between pressures towards stabilization and pressures towards flux and change. The other is that genres have no established terminology. Even though some genres have established names, they can be used in a different field covering different activities and genres, like the term ‘seminar’ that was mainly used in the field of education but also used in the business field covering not-purely-education-related activities (Fairclough, 2003, p. 66). Fairclough also claims that genres play an important role in sustaining the structural relations between government, business, universities, the media, etc. in the contemporary society. These institutions can be considered as “interlocking elements in the governance of society” (Bjerke, 2000 as cited in Fairclough, 2003, p. 32). In this case, the governance means any activity within an institution or organization “directed at regulating or managing some other social practices” (Fairclough, 2003, p. 32).

According to Fairclough (2003), “a text may not be in a single genre, it may mix or hybridize genres” (p. 34), which he calls ‘genre mixing’. Genre mixing can be described as a mix of different genres in a text, which Fairclough sees one of the influences of new capitalism. Considering the relationship between texts and genres, it will be useful to see what genre each document of this analysis belongs to and in what ways genre mixing (if any) occurs in them. Hopefully, this will smoothly lead to the discussion of the interdiscursivity. Table 6.2. summarizes the individual genre analysis of each document, which adopts the method presented by Fairclough (2003).

**Table 6.2.** Individual genre analysis of IETTP-related documents

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **General Plan of IETTP in 2006** | **News articles** | **Research papers** |
| **Main genre**  **Sub-genre** | Government policy document  Policy implementation plan | News report | Academic writing |
| **Activity** | Explicit purpose  Announce the IETTP implementation plan and explain the details of the plan  Implicit purpose  Justify the necessity of IETTP and convince people that IETTP will achieve its purpose successfully | Explicit purpose  Report on the issues and events in relation to public English education in the country  Implicit purpose  Problematize the current public English education and emphasize the need of improving re-training programs for the in-service teachers of English | Explicit purpose  Evaluate IETTP and its effects on English teachers’ professional development |
| **Social relations** | Between the government and the governmental bodies and agents that will enforce IETTP | Between the newspapers and the public | Between the researchers and the academy |
| **Communication technology** | One-way mediated: print, Internet | One-way medicated: print, Internet | One-way mediated: print, Internet |

This genre analysis, as seen in Table 6.2. above, attempts to analyze individual genres in terms of: activity, social relations, and communication technology. Fairclough elaborates these three elements in the question forms – “what are people doing discoursally? what are the social relations between them? and finally what communication technology (if any) does their activity depend on?” (p. 70).

Firstly, the specific question in relation to Activity is ‘what are people doing discoursally?’. Given the data for this analysis is all written texts, only the discoursal aspect and discoursal activities will be the focus of the discussion. The discoursal activities of the documents above are closely related to their purposes. In other words, the question ‘what are people doing discoursally?’ can be interpreted as ‘what purposes do their discourses have?’. As Fairclough (2003) points out, a particular genre may have a number of purposes which may be explicit or implicit. In the case of the General Plan of IETTP, it has the primary purpose of implementing IETTP in the specified year. Its explicit purpose is to announce the IETTP implementation and explain the details of the plan. The excerpt below from the General Plan shows its major purpose specifically:

Improve speaking and listening skills of English teachers, and build up the foundation of 『English Class in English』 based on taking teaching-learning methods to reduce private education cost for annual basis. (p. 1)

Though not explicit, the General plan also justifies the necessity of IETTP and convince people that IETTP will achieve the stated goals successfully. In fact, IETTP is justified from the start by the government. The government’s decision on this policy gives justification for the implementation. In addition, the justification of IETTP is reinforced by the ‘Training Operation Result Evaluation’ of the previous year in the following page 2 with the descriptions, such as ‘most of the trainees are satisfied with training process…’, ‘as a result of the survey, satisfaction of trainers was relatively high…’.

In the case of the news articles, they have the primary purpose of reporting on the issues and events in relation to public English education in the country. The interesting point here is that they do not just report what happened. While mentioning IETTP in each news articles, what they mainly do is to problematize the current public English education and emphasize the need of improving re-training programs for the in-service teachers of English. This is evident from the titles of each news articles as follows:

Urgent need of expanding the foreign language re-training for in-service teachers

Stingy with investment on high school conversational English education

A national shall stand straight when public education is right

These news articles are introducing IETTP in appearance but they have hidden agendas to criticize public English education. In fact, IETTP is being also criticized as lacking in the first two news articles while the last one positively publicizes IETTP, describing it as one of the ways to improve public English education.

In the case of the research papers, their explicit purpose is to evaluate IETTP and its effects to English teachers’ professional development, mainly in terms of the teachers’ English language proficiency and teaching skills for TETE. Following are the exact titles of the research papers:

Evaluation of intensive in-service English teacher training programs.

A questionnaire survey on the intensive secondary English teacher training program

Evaluation of an intensive English teacher-training program: An investigation of teacher learners’ perceptions and development

The effects of the intensive training program for in-service secondary school English teachers

A study on the evaluation of teacher training programs for Korean English teachers

Having the primary purpose of evaluating IETTP, the specific activities these research papers are doing is to report back on the evaluation results making suggestions and providing useful information for next programs. Following are the original English abstracts of and an excerpt from the five research papers:

Kim, Hye-Ryun, Kim, Sung-Yeon, Lee, Soyoung & Woo, Kil- Joo (2010). A study on the evaluation of teacher training programs for Korean English teachers. *Foreign Languages Education, 17*(3), 385-410.

In an attempt to enhance the competencies of English teachers in Korea, the Korean Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST) initiated teacher training programs in 2007. These training programs have recently been of great demand with the increased attention to TEE (Teaching English in English), and their number increased up to 22 across the nation in 2009. The present study evaluates these programs to see if they meet the requirements of the MEST. To this end, a scale named the professional development program evaluation (PDPE) was developed. The scale measured the following four categories: professional stakeholders, physical resources, performance process, and performance outcomes. Then, each training program was evaluated through the PDPE scale along with onsite observation and the survey. The present study reports the characteristics of excellent programs and areas that need improvement.

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Kim, Jinwan., & Ahn, Kyungja. (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.

This study aims to evaluate a six-month domestic intensive English teacher training program (IETTP). It specifically examines what the participating teacher learners expected from the program, how they perceived its effectiveness. It also investigates how they developed in terms of linguistic and instructional skills through the program. Mixed methods were used to investigate 28 participants’ learning experiences in the program. The data include the program manuals, the participants’ pre- and post-test results, their surveys on the program and the courses, instructors’ feedback and evaluations on the teacher learners' microteachings, and the interviews with the program and academic coordinators. The results of the participants’ pre- and post-tests showed statistically significant improvement in their English skills except their speaking skills. In addition, the performance-based evaluation of their teaching demonstrations revealed their development in instructional skills. Overall, the teacher learners perceived that their language and teaching skills improved through the IETTP. However, some teacher learners suggested that more direct support should be made to improve the communication skills. This study provides important implications for teacher learners, teacher educators, and policy makers.

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Chang, Kyungsuk. (2007). Evaluation of intensive in-service English teacher training programs. *Foreign Languages Education*, *14*(3), 257-282.

The present evaluation research was conducted to provide program decision makers with judgements about the intensive in-service teacher training (INSET) program's worth or merits in relation to important criteria. It also purports to provide program staffs with useful information in improving their INSET programs. Setting boundaries and analyzing the context were followed by the procedure of identifying and selecting the evaluation questions and criteria. The overview of recent developments in English language teacher training provided the underlying principle for setting the criteria for evaluation. The criteria were used to describe the characteristics of a successful language teacher training program or implementation. They included features such as goals, curriculum, personnel, and support. Using the specified checklist, evaluation was carried out on the current intensive English language teacher training courses. Information on each area of the checklist was collected from available sources, analyzed and interpreted qualitatively as well as quantitatively. From the findings of the present evaluation study, some implications are drawn for making policies on INSET, for improving the teacher training programs under investigation, and for establishing and operating similar INSET programs.

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According to the evaluation research result, the currently running camp training shows positive results in their goal setting and achieving, running the curriculum that is appropriate for achieving their goal, operating and managing their program, and selecting the trainees. (translated from Korean, Chang, 2007, p. 274)

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Min, Chan Kyoo. (2006). The Effects of the Intensive Training Program for In-service Secondary School English Teachers. *The Journal of English Teacher Society*, *5*(1), 27-45.

This paper examines the effects of the in-service teacher training program for secondary school English teachers which has been offered since 2003. The first part of the paper introduces this intensive training program in relation to the characteristics of a good English teacher. Then, the paper analyses the results of a 22-question survey regarding teachers’ level of satisfaction with the program; The effectiveness of the program in improving the teachers’ language proficiency and teaching skills; and teachers’ competence in applying their skills to the class activities after returning to the classroom. The results of the survey indicate that the in-service teacher training program has been highly successful in terms of improving teachers’ language proficiency and teaching skills. Finally, along with the pedagogical implication of the survey results, this study suggests ways to improve the quality of future in-service teacher training program for secondary school English teachers.

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Park, Sung-Soo. (2004). A Questionary Survey on the Intensive Secondary English Teacher Training Program. *Journal of the Korean English Education Society*, *3*(1), 59~89.

The object of this study was to survey the realities of the Intensive Secondary English Teacher Training Program and giving some suggestions for next program based on the surveying results. Most of the trainees seemed to be satisfied with program contents and facilities in local training period. Many of the trainees said that the merits of this program were English Only Zone, running a small class size, Homeroom instructor system, giving a lecture by only English, various club activities, and oversea training. For a better program, some suggestions like developing up some facilities especially meal, accommodation and computer utilities, were recommended. In oversea training, the most serious problem was home-stay. For a better program, some problems mentioned above have to be solved. Continuous assistance from the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development and self-sacrificed dedication of staffs and Korean English teachers are needed.

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In addition to the specified purposes of these research papers, there are some other activities they are doing. By reporting positive results (see the underlining above), these research papers contribute to supporting an existing IETTP. None of them poses a fundamental question about why this type of policy addition is needed. The absence of any counterargument reveals their favorable attitude towards IETTP (O’Halloran, 2005). In fact, their uncritical position towards this add-on policy can be interpreted as they are content with it. With no critical perspectives provided by these academic papers, IETTP is supported as a valid policy to implement. In other words, the government’s activities objectifying the Korean teachers of English are being supported, reproduced and reinforced in these papers.

Secondly, social relations are relations between interactants. Interactants, in other words, social agents can be organizations, groups, or individuals (Fairclough, 2003, p. 75). With regards to each document of this analysis, the major social agents are the organizations (the government, the governmental bodies, the newspapers), the group (the researchers in the field of English education) and individuals. In the case of the General Plan of IETTP, the social relations are being made between the government and the related governmental bodies or agents that will carry out the policy. Through this implementation plan, the government provides the governmental bodies with the basis for executing the plan. It is noteworthy that the potential trainee teachers are excluded from these social relations. The teachers are the object of the policy. There are no voices from the teachers (except for the previous trainee teachers who positively evaluated IETTP), which signifies that the government has unilateral control over the policy and the target teachers. In fact, school teachers are not allowed to participate in any political activities by law, which include expressing personal opinions (Cho, 2012, p. 139). In the case of the news articles, the social relations are between the newspapers and the public. Taking the form of reporting what has happened or what is happening in unspecified voices, they evaluate, criticize and favor IETTP and public English education. While the policy implementation is circulated through these news articles, the opinions and values loaded by these newspapers are also conveyed to the public. In the case of academic journals, the social relations are between the researchers and the academia. Although research papers are less accessible to the public, they can exert powerful influence over the public since academic journals are considered more reliable and less subjective.

Lastly, the communication technologies that each document adopts is one-way mediated communication (mainly print, and Internet). According to Fairclough (2003), there are four possibilities of communication technologies in terms of two distinctions: two-way versus one-way, and mediated versus non-mediated. Table 6.3. shows the four possibilities:

**Table 6.3.** Four possibilities of communication technologies

|  |
| --- |
| Two-way non-mediated: face-to-face conversation  Two-way mediated: telephone, email, video conferencing  One-way non-mediated: lecture, etc.  One-way mediated: print, radio, television, Internet, film |

(Fairclough, 2003, p. 77)

The one-way mediated communication technologies that each document draws upon is print and Internet. The power of print is that the printed words appear to be true or reliable, at least. The print itself gives the word trustworthiness. In addition, the one-way communication which does not allow contestation accords an indisputable position to the printed words. While the high availability of each document on the Internet provides them a great deal of publicity and attention from the public, they are not interactive in communicating with people.

Among the three different sources, genre mixing occurs in the policy document. The business feature of the policy implementation plan links the document to business genres. The bullet-pointed business purpose, charts, figures along with the terms like ‘business outline’, ‘operation performance’, ‘business expectations’ are some evident proofs of business genres. The details of the business feature of the policy document will be discussed in the following section around the key idea of interdiscursivity.

**Interdiscursivity in the General Plan of IETTP in 2006**

As mentioned previously, interdiscursivity refers to the diverse ways in which genres and discourses interpenetrate each other. By mixing genres and adopting discourses from other sectors, texts attempt to establish the legitimacy of their claims. Among the three different text sources of this analysis, the General Plan of IETTP in 2006 has the most evident features of business genre and discourse. The below is the first page (except for the cover) of the plan, that is translated from Korean to English.

 (The first page of General Plan of IETTP in 2006, translated to English)

As seen above, the headings and subheadings are numbered and bullet-pointed and all descriptions take shortened forms, which looks more like a business report. Not providing details on the contextual information, this General Plan is putting a great emphasis on its Business Purpose by placing it on the top of the first page. Those shortened sentences are making the related matters simplified and the document look very purpose-driven. Taking the form of a business report, the General Plan also uses business terms frequently along with various tables and figures in the following pages (e.g. Appendix A). Throughout the document, the term ‘business’ is frequently used, for example, business purpose, business outline, business expectations, business methods, business management, etc. The below shows the heading and subheading from the page 1 to page 3.

1. Purpose and Implementation Details
2. Business Purpose
3. Implementation Details
4. Operation Performance in 2005
5. Training Performance Outline
6. Training Operation Result Evaluation in 2005
7. Training Operation Plan for 2006
8. Business Outline
9. Number of Trainees and Required Budget

In this document, the policy, IETTP is often called ‘business’ (‘*saeop*’ in Korean). Given the fact that ‘business’ is obviously an economic term entailing the concepts of goods, services, profits and etc, the use of this term makes this plan imply those economic concepts. In other words, this policy document is highlighting the business aspect of the policy by describing the policy as business and using business-related terms. The terms, such as business purpose, operation performance, operation result evaluation, are some evidence of this. Furthermore, in the page 3 (see Appendix A), it specifies that implementing IETTP requires additional budget from the central and local governments. The inclusion of detailed budgets and expense statements seem to be calling for some visible outcomes proportional to the investments.

In summary, the General Plan of IETTP achieve two goals by taking the form of business report. Firstly, it makes the matters be seen from a business perspective. The issue of re-training in-service teachers is treated as the matter of input/output or investment/result. Teachers become the object of improvement and they are required to make results corresponding to the investment. Secondly, the simplified and shortened description conveys a definite tone, which makes the statements factual and indisputable. No contextual information is given; the simplified purposes are presented with no doubt. This General Plan itself effectively convinces the central/local governments of its necessity providing the grounds for forging ahead. Overall, the educational matters are treated from the business perspective, which places higher value on outcomes and benefits, rather than on the processes of teachers’ professional development.

**Intertextuality in the Research Papers**

As previously mentioned, intertextuality can be defined as the identifiable borrowings from other texts. While quotations, citations and references are clear examples of intertextuality, “the use of phrasing, style and metaphor originating in other texts may be more opaque, yet equally revealing” (Hyatt, 2014, p. 53). Among the three different sources, intertextuality is most evident in the academic research papers. The writers of the papers are using a number of borrowed texts and phrasings, mainly from other research literature to present, support, and legitimize their arguments. Using the contents of the research papers, this section will look into the abstracts and the introductions only. The abstracts written in English are the original by the authors and the introductions are translated from Korean to English for the analysis. The focus of the analysis will be on their claims and arguments about the policy, IETTP, and the object of the policy, Korean teachers of English. The reason for narrowing down the contents to the abstracts and the introductions is that they provide, not thorough but sufficient information about how each research paper perceives IETTP and Korean teachers of English. The practical difficulties of covering and translating the entire papers are another reason for narrowing down the scope to the chosen area.

By looking into the cases of intertextuality in the abstracts and introductions, this section aims to reveal in what ways borrowed texts and phrasings are being used and what roles they are playing for the claims and assumptions of the writers. (see Table 6.4.)

**Table 6.4.** Examples of intertextuality in the research papers

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Citation** | **Source** |
| **In an attempt to enhance the competencies of English teachers in Korea, the Korean Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (MEST) initiated teacher training programs in 2007. These training programs have recently been of great demand with the increased attention to TEE (Teaching English in English), and their number increased up to 22 across the nation in 2009.** The present study evaluates these programs to see if they meet the requirement of the MEST. (excerpted from the abstract, Kim et al., 2010, p. 385)     * These are similar phrasings in the General Plan of IETTP in 2006 but it is not certain where it exactly came from. With no reference is made, it refers to MEST as the main agent of the action. The source might be policy documents or other research literature about IETTP or TEE. * This is reproducing the way that the government describes the policy. This reproduction plays the role of setting the scene for the necessity of this research. The purpose of the study to ‘evaluates these programs to see if they meet the requirement of the MEST’ signifies their approval of implementing the policy. | No specific reference was made  Presumably, other related research literature or IETTP/TEE-related policy documents or government announcements |
| In regards to educational reform, **many studies have reported that Korean teachers still prefer to use traditional teaching methods (Choi, 2000; Guilloteaux, 2004; Jeon & Hahn, 2006; E-J. Kim, 2009; S-Y, Kim, 2002; Li, 1998).** This can be linked to various teacher, student, and educational aspects. **Many studies emphasize that it is vitally important to implement teacher training programs for teachers who will directly use these education reform policies in their classroom.** As the need for English language teacher training programs continues to grow, the importance on how government reforms are applied during the teacher training process and what teachers can learn and later use in this field is expressed. (excerpted from the introduction, Kim & Ahn, 2011, p. 214-215)  Using citations of other research literature, this paper supports its’ claim that Korean teachers do not use advanced teaching methods.  No reference was made. ‘Many studies’ may mean the ‘many studies’ mentioned in the beginning of the paragraph but it is not certain. From this sentence, it can be inferred that this paper concurs with the idea, ‘it is vitally important to implement teacher training programs for teachers who will directly use these education reform policies in their classroom’. ‘Many studies’ even with no reference, lend weight to the argument. | Research literature |
| The basis of English education innovation is said to depend on the change of teacher education. This includes the training of English teachers as well as the improvement of professionalism by providing re-training to in-service teachers. This is supported by the phrase **“Teachers are the key to any education reform” (UNESCO, 2007).** Although the English curriculum has been revised, textbooks have been written accordingly, various high tech equipment related to languages have been expanded, and efforts and expenses to innovate English education have been provided, the result will still be unfavorable if teachers do not have the proper classroom teaching skills. (excerpted from the introduction, Chang, 2007, p. 258)  The paper is utilizing the direct quotation “Teachers are the key to any education reform” by UNESCO to legitimize her argument about the crucial role of teachers in English education innovation. Specifically, the writer is recontextualizing the quotation in her argument, ‘the basis of English education innovation is said to depend on the change of teacher education. This includes the training of English teachers as well as the improvement of professionalism by providing re-training to in-service teachers’. This argument is simplifying the complicated issues of English education. Excluding other related factors, teacher education is being highlighted as crucial and teachers are being treated as principal agents for successful English education. The logic is that if teachers have proper classroom teaching skills through re-trainings, English education will be innovated. | UNESCO (The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation) |
| In November 2006, the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development prepared and announced a plan to reform English education, and they suggested two ways to reinforce education of current English teachers (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2006.)   * After 2010, all English teachers will gradually improve their English teaching ability * Strengthen short-term job training such as cyber training at least once every 3 years   The Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development aimed to improve the English teaching ability of all teachers by 2010 with the following recommendations.   * Intensive training sessions have been held for 1,000 English teachers every year since 2007. * 6 months in an intensive English-speaking environment to improve English proficiency and teaching ability * Provide customized training according to ability by evaluating teachers’ English abilities.   (excerpted from the introduction, Chang, 2007, p. 258)   * By re-phrasing what Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development announced about their plan to reform English education, without any criticism, this paper reproduces the government stance and also expresses an implicit agreement on implementing the plan as it is. | Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development, 2006 |
| Korea has been using various institutional devices in terms of the governmental level, to strengthen the English education for the internationalization, globalization, and information of the 21st century. While applying the 7th English education curriculum that teaches English with a focus on improving students’ communication skills, the ability and qualities needed for a language teacher to use English were prioritized. Recently, various training programs including overseas training have been running with the intention of improving teachers' professionalism in order for them to teach conversational English at schools. (excerpted from the Introduction, Min, 2006, p. 27-28)   * This first paragraph in the Introduction summarizes how the government has been trying to ‘strengthen the English education for the internationalization, globalization and information of the 21st century’. This paragraph plays a role of setting the scene for its emphasis on the training for English teachers in the next paragraph.   Teachers are arguably one of the most influential roles in English education. The qualities that teachers have and the ability to use them are an important factor that determines the success or failure of English education because of the central role of the teacher who introduces the curriculum (Jo Myung-won, 1989; Richards & Nunan, 1990; Freeman & Johnson, 1988). (excerpted fromII. English teacher qualities and abilities, Min, 2006, P. 28)   * The importance of the teacher’s role in English education is accentuated with reference to other research literature. | Research literature |
| English education in Korea is facing problems such as, **mistrust of public English education due to the lack of English proficiency by teachers,** waste of money and social problems due to the popularity of studying abroad at a young age and overseas training for learning English, the impossibility of realization of establishing English learning centers in cities and provinces due to the lack of professionalism in staff and inadequacy of facilities, and finally, the necessity of complementing the Native English Assistant Teachers due to the insufficient utilization of native English teachers as well as frequent replacement of them.    **In order to solve these problems, having the purposes of overcoming the existing short-term and temporary training programs, utilizing senior teachers’ experiences and teaching know-how, fulfilling the needs and expectations of teachers for practical English training programs, effective utilization of English-speaking human resources and strengthening professionalism of English teachers, and expanding the understanding and perspective through actual experiences of various English culture, the Korea National University of Education’s Comprehensive Educational Training Intuition, which took over the business of the Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development since 2003, has been running intensive training for middle school English teachers with the purpose of setting effective training programs for teaching English in Korea**. (excerpted from the introduction, Park, 2004, p. 59-60)  The writer attributes the blame for the mistrust of public English education to Korean teachers of English. By placing this in the beginning of the list, this is highlighted as the major problem.  This is re-phrasing of what the government announced in relation to IETTP. By reproducing what the government mentioned with details, without any criticism, this paper is distributing the government stance on the English education and training programs for in-service English teachers. |  |

On the surface, the borrowed texts and phrasings seem to be used to introduce and describe their research topics and purposes in each abstract and introduction. Looking into them, however, they are playing particular roles for the paragraphs or the sections they are in. Specifically, their roles are divided into three, as summarized below.

Firstly, they are playing the role of setting the scene. In other words, they provide the frame to see the issue at hand. For example, the phrasings in relation to IETTP, presumably from policy documents or government announcements, tell the readers that English teachers in Korea need to enhance their competencies for TEE. This is the assumption the government made when they argue ‘MEST initiated a teacher training program…in an attempt to enhance the competencies of English teachers in Korea’. By the reproduction of what the government announced, without any criticism, the research paper implicitly accepts, supports and even reinforces the stance of the government on the issue.

Secondly, the borrowed texts are being used to establish the legitimacy of the assumptions that the researchers support. Four of the five research papers are putting a great emphasis on the teachers’ role in terms of improving public English education. As seen above, the borrowed texts from other research literature or a world body, UNESCO, are being used to support the assumption that successful English education largely depends on the teachers. However, the problem is that borrowing texts and placing them in a difference situation away from its original context may lead to a different interpretation of the texts. For example, the direct quotation ‘Teachers are the key to any education reform’ by UNESCO, is being used to support the logic, only if teachers are equipped with proper classroom teaching skills through re-training, the result of English education innovation will be favorable. While the quotation stresses the importance of teachers’ roles in education reform, this is being interpreted as ‘making teachers have proper classroom teaching skills through re-training is critical for innovating English education’.

Finally, these research papers are utilizing the borrowed texts and phrasings as a ground to conduct their research. All these research papers make no criticism about the policy itself and they focus on how to make it better based on the results of their studies. Their implicit approval for IETTP and TEE, as a result, justifies the purpose of research.

In terms of intertextuality, questioning “which texts and voices are included, which are excluded, and what significant absences are there” (Fairclough, 2004, p. 47) is significant, as mentioned previously. In these research papers, the crucial role of teachers for better English education and the necessity of re-training in-service teachers are commonly emphasized. The voices of teachers, however, are not being heard except in their answers to the research questionnaires. The significant absence of the teachers’ voices clearly reveals the unequal power relationship among the government, the newspapers, the academia and the teachers. In the process of implementing the top-down policies, the teachers became the object of improvement by the government. Through the newspapers articles, teachers are being blamed for the failure of public English education. While the research papers are reproducing the texts and phrasings by the government, they do not attempt to critically view the policy (IETTP) or to incorporate teachers’ voices about re-training programs. Instead, they focus on evaluating IETTP to make it better, by keeping some distance from the teachers. Considering that intertextuality is “inevitably selective as to what is included and what is excluded from the events and texts represented” (Fairclough, 2004, p. 55), the chosen research papers actively include the texts or discourses by the government while excluding the voices from the teachers. Consequently, they have reinforced IETTP and contributed to its ongoing implementation.

**6.2.2 Evaluation of IETTP and In-service English Teachers**

According to Hunston and Thompson (2000), evaluation is “the expression of the speaker or writer’s attitude or stance towards, viewpoint on, or feelings about the entities or propositions that he or she is talking about” (p. 5 as cited in Hyatt, 2014). Evaluation can be divided into two categories, inscribed and evoked (Martin, 2000 as cited in Hyatt, 2014). Hyatt (2014) describes these two types of evaluation as follows.

In the *inscribed* category the evaluation is carried by a specific lexical item, overtly displaying the attitudinal judgement of the text producer, for example *excellent* or *terrible.* *Evoked* evaluation uses superficially neutral ideational choices which have the potential to evoke judgmental responses in those who share a particular set of ideological values…For example, in policy texts, terms such as *reform, liberalization, decentralization, convergence, deregulation and innovation* appear to be neutral descriptive terms, but are used to construct a positive image of the change described, even though whether such a change will be positive or not depends on the circumstances of the individual or group impacted by the policy. (p. 54-55)

Drawing on these two categories of evaluation, this section will look into how the evaluation of IETTP and in-service Korean teachers of English is inscribed and evoked by three document channels. Firstly, Table 6.5. shows some examples of inscribed and evoked evaluation of IETTP and in-service English teachers in the General Plan of IETTP in 2006:

**Table 6.5.** Evaluation of IETTP and in-service Korean teachers in the General Plan of IETTP in 2006

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **General Plan of IETTP in 2006** | **IETTP** | **In-service English teachers** |
| **Inscribed evaluation** | Applying the **advanced** teaching-learning method acquisition  Most of the trainees are **satisfied** with training process…  …**satisfaction** with trainers was relatively **high**… | Priority review for the teachers in the **vulnerable** group who require communication skill improvement |
| **Evoked evaluation** | **Activate** English education  **Increase the trust** in public education  **Activation** of English education  **Accelerating** English education | **Improve** teacher professionalism  **Develop** communication-centered  curriculum operation skills  **Improve** speaking and listening skills of English teachers  **Strengthen** abilities to manage and utilize native English sub-teachers  **Build up** the foundation of ‘English Class in English’ |

As shown above, the evaluation of IETTP is done in both overt and covert ways. This General Plan claims that IETTP will reduce private education costs through ‘applying the **advanced** teaching-learning method acquisition’. It also emphasizes that ‘most of the (prior) trainees are **satisfied** with training process’ and ‘**satisfaction** with trainers was relatively **high**…’. In addition, this plan stresses that IETTP will ‘**activate** English education’, ‘**increase the trust** in public education’ and **accelerate** English education. In the meantime, the evaluation about in-service teachers is mainly evoked. According to the examples, in-service English teachers need to **improve, develop, strengthen,** and **build up** the skills and abilities mentioned. These words may sound neutral, or even positive, but they are evoking the readers’ negative judgement on the current status of the teachers. Furthermore, English teachers who need to improve their English skills are described as ‘in the **vulnerable** group (‘*chwiyak gyecheung*’ in Korean)’. Categorizing those teachers as ‘the vulnerable group’ reveals in what ways the government views Korean teachers of English. From this evaluation analysis, the government attitude towards IETTP and in-service English teachers becomes quite clear. They regard IETTP as the policy that will activate and accelerate English education through re-training in-service English teachers to improve their English skills.

Secondly, Table 6.6. shows how the news articles express their evaluation of IETTP and in-service English teachers. Interestingly, the evaluation done by the news articles mainly belongs to the inscribed category. Their attitude or stances are described quite clearly with strong-words choices. Towards IETTP, expressions or descriptions such as, ‘urgent need of’, ‘necessary’, ‘maximize the training effect at a minimum cost’, ‘satisfaction with the results and achievements are highly anticipated’ are used. Also, they are criticizing the government for being late in implementing IETTP and for being ‘stingy with investment on high school conversational English education’, which specifically means that the number of trainees, 200 teachers in that year, is only 1% of all English teachers. About the teachers, they are concerned that the current non-compulsory (teacher) re-training system will leave many teachers ‘non-skilled and unwilling to receive the training’ and hiding in perfect blind spots. They also assess many elementary, middle, and high school English teachers as lacking in confidence in their English oral proficiency skills. The last news article even describes that the distrust of public education comes from teachers’ ‘poor English skills’.

In the news articles, IETTP is positively evaluated overall while in-service English teachers are described as the object who need to improve their ‘poor English language skills’ and ‘confidence in their English oral proficiency skills’. The attitudinal judgement of these news reporters is evidently in favor of IETTP, blaming in-service English teachers for the unsatisfactory public English education. Though this seems quite similar to that of the government, the news articles take a tougher stance on both issues. Their expressions and word choices are coarser and stronger. Consequently, these news articles are actively circulating and even intensifying the government’s position on the issues at hand.

**Table 6.6.** Evaluation of IETTP and in-service English teachers in the News articles

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **News articles** | **IETTP** | **In-service English teachers** |
| **Inscribed evaluation** | **Urgent** need of expanding the foreign language re-training for in-service teachers    It was suggested on January 28th that expanding teacher re-training programs and introducing teacher evaluation systems are **necessary** in order to absorb foreign language education into the public education system. (Munwha Ilbo, January 28, 2003)  **Stingy with investment** on high school conversational English education (The Hankyoreh, February 6, 2003)  As it is a difficult process, **satisfaction with the results and achievements are highly anticipated**. (Nocut News, DaeguCBS, January 16, 2007) | …the current ratio **of English teachers who cannot teach English conversation is over 60 percent.** As the current re-training system is not very strict, **many teachers ‘non-skilled and unwilling to receive the training’ are hiding in perfect blind spots**. (The Hankyoreh, February 6, 2003)  As many elementary, middle and high school English teachers **lack confidence in their English oral proficiency skills,** and as the existing short-term training showed its limit with English re-training and acquiring new teaching methods…  …to maximize English teachers’ communication skills and to minimize **the distrust of public education coming from their poor English language skills,** and to boost their future ‘English lecture skills’. (Nocut News, DaeguCBS, January 16, 2007) |
| **Evoked evaluation** | Both programs have their focus on the **improvement of English speaking by using English even as an everyday** language during the program. (Munwha Ilbo, January 28, 2003)  The arduous long-term training at Kyemyung University’s English Only Zone, started **to overcome the limitations of** current short-term English training and **maximize the training effect at a minimum cost**… (Nocut News, DaeguCBS, January 16, 2007) |  |

Lastly, Table 6.7. shows how the research papers appraise IETTP and in-service English teachers in their arguments. These research papers display positive attitudes towards IETTP in that they all agree upon the necessity of re-training English teachers for better public English education. While one inscribes positive evaluation like ‘this training program is different from its predecessor as it increases the continuity and concentration of the training that has been incomplete until now’, others emphasize the need of evaluating and improving the effectiveness of the training program taking IETTP for granted. None of them raise fundamental questions about applying this new add-on policy, and its way of looking at public English education and in-service English teachers. In these research papers, in-service English teachers are also being viewed as objects that are far less capable of teaching English in English. Keeping a distance from in-service English teachers, these papers are suggesting their evaluation results for the improvement of the policy. As pointed out, these research papers are re-producing the unequal power relationship between the academy and the teachers, as the policy document did between the government and the teachers.

**Table 6.7.** Evaluation of IETTP and in-service English teachers in the research papers

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Research papers** | **IETTP** | **In-service English teachers** |
| **Inscribed evaluation** | This training program is different from its predecessor as it increases the continuity and concentration of **the training that has been incomplete** until now. (Min, 2006, p. 28) | In regards to educational reform, many studies have reported that **Korean teachers still prefer to use traditional teaching methods**… (Kim & Ahn, 2011, p. 214)  English education in Korea is facing problems such as, **mistrust of public English education due to the lack of English proficiency by teachers,**… (Park, 2004, p. 59) |
| **Evoked evaluation** | This study aims to **improve the effectiveness** of English teacher training in the future. (Kim et al, 2010, p. 386)  …**it is needed to keep evaluating and improving the effectiveness** of the training program. (Kim & Ahn, 2011, p. 215)  The purpose of its intensive training is also to **improve the English class while focusing on English communication and teaching skills…**(Kim & Ahn, 2011, p. 215)  This program evaluation study was created to **determine the improvement directions** and **quality management** of the existing intensive training programs by not only evaluating it, but also by giving detailed directions that would **help to further improve the programs**. Moreover, to **make suggestions for policymaking related to the improvement**. (Chang, 2007, p. 258) | In an attempt to **enhance the competencies** of English teachers in Korea…(Kim et al, 2010, 385) |

**6.2.3 Presuppositions about IETTP and In-service English Teachers**

According to Hyatt (2014), “presuppositions help to represent constructions as convincing realities” (p. 55). By using a number of lexico-grammatical means, the speakers or writers can represent their constructions as convincing realities. In this section, some notable examples of presuppositions in the General Plan of IETTP in 2006, and the news articles will be discussed in relation to their specific intentions of creating certain realities.

Table 6.8. shows what presuppositions the General Plan of IETTP in 2006 is making through their business purpose. Overall, the business purpose presupposes that the current in-service English teachers are not good enough to teach communication-centered curriculum and, that they are responsible for public distrust of English education in schools. These presuppositions are constructing the reality that is supportive of the government stance towards public English education and in-service English teachers.

**Table 6.8.** Presuppositions in the business purpose of General Plan of IETTP in 2006

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Business purpose of General Plan of IETTP in 2006** | **Presupposition** | |
| **Develop** communication-centered curriculum operation skills of elementary and middle school English teachers | Change of state verb | Using the verb ‘develop’, presupposes that current teachers do not have communication-centered curriculum operation skills or their operation skills are not good enough, which it considers critical. In other words, the use of change-of-state verb, ‘develop’, presupposes the factuality of the under-developed past and current (Hyatt, 2014). |
| **Increase** the trust in public education by ensuring internal stability of English classes and reducing private education costs through applying the advanced teaching-learning method acquisition | Change of state verb  Invalid causal link | Using the verb ‘increase’, presupposes the factuality of people’s lack of trust in public (English) education.  Using the invalid causal link, presupposes that private education costs would be reduced if teachers are equipped with advanced teaching-learning method that this |
| **Strengthen** abilities to manage and utilize native English sub-teachers at unit school | Change of state verb | Using the verb ‘strengthen’, presupposes the factuality of the not-strengthened past and current in relation to teachers’ abilities to manage and utilize native English sub-teachers. |

Presuppositions made in the news articles are constructing the realities that the scale of re-training for in-service teachers is not big enough and so not-well-trained teachers are the main cause of public distrust of English education in schools and of ever-growing private English education market (see Table 6.9. for the details).

**Table 6.9.** Presuppositions in the news articles about IETTP

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **News articles** | **Presupposition** | |
| Urgent need of **expanding** the foreign language re-training for in-service teachers  It was suggested on January 28th that expanding teacher re-training programs and introducing teacher evaluation systems are necessary in order to absorb foreign language education into the public education system. | Change of state verb  Invalid causal link | It presupposes the factuality of small-scale foreign language re-training for in-service teachers, which the writer seems to consider problematic.  It presupposes that the public education system would absorb the demand for private education if teacher re-training programs are expanded and teacher evaluation systems are introduced. |
| Considering the rapid pace of globalization, it is hard to object to such emphasis on practical English  With the 7th curriculum expanding to the 2nd grade high school students this year, **what is the current status of English education at school, then?** The English private education market is growing bigger and bigger, but **English education in the classroom is becoming more and more sluggish.**  **What have the education authorities, who had originally drawn the first ambitious draft for English conversation education, been doing?** … The subject for this year’s training will only be 200 people. There are twenty thousand middle school English teachers, which means 200 is only 1%. The plan to invite 1,000 native English teachers... but **it was postponed** until next year… **but the number decreased** to 300 this year. | Invalid causal link  Rhetorical question with self-response  Rhetorical question with self-response | It presupposes that practical English is an essential component of globalization.  These ‘what’ questions provide the questioner with the opportunities to answer their own questions, the questions they have framed and therefore presuppose the self-response as true (Hyatt, 2014, p.55-56) |
| The ‘Middle School English Teacher Intensive Training Program’ is simply a hellish training designed to **maximize** English teacher’s communication skills and to **minimize** the distrust of public education coming from their poor English language skills, and to boost their future ‘English lecture skills’. | Change of state verb | Using the change-of-state verbs, presupposes the factuality of Korean teachers’ poor English language skills, and of the high level of distrust of public education. |

**6.3 Summary**

In this chapter, IETTP was contextualized and deconstructed utilizing the Critical Higher Education Policy Discourse Analysis Framework proposed by Hyatt. From the contextualization of IETTP, this thesis claims that the governments’ TEE and the *segyehwa* (globalization) policy played a significant role in the emergence of IETTP. Looking back before that, the neoliberal era which began in 1987 has influenced in-service English teacher education as well as public English education. Under the strong neoliberal influences and the new policies, like TEE or *segyehwa*, Korean teachers of English were downgraded to unsuccessful self-entrepreneurs or unskilled technicians. In this circumstance, improving teachers’ abilities and skills for TEE became the strong drivers of IETTP. By being justified by evidentiary, accountability and political warrants, IETTP became the representative in-service teacher training program for Korean teachers of English. From the analysis of the texts and discourses in the General Plan of IETTP, news articles, and research papers, it is revealed that the General Plan of IETTP seeks to establish the legitimacy of its claims through interdiscursivity while the research papers do the same mainly through intertextuality. Also, the three different data sources utilize inscribed and evoked evaluation to express their stances towards the policy and in-service teachers. Presupposition is another tool used to understand in what ways the General Plan and news articles construct convincing realities for their claims. From the deconstruction of IETTP, this thesis argues that the texts and discourses produced by the government are reproduced and reinforced by the media and the academy. Specifically, the newspapers circulate the government’s texts and discourses in their own ways while the research papers implicitly support the government’s stance and reinforce the necessity of the policy, as the result. In this process, in-service Korean teachers of English are being described as passive and incapable beings. In the situation where native English teachers or native-like teachers are admired and respected, Korean teachers of English are being pushed into striving to be ‘a better English teacher’ framed by the neoliberal influences.

The contextualization and deconstruction of IETTP enabled this thesis to provide a more thorough and critical understanding of the policy. Taking the critical discourse analysis stance, this thesis attempts to reveal “the ways in which language work within discourse as agents and actors in the realisation, construction and perception and relations of power” (Hyatt, 2014, p. 42) in the relevant social, historical, political contexts. Specifically, this thesis has revealed that there is an unequal power relationship between the government and Korean English teachers, which is reflected in the texts and discourses produced by the government. It has also revealed how those texts and discourse are circulated and reproduced by the media and the academy reinforcing the stance of the government. While the influences from its historical and sociopolitical contexts provide some useful background, the deconstruction of IETTP-related texts and discourses enabled this thesis to elucidate what meanings those texts and discourse are constructing and representing in Korean society that otherwise would have been hidden or would have seemed to be natural.

**Chapter 7**

**Conclusion**

**7.1 Key Findings**

This thesis has attempted to reveal the unequal power relationship between the government and Korean teachers of English in public schools through the historical and ideological considerations of EFL teacher education in South Korea along with the critical textual analysis of IETTP utilizing a Critical Policy Discourse Analysis Framework. This thesis began by problematizing unwarranted assumptions in relation to native-like English proficiency in Korean society, and in connection with IETTP. After providing the details of IETTP with its limitations and drawbacks, the significant influence of CLT and the strong presence of native-speakerism in the English education sector were discussed as contextual and ideological explanations for the heavy emphasis on improving English speaking skills of Korean teachers of English in the IETTP.

For a deeper understanding about the emergence of IETTP in the historical context of EFL teacher education in South Korea, a brief history of EFL teaching was described from its official beginning in 1883 to the current National Curriculum era along with the emergence and development of EFL teacher education. While pre-service EFL teacher education began with the creation of the English literature department at the College of Education at Seoul National University in the 1940’s, in-service EFL teacher education seems to have begun from the 1960’s, which was systematized later as Qualification Training and General Training when a teachers’ in-service training ordinance was enacted in 1972. IETTP is the most recent addition to in-service English teacher training, which focuses on improving trainee teachers’ English speaking and listening abilities. More specifically, IETTP aims to train teachers to be capable of Teaching-English-Through-English. IETTP is distinct from previous in-service teacher education programs in the country in that it is a long-term, camp-style program particularly aiming to facilitate Korean teachers’ abilities for TETE. With regard to current key issues of pre-service EFL teacher education in South Korea, the heavy involvement of English Literature and Linguistics on the curriculums and the faculty of Teachers Colleges of Education was addressed. In the case of in-service EFL teacher education, the low satisfaction level of the Qualification Training, the inadequate evaluation system of Job Training, and the effects of the Intensive Training were mentioned. The discussion about EFL teacher education in the country indicates that the recent addition of IETTP cannot be separated from the issues of established pre-service and in-service EFL teacher education programs as the existing pre-service EFL teacher education are evaluated as lacking in terms of producing competent EFL teachers. This thesis suggests that IETTP can only be a band-aid solution as long as the current system of in-service EFL teacher education remains unchanged. From the broader perspective of second/foreign language teaching, while ELT in South Korea has been constantly influenced by the mainstream of second/foreign language teaching, the influence from or the adoption of the mainstream trend have been neither identical nor sequential. The changes in ELT and EFL teacher education in South Korea have been unique and specific to the Korean context.

For ideological understanding of EFL teacher education in South Korea, neoliberal influences on education in general, and on educational policies, teachers and EFL teacher education were discussed. Under the neoliberal influence in society, individuals are pushed to devote themselves to endless self-development being responsible for the result of their choice and failure. The strong influence of neoliberalism appeared in Korean society in the form of globalization after the IMF Crisis in 1997. Consumer-focused education, educational efficiency, market rationality, school autonomy, performance-based pay and evaluation systems for teachers, students’ and their parents’ choices are some key terms describing the neoliberal educational circumstances. In this atmosphere, teachers are required to improve their abilities and skills for their own survival as a teacher. Also, neoliberal influences play a role in elevating the status of English language in Korean society as English is considered to be a significant soft skill in the neoliberal job market. As the result, Korean teachers of English were placed at the center of issues in relation to public English education. With the implementation of new English education policies, such as CLT, TETE, EPIK, and IETTP, Korean teachers of English were constantly compared to the native or native-like English speaking teachers as they were being pushed to be better English speakers. Also, being blamed for poor public English education by the government and the media, the identities of Korean teachers of English became weakened and threatened. Two language ideologies, necessitation and self-deprecation, have been adopted to explain what social meanings Korean society and Korean teachers of English attach to English. Necessitation explained Korea’s obsession with English education pointing out that English is considered as a language everyone must be equipped with in order to survive and flourish in the era of internalization. Self-deprecation was described as particularly relevant to the Korean teachers of English in terms of their identities and roles as English teachers. This Korean-specific language ideology views Koreans as lacking sufficient competence to use English meaningfully. This strong generalization about Koreans’ incompetence in English is related to the emphasis of native-like English proficiency and linguistic insecurity discussed in the beginning of this thesis. These two language ideologies continue to be reinforced in neoliberal discourses on individual accountability. Feeling constantly insecure about their English, Korean teachers of English are required to be accountable for their incompetence in English while being pushed to reach the unreachable nativeness.

Through the contextualizing IETTP, this thesis showed that TETE acted as a catalyst for IETTP in the immediate socio-political context. Being described as a way to significantly improve public English education, TETE created a need for having an intensified form of teacher training that would produce TETE-capable teachers. For the medium term socio-political context, the government’s strong drive of the *segyehwa* (globalization) policy was described. Along with the neoliberal education reform proposals, the government’s decisions on the early compulsory English education and on the subsequent implementation of TETE were justified by and continued under the *segyehwa* policy. While the Korean Teachers and Educational Workers’ Union (commonly called *Jeongyojo*), a contemporary socio-political organization, has been opposed to the government’s English education policies, their criticism has kept to early and compulsory public English education in elementary schools. The voices of Korean teachers of English about recent educational policies including IETTP have seldom been heard. This thesis argues that the submissive attitude of teachers about directly relevant educational issues supports the unequal power relation between the government and the Korean teachers of English. The neoliberal era and its influences were discussed as an epoch. Under the neoliberal influences, English language gained the elevated importance in Korean society, which resulted in a number of new educational policies for students and teachers. In the neoliberal era, individuals’ distinguished English proficiency is regarded as more the fruitful results of their efforts than their belonging to the upper or privileged class, and thus the neoliberal society shifts the issues of Korean teachers’ English proficiency solely onto teachers’ shoulders. In this atmosphere, Korean teachers of English were downgraded to unsuccessful self-entrepreneurs or unskilled technicians.

The intended aim of IETTP is to train Korean teachers of English to be TETE-capable. This clear purpose reflects the ways the government problematizes public English education, and how it deals with the issues. While the stated aims convince the reader of the necessity of those proposed actions, they are also circulated through the media and by the academy. Through the process of being implemented by the government, publicized by the media and favorably evaluated by the academy, IETTP became naturalized and maintained in society.

Utilizing the evidentiary, accountability and political warrant, IETTP has been justified as a necessary policy. Around the time of implementing TETE and IETTP, the government attempted to quantify the English skills of Korean teachers using some figures and findings. Supported by specific numbers and figures, what the government argues sounds more credible and trustworthy. The evaluation of the English ability of the teachers seems indisputable unless other opposing data is available in hand. This thesis claims that this evidentiary warrant should be seen in a critical light as the evidence is “the production of writers’ selections, omissions, and interpretations, and these decisions are imbued with values and embedded in ideology” (Hyatt, 2014, p. 51). On its execution plans, the government has been emphatic about the necessity of IETTP on the grounds of TEE. The logic the government relies on is that IETTP will improve the abilities of Korean teachers of English and this will bring about better outcomes of TETE. However, it is uncertain whether TETE will lead to better student learning and furthermore, the simplistic perspective of seeing teachers as educational technicians rather than autonomous professional is problematic. In the era of globalization where English skills of people is frequently associated with the national competitiveness, the reinforcement of public English education and the reduction of private education expenses have been the on-going goals of the governments. IETTP is described as a necessity by the government that will lead to the construction of better English education in schools and thus to the reduction of private education expenses as the majority of the public hope. By being justified by these evidentiary, accountability and political warrants, IETTP became the representative in-service teacher training program for Korean teachers of English.

From the deconstruction of the texts and discourses in the General Plan of IETTP, news articles, and research papers, it has been revealed that the General Plan of IETTP seeks to establish the legitimacy of its claims through interdiscursivity while the research papers do the same mainly through intertextuality. The analysis also reveals that inscribed and evoked evaluation is being utilized from the three different data sources to express their stances towards the policy and in-service teachers. Presupposition is also being used to construct convincing realities for their claims. From the deconstruction of IETTP, this thesis argues that the texts and discourses produced by the government are reproduced and reinforced by the media and the academy. Specifically, the newspapers circulate the governments’ texts and discourses in their own ways while the research papers implicitly support the government’s stance and reinforce the necessity of the policy, as the result. In this process, Korean teachers of English are being described as passive and incapable beings who need constant improvement and development. They are being pushed into striving to be better English teachers framed by the neoliberal influences.

**Revisiting the Research Questions**

Based on the key findings, this section shows how this thesis has answered each research question posed at the beginning of this thesis.

**Question 1**: What is the justification for the heavy emphasis on improving English speaking skills of in-service Korean teachers of English?

**Answer 1**: The purpose of IETTP is justified on the grounds that TETE-capable teachers will result in better student learning and better public English education.

**Question 2**: What is the historical background of the emergence of IETTP?

**Answer 2**: This thesis claims that IETTP emerged to address the existing issues of established

pre-service EFL teacher education which had been evaluated as lacking in terms of producing competent EFL teachers.

**Question 3**: What language ideologies of English exist in Korean society and how are they affecting English teaching and learning in the country?

**Answer 3**: Among other language ideologies discussed previously, this thesis adopted necessitation and self-deprecation to explain the social meanings that Korean society and Korean teachers of English attach to English. While necessitation explained Korea’s obsession with English education, self-deprecation was described as particularly relevant to the identities and roles of Korean teachers of English.

**Question 4**: In what socio-political context did IETTP emerge and in what ways has IETTP been justified, legitimized, and sustained?

**Answer 4**: Under the government’s strong drive of the *segyehwa* policy, new English education policies, such as CLT, TETE, EPIK, and IETTP, were implemented. This thesis showed that TETE acted as a catalyst for IETTP in the immediate socio-political context. While IETTP has been justified as a necessary policy utilizing the evidentiary, accountability and political warrant, the General Plan of IETTP seeks to establish the legitimacy of its claims through interdiscursivity. This thesis argues that the texts and discourses produced by the government are reproduced and supported by the media and the academy.

**Question 5**: What are some naturalized discourses in relation to IETTP? In what ways are they produced, reproduced and reinforced?

**Answer 5**: Some naturalized discourses in relations to IETTP are ‘TETE is the right path for better student learning of English.’, ‘Korean teachers of English need to be TETE-capable for better public English education.’, ‘IETTP is necessary to help Korean teachers of English become TETE-capable’. These discourses are mainly produced by the government, reproduced by the media, and reinforced by the academy.

**Question 6**: What power relations exist around IETTP and how do they affect each agent in the relations?

**Answer 6**: This thesis pointed out the unequal power relations between the government and Korean teachers of English. The unequal power dynamic was revealed through the ways how the government conceptualized issues of public English education and how it positioned in-service Korean teachers of English in the process of English education policy making and implementation. While Korean teachers of English have constantly been evaluated, judged, and blamed for the mal-functioning public English education, the voices of these teachers have seldom been heard. The attitude of the government towards Korean teachers of English has influenced the creation of the passive and incompetent images of Korean teachers of English granting the government legitimate power to control and resolve the problematized situation.

**Contribution of this Research**

The contribution of this research is closely related to the methodological approach adopted. Like other research that has utilized the CDA approach or the CPDA framework, this research attempted to look into power relations and inequalities analyzing discourses and texts, and revealed the unequal power relations between the government and Korean teacher of English. Given that there seems to be no research adopting the framework of CDA or CPDA to study IETTP, the findings of this research can contribute to widening the scope of research on IETTP, and also to raising the awareness of power dynamics in the process of educational policy making and implementation. The fact that this research also provided a historical and ideological understanding of EFL teacher education in South Korea makes this research a more fruitful source of the same kind of research.

**7.2 Limitations of the Research**

Firstly, some limitations of this research are related to its theoretical framework and the translation of originally Korean texts and discourses. The interpretations that I made are inevitability influenced by my positionality, personal experiences, and views about the topics of this thesis. Some may agree or disagree with the interpretations made here. And some may be indifferent to this type of critical inquiry. Therefore, generalization of my interpretations is inherently limited. Also, the unavoidable translation process from Korean to English leaves possible credibility issues with the analysis though it tried to minimize the issues by doing third-party translation when only Korean versions are available.

Secondly, this research is very limited in incorporating voices of in-service teachers and policymakers. The insights of in-service teachers and additional information from policymakers can deepen and widen the interpretations and recommendations of this research, when the work is done more collaboratively.

**7.3 Recommendations for Policy and Practice**

This thesis hopes to raise the question as to whether or not the IETTP is justifiable and maintainable. It opposes the ways that the government problematizes issues in relation to public English education. It calls for our reconsideration of the aims of in-service teacher education for Korean teachers of English, particularly IETTP. This thesis calls for our rethinking of in-service teacher education for Korean teachers of English, and of in-service teachers of English with the consideration of the hidden power dynamics exist around IETTP.

In terms of policy recommendations, more fundamental issues in relation to the conception and practice of pre-service and in-service English teacher education programs could be considered. Some questions that could be posed, and that inform policy recommendations, might be, for example, ‘Is current pre-service teacher education producing competent English speakers, as it aims? If not, what are the issues and what should be done to resolve them?’ ‘If pre-service teacher education produces competent English speakers, in what ways the aims of IETTP can be adjusted, accordingly?’ ‘What are we missing at the cost of the overemphasis on improving English proficiency of Korean teachers through IETTP?’. At the same time, the top-down approach to public English education driven by the government should be reconsidered inviting various voices from the field of education. Particularly, the voices from in-service teachers about better teaching should be heard and incorporated in policy making. The existing perspective devaluing in-service Korean teachers of English will never count for anything. In-service Korean teachers should be seen as one of the only beings who can draw the best educational result for their students. In fact, they are the only ones who should and can bring about changes in classroom.

In terms of practice, active communications among teachers should be encouraged through some forms of teacher unions, English subject-professional associations, or regular conferences, in which they share their teaching ideas, activities or skills. The experiences of in-service Korean teachers of English as leaners and teachers should not be ignored and undervalued as they are one of the strengths of NNESTs. What we need to grapple with is not pushing them to be better proficient English speaker (as it is their life-long task) but helping them to be a competent guide or a good example of an English learner for their students. For this reason, the unquestioned assumption viewing NESTs are better teachers should be critically reconsidered in this country and our direction should be searching for ways how NNESTs and NESTs learn and benefit from each other and how they collaborate better when they work together. For this endeavor, this thesis calls for more institutional level of aid and support to elicit more autonomous and communal involvement of teachers.

**7.4 Recommendations for Further Research**

This thesis has attempted to denaturalize and destabilize the unequal power relations created by texts and discourses of the dominant. However, it does not lead to social emancipation of those who are dominated and oppressed as CDA ultimately aims to. It is hoped that awareness about the unequal power relationship between the government and Korean teachers of English, and its consequences on the identities and roles of the teachers can lead to emancipating the teachers from the given image of being passive and incapable beings as English teachers. Further research can possibly examine the voices of Korean teachers of English as they talk about themselves as English teachers, and the ways how they make their voices heard in relations to the relevant educational practices and policies.

For teacher education for Korean teachers of English in general, it is hoped that the critical analysis of IETTP along with the historical and ideological understanding of EFL teacher education can provide new or different perspectives on the issues. Equipped with better historical, contextual and ideological understanding about EFL teacher education, each stakeholder of public English education should be able to make right and fair decisions, and to foster productive involvement in relevant practices and policies. Maintaining critical views is necessary not to be just critical but to induce healthy discussions and improvements among the stakeholders. Korean teachers of English should no longer be seen as the causes and remedies of mal-functioning public English education. This new view of the teachers can be the starting point of facing the emerging issues squarely.

**7.5 Final Thoughts**

The journey of writing this thesis was the most challenging task that I have ever had. Nothing was easily done and everything needed my continuous and conscious efforts. Making each step forward was tough for me, which taught me to be humble and patient in many ways. Lots of things happened personally and academically. The best part of it has been my growth as a researcher, and a mother of three children.

Looking back on the past years of my doctoral journey, I would not have even started it if I had anticipated everything I experienced throughout those years. To be honest, I am truly thankful that I was ignorant about what the doctoral journey was really like. I am so grateful that I finally finished this thesis despite all the twists and turns. The greater the difficulty, the greater the gratitude. I am deeply thankful to everyone who made this journey possible.

**Notes**

\* Transliteration of Korean in this article follows the Revised Romanization system (National Institute of Korean Language, 2000), except for proper names which are known to use alternative spellings

\* Fairclough (2003) defines new capitalism as ‘the most recent of a historical series of radical re-structurings through which capitalism has maintained its fundamental continuity’ (p. 4) citing Jessop (2000).

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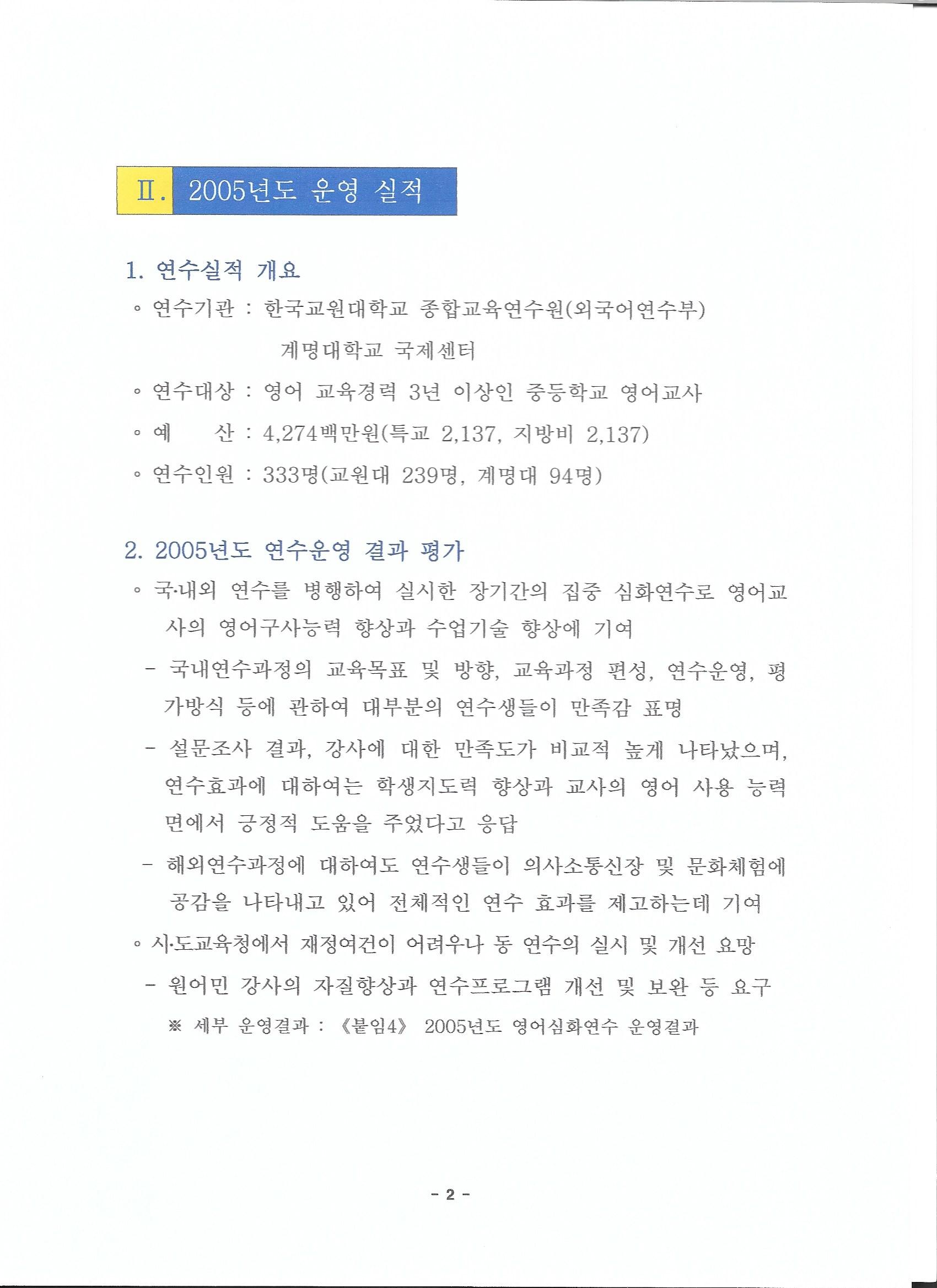
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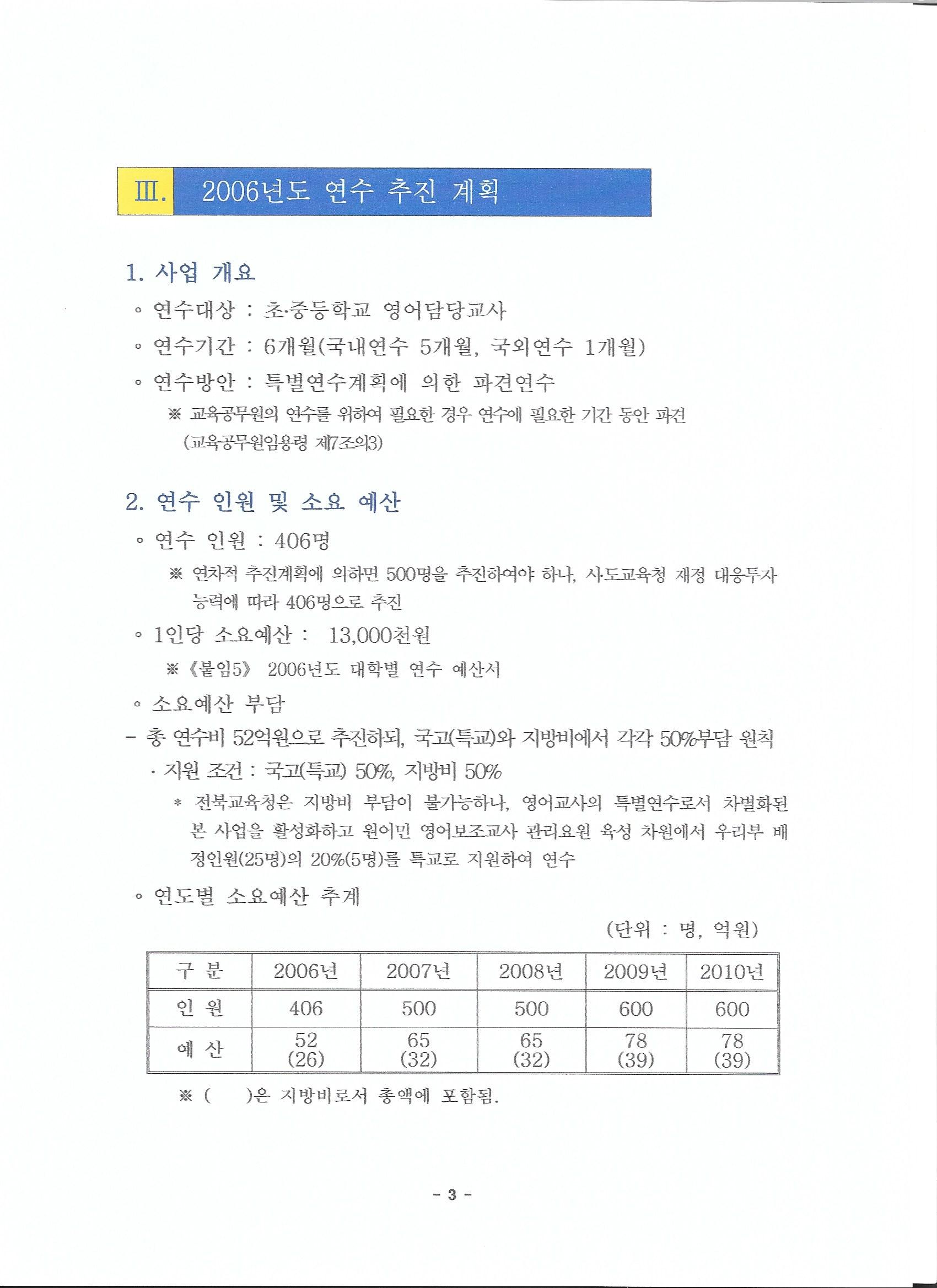
**Appendices**

**Appendix A. General Plan of Intensive Training for English Teachers in 2006**

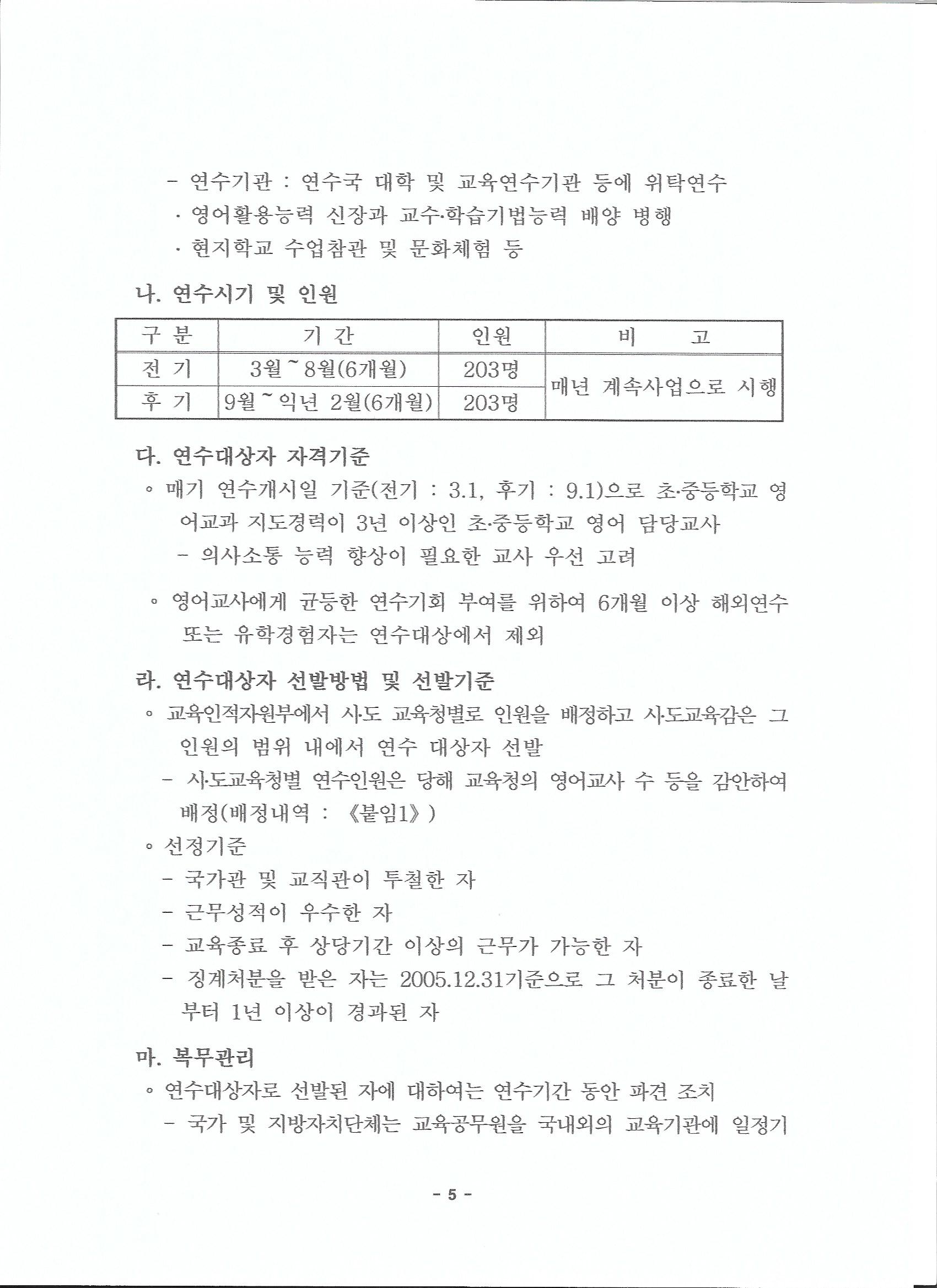


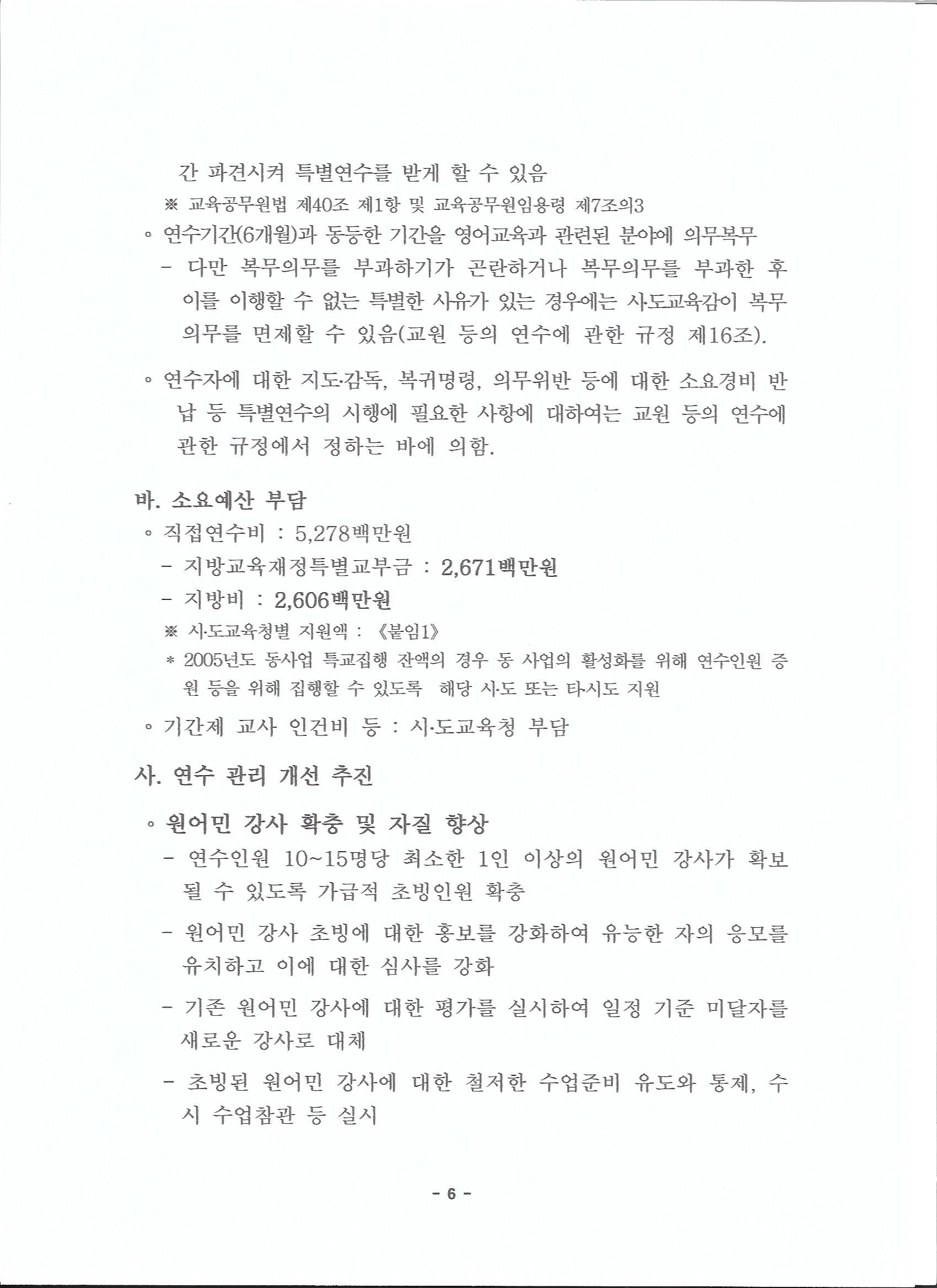


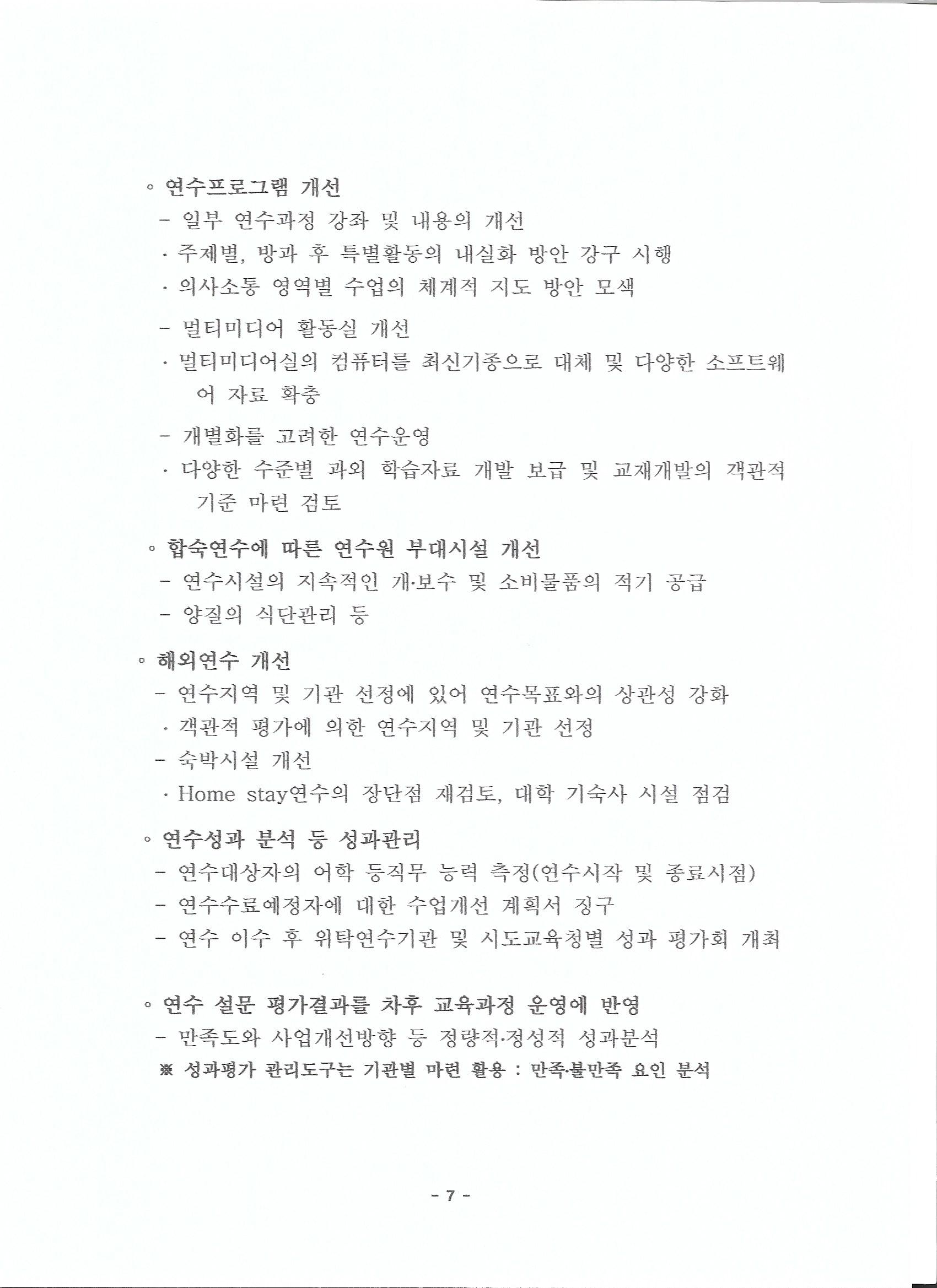


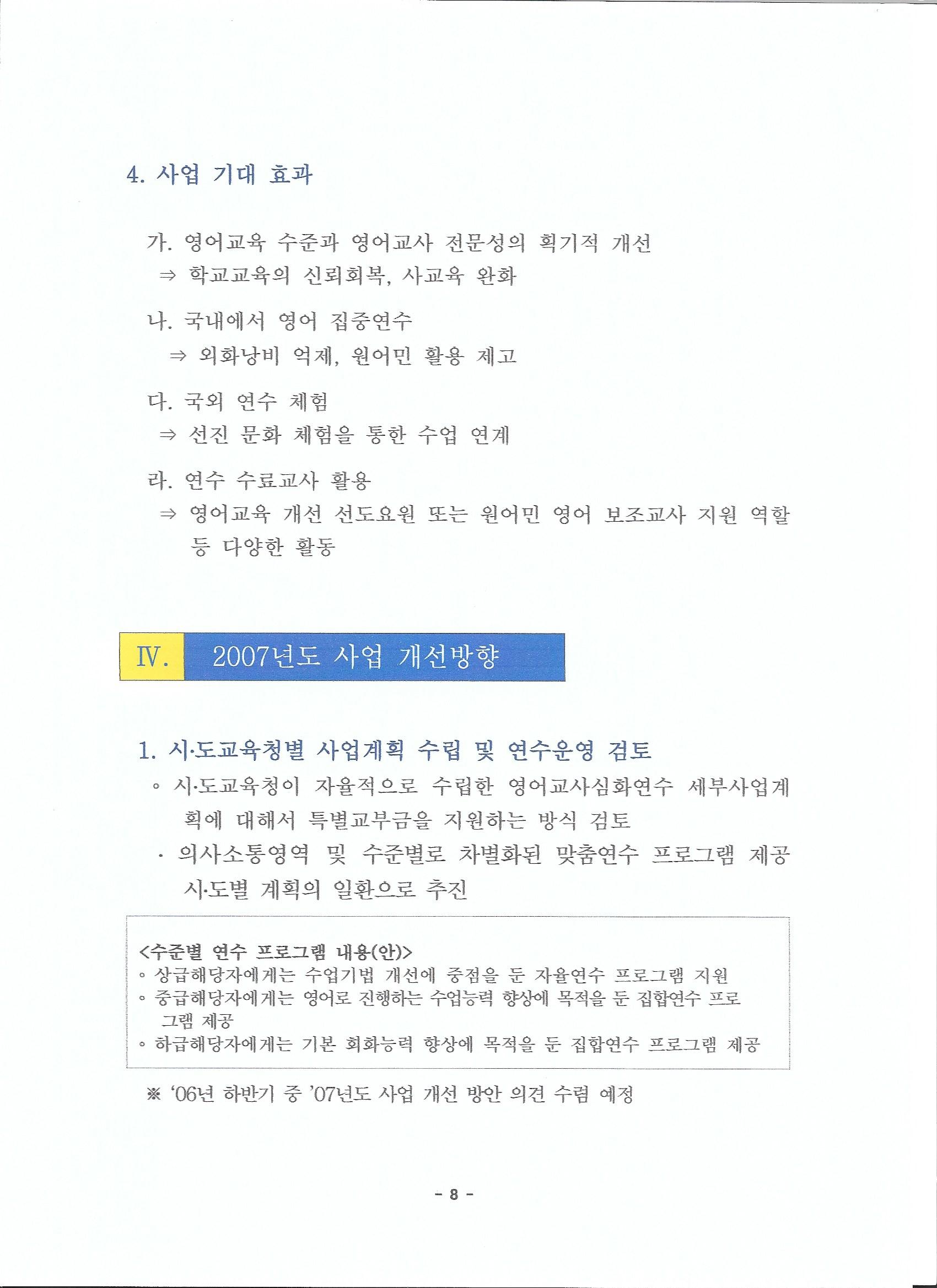


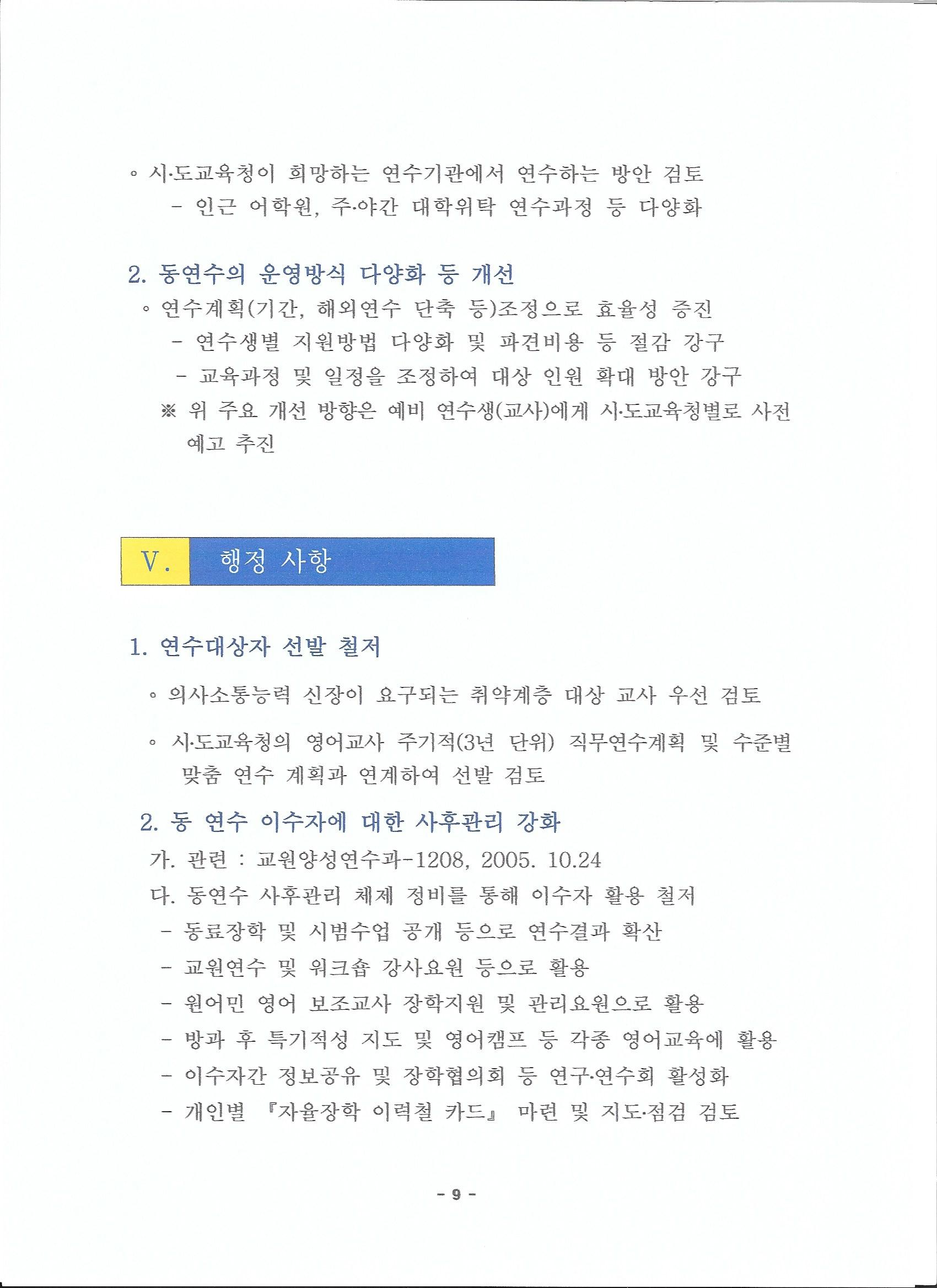


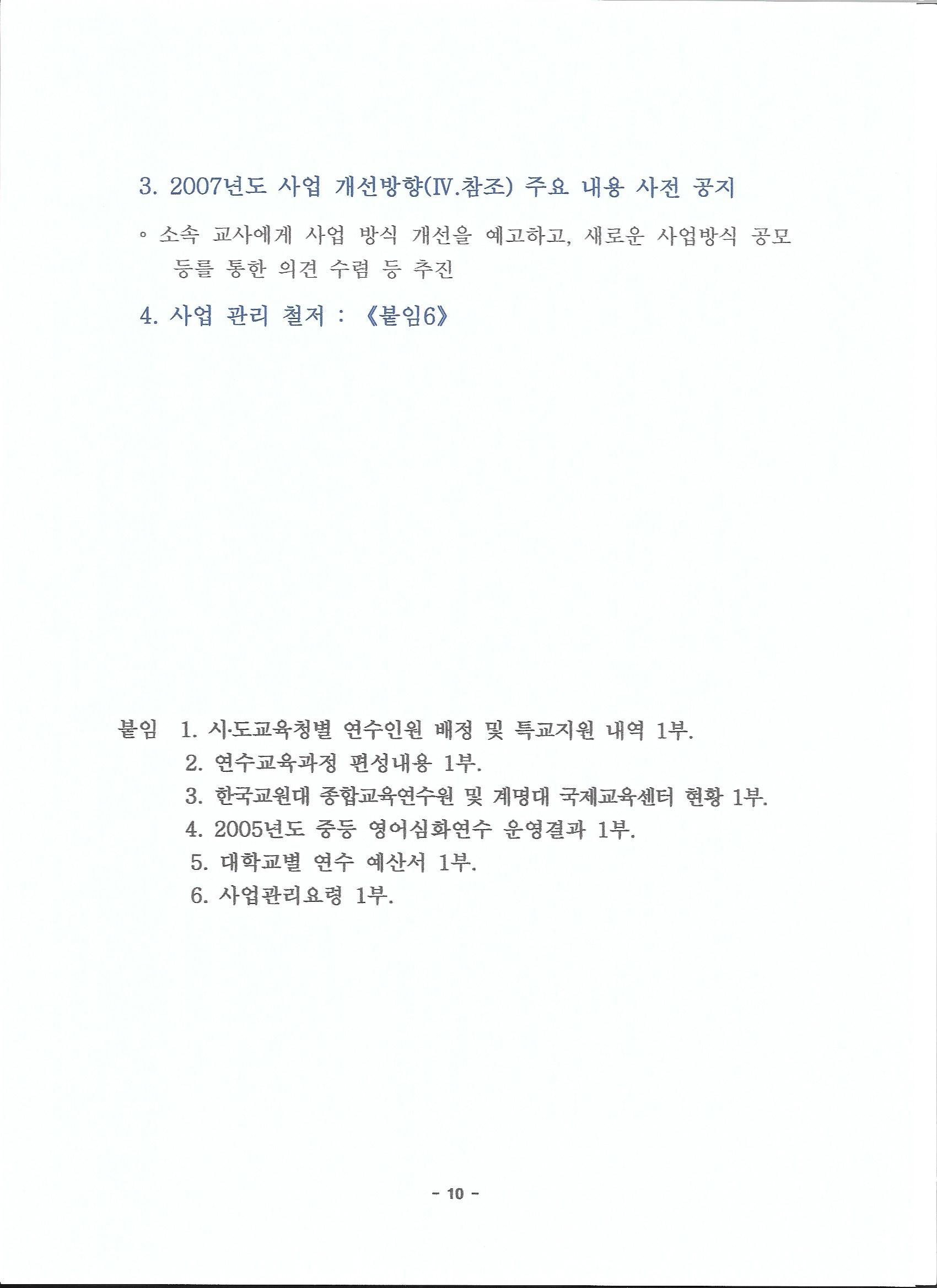












**\* English Translation of the General Plan of Intensive Training for English Teachers in 2006**

